


7-1-2016

ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN TITLE I PROGRAMS IN NEW MEXICO PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Gabriel C. Baca

Follow this and additional works at: https://digitalrepository.unm.edu/educ_teelp_etds

 Part of the [Educational Administration and Supervision Commons](#), and the [Educational Leadership Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Baca, Gabriel C.. "ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN TITLE I PROGRAMS IN NEW MEXICO PUBLIC SCHOOLS."
(2016). https://digitalrepository.unm.edu/educ_teelp_etds/50

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Education ETDs at UNM Digital Repository. It has been accepted for inclusion in Teacher Education, Educational Leadership & Policy ETDs by an authorized administrator of UNM Digital Repository. For more information, please contact disc@unm.edu.

Gabriel C. Baca

Candidate

Teacher Education, Educational Leadership and Policy

Department

This Dissertation is approved, and is acceptable in quality and form for publication:

Approved by the Dissertation Committee:

Arlie Woodrum, Ed.D., Co-Chairperson

Allison M. Borden, Ed.D., Co-Chairperson

Rebecca Blum-Martínez, Ph.D.

Viola E. Florez, Ed.D.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN TITLE I PROGRAMS

IN

NEW MEXICO PUBLIC SCHOOLS

BY

Gabriel C. Baca

B.A., Spanish, University of New Mexico, 1990

M.A., Secondary Education, University of New Mexico, 1995

DISSERTATION

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Educational Leadership

The University of New Mexico

Albuquerque, New Mexico

July 2016

DEDICATION

Thanks to God for the opportunities He has placed in my path and for the strength and determination He has provided me throughout my life and my education.

This dissertation would not have been possible without the love and support of my family. They have sacrificed countless hours in my pursuit of this goal, while giving me the “apoyo” that has kept me strong.

My parents instilled in me the value of education. My mom and dad, Gabriel and Rosina Baca, have always told me I could do anything. Thanks for believing in me and preparing me for life.

Amabilís and Gabriela, my son and daughter, are great kids. They have always known me working on my paper. Thanks for your patience. Finish your degrees early. If I can do it, you surely can. I’m proud of both of you.

And finally, to my wife, Lori. You have shown me what dedication and hard work can accomplish. You inspire me. Thank you for your support and for taking care of me and our family, and everything else, while you helped me to finish.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I have enjoyed the support and guidance of several key individuals in the process, from beginning to completion of this degree.

Dr. Arlie Woodrum and Dr. Allison M. Borden, my dissertation co-chairs, kept me on track and offered encouragement and guidance throughout this process. Your positive attitudes and thoughtful questions have guided me. Your constructive feedback and direction helped me refine my thoughts and ideas. During times when I seemed to be moving slowly, or not all, you both cheered me onward.

Dr. Vi Florez and Dr. Rebecca Blum-Martínez, my dissertation committee members, provided valuable advice and comments that strengthened my paper and assisted me to define my scope of work and focus more clearly on the ELL population in New Mexico.

I will always appreciate the students, parents, educational assistants, teachers, principals, administrators, New Mexico Public Education Department staff, and other educational personnel with whom I have interacted throughout my career. Special thanks go to the former federal and Title I Directors who piloted the survey and interview questions. Finally my utmost gratitude goes to the New Mexico Title I Directors who participated in the surveys and interviews that made this study possible.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN TITLE I PROGRAMS

IN

NEW MEXICO PUBLIC SCHOOLS

by

Gabriel C. Baca

B.A., Spanish, University of New Mexico, 1990

M.A., Secondary Education, University of New Mexico, 1995

Ed.D., Educational Leadership, University of New Mexico, 2016

ABSTRACT

Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (20 U.S.C. 6301 et seq.) and subsequent reauthorizations require the United States Department of Education to distribute funding to states that ultimately goes to local school districts for the purpose of improving the academic achievement of disadvantaged students, including English Language Learners (ELLs). In New Mexico, 64% of public school students participate in Title I programs, and 16% of all New Mexico students are ELLs. However, no studies to date have explored how New Mexico public school districts are implementing Title I with respect to English Language Learners.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to conduct document review and to survey and interview Title I Directors in New Mexico school districts to determine how Title I is implemented with respect to English Language Learners.

Results indicated that ELL students participate in New Mexico Title I Programs. Results also indicated that, in addition to the academic needs of students in general, ELLs in Title I Programs in New Mexico have additional needs based on their academic English skills, and in some cases, poverty. To meet these needs, bilingual programs, including the dual language model, are common within the organizational structures. Study participants revealed that collaboration, bilingual education programs, and parent involvement play key roles in fostering the goals of Title I. Significantly, study participants did not indicate that they treat ELLs as a burden. Rather, when thinking about the ELLs in their districts, directors understand these are the students they are serving. As one director exclaimed, “That’s who our kids are.”

These results have important implications for optimizing the education of ELL students in New Mexico, including improvements in organizational structures, improved programs for parents, and increases in professional development. Combined, the findings of this study highlight how New Mexico public school districts are implementing Title I with respect to English Language Learners.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
Background	1
Number of Impacted Students and Dollars	2
Does School Make a Difference?	4
Teacher Expectations	5
Supplemental Support for Public Education	5
Title I and Title III	6
Statement of the Problem	7
Purpose of the Study	9
Research Question	10
Significance of the Study	10
Assumptions	11
The Researcher	12
Possible Researcher Bias	12
Definition of Terms	13
Summary	15
CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE	17
Early Goals of Education in the United States	17
State Responsibility	17

A Uniform Citizenry	18
The Language of Instruction	18
School as the Vehicle	20
Factors Affecting Education Then and Now	22
Accountability	22
Effects of Schooling	23
Effects of Teacher Expectations	27
Educational Opportunity Today	29
Federal Role in Education	37
Title I of the ESEA	38
Bilingual Education	39
ELLs – Title I Participation	41
Citizen’s Commission on Civil Rights	44
Summary of Reviewed Literature	44
CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH METHODS	46
Purpose of the Study	46
Context of the Study	47
Study Design	48
Instrumentation and Data Sources	50
Documents for Review	50
Survey Questionnaire	50
Interviews	51
Study Participants	52

Procedures.....	54
Permissions	54
Document Review.....	54
Survey Questionnaires	54
Interviews.....	55
Data Analysis	56
Document Review.....	56
Survey and Interview Data.....	56
Triangulation.....	57
Role of the Researcher and Protection against Researcher Bias.....	58
Standards of Quality and Methods to Establish Trustworthiness	61
Protection of Human Subjects	61
Summary of Research Methods	62
CHAPTER 4 RESULTS.....	63
Data Sources and the Background of Study Participants.....	63
Document Analysis: Title I Applications	63
Survey Questionnaires of Title I Directors	63
Demographics of Survey Questionnaire Participants	64
Home Language in the Districts of Survey Participants.....	72
Interviews of Title I Directors.....	73
Demographics of Interview Participants.....	73
Findings Related to the Research Question	74
ELLs in Title I Programs	75

Collaboration in Title I, Bilingual Education, and Indian Education Programs	94
Professional Development	103
Poverty, Language, and Educational Disruption	107
Overcoming Challenges: Positive Expectations, the Need for Change, and the Federal Role in Education.....	113
ELL Students are Our Students.....	119
Summary of Results	123
CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION.....	125
Review of Research Question.....	125
Study Findings in the Context of the Literature.....	126
ELLs are Included in Title I Programs in New Mexico Public Schools.....	126
ELLs Are Our Students, Period	128
Effects of Poverty	130
Improving the System.....	131
Implications and Recommendations	133
Limitations of the Study.....	135
Sample.....	135
Measures	136
Design	136
Areas for Future Research	136
Conclusion	138
REFERENCES.....	139

APPENDIX A CASES AND LAWS RELEVANT TO ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN THE UNITED STATES	157
APPENDIX B EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR STUDENTS WHO ARE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS...	159
APPENDIX C EMAIL INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY (QUESTIONNAIRE).....	163
APPENDIX D SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE.....	164
APPENDIX E CONSENT FORM FOR INTERVIEW PARTICIPANTS	170
APPENDIX F INTERVIEW QUESTIONS	174
APPENDIX G TELEPHONE SCRIPT FOR INVITING DIRECTORS TO PARTICIPATE IN THE STUDY (INTERVIEW).....	176

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 Characteristics of Interview Participants' Districts	53
Table 2 Enrollment Size of District	64
Table 3 Configuration of Director Position	65
Table 4 Academic Needs of Spanish-speaking and Native American Language- background ELLs	76

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Length of time in Title I position.	66
--	----

Chapter 1

Introduction

Background

During my pre-student teaching experience in Albuquerque, New Mexico, I was assigned to a master English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher who taught a class of about 60 percent native speakers of Spanish and about 40 percent students from Southeast Asia. Mr. Johnson was an outstanding, natural teacher who conveyed genuine concern for his students and held high academic standards for the students and for himself. He believed the best way to help his students was to prepare them for life in the United States and this preparation involved the development of academic English skills. I learned much from my semester in Mr. Johnson's classroom.

My first job in education was teaching ESL to middle school students in Albuquerque's South Valley. As I began to work with these students and started to get to know them, I thought about their dual tasks of acquiring academic English and mastering academic content delivered in English, and how much my fifty-minute-per-day ESL class was contributing to these ends.

Over the years, I have held positions in which I have overseen bilingual and Title I Programs at the district level and Title I Programs at the state level. At each point in my career, I have thought back to my first classes of ESL students and wondered how the programs in which I have been involved would have affected them, their families, and others like them.

Many legal cases have shaped the experiences of English Language Learners (ELLs) in our public school system (Appendix A). I approached this study from a

paradigm focused on outcomes, not inputs, as the ultimate measure of program effectiveness (Chubb & Moe, 1990). The topic of programmatic outcomes requires reflection on the purpose of schooling in the U.S. public system of education. Although ELLs are central to this study, they themselves are a subgroup of public school students. Therefore, as part of the background for this research study, it is necessary to briefly discuss the stated purposes of schooling in the United States.

Access and equity are not new themes in American education. The question of immigrants achieving success in America is as old as the U.S. public education system itself. Graham (2005) discussed assimilation and patriotism as major goals of public education from 1900 until at least 1920. Earlier still, America's common schools had been established with the aim of ensuring eventual equality for all. "The schools were expected to make social equality a reality by giving students an equal chance to develop their mental powers to the fullest" (Ravitch, 2000, p. 19). This goal for public education in the late 1800s remains essential for schools today.

Preparing immigrant students for success in the United States should continue to be a focus of public education. When immigrant students receive a good education and go on to become successful, contributing members of society, all Americans benefit (Crosnoe & López-Turley, 2011; Goodlad, 2004; Izlar, 2010). Supplemental federal education funding has been apportioned to support this goal.

Number of Impacted Students and Dollars

During the 2011-2012 academic year, 64 percent of the total public school population, or 213,169 students in New Mexico Public Schools, participated in Title I Programs. At 55,019 students, ELLs made up 16 percent of the total student population

in New Mexico. Of the ELL students in New Mexico, 82% (45,238 students) were listed as participating in Title I programs (NMPED, 2013). This number included those ELLs who attend schoolwide Title I schools, where all students are considered Title I students. In the 12 targeted Title I schools, only ELL students for whom a Title I program box has been checked in the school's database receive Title I services.

During the 2011-2012 academic year, 34,493 Native American students, representing twenty-two tribes and eight language groups, were enrolled in New Mexico public schools. This figure represented 10 percent of the total statewide student population. The majority of these students attended public schools in the northwestern part of the state. While their academic achievement might be similar to that of Hispanic ELLs, Native American students differ in that none of these students are immigrants, as their history in this region predates all other language and culture groups, many of their languages are oral, and many are fluent in conversational English.

During the 2011-2012 academic year, of the 45,238 ELL students served by Title I programs in New Mexico, 7,543 (17%) had a Native American home language. The Native American home languages were represented as follows: Navajo, 85%; Keres, 9%; Zuni, 4%; Tewa, 1%; Towa, 1%; Tiwa, 0.3%; Jicarilla Apache, 0.05%; and Mescalero Apache, 0.05% (NMPED, 2013). As part of my research, I wanted to discover the specific ways in which Native American ELLs have participated in Title I Programs. In schoolwide settings, students may not have received specific interventions, but may have benefited from the overall education reform efforts implemented at the schools. It was not known if the Title I services offered to these students had been specifically designed to address their needs due to their ELL status.

During the 2011-2012 academic year, \$109,861,746 in Title I flow-through funds were allocated to 87 public school districts and 29 state charter schools in New Mexico. These figures represent a significant number of New Mexico students and public education dollars. To the best of my knowledge, no study to date has investigated the participation of ELLs in Title I programs in New Mexico public schools.

Does School Make a Difference?

An ongoing issue that affects many students (including ELLs) is educational inequality. This was discussed in an early study by Jencks, Smith, Acland, Bane, Gintis, Heyns, and Michelson (1972) who stated that public schools do not have much effect on the academic achievement and eventual adult success of students; rather it is the social class of students that will determine their future. Consequently, Jencks et al. (1972) maintained that, while schools should try to make an education enjoyable for students, they should not set their goal as raising the academic achievement of all students. As many ELLs come from families in lower socioeconomic levels, to follow the advice of these authors would mean having low expectations for these students.

Coleman (1966) came to similar conclusions regarding the power of the public schools to change a student's academic and ultimate economic destiny. If these statements are true for non-ELLs, then the same reality exists for ELLs, although they begin their school experience far less ready to succeed in the world of academic English. These early studies notwithstanding, later research has demonstrated schools can make a difference, not just for ELLs, but for all students (Darling-Hammond & Friedlaender, 2008; Fryer & Levitt, 2004; Neal & Johnson, 1996; Nieto, 2005; Scribner & Scribner, 2001; Weber, 1971).

Teacher Expectations

Rist (1970) came to the conclusion that teacher expectations and peer groups both matter a great deal in predicting student achievement and success later in life. Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) reinforced the notion that teacher expectations have a dramatic impact on student levels of achievement. Even though these studies were not focused on ELLs in particular, the idea that teacher expectations can influence student achievement applies to all students (Rubie-Davies, Peterson, Irving, Widdowson, & Dixon, 2010).

Public schooling remains the most promising chance for poor children to break the cycle of poverty in the U.S. (Piche & Ruth, 2004). A quality education can often be the catalyst for positive change in the life of a child living in poverty (Darling-Hammond, 2007). Federal cases have been filed and laws changed to improve minority and ELL student access to the curriculum in our public schools (Hakuta, 2011). My study examined how supplemental Title I funds are used to this end for ELL students in New Mexico public schools.

Supplemental Support for Public Education

Federal education grants provide supplemental funding for public schools to help identified groups of students to meet challenging state academic standards. ELL students are to be provided first with a basic education, as are all other students (Lau v. Nichols, 1974). Supplemental federal programs should provide benefits in the form of additional specific programming (see Appendix B) that will help these students succeed in school (Uro & Barrio, 2013).

For this study, I explored the manner in which a specific stream of supplemental federal education funding, Title I, Part A of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act

of 1965, reauthorized as the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB, 2002) and reauthorized again in December of 2015 as the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), has resulted in programs and activities that benefitted English Language Learners in New Mexico public schools.

NCLB provided supplemental federal funds to local educational agencies to assist all students in achieving high educational standards (NCLB, 2002). English Language Learners (ELLs) are included in the category of all students and provisions have been made in the law specifically to address the educational needs of ELLs (Consentino de Cohen, Deterding, & Clewell, 2005; Fry, 2008; Lazarín, 2006; NCLB, 2002; NCREL, 2003).

Title I and Title III

In 2008, the Director of Student Achievement and School Accountability Programs for the United States Department of Education (USDE) announced to state Title I directors that the administration of Title III English Language Acquisition Office of the agency would be overseen by the same office that administers Title I (Z. Stevenson, Email to state Title I Directors, June 10, 2008). Title III is the NCLB program that provides funding for English language acquisition by ELLs. By placing this program under the administration of the same office that oversaw Title I, the USDE emphasized collaboration. The stated reasons for the move included a plan to improve the ability of staff to communicate and, ultimately, to add consistency and coordination in the administration of these programs for the benefit of LEP students. The move was preceded by the 2006 Building Partnerships to help English Language Learners initiative

(USDE, 2006). These actions at the federal level illustrate the connection between ELLs and the Title I Program.

As New Mexico and other states continue the process of educational reform, the measurement of progress toward academic proficiency across subgroups and subtests is paramount (NCLB, 2002). Because funds are limited, district leaders make strategic choices involving resources and about which groups of students will benefit from different funding sources. As ELLs are struggling, it may be helpful for district and state level leaders to see the levels at which these students are participating in Title I programs.

Statement of the Problem

No previous studies have explored how Title I is implemented with respect to English Language Learners in New Mexico public school districts. Most of the previous research on ELLs in Title I Programs has focused on basic numbers. Further, in New Mexico, Title I has always involved ELLs, though these students were not always labeled as such. In the early days of Title I, Gilbert Martinez, former State Chapter I Director recounted “...the students were described as ‘culturally deprived.’ I worked with Hispanic, Navajo, Pueblo, and Apache children. They weren’t ‘culturally deprived.’ They were culturally rich! We’ve dropped that term, and that was a change for the better” (Stringfield, 1991, p. 58.). I undertook this research because a study did not exist that described in detail the extent of ELL participation in Title I programs in New Mexico. Further, there is no study to date that examines the planning processes used by New Mexico school districts to determine how to spend these supplemental federal education funds.

The change incorporated into The Improving America's Schools Act of 1994 (Improving America's Schools Act (IASA) of 1994, 20 U.S.C. § 6301 et seq., 1994) concerning the eligibility of LEP students for Title I services is summed up in a memo from the Department of Education addressed to the chief state school officers on June 20, 1995 (as cited by August, Hakuta, Olguín, & Pompa, 1995, p. 7):

Title I Part A provides that LEP students are eligible for Title I services on the same basis as other children selected to receive services. No longer does a local education agency (LEA) need to demonstrate that the needs of LEP students stem from educational deprivation and not solely from their limited English proficiency.

This clarified the treatment of ELLs as students first and ELLs second.

Notwithstanding the content of this memo, schools and districts continued to label and separate services and students (Stein, 2001; Walker, Shafer, & Iiams, 2004). Through my experience, I have become aware of situations where teachers and administrators believed that they had to choose either Title I or bilingual services for students who qualified for, and could have benefited from, both programs.

In the wake of NCLB timelines and waivers, the issue of Title I services provided to ELLs remains constant. The funds are intended to help students achieve challenging state standards. Limited English Proficient (LEP) students are mentioned by name in the Title I Statement of Purpose in SEC. 1001, the schoolwide program design description in SEC. 1114(a)(2)(B), and the targeted program design description in SEC 1115(b)(2)(A) (NCLB, 2002). This specific mention of LEPs/ELLs in the law highlights the need for this study, especially in New Mexico with its high ELL population and significant Title I

allocation. For these reasons, what was needed was a study specifically designed to assess how New Mexico districts implement Title I for ELL students.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the ways New Mexico Title I programs are implemented to meet the needs of ELL students in the context of the law: to provide supplemental educational services to disadvantaged (poor) children in New Mexico who are not achieving at grade level (Jennings, 2001; NCLB, 2002). Title I funds are used nationwide to address the needs of ELLs. In a 2013 study of ELLs in Great City Schools, Uro and Barrio found “Slightly over half of the districts (27 of 45) indicated that Title I funds were used to support ELL programs” (p. 84), but did not explore how these districts implemented the program. I examined the ways in which Title I Programs are implemented with respect to ELLs in the state of New Mexico. A 2005 study published by The Urban Institute included the following statement in its conclusion:

Perhaps because of the greater concentration of at-risk students and their eligibility for Title I funding, High-LEP (limited English proficient) schools are more likely to offer support and remedial programs, such as pre-K, enrichment, after-school, and summer school programs. They are also more apt to be involved in parental outreach and support activities. (Cosentino de Cohen et al., 2005, p. 14)

The IASA of 1994 eliminated a previous requirement “that programs distinguish between educational deprivation and limited English proficiency when determining eligibility for programming” (Anstrom, 1995, p. 8). This fact paved “the way for greater inclusion of LEP students in Title I services” (Anstrom, 1995, p. 8), but little is known

regarding how this inclusion is realized. Therefore, to fill this important gap in the literature, I specifically designed the present study to assess the familiarity of Title I Directors with the design of Title I programs in New Mexico schools regarding ELL students and to explore how these programs are implemented.

Research Question

This research was guided by the following question: How are Title I Programs being implemented in New Mexico public schools with respect to English Language Learners? Further, I addressed the ways in which decisions were made concerning the expenditure of Title I funds, the manner in which districts have considered Spanish speaking and Native American language background ELLs in the planning of their Title I Programs, and the participation of these students in the programs. Finally, I queried interview participants regarding the future of Title I services in their districts.

Significance of the Study

Some districts have implemented the same or similar Title I programs from year to year. This may be due to the needs they have and the amount of Title I funds they receive. In a paper describing the integration of bilingual and Title I services for students in Dearborn, Michigan, Arraf, Fayz, Sedgemen, and Haugen (1995, p. 15) reported, “Staff members need to engage themselves in constant inquiry. They need to be culturally aware of the needs of diverse groups, use sound instructional techniques based on current educational research, and believe in continuous professional development.” This means taking a fresh look at student needs every year. Shaul (1999) examined Title I services provided to LEP students in ten school districts in five states. Further, Multicultural Education Training & Advocacy Inc. (META) conducted a comprehensive

study that involved ELL student participation in 151 schools in Massachusetts (META, 1998). However, these studies were conducted in the 1990s and the present study updates the knowledge in these areas.

LEA Title I Directors have oversight of the entire district program. They complete the state application for Title I funding after receiving input from school leaders and examining district-wide data. Principals have consulted with teachers and parents and have evaluated the current and past implementation of their schools' programs. This should include an analysis of student achievement data as well as language proficiency data. In this study, I explored Title I Program planning processes in New Mexico, filling this gap in the literature.

I will make the results of this study available to all New Mexico schools as well as to policy makers and educators nationwide. The study adds to research in the field that provides decision-makers with examples of multiple ways of using Title I funds to raise the achievement of ELLs.

Assumptions

As a former public school educator, administrator, and a product of public schools in California and New Mexico, I believe in the capacity and obligation of our system to provide an excellent education for all children. While a continuum of quality continues to exist in public schools, so does tremendous potential for excellence. Public schools are able to provide better services to all students with current levels of funding. By improving attention to student needs, standards and curriculum, and raising expectations, educational outcomes can be improved for all students, including ELLs.

If a child's prospects for success are solely dependent on family background and income, then what is the point of public schooling (Coleman, 1966; Jencks et al., 1972; Towers, 1992)? I continue to believe that high quality public education can make a difference in the lives of all students. This is especially important for those who live in poverty. These are the students on whom we should base the success of our public education system. If public education is not making a positive difference for these children, it has failed. In this context, I assume that all study participants were honest and candid regarding how Title I is implemented in their districts.

The Researcher

My past position as Assistant Title I Director for the New Mexico Public Education Department (NMPED), and years of involvement with ELLs in the roles of teacher, school site coordinator, district bilingual and federal programs director, and New Mexico Association for Bilingual Education President have led me to pursue this dissertation topic.

Possible Researcher Bias

During the interview process, my former position as Assistant Title I Director and my position as NMPED Special Education Director may have affected participant responses. However, I followed all IRB and ethical safeguards in the course of the research to minimize this possibility. Senior management at NMPED was aware of the study. Names of interviewees were not disclosed to NMPED. Participants were provided with an informed consent form, assuring confidentiality, and containing language guaranteeing that the data collected would not make it possible to identify individuals or their school districts. I explained to participants, in writing and in person,

that this research was not connected to my employment at NMPED and that all study data would be kept private and confidential.

Definition of Terms

English Language Learner (ELL). ELL was the label in use by the US Department of Education at the time of the study to denote students who are not proficient in English. The four domains of language measured per Title III-A of the NCLB are: listening, speaking, reading, and comprehension (NCLB, 2002). In New Mexico, an English Language Learner is “a student whose first or heritage language is not English and who is unable to read, write, speak or understand English at a level comparable to grade-level English proficient peers and native English speakers” (NMAC 6.32.2.7, 2015). Students with limited English ability were first designated as a subgroup by Congress in 1967 (P.L. 90-247) (ESEA, 1967).

Limited English Proficient (LEP). LEP was the label used prior to ELL. At the federal level, LEP did not technically include the dimension of English comprehension within its definition.

Bilingual Program. New Mexico school districts implementing a state funded bilingual education program must provide instruction in two languages (one of which is English), provide sheltered content instruction, use a standardized curriculum, and address the history and cultures of New Mexico. When Native American languages are included, districts must obtain appropriate approval from tribal councils or equivalent entities before offering instruction in these languages. “Time allotted for instruction in the home language must be equivalent to the time provided for English language arts and must be consecutive in nature” (NMAC 6.32.2.12(C)(1), 2015). Adherence to these

requirements is necessary for districts to receive state bilingual funding for their programs. The New Mexico State Constitution calls for the training of teachers so that they are qualified to teach in English and Spanish (N.M. Const. art. XII, §8, 1912).

The goals of New Mexico's Bilingual Multicultural Education programs are for all students to:

1. Become bilingual and biliterate in two languages: English and a second language (which includes Spanish, a Native American language or another language); and
2. Meet state academic content standards and benchmarks in all subject areas (NMPED, 2004, vii).

New Mexico school districts operating bilingual education programs must assess the English and home language proficiency of participating students annually, and comply with Title I and Title III federal assessment requirements, including ensuring students take part in the state standards-based assessment program (NMSA 22-23-1.1, 1978; NMAC 6.32.2.14, 2015).

Title I. Title I requires that all students take academic assessments in English. Districts are allowed to apply for a waiver for up to three years for newly arriving students. During this time, students may take the state academic assessment in their home language or in English with accommodations. After three years, districts may request a waiver for an additional two years of testing in the student's home language (NMPED, 2004). Title I, Part A of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 is the largest section of the Law both in funding and scope:

The purpose of this title is to ensure that all children have a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education and reach, at a minimum, proficiency on challenging state academic achievement standards and state academic assessments. (Public Law 107-110, Section 1111) (NLCB, 2002)

Number of New Mexico Districts Receiving Title I Funds

There are 89 public school districts in the state of New Mexico. During the 2011-2012 school year, 87 districts received Title I funds. I analyzed the 87 Title I applications from the 2011-2012 school year for the present study. I conducted surveys and interviews during the 2014-2015 school year. During the 2014-2015 school year, 88 districts received Title I funds. Thus, throughout this paper, I refer to 87 districts for 2011-2012 and 88 districts for 2014-2015.

Summary

This chapter detailed the research problem and the background regarding ELLs in Title I programs, along with a brief explanation of my experiences and the need for the present study.

Chapter Two provides a review of related literature. I included literature on the purposes of schooling in the U.S. in general, as well as writings addressing ELLs and supplemental federal funding for public education. There is a dearth of literature specifically targeting ELL participation in Title I Schools, which added to the rationale for the study. This review provides a foundation leading to the research methods I employed in the present study.

Chapter Three details the research methods. I analyzed Title I application documents, used a survey questionnaire to obtain general data from a large sample of Title I Directors, and conducted in-depth interviews of Title I Directors.

Chapter Four details the results of this study. Following a description of participant and district characteristics, I organized the results by topic to aid in interpretation of the findings.

Chapter Five includes a discussion of the results of this study in the context of the published literature reviewed in Chapter Two. I provide implications, along with study limitations, areas for future research, and the conclusions of this study.

Chapter 2

Review of Literature

This chapter provides a review of the literature regarding the goals of schooling in the United States, the federal role in public education, Title I Programs, instructional methods for ELLs, and the participation of ELLs in Title I Programs. This chapter ends with a summary of reviewed literature and identifies the gap that was filled with the present study.

Early Goals of Education in the United States

State Responsibility

The provision of schooling for children in the early communities of New England had been the responsibility of the local communities, and later, became the responsibility of the state (Jennings, 2001). This remained relatively unchanged until the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 (PL 89-10). ESEA was created to provide poor and LEP students with an opportunity to achieve high state standards, equal to those of other students (Jennings, 2001). For the past 50 years, the federal government has provided funds to states to ensure that these students receive additional help to enable them to achieve challenging state standards. These funds were intended to supplement the funds already spent on education by state and local governments. With federal funding came federal regulations. However, the U.S. government did not supplant the individual state's rights and responsibilities for the education of its citizens.

A Uniform Citizenry

In addition to teaching children basic skills, early public education in the U.S. was utilized to instill patriotism in them. Educators sought to create a uniform citizenry and to prepare youth to be ethical, hard-working, contributing members of the greater society (Tyack & Hansot, 1982). The goals for the immigrant population were the same. Schooling was aimed at promoting uniformity in immigrants, especially in the areas of language and citizenship (Graham, 2005). The development of moral character was also a goal of the public school (Tyack & Hansot, 1982).

The U.S. was a young country, and with the exception of the Native Americans and the progeny of the Spanish and other Europeans with whom they intermarried, comprised of immigrants. The Spanish had established settlements in northern New Mexico in 1598 (Hammond, 1927). To the east, the Americans had formed their own society, independent of England, and were intent on strengthening their new nation. As more immigrants arrived, civic and educational leaders sought to bring them into U.S. society as fully-fledged members. This meant they would have to acquire a common language, and knowledge of the history, civic responsibilities, goals, and culture of the United States. The public school was the principal institution by which this was to be accomplished.

The Language of Instruction

For some early immigrants of European descent, educational experiences included bilingual schools, most notably the German-English models in Ohio and Indiana. These schools flourished until 1919 (de Jong, 2011). Due to the onset of World War I, all German instruction in schools was ceased (Andersson, 1971). From its inception, the

U.S. purposefully did not establish an official language. The founders knew that English would become dominant without government sanction, and wished to treat language preference as a personal choice (Heath, 1976).

The experience of speakers of indigenous languages, however, has been much different. Native American students were not afforded the option of receiving an education in their mother tongue in the public schools. Missionaries were successful in teaching and training using native languages. However, government schools forbade the teachers and students to speak any language other than English (Reyhner, 1993). Students were sent away from their families to boarding schools, where their culture and customs were portrayed as inferior (Szasz, 1983). The policy of the U.S. Government was to educate these students exclusively in English and to educate Indians in a mainstream culture paradigm. Little or no value was ascribed to the students' language or background (Crawford, 1990; Reyhner, 1993).

Prior to 1848, New Mexico had been claimed, first by the Native Americans, then by Spain (1598-1821), then by Mexico (1821-1848), and finally by the U.S. Spanish had been spoken in New Mexico and used in school instruction since the Spaniards arrived. The use of Spanish in public schools continued. "In New Mexico, an 1884 law recognized public Spanish-language elementary schools, noting that the language of instruction would be left to the discretion of the director" (Malakoff & Hakuta, 1990, p. 28). New Mexico was a territory, political leaders were working toward statehood, and this meant that residents would have to learn English. However, a *Journal of Education* article from that era refers to the efficiency of using Spanish to teach content in the schools while students were learning the English language (Blodgett, 1891). After

statehood, however, like the Native Americans, Spanish speakers did not have access to education in their home language. While most of these students were not immigrants, Spanish was their primary, and in most cases, sole language. Instruction in Spanish and the speaking of Spanish by students were forbidden (de Jong, 2011).

School as the Vehicle

School made sense as a vehicle for the Americanization of the immigrant masses for a variety of reasons. Parents wanted to send their children to school to help them adjust to life in their new country, and high on their list of priorities was the acquisition of the English language. Children would share their learning with their families, and later pass on their knowledge of U.S. history and culture to their own offspring. Because of the teacher-to-student ratio, the public school provided an efficient means to inculcate U.S. culture into young minds. The history, traditions, rituals, values, and heroes of this country were passed on to generations of immigrant students in the schoolhouse.

Public schools continued to operate under a similar set of written and unwritten goals through most of the 20th century. While school was a place where the values and culture of U.S. mainstream society were taught, it was also a place where students were instructed in basic skills. Specialized skills were also provided to students preparing for certain trades after graduating. However, the number of students was small, and few reached high school (Graham, 2005). Although public schools were open to all students, the education they received often differed in quality, according to the income, race, and creed of their parents (Edmonds, 1977; 1979; Nieto, 2005).

For immigrants, school meant a place to learn English and American culture. However, their own language and culture, in many cases, were not valued (Andersson &

Boyer, 1970; Cordasco, 1971; 1973). In fact, Cordasco (1968), in speaking about the immigrant student in the American school, noted "...it forced him to leave his ancestral language at the schoolhouse door; it developed in the child a haunting ambivalence of language, of culture, of ethnicity, and of personal self-affirmation" (p. 199). In most cases, an immigrant student was also a low-income student.

Federal Response to Unequal Educational Opportunities

The quality and experience of teachers in schools attended by students living in poverty continue to be lower than educators in schools attended by affluent children (Darling-Hammond, 2007; Huang, Yi, & Haycock, 2002; Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2002; Nieto, 2005; USDE, 2002). During the 1950s and 1960s, laws were enacted in an attempt to redress the disparity in educational opportunity that existed in American public schools. The *Brown vs. Board of Education* Supreme Court decision held that a "separate but equal" education was a false concept, as "separate educational facilities are inherently unequal" (*Brown v. Board of Education*, 1954, p. 495). Black students, as well as most Hispanic and Asian students in segregated schools, did not receive the same quality of education as their White peers (Gándara, Moran, & Garcia, 2004).

By the early 1980s, public education in the U.S. was perceived by many to have failed in its entirety. *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education (NCEE), 1983) painted an alarming picture of the pervasively low academic achievement of U.S. students compared with students from other countries. This report was heralded by some as a wakeup call for the improvement of the quality of public education in the U.S. (Holton, 1984). Because of falling student achievement levels nationally, and rising achievement levels in countries such as the Soviet Union and Japan, the U.S. was

declared to be in danger of losing its top global economic position. Two responses to this report were a shift “back to basics” and a call for reform (Holton, 1984).

Factors Affecting Education Then and Now

Accountability

The publication of *A Nation at Risk* (NCEE, 1983) helped to usher in the standards and accountability movement (Holton, 1984). Taxpayers wanted to measure the impact of the billions spent annually on federal supplemental educational programs that had been in place since 1965. The American public feared the loss of its economic dominance in the world. The natural reaction to news of declining student achievement, despite the massive federal investment in education during the previous seventeen years, led in part to the focus on standards and accountability.

What was the return on the federal investment in education? Was increased funding making a difference in student achievement, and, in particular, for students living in poverty? Were federal dollars improving their educational and socioeconomic outcomes, as intended by the Johnson Administration when the President signed into law the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965? The intent of the law was to provide equal opportunity for students living in poverty so that they could have a chance at improving their standard of living through education.

One outcome of the standards and accountability movement has been to focus on English Language Arts and Math to the exclusion of other subjects and activities (Santoro, 2011). The reaction of many school districts to the call for accountability has been to significantly narrow the curriculum to include only information measured on high-stakes tests (Au, 2007). Many schools with high percentages of students living in

poverty eliminated the arts, recess, and physical education to instead focus on reading and arithmetic. These refocused efforts, in many cases, did not lead to lasting academic achievement, but rather to the demoralization of some teachers (Santoro, 2011).

In schools where student academic achievement did increase, improved results were not achieved through increased time spent on ineffective models of teaching and learning. Student achievement improved when educators changed the way they delivered the curriculum, and equally as important, when teachers adopted high expectations for students (Rubie-Davies et al., 2010).

When we control for socioeconomic status, the racial achievement gap all but disappears (Fryer & Levitt, 2004; Neal & Johnson, 1996) because middle class students, regardless of ethnicity, have similar, augmented access to life experiences that include richer, more abundant, and purposeful education-promoting environments, activities, events, role-models, mentors, attitudes, and opportunities (Reardon, 2013). When they fail, these children often have additional opportunities to make up for failures and missed opportunities. In contrast, poor children may have but one chance to make it. That one opportunity often comes in the form of an exceptional teacher. However, poor children continue to be taught, in many cases, by the least prepared teachers (Darling-Hammond, 1997; Hochschild & Scovronick, 2003).

Effects of Schooling

James Coleman (1966), in his landmark report, concluded that schools matter little in the educational achievement of children:

One implication stands out above all: that schools bring little influence to bear on a child's achievement that is independent of his background and general social

context; and that this very lack of an independent effect means that the inequalities imposed on children by their home, neighborhood, and peer environment are carried along to become the inequalities with which they confront adult life at the end of school. (Coleman, 1966, p. 325)

More recently (1992), Towers voiced similar conclusions:

Yet, regardless of how much disillusionment the Coleman Report may have introduced, the fact still remains that ultimately academic achievement is primarily a function of conditions beyond the school's control. It was true when Coleman discovered it in 1966, and in this author's view, it remains equally true a quarter of a century later. What have we learned? (Towers, 1992, p. 94)

Jencks et al. (1972), in *Inequality: A reassessment of the effect of family and schooling in America*, found that the reason for disparity in achievement did not grow out of their school experiences: "We cannot blame economic inequality on differences between schools since differences between schools seem to have very little effect on any measureable attribute of those who attend them" (p. 8). Jencks et al. (1972) determined that a child's family situation and surroundings determined the level of success he or she would achieve, both academically and later in life, economically. For this reason, Jencks et al. (1972) stated that we should "get on with the task of equalizing income rather than waiting for the day when everyone's earning power is equal" (p. 9).

Because they believed schooling had little effect on students, Jencks et al. (1972) suggested that society should endeavor to make the public school experience as enjoyable as possible both for teachers and for students. This assertion expressed no confidence in the capacity of schools to change a student's lot in life.

Coleman (1966) and Jencks et al. (1972), when looking at public education from a macro view, determined that schooling made little difference in the life outcome of a child. They found that parent income and social class were the determining factors in the later success of the student in society. They concluded that schools did not matter. One policy implication for their research could be that government should not spend more money on education. Jencks et al. (1972) saw public schools as a holding ground for students until they would eventually graduate and proceed to live the lives predetermined for them by the socioeconomic class into which they had been born.

In contrast to Coleman (1966) and Jencks et al. (1972), other authors have concluded that schools can make a great deal of difference in the life outcomes of students (Edmonds, Billingsley, Comer, Dyer, Hall, Hill, McGehee, Reddick, Taylor, & Wright, 1973; Edmonds, 1977; 1979; Weber, 1971). In a response to *Inequality*, Edmonds et al. (1973) pointed out that the conclusions described in the book take the responsibility for education away from teachers and schools and place it on the shoulders of students and their parents. This meant that teachers and schools have been doing the best they can, and it is the students' and their families' fault that students are not progressing. To accept this idea would be to give up on educational reform and the purpose of public education itself.

In my experience as a young teacher, I listened in frustration to veteran teachers discussing students in the teachers' lounge and while on recess duty. For example, they would mention a certain student and talk about his poor performance or penchant for getting into trouble. More times than I care to remember, another teacher would chime in with a comment, such as "Oh well, you know who Juan's father is, don't you? He is in

and out of jail, in and out of work. With Juan's home life, what do you expect?" The teacher who made these comments had low expectations for Juan. Because she did not expect him to demonstrate high levels of academic achievement, she would not give him the opportunity to do so. Juan would not be challenged. His education would not be enriched.

While I was the bilingual education director in a New Mexico school district, one of our teachers complained to me in during a presentation at a workshop, "But Mr. Baca, there is a question on the standardized test about sidewalks. My students don't know about sidewalks because they live on a dirt road." He was trying to make a point about the tests being biased against our students (Native American, Hispanic, rural, low-socioeconomic backgrounds). My response was to begin a discussion about the potential of our students compared to students of other racial, ethnic, geographic, and socioeconomic backgrounds. Those in attendance eventually agreed that our students had just as much potential as any other students.

My personal response to the question of testing bias is twofold. First, if our students are to compete academically and ultimately, economically, with the rest of the country, then our immediate task is to provide them the tools to succeed. When students from the background I described above succeed in the educational system as it currently measures success, it will prove to them, their families, and people who think negatively about such students (Romaine, 1995), that they can achieve just as much as anyone else. My advice to the teacher mentioned in the paragraph above was to include sidewalks in his lesson plans for the following day. Second, we should work to remove bias in tests

and ensure the purposes for each type of test students take are clear. Also, we should make sure test results are used for their stated purposes.

Public school students come from every type of family situation and income level. Our job in public education is to believe in the potential all students and to provide for them high expectations with high levels of support so that they can be successful. Weber (1971) identified four inner-city schools that had been effective in raising reading achievement in the early grades of children from low socioeconomic backgrounds. The factors that contributed to this success were identified as “strong leadership, high expectations, good atmosphere, strong emphasis on reading, additional reading personnel, use of phonics, individualization, and careful evaluation of pupil progress” (Weber, 1971, p. 30). Many schools with large populations of students from low-income families have been successful in bringing students to high levels of academic achievement (Ball, 2001; Barth, Haycock, Jackson, Mora, Ruíz, Robinson, & Wilkins, 1999; Jesse, Davis, & Pokorny, 2004).

Effects of Teacher Expectations

Rist (1970) and Rosenthal and Jacobsen (1968) discussed the profound impact of teacher expectations and actions in the determination of the eventual success in the lives of students. The self-fulfilling prophecies described in their studies cannot be ignored. In both cases, students, for whom family background would not be an advantage, were able to achieve success in the classroom, a variable not explored in the works of Coleman (1966) and Jencks et al. (1972).

More recently, other authors have explored education at the classroom level to try to discover the reasons some students do not succeed in school. Although many students

from low socioeconomic backgrounds fail in the public school setting, Apple (2007), Darling-Hammond (2007), Fine, Jaffe-Walter, Pedraza, Futch, and Stoudt (2007), Hochschild and Scovronick (2003), Meier (1995), Nieto (2005), and Noddings (2008) have observed that a number of these students do succeed. These authors have concluded that the basic structure of the U.S. educational system is one of the main reasons certain students are not achieving academically. Students living in poverty are not provided access to a challenging curriculum. Their school buildings are physically and aesthetically inferior to those of affluent children. Poor children are assigned the least-prepared teachers.

Some students succeed in spite of the educational system. However, if the goal of public education is to equalize opportunities for all, a fundamental change is needed before equitable prospects become a reality for those students who continue to fail in large numbers. The findings of Coleman (1966) and Jencks et al. (1972) continue to describe the experience of far too many students. The work of Apple (2007), Darling-Hammond (2007), Fine, Jaffe-Walter, Pedraza, Futch, and Stoudt (2007), Hochschild and Scovronick (2003), Meier (1995), Nieto (2005), and Noddings (2008) demonstrates the possibility of improved educational outcomes for all students.

Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) confirmed the effect of teacher expectations on the academic achievement of children. Their landmark study, chronicled in *Pygmalion in the Classroom* (1968), details the dramatic effects of high expectations. Rist (1970) also explored this topic and documented a direct relationship between teacher expectations, treatment of students, and their academic (and social) achievement. He determined that students took their cues from the teacher regarding how to treat one another. When the

teacher made comments about certain students relating to dress, grooming, and intelligence, the other students internalized the teacher's beliefs toward those students. This led to other students treating those students in such a way that the teacher's expectations for these students became a self-fulfilling prophecy (Rist, 1970). When discussing the teacher he was observing, Rist (1970, p. 276) stated,

Those attributes most desired by educated members of the middle class became the basis for her evaluation of the children. Those who possessed these particular characteristics were expected to succeed while those who did not could be expected not to succeed.

This classic study documents the powerful role teacher expectations play in the academic achievement of ELLs in Title I programs and students in general (Stein, 2001). The school is the vehicle for introducing children to the language and culture of a society because school "endorses mainstream and largely middle-class values" (Romaine, 1995, p. 242). Thus, when statements are made concerning students' intelligence, it is important to keep in mind that, at some level, their intelligence may be measured against a language and value system with which they are unfamiliar.

Educational Opportunity Today

Inequalities. Darling-Hammond (2007) asserted no fundamental changes have taken place concerning inequality in educational opportunity for minority students and students living in poverty. Darling-Hammond (2007) makes the case that the persistent achievement gap is not due to race. "Educational outcomes for students of color are much more a function of their unequal access to key educational resources, including skilled teachers and quality curriculum, than they are a function of race" (Darling-

Hammond, 2007, p. 320). Examples of the unequal education offered to these students include access to qualified and experienced teachers, resources, including current textbooks, and technology. Darling-Hammond (2007) argued that the achievement gap between White and non-Asian minority students exists because of the inferior educational inputs provided to these students. Too often students who are granted unequal access to high quality teachers are the same students who do not have access to a challenging curriculum (Dawson & Billingsly, 2000; Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2002; Peske & Haycock, 2006; Reardon, 2013; Shields et al., 2001; USDE, 2002). When these students do have access to a more challenging curriculum, the achievement gap is almost nonexistent (Fryer & Levitt, 2004; Neal & Johnson, 1996).

Darling-Hammond and Friedlaender (2008) advocated for smaller high schools, where competent and caring staff members support and challenge all students to achieve. The schools mentioned in Darling-Hammond and Friedlaender (2008) demonstrated how low-achieving, low-income minority children can increase their academic performance when challenged and provided with the proper support. By observing education at the classroom level, Darling-Hammond and Friedlaender (2008) were able to demonstrate that the circumstances of a student's birth did not dictate the eventual outcome of his or her education.

“Whose interests should the schools serve - the nation's or my child's?” (Graham, 2004, p. 18). Graham (2004) contends the answer should be both, and asserts that public schools today still have an obligation to teach character in addition to academics. Early in our nation's history, leaders wanted knowledgeable citizens who could make informed decisions. “Their solution for providing this was public education and a free press, which

depended upon literate readers” (Graham, 2004, p. 18). The early goals of public education included a virtuous and learned society. Graham (2004) maintains both of these goals are relevant today.

Scholars continue to question the goals of the U.S. public education system (Engler & Hunt, 2004; Labaree, 1997; Rapoport, 2010). Are schools still seen as the vehicle through which all children are Americanized by teaching them a common history and instilling in them an understanding of and appreciation for the collective history and culture of the United States? What do educators believe about the potential of all students to succeed? What else is expected of schools?

Nieto (2005) asserted that the inequalities that have existed for decades continue to plague the U.S. educational system. Nieto (2005) describes a system wherein students who are different from the mainstream could expect to produce little evidence of academic gain despite years of schooling in U.S. schools. The reasons offered in the past for the failure of so many minority students to succeed are demonstrated by Nieto to be false. The most popular explanations blamed students and their parents for students’ failure to achieve academically (Haycock, Lankford, & Olson, 2004). Nieto argues that the true reason for these students’ academic failure involves inherent inequalities ingrained in the U.S. educational system. Included in these are the wide discrepancies in funding levels and the quality of education offered to students. These differences, Nieto states, can be traced along socioeconomic and ethnic lines (Nieto, 2005).

Access to effective teachers is the largest factor determining the quality of education. Minority students often have teachers with the least amount of preparation and experience (Darling-Hammond & Friedlaender, 2008; Haycock, Lankford, & Olson,

2004; Peske & Haycock, 2006). Further, faced with these facts and the difficult teaching conditions that exist in schools with high concentrations of economically disadvantaged and language minority students, there is a high teacher turnover rate. Thus, students who enter the U.S. public school system at a disadvantage are further disadvantaged by less prepared and more transient teachers (Darling-Hammond & Friedlaender, 2008; Nieto, 2003).

School leadership is essential in the provision of a high quality education for all students, including students who are members of minority groups and students who live in poverty. Researchers have documented the need for strong leadership, direction, and a focus on goals as critical in creating high achieving schools for low income students (Ball, 2001; Jesse, Davis, & Pokorny, 2004; Parrett & Budge, 2009). Jacobson (2008) makes clear the fact principals who lead these schools effectively have a deep understanding and care for the circumstances in which their students live. However, because they believe in students' potential, these principals bring along the adults in their schools on the journey toward providing the structure and opportunity for students to be academically successful. As they work with school personnel, these leaders also see parent and community involvement as essential to making a school a productive learning environment for students.

While these principals recognized and had empathy for the barriers to learning that poverty can produce, none would allow those conditions to be used as an excuse for low expectations or poor performance. Instead, they truly believed in the ability of all students, so they focused on improving the learning environment; applied pressure early in the process to encourage adherence and then used

whatever resources they could generate to engage teachers in professional dialogue and development. They also worked hard to involve parents and other community members in school activities and decision-making (Jacobson, 2008, p. 13)

Parents send their children to school believing they will receive instruction from teachers who care about their sons and daughters, know their subject matter, and are able to effectively impart it to students. Nevertheless, fifty years after the passage of a law that was supposed to supplement local funds to ensure that all students have an equal opportunity to attain high academic standards, our education system has not achieved all that the ESEA was intended to correct (ESEA, 1965; Jennings, 2015). Federal dollars are intended to fund additional support for disadvantaged and ELL students, above and beyond what is provided by state and local funding. However, in many situations, the education these students receive from state and local sources is not comparable with that provided to mainstream students (Darling-Hammond & Friedlaender, 2008).

Noddings (2008) asserted that schools should not try to force all students into college. She discussed the value added to society by those in the many vital professions that do not require a college degree. The argument of Noddings (2008) is that the message received by all students is the only way to become productive is to attend college. Because of this, some students enroll in college but soon drop out, only to feel like failures. Some college graduates may feel all had the same opportunity and those who did not attempt it, or who failed, deserve their lot in life. Noddings proposed a rational approach to preparing students for life after high school that involves a serious look at vocations and a move away from stigmatizing those who do not attend college.

Nevertheless, when public schools endeavor to prepare all students for college, students will have more options in life. If students choose an alternate path, it should be well planned and not chosen simply because they were unprepared for higher education.

Noddings (2008) has also urged caution in the move toward national standards, making the point that not all students will have the same opportunity to achieve a high score against national standards. It is the duty of public education to provide all students the same opportunity to achieve a high score against these standards. Title I is one funding source district leaders can use to provide supplemental instruction for students and professional development for teachers as New Mexico, 41 other states, the District of Columbia, four territories, and the Department of Defense Education Activity (DODA) move forward with the Common Core State Standards (Common Core, 2015).

High Stakes Testing. Fine, Jaffe-Walter, Pedraza, Futch, and Stoudt (2007) and Paul (2004) discussed the negative consequences for Latino youth, many of whom are English language learners, brought about by the high-stakes testing and related high school exit exams that have materialized as responses to the accountability requirements contained in NCLB. This law required the disaggregation of test scores by subgroups including ethnicity, socio-economic status, and ELL status. A positive outcome of this requirement was the attention paid to the achievement of ELLs

As individual ELL students acquire academic English skills, they test out of the ELL subgroup. However, schools may continue to count their achievement scores in the ELL subgroup for up to two years after they exit ELL status. Students in the other subgroups will remain in them as their proficiency levels improve, but ELLs never will do so, except for those a school chooses to continue to count in the ELL subgroup. This

arrangement leads to continued documented poor performance by students in the ELL subgroup on the English Language Arts portion of any test. This fact contributes to the negative attitude held by many toward ELLs and their ability to compete with their non-ELL peers.

As New Mexico has fully implemented the Common Core State Standards (CCSS), it now will be important to ensure that assessment for ELLs will be meaningful and useful in the education of these students (García, 2009; Hakuta, 2011; Romaine, 1995; Scheurich, Skrla, & Johnson, 2000). Online professional development modules have been developed to assist teachers to this end (NMPED, 2014). The use and implementation of the content of the professional development modules should be monitored as the CCSS are implemented in New Mexico schools.

Meier (1995) believes that schools organized around the needs of students, staffed by qualified and caring adults, can make a positive difference in student achievement. Meier was instrumental in the establishment of a public magnet school in New York City in 1974. Student demographics included 50 percent African American and 33 percent Latino students. ELLs made up about five percent of the school's population (D. Meier, personal communication, April 30, 2016). Meier had observed the dismal student achievement levels in her school district and developed a plan to address this problem. Using public funds, Meier and a few colleagues were able to design a school that proved to be successful in boosting the student achievement of some of the most at-risk students in the district. What made a difference at Central Park East Secondary School (CPESS) was a program designed around student needs, high expectations, and teachers who worked one hundred percent for the benefit of the students.

Meier and colleagues saw great results. Student achievement at the school was high, and they opened an elementary school that was designed using the same philosophy. Researchers, school leaders, and others visited the schools, amazed at the achievement of the at-risk students for whom the curriculum was designed. The factors that made the most difference in these schools was high expectations, a program designed around student needs, and caring, competent adults (Duckor & Perlstein, 2014; Meier, 1995). Today, however, the high school follows a traditional schedule and philosophy. The alternative curriculum and governance structure of the original school are not implemented. The school ceased to operate under its former structure after it was required to implement district mandates from which it was formerly exempt, and key staff members and leaders departed. It should be noted that some who left CPESS did so to open or staff other schools that would operate under a similar philosophy (Suiter & Meier, 2009). However, Central Park East Elementary School retains the original philosophy on which CPESS was founded.

An effective education for New Mexico students would be one that ensures all students graduate from high school prepared for higher education or a meaningful career in the workforce. Students who come to school with a home language other than English should have the opportunity to build upon that base, maintaining and developing their languages as they acquire skills in academic English (Escamilla & Andrade, 1992; Flores-Dueñas, 2005; Gibbons, 2009). Districts should provide opportunities for the acquisition and development of other languages for students who enter school speaking only English. Hakuta (2011) cited several studies that found schools providing an education that resulted in high academic achievement for non-ELL students, also

produced ELLs who scored higher on both English language proficiency and academic achievement tests (Garcia, 1994; Parrish, Merickel, Pérez, Linquanti, Socias, Spain, Speroni, Esra, Brock, & Delancey, 2006; Williams, Perry, Oregon, Brazil, Hakuta, Haertel, Kirst, & Levin, 2007).

These schools were characterized by engaged principals who were involved in all aspects of learning, from planning the curriculum to instruction to staff development. Teachers welcomed all students and paid attention to students' ways of relating to adults and to each other as they designed activities and projects (Garcia, 1994). Goals were clear, academic standards were high, teachers believed their students had the potential to meet them, and they worked with students to reach these goals (Parrish et al., 2006). Successful schools had principals who managed the school improvement process and district-level support and accountability (Williams et al., 2007).

Federal Role in Education

The ESEA, signed by President Johnson, provided unprecedented federal support for public education. The largest component of the Act, Chapter I (Title I), provided millions of dollars for the purpose of providing supplemental assistance to children living in poverty, in order to help “ensure that all children have a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education and reach, at a minimum, proficiency on challenging State academic achievement standards and state academic assessments” (ESEA, 1965, SEC 1001).

The ESEA, a component of the War on Poverty, provided a tremendous influx of supplemental federal dollars into the public school system. Policy makers believed that infusing funding for poor kids into the education system would help interrupt the cycle of

poverty and provide these children with a better quality of life (Jennings, 2001). At the time the law was passed, it targeted the Black student population in the United States. Given the fact that poor students often come from minority backgrounds, Title I has become largely a minority program. The next sections will examine the role of the Title I Program in the education of English Language Learners in public schools in the U.S.

Title I of the ESEA

The ESEA has been reauthorized several times since 1965. Title I, sometimes known as Chapter I, is the largest title in the law. The Improving America's Schools Act of 1994 (IASA, 1994) added accountability language for Title I funds. The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001 (NCLB, 2002) strengthened this language, and added sanctions for schools and districts that failed to meet academic achievement benchmarks on standardized state assessments. In 2015, the ESEA was reauthorized as the Every Child Succeeds Act (ESSA). Although the name of the law has changed, Title I has remained intact and continues to provide supplemental funding to enable all children to meet challenging state standards.

New Mexico is one of 43 states that received a waiver from many of NCLB's Title I-related sanctions and requirements. The District of Columbia and Puerto Rico also received NCLB waivers (USDE, 2015). The waivers gave these states flexibility in designing an accountability system around the Common Core State Standards.

While the federal government has been providing supplemental funding through this law since 1965, it was only with the 2001 reauthorization that districts and schools faced consequences for failure to reach student achievement goals. Another change in NCLB was the requirement for schools and districts to disaggregate student achievement

by subgroups including ethnicity, students living in poverty, students with disabilities, and ELLs (Abedi, 2004; Abedi & Dietel, 2004; NCLB, 2002). As a result, these student subgroups have received the attention of educators and government officials (Haycock, 2006).

For ELLs, NCLB was concerned with their acquisition of English and their academic achievement. The former Title VII of the ESEA promoted bilingual education. Under NCLB, Title VII was eliminated and was replaced by Title III, which promotes English language acquisition and may not be used to fund bilingual education. The name change of this section of the law from the Bilingual Education Act to the English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement Act demonstrates the focus on English language and academic outcomes for ELLs (Hakuta, 2011).

Bilingual Education

Bilingual education is mentioned throughout this study. Although this phrase is widely used, it does not have the same meaning for all. Bilingual education involves using more than one language for instruction. It does not mean only teaching Spanish, Navajo, or any other language. The use of more than one language as a means of accessing and processing academic content is true bilingual education (García, 2009). Through proper implementation, bilingual education strengthens understanding of languages and cultures for both language majority and language minority individuals. Bilingual education “. . . has the potential of being a *transformative* school practice, able to educate all children in ways that stimulate and expand their intellect and imagination,

as they gain ways of expression and access different ways of being in the word” (García, 2009, p. 12, emphasis by the author).

In a transitional bilingual program, the goal is linguistic and academic proficiency in English. Students receive instruction in their home language and English, but home language instruction ends once students are ready to receive instruction only in English. A maintenance bilingual program aims for linguistic and academic proficiency in two languages, the home language and English. In an enrichment, two-way, or developmental bilingual program, both non-English and native English speakers are in the same classroom. One version of this, a 50-50 model, offers instruction in each language fifty percent of the time. Students are learning a new language, and they are learning content through that language (Roberts, 1995).

Romaine (1995, p. 7) states, “...bilingualism is a resource to be cultivated, rather than a problem to be overcome.” This view is not shared by all. When students in public schools are determined to be less than proficient in English, what is often first noticed about them is their lack of English proficiency rather than the fact they speak more than one language. Romaine explains “semilingualism” as a phrase some have used to describe students who are not “proficient” in two languages. This inaccurate, negative label implies that because a student cannot demonstrate mastery of at least one language, he or she has no language. This is not true.

García (2009), Romaine (1995), and Valdez and Figueroa (1994) discussed the difficulties associated with assessing students who are bilingual. “The difficulty in offering fair and equitable assessment for bilinguals has to do with being able to understand the interrelationship between *language proficiency* and *content proficiency* –

two important objectives in all testing” (García, 2009, p. 370, emphasis by the author). Although required by federal and state regulations, language proficiency testing is an inexact exercise, the results of which are used to assess the effectiveness of an educational program on students’ progress in proficiency over a set period of time. Outcomes derived from such assessments should be used to improve the instructional program, but they should not be the only measures of program success.

ELLs – Title I Participation

How are U.S. public schools providing supplemental opportunities for ELLs using existing federal funds, including those from Title I? As schools and districts update their comprehensive needs assessments, officials could look at recommendations for low-achieving ELLs (Clair, Adger, Short, & Millen, 1998). Current levels of ELL participation in programs targeted at their academic areas of need are not known. This research adds to the field and may be used by school, district, and state officials to design and fund supplemental educational programs for ELLs.

Supplemental federal funding for public education in the U.S. has increased greatly over the years. The total discretionary USDE budget has risen from \$14 billion in 1980 to \$77 billion in 2012 (USDE, 2012). With the last two reauthorizations of the ESEA, districts and schools are being held accountable for the billions in federal funding going into public education. The transparency requirements of the Title I portion of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA, 2009) focused on school-level detail on expenditures, the disclosure of names of vendors, and descriptions of goods and services received in return for payment of these federal funds.

The participation of ELLs in Title I programs is a topic that has received scant attention to date. Only a handful of articles specifically address this issue. A Massachusetts study found inconsistent attention paid to the needs of these students in the planning process undertaken by districts for the Title I program (META, 1998). In three of the four districts included in the META (1998) study, ELLs received only minimal mention in the planning documentation. However, in one district, a description of planning for ELL students was a mandatory section in the application process.

Another study addressing the participation of ELLs in Title I programs found that “10.9 percent of districts responding include ESL in their Title I programs...” and that “All limited-English-proficient students are considered eligible for Title I if they met cutoff criteria in 67 percent of districts, while five percent of districts consider all limited-English-proficient students ineligible” (McKay & Michie, 1982, p. 1).

Despite the specific language in the Title I section of NCLB and a USDE memo clarifying the eligibility of ELLs based solely on their ELL status, there is no national requirement for the inclusion of a Title I program planning component specific to the needs of ELLs. Neither is there a New Mexico state requirement (Chun & Goertz, 1999). For these reasons, I expected to find varying participation levels of ELL students in Title I Programs across the state of New Mexico.

A December 1999 report to Congress provided information on the number of LEP students participating in Title I and on the nature of the services provided to these students. The report (Shaul, 1999) opened with a discussion of the increase in numbers of LEP students in the U.S. and then noted the historical federal role in the education of students with limited English proficiency. At the time this report was published, “Title

educational programs [served] about two million of the estimated 3.5 million students with limited English proficiency” (Shaul, 1999, p. 4).

Shaul (1999) found most supplemental educational assistance to LEP students in the 10 districts in five states included in the study was funded by state and local sources. Only “10 percent of the schools with targeted assistance programs used Title I funds to provide this kind of instruction to help nonnative speakers acquire English” (Shaul, 1999, p. 4). Most LEP students who received Title I-funded assistance benefitted from supplemental instruction in reading, math, and language arts, the same areas in which non-LEP students participated.

Most districts in the study did not use Title I funds to address specifically “the educational needs of non-native English speakers” (Shaul, 1999, p. 9). This finding is repeated in the August, Piché, and Rice (1999) study. This fact is of interest as it appears contrary to the intent of Title I as stated both in the Improving America’s Schools Act and the No Child Left Behind Act.

Questions from two Hispanic parent organizations during the 1990-1991 school year concerning levels of LEP student participation in Title I Programs in Massachusetts led to a consent order designed to ensure equitable participation in these programs. Although the order had been in place for seven years, the study found the district to be out of compliance with its requirements during the 1998-1999 school year (META, 1998). The authors of the study (META, 1998) found that LEP students did not benefit equitably in the majority of the 151 schools studied. The report stated that the key factor in ensuring equitable benefit to LEP students in the one district, which came closest to equity, was “the amount of explicit attention paid by school administrators” (META,

1998, p. ii). This finding helped shape the focus of my study – to use a questionnaire and then limited interviews directed at district-level Title I Directors to determine their perspective on the participation of ELL students in Title I Programs in public schools in New Mexico.

Citizen’s Commission on Civil Rights

In their study of eight school districts in two states, August et al. (1999) found that schools are “falling short of incorporating LEP students into Title Programs” (p. 194). This finding reinforced my experience with, and observation of, Title I Programs. Because the needs in education are great, and because of other funding sources available, LEP students are often served with funds other than those from Title I. This occurs regardless of the fact that LEP students should be identified for participation in Title I Programs on the basis of their LEP status alone (IASA, 1994). These facts highlight the need for the present study examining the nature of ELL participation in Title I Programs.

Summary of Reviewed Literature

This chapter provided a review of the literature regarding the history of education in the U.S., the goals of our public education system, and the means by which educators sought to attain these goals. I reviewed the literature regarding the target population of ELLs, along with the application of strategies to educate ELL students. The dearth of literature available on the topic of ELLs in Title I Programs was highlighted, along with the current national attention focused on both Title I Programs and the academic needs of ELLs. Importantly, no studies to date have explored the application of Title I programs to meet the needs of ELL students in New Mexico. I specifically designed the present

study to fill this gap in the literature. The following chapter details the research methods I employed to meet that goal.

Chapter 3

Research Methods

I conducted this qualitative study to answer the following research question: How are Title I Programs being implemented in New Mexico public schools with respect to English Language Learners (ELLs)? This chapter begins with a review of the purpose of the study, the context of the study, and the study design. The document review, the survey questionnaire, and the study interviews are followed by a description of the study participants. Data collection procedures and the data analysis plan are detailed, and the study participants are then described, along with steps taken to protect the rights of study participants. The role of the researcher, the standards of quality and methods to establish trustworthiness, and the steps taken to avoid researcher bias are then explained. This chapter ends with a summary of the research methods.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore how Title I Programs are being implemented with respect to ELLs, through document review, survey questionnaires, and interviews with selected Title I Program Directors in New Mexico public school districts. All eighty-eight district Title I Directors received an invitation to participate in the study by completing the questionnaire. Using purposeful sampling, I selected eight directors for interviews based on their district ELL population, size, and geographic region of the state. I will make the results of this study available to all Title I directors with the intent of fostering the education of all ELL students.

Context of the Study

Title I programs are implemented in the state according to rules established by the USDE and NMPED. ELLs as a subgroup are eligible to participate based solely on their ELL status. This is because these students, by definition, do not have the academic English skills necessary to meet state standards.

There are 5.3 million ELLs enrolled in U.S. public schools (National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs, 2011). This number has increased 51 percent from the 1997-1998 school year to the 2008-2009 school year. Their academic achievement is generally lower than that of their English-fluent peers. The USDE recognizes this fact and provides supplemental funds to Local Educational Agencies (LEAs) or school districts to assist ELLs to achieve challenging state standards (NCLB, 2002).

Two programs in the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1964 are targeted toward ELLs: Title III and Title I. With an annual national budget of approximately \$732 million, Title III, English Language Acquisition, is aimed at providing assistance for ELL students and their families. The goals of Title III are to assist limited English proficient students to achieve the same high academic standards expected of all students and to involve parents and communities in language instruction programs (NCLB, 2002). New Mexico received \$4,280,530 in Title III funding for school year 2011-12 (USDE, 2012). Title I addresses Education of the Disadvantaged, with a national budget of approximately \$14.5 billion. The goals of the Title I Program have been discussed throughout this paper. During the 2011-2012 school year,

\$109,861,746 in Title I funds were allocated to 87 public school districts and 29 state charter schools in New Mexico.

Of New Mexico's 89 districts, 87 operated Title I Programs during the 2011-2012 school year. NMPED distributes Title I funds according to formula and cannot dictate program design. Most of each district's allocation is directed to school sites, the authority and responsibility for program design and implementation rests on the Title I Director. For this reason, I chose directors to be the participants in this study.

Twenty-nine of forty existing state charter schools in New Mexico operated Title I programs during the 2011-2012 school year, but I did not include them in the present study, which was focused on public school districts. This was because public school district directors make decisions concerning the distribution of Title I funds to individual school sites based on allocation rules and a comprehensive needs assessment, but state-authorized charter school directors only have one campus each, so they do not go through this process, and are therefore not applicable to meeting the goals of this study.

Study Design

Methodological design in research is dictated by the research question. This study asked a qualitative question (How are Title I Programs being implemented in New Mexico public schools with respect to English Language Learners?), so I employed a qualitative design. A qualitative approach is the best means for yielding rich, detailed description from the data gathered (Patton, 2002). According to Creswell (1998):

Qualitative research is an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The

research builds a complex, holistic picture, analyzes words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting. (p. 15)

Creswell (2013) highlights the need to include multiple sources of data, such as survey, interviews, and documents, when employing a qualitative research design. In this context, the goal of this study was to produce a holistic picture of how Title I is implemented in New Mexico school districts from the perspectives of document analysis and Title I directors (the informants). Creswell (1998) further states that a researcher using a qualitative approach has the “primary intent of developing themes from the data” (p. 18), consistent with the goal of this study, which was to develop themes from document review, survey questionnaires, and interview data sources. Each source of information has a role in the present study. Document analysis provides a description of Title I applications. Survey responses of 50 Title I directors in New Mexico provide a description of the demographic differences between districts, the differing configurations of the Title I director position, the various roles of the Title I directors, and experiences of Title I directors with ELL students. The interviews yielded rich, in-depth information from Title I directors as they reflected on and explained their experiences and views (Mertens, 2005; Patton, 2002) regarding Title I implementation and its effects on their ELL students.

To be useful, a qualitative inquiry must be accessible to a target audience. Patton (2002, p. 12) states, “all inquiry designs are affected by intended purpose and targeted audience.” My audience is district professionals, public officials, and policy makers. Through this study, I intended to provide information on the current state of Title I Program implementation in the state with respect to ELLs, as seen through document

review and the insights of Title I Directors. I will make these findings available to the target audience, with an eye towards optimizing Title I programs in New Mexico and in other states.

Instrumentation and Data Sources

Study data came from three sources: Title I document applications, survey questionnaires, and interviews. These data sources are described below.

Documents for Review

The documents analyzed for this study were Consolidated Federal Program Applications from all 87 New Mexico Title I districts for the 2011-2012 school year. These data were provided by the New Mexico Public Education Department (NMPED). These applications, in spreadsheet form, include data regarding financial outlays of Title I, including set-asides for professional development and parental involvement, apportionment for ELL programs, along with assurances towards compliance with federal regulations. I used these applications to identify the rate of ELL apportionment and programming in the 87 Title I programs.

Survey Questionnaire

The survey questionnaire is an excellent tool for collecting data from large samples (Patton, 2002). This survey included questions regarding district descriptives, including enrollment size, configuration of the director position, director years of experience, familiarity with ELLs under NCLB, and how ELLs are included in the district's Title I program. Additionally, open-ended questions were included to allow participants to describe their familiarity with ELL issues, the academic needs of ELLs in their districts, and how Title I is implemented for their district's ELL students. For the

purposes of this study, I developed the survey questionnaire in consultation with my dissertation chairperson. I then piloted the survey questionnaire by administering it to former New Mexico school district Title I directors, to ensure that the survey was readable, comprehensive, and appropriate for addressing the research question. I took this step so that the survey instrument could be modified and optimized based on feedback from pilot study participants prior to formal data collection. The email invitation I sent each director is provided in Appendix C. The survey used for formal data collection is provided in Appendix D.

Interviews

I developed a 13-item, semi-structured interview instrument for this study. This interview protocol included questions ranging from years of work experience to the home language of district ELLs, from how ELLs are served to the process for determining how Title I funds are spent, from the organizational structure of Title I to agreements regarding ELL eligibility, and from ideas regarding optimal use of Title I funds to the future of Title I to meeting the needs of ELLs in their districts. I developed the semi-structured interview protocol with the assistance of my chairperson and then piloted it with colleagues and retired federal program directors before I began formal data collection for this study. Interviews were professionally transcribed by Verbal Link. Following each interview, as standard interview protocol dictates, I provided interview transcripts to participants so they could clarify responses and validate the transcriptions prior to data analysis (Merriam, 2002). I obtained informed consent before interviews (Appendix E). The interview questions are provided in Appendix F.

Study Participants

Study participants were public school district Title I directors in the State of New Mexico during the 2014-2015 school year. In order for a district to receive Title I funds, it must submit a Title I Application to NMPED that is completed by the Director after consulting with principals, staff, and parents. NMPED Title I staff distribute funds by formula. They cannot decide which districts receive funds, nor the amount of awards. District staff follow rules regarding which schools receive funds. District staff decide how funds are spent. I was interested in the general knowledge that the directors had about ELLs, the overall planning involved in deciding how a district will allocate its Title I dollars, and the specific consideration given to ELLs in this planning as outlined in SEC 1112 (NCLB, 2002). For these reasons, Title I directors were the ideal participants for this study.

I invited all 88 district Title I Directors in the state to participate in the study by completing a questionnaire, with the goal of determining how districts are similar or different in enrollment size, configuration of the director position, director years of experience, familiarity with ELLs under NCLB, and how ELLs are included in the district's Title I program. By inviting all directors to participate, I addressed the goal of acquiring a comprehensive overview of Title I districts in New Mexico.

I selected the interview participants using purposive sampling (Mertens, 2005), with the goal of acquiring an in-depth understanding of, from the perspective of the Title I directors, how Title I Programs are being implemented in New Mexico public schools with respect to ELLs. Purposive sampling was appropriate because Title I directors are personally responsible to the federal government for the implementation of Title I

funding and the education of ELL students in their districts. I selected directors from eight diverse districts, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Characteristics of Interview Participants' Districts

Category	Frequency	Percentage
<u>Home Language</u>		
Spanish Home Language	5	63%
Native American Home Language	3	38%
Total	8	100%
<u>Urban-Rural</u>		
Urban	4	50%
Rural	4	50%
Total	8	100%
<u>Region</u>		
Northwest	3	38%
Central/North Central	3	38%
South/Southwest	2	25%
Total	8	100%

Table 1 shows that five districts serve ELLs from a primarily Spanish language background, and three serve ELLs from a primarily Native American language background. Three districts are in the northwest part of the state, two are from the south/southwest region, and three are in the central/north central part of New Mexico.

Four large districts and four small to medium-sized districts were included. Further, four urban and four rural districts were represented in the sample.

Procedures

Permissions

All procedures were approved by my dissertation chairperson and the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of The University of New Mexico prior to the execution of this study.

Document Review

I submitted an Inspection of Public Records Act (IPRA) request to NMPED regarding access to district Title I application data for the 2011-2012 school year. Consolidated Federal Program Applications were obtained from all 87 New Mexico public school districts. I created a database and assigned random numbers to districts for the purpose of de-identifying the data prior to analysis. The sole hard copy of the key linking districts to data was kept in a locked file in my home office. I made research notes regarding language that pertained to ELLs to be used for analysis and documented this process. I kept the notes and database on my personal computer and protected these data using Challenger encryption software.

Survey Questionnaires

I submitted an IPRA request to the NMPED for the names and email addresses of district Title I Directors. All 88 district Title I Directors in the state during the 2014-2015 school year were invited to participate in the study. I sent each director an email invitation from my UNM account to participate in the study, along with an explanation of the consent process, including a brief description of both the nature of the study and

safeguards to foster anonymity (Appendix C). The email invitation contained a link that took participants directly to the online survey, which was hosted by SurveyMonkey (SurveyMonkey.com, 2015), an online survey instrument that uses encryption and password-protection to keep data private and secure. The first page of the survey was the informed consent. If a participant clicked the “No” box, they were taken directly to the Thank You page of the survey and no study data were collected from that participant. If a participant clicked the “Yes” box, they were taken to the survey data collection pages. All potential participants agreed to the informed consent and chose to participate. The participants then used their keyboard and mouse to answer the survey questionnaire items. The survey took approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. I downloaded survey data in Microsoft Excel format for analysis.

Interviews

I conducted face-to-face interviews because they “allow us to enter into the other person’s perspective. Qualitative interviewing begins with the assumption that the perspective of others is meaningful, knowable, and able to be made explicit” (Patton, 2002, p. 341). I collected the interview data in the communities in which the districts are located, save for one exception, when I conducted an interview in a hotel lobby for the convenience of a participant. Interviews took 20 to 60 minutes to complete. The interviews were professionally transcribed by Verbal Link and each participant reviewed the transcript and approved its accuracy before data analysis (Merriam, 2002).

Data Analysis

Document Review

After I created a database for the Title I application documents and assigned random numbers to districts to de-identify the data, my focus was to make research notes regarding language that pertained to ELLs. I report these data in Chapter 4 and used them for triangulation with survey questionnaire results and interview results to develop themes.

Survey and Interview Data

I tabulated the responses to the closed-ended items from the survey questionnaire so that I could include this information in the descriptives portion of the results chapter. Using a grounded theory approach, I analyzed the responses to the open-ended survey questionnaire items and the interview protocol. Grounded theory is a set of analysis procedures enacted with the goal of deriving conclusions from the response data. That is, in grounded theory, the conclusions are drawn directly from participant responses, so the study participants tell the story without a template of anticipated responses from the researcher (Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1994; 1998).

The four stages of Grounded Theory (Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1994; 1998) include: (a) open coding; (b) axial coding; (c) selective coding; and (d) the development of theoretical conclusions. Open coding begins by reading and re-reading the qualitative data responses, then coding the most common and the most cogent responses. Open coding is an iterative process that requires that the researcher go through the data multiple times. Axial coding requires that the

researcher combine or group similar content. This is also an iterative process that requires that the researcher go through the coded data multiple times to ensure that content categories contain similar information. Selective coding is the combination of content categories into broad themes. Following the steps of open coding, axial coding, and selective coding, the researcher triangulates the data from various sources to develop theoretical conclusions based on the major themes (Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1994; 1998).

Therefore, I began by reading the open-ended survey and interview responses several times to familiarize myself with the participant responses. I then coded the data. Coffey and Atkinson (1996) described coding as a way to organize data, link fragments of data, and organize data into themes and concepts. After open coding to identify common and cogent responses, I grouped these responses into themes (axial coding), then used selective coding to develop the major themes. In this way, I engaged in interpretation as described by Coffey and Atkinson, "...moving from coding to interpretation, that is, the transformation of the coded data into meaningful data" (1996, p. 47). My intent was to identify common themes and patterns and organize them in a way that makes sense of the survey and interview data.

Triangulation

Finally, I triangulated the results of the document analysis, the survey questionnaires, and the interviews. In this way, I developed conclusions based on triangulation of the document analysis and the qualitative grounded theory results, so that the organization of the results chapter presented the data in a manner that informs the reader of the study findings in the context of the research question.

Role of the Researcher and Protection against Researcher Bias

I was born in Burlingame, California and lived with my family in South San Francisco. My mom was born and raised in Ojo Caliente, NM, and my dad was born in Albuquerque, but grew up in Los Alamos, NM because my grandfather was a laborer involved in the Manhattan Project. My mom's father was one of many New Mexicans who moved to California to find work and eventually moved back to NM. My grandpa got a job as a school custodian in the South San Francisco Unified School District. My mom and dad worked when I was very young and I stayed with my mom's mother. Grandma Sisneros and I communicated in Spanish, my parents and I in English. I was bilingual as a baby.

By the time I had started school, my grandparents had moved back to NM. My parents spoke English with my siblings and me, partially motivated by their desire to spare us any of the hardships they had seen Spanish-speakers endure in public schools. My Spanish was lost. Over time all but one of my mom's siblings and their families moved back to NM. We were the last to return. By now I was an English speaker and could not communicate with my grandmother. Although she had used English enough to get around in downtown South City, now back in Ojo Caliente, NM, she spoke only Spanish.

My motivation to (re)learn Spanish stemmed from my desire to connect with my grandmother. I learned bits here and there, but I was far behind my cousins who had moved to NM earlier than my family. At Española Valley High School, I took a Spanish class with Mr. David V. López. Mr. López incorporated history, culture, and humor into our lessons. He inspired me. My ability to communicate with my grandma improved.

At the University of New Mexico I enrolled in the native track Spanish courses. Again, instructors such as María Dolores Velásquez, Erlinda Gonzales Berry, and Enrique LaMadrid included (NM) culture into our lessons. For one class project I interviewed my grandma, in Spanish. I cherish the transcription of our interview to this day. Later, I took a methods class in Spanish with Rebecca Blum-Martínez, who is on my dissertation committee. This class gave me great experience with education vocabulary, all in context, and all in Spanish.

I earned a B.A. in Spanish and later attained a teaching license and an M.A. in Secondary Education with an emphasis in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages. As I described in chapter one, my first teaching position was at Polk Middle School in the South Valley of Albuquerque. I taught ESL and Spanish Language Arts. While I was at Polk, I became our school's bilingual coordinator and grew in my understanding of bilingual education. I did not know the entire research base at the time, but I was convinced this was the best method for helping students achieve high academic standards in English while maintaining, developing, and respecting their home language.

I am currently the program manager for the University of New Mexico-Los Alamos Adult Basic Education and Community Education Programs. I was the interim and official Special Education Director at NMPED for one and a half years. For eight and one half years, I was Assistant Director of the Title I Bureau. I have been in the field of education for 24 years, working with ELLs in the roles of teacher, federal programs and bilingual education director, and NMPED official. I have also served three years on the New Mexico Association for Bilingual Education (NMABE) Executive Board, one

year as President. While this experience inevitably influenced the way I viewed the data, it is this same experience that qualified me to conduct this study.

As a doctoral candidate in the Educational Leadership Program at the University of New Mexico, I completed the required coursework in research methods. I solicited guidance and feedback from my dissertation chairperson and committee members throughout the research project. My acknowledgement of and attention to this issue, together with the peer review of the results section of this study, alleviated possible researcher bias.

Regardless, it is important to acknowledge possible sources of researcher bias. My former position as Assistant Director of the Title I Bureau, and my position as Special Education Director at the time of the study, may have affected participant responses. However, I followed all IRB and ethical safeguards in the course of the research to minimize this possibility. Additionally, interviews and study-related contact occurred while I was on leave from NMPED and were separate from any official NMPED business. Within the text of the informed consent form and participant recruitment, I explained that this research was a project in partial fulfillment of an Ed.D. in Educational Leadership at the University of New Mexico and made clear that the study was not related to my position at NMPED. As such, the chances that my professional position biased responses were reduced. Furthermore, I provided participants with a statement of assurance, ensuring confidentiality, and containing language guaranteeing that the data collected would not be identifiable by individuals or linked to their school districts. Participants were informed that all responses would be kept private, confidential, and would not in any way affect their districts' Title I Program or Special

Education Program status with NMPED. Lastly, I described closed-ended responses without inference in the results chapter and I coded the open-ended responses and reached conclusions using a rigorous grounded theory approach. Therefore, the study findings are presented in the context of participant responses rather than from the perspective of the researcher. By taking these steps, the opportunities for researcher bias were reduced in reaching study conclusions.

Standards of Quality and Methods to Establish Trustworthiness

I addressed the three elements Patton described as required for the establishment of credibility in qualitative inquiry (Patton, 2002, pp. 552-553):

- Rigorous methods for doing fieldwork that yield high-quality data that are systematically analyzed with attention to issues of credibility;
- The credibility of the researcher, which is dependent on training, experience, track record, status, and presentation of self; and
- Philosophical belief in the value of qualitative inquiry, that is, a fundamental appreciation of naturalistic inquiry, qualitative methods, inductive analysis, purposeful sampling, and holistic thinking.

Protection of Human Subjects

I took multiple steps to protect the rights of the participants. This study received IRB approval and posed minimal risk to participants. Participation in the study was voluntary and all participants were over the age of 18. The survey invitation reminded participants of their rights and informed consent was obtained prior to survey and interview participation. All study data were kept private and confidential. If, after completing the questionnaire, participants decided they did not want their answers

included in the data, they were provided an email address so that they could choose to not have their responses included in the study. No one exercised this option. Interview participants were given the opportunity to review and approve the interview transcripts or to clarify or withdraw their responses. I did not collect personal identifiable information or IP addresses. I will destroy the study data three years following the completion of this research project. By taking these steps, I protected the rights of participants.

Summary of Research Methods

This chapter described the research methods I employed in this study. This chapter began with a review of the purpose of the study, the context of the study, and the study design. The documents for review, the survey questionnaire and the study interviews were detailed. I described the study participants, followed by the procedures for data collection. I detailed the data analysis plan. I presented a discussion of the role of the researcher, and protection against researcher bias followed by information about standards of quality and methods to establish trustworthiness and the steps I took to protect the rights of the participants. The following chapter presents the results of this study.

Chapter 4

Results

The purpose of this study was to examine the nature of the participation of English Language Learners (ELLs) in Title I Programs in New Mexico public schools through document review of district Title I applications, questionnaires, and interviews. I piloted the questionnaire and interview questions prior to formal data collection. This study addressed the following research question: How are Title I Programs being implemented in New Mexico public schools with respect to English Language Learners?

Data Sources and the Background of Study Participants

Document Analysis: Title I Applications

The NMPED provided Title I applications for the 87 school districts that participated in the Title I program for 2011-2012 school year. These applications were provided in the form of a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. I examined these documents for any reference to ELLs. While the bulk of the applications consisted of financial data, narrative sections were also included, allowing me to examine these documents for language and reference to ELLs.

Survey Questionnaires of Title I Directors

I submitted an IPRA request to NMPED and received names and email addresses of Title I Directors for the 2014-2015 school year. I sent all 88 directors an invitation (Appendix C) to participate in the survey (Appendix D). The invitation explained the study and the details involved in participation. The questionnaire included three questions related to demographics and logistics; two questions related to participants' experiences with ELL issues; and three questions related to the needs of and services

provided to ELLs. Fifty-one of the 88 directors responded. Of these, 50 chose to participate in the study by completing the questionnaire.

Demographics of Survey Questionnaire Participants

Enrollment Size of District. This demographic item in the questionnaire asked participants to report the size of their districts. The greatest number of responses, eight, came from directors with student populations of 2,000-3,999 students (Table 2).

Table 2

Enrollment Size of District

Answer Options	Response Percent	Response Count
2,000-3,999	16%	8
10,000 or greater	14%	7
0-199	12%	6
1,000-1,999	12%	6
6,000-9,999	8%	4
200-299	6%	3
300-399	6%	3
400-499	6%	3
800-999	6%	3
4,000-5,999	6%	3
500-599	4%	2
600-699	2%	1
700-799	2%	1
Total	100%	50

Configuration of Director Position. Of the 50 survey respondents, there were two full-time Title I Directors, 31 directed other programs, nine superintendents, two

teachers, and six included a federal programs coordinator, a deputy superintendent with many other programs, a director assigned teacher responsibilities, elementary principals (2 responses), a principal is coordinator, and a superintendent as director (Table 3).

Table 3

Configuration of Director Position

Answer Options	Response Percent	Response Count
Title I Director also directs other programs	62%	31
Superintendent is Director	18%	9
Other (please specify)	12%	6
Full-time Director of Title I only	4%	2
Teacher is assigned Director responsibilities	4%	2
Total		50

Length of Time in Title I Position. Of the 50 survey respondents, 49 indicated the number of years in their Title I Director position, which averaged 6.6 years (SD = 4.8; range: >1 year to 20+ years). Figure 1 displays the Length of Time in Title I Position frequencies of participating Title I Directors in New Mexico.

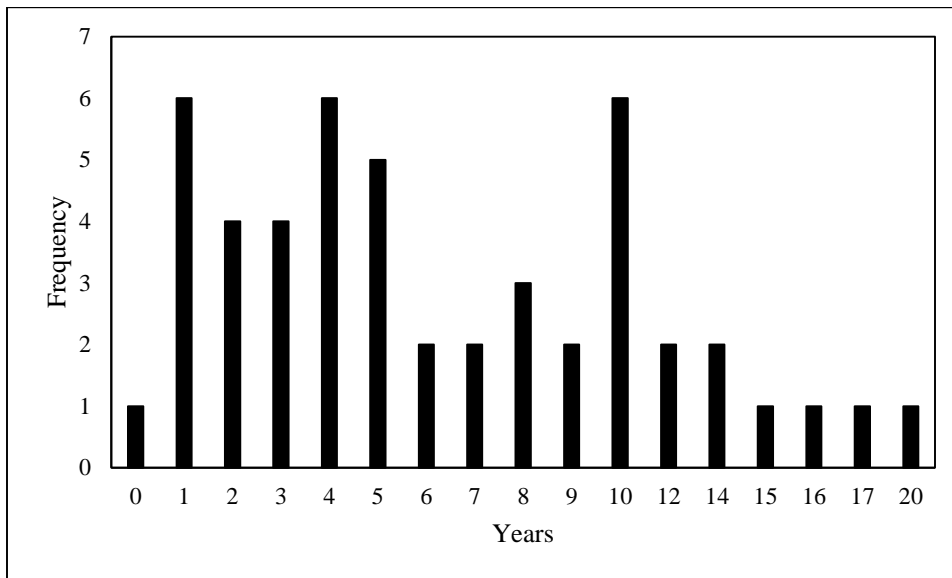


Figure 1. Length of time in Title I position.

Familiarity with ELL Issues. In response to the open-ended questions on the survey instrument, directors described their work with ELLs with great attention to detail. Participants expressed a variety of life experiences that have influenced the way they approach the education of ELLs. Participant 39 reminds us of the potential of ELL students and discusses meeting the academic needs of ELL students.

I was an ELL in school. I taught ELLs, as an elementary teacher, special education teacher, ELD teacher, and bilingual teacher. As director of bilingual, federal programs, and district test coordinator I am very involved in the education of our ELLs, both in the classroom as an evaluator and program director. (Survey Participant 39)

Survey Participant 48 has been around ELLs for many years, not as one of them, but as a neighbor and teacher. This person developed programming for ELLs. The last sentence in this quote reflects a belief that poverty and support for academic success many times do not go hand in hand. This is important because what a teacher believes

affects expectations for students, and this affects their academic performance (Rist, 1970; Rosenthal & Jacobsen, 1968).

Raised in a community of 85% Hispanic (border town). As a teacher I have always had students that were non-English speakers and had to devise a program based on their needs. I am aware of the studies that have been done regarding ELL status and their correlation to student success. Many times ELL students are also low income and come from homes that do not support academic success.
(Survey Participant 48)

The view expressed in the last sentence of this quote, in my opinion, is problematic. It may be true that many ELLs come from families that live in poverty. However, how can we say that their parents do not support academic success? Schools have been founded on middle class values (Bulman, 2002; Rist, 1970; Romaine, 1995; Woodrum, 2009). I do not see this as negative. However, we as educators need to recognize this. As we work to help students understand and experience academic success, we need to remember that because their families do not express support in the way in the way we might expect, this does not mean they do not support education.

Survey Participant 32 also was an ELL in school. This individual describes an understanding of the issues involving ELLs. This director speaks of being an advocate for bilingual education because of personal experiences. A strong understanding of bilingual education is expressed in this response. The fact that someone with a robust background in bilingual education is leading a Title I Program means that, in this particular district, it is likely that ELLs will participate in a meaningful way in the program.

My endorsements in NM are in K-12 Bilingual Education, TESOL, and Modern and Classical Languages. I taught in a bilingual setting K-8 for over 25 years. I have always been an advocate for bilingual education because Spanish is my primary language and I was a monolingual Spanish speaker when I first entered school. I can relate to the difficulties the students go through in learning skills in English when their primary language is Spanish. Many educators do not realize that students learn best when taught in their primary language. It takes seven or more years to acquire a second language but when bilingual education is taught correctly, bilingual students outperform monolingual students academically because they are using both parts of their brains to think. (Survey Participant 32)

Survey Participant 34 describes experiences in a matter-of-fact style. The activities described occurred while this person was working under the Title I Program. This quotation shows action. The participant's response to needs was to get involved and work to meet those needs. Facts are stated. Excuses are not made.

Ten years ago, I moved from elementary to the HS, because we had 7 to 10 students who had not only language issues but reading issues as well. The parents were monolingual Spanish speaking. I was a Title 1 reading teacher and followed these boys from 1st to 8th grade and then 10th through 12th grade because I knew they had not read much and would now be required to research the internet and write papers to graduate. They did. Six years ago, we had 2 high school girls arrive from Mexico via coyote. The mother and stepfather lived here. The oldest was a senior and the youngest a sophomore. Calling and receiving verification of credits was quite an ordeal. I sat in classes with them especially in English class

and translated when need be. The use of translation programs helped me to build vocabulary. Their step-father assisted at home. (Survey Participant 34)

Survey Participant 47 works in a district with few ELLs. However, this individual discusses some issues involving these students. This director mentions ELLs with severe learning disabilities who are undiagnosed because adults may attribute learning difficulties to language issues. This survey participant explained that ELLs, like all students, are a group of students who have a range of out-of-school supports that help or hinder their academic experiences:

In my District we do not have many "true" ELLs. Our District's initial ELL Survey used to be very confusing so any student that might have "heard" Spanish or other language in the home was automatically pulled into the ELL program. We have since corrected that survey to better reflect our community make up. I presently have three ELL learners in my school of approximately 200 students. I have one teacher who speaks Spanish, so students are placed in classes where English is the only spoken language. I typically place students who can speak Spanish and English in the same class if their teacher does not speak Spanish. As far as issues that I am familiar with, ELL students sometimes have deficits in other areas besides language. I've seen some with severe learning disabilities that often go unnoticed because the "system" thinks it could be a language issue. Most of the ELL students with whom I have worked have similar supports as our other students; i.e., some have strong family support, others do not. We have a part-time ELL teacher who comes to our school for two hours per day to service the ELL students in our school. While more than five are identified as ELLs she

typically works with those who speak Spanish only or have limited English. She splits her time with one hour per day with each group (4th and 5th graders). We know that this is not sufficient, however we are limited by our funds in the District. The ELL teacher does provide support to the classroom teachers as well, giving recommendations on instruction for those students. (Survey Participant 47)

Survey Participant 30 has invested a career working with ELLs in various capacities. This is another individual who brings many years of experience with ELLs to the position of Title I Director. This understanding has influenced the administration of the Title I Program in this district. “Working with” and “serving” connote an attitude of concern for students who are English language learners.

I have 16 years’ experience working with ELL students. Five years as a teacher; two years as a dual language coordinator; three years as a principal at a dual language school with a population of 375 ELL students; and 6 years as a Federal Program Director/Director of Bilingual Education. My entire career has been working with and serving ELL students. (Survey Participant 30)

Survey Participant 6 is another Title I Director with many years of experience as a bilingual education teacher. This individual has worked with a wide range of educational levels. This type of experience will influence the Title I Program design for ELLs in this district.

I hold Bilingual Certification in Texas and TESOL in New Mexico. I have over 20 years’ experience as a bilingual teacher serving students from 1st grade

through Community College adult basic education programs. (Survey Participant 6)

Funding is an issue in the schools served by Title I. It is important to keep in mind that Title I and other federal funds are supplemental to a district's operational funding from the state. Thus, students basic educational needs, and even those that exist because of their ELL status must be met using state funds (NMPED, 2004). Title I funds are to be used for programs above and beyond basic needs. Survey participant 18 discusses budget cuts and a lack of time for the provision of a bilingual program.

With budget cuts, positions have been cut which results in cut of programs.

Bilingual teachers are also regular education teachers and cannot provide the full necessary time to dedicate to a true Bilingual program. (Survey Participant 18)

In the discussion chapter, I address the need for focused professional development for directors regarding strategies for improving the academic achievement of ELLs. Schools that have been successful for ELLs have provided training for teachers in areas specific to the needs of these students and in effective instructional practices in general (Anstrom, 1997; Garcia, 1987). Participants 23, 29, and 43 shared their need for more knowledge regarding ELLs, including the needs of ELLs.

Addressing the needs of students has generally been difficult for teachers. Not as familiar as I could be regarding specific needs of the students. (Survey Participant 23)

I know some of the issues, but we do not have a large population, so I would say my overall knowledge is fairly low. I do know how hard it is find qualified Bilingual teachers. (Survey Participant 29)

I would say my experience with ELL issues is average or below average. The two districts I have worked in have had a relatively low percent of ELL students.

(Survey Participant 43)

In contrast, some survey participants had personal ELL experience:

I was an ELL in school. I taught ELLs, as an elementary teacher, special education teacher, ELD teacher, and bilingual teacher. As director of bilingual, federal programs, and district test coordinator I am very involved in the education of our ELLs, both in the classroom as an evaluator and program director. (Survey Participant 39)

I have always been an advocate for bilingual education because Spanish is primary language and I was a monolingual Spanish speaker when I first entered school. I can relate to the difficulties the students go through in learning skills in English when their primary language is Spanish. (Survey Participant 32)

Raised in a community of 85% Hispanic (border town). As a teacher I have always had students that were non-English speakers and had to devise a program based on their needs. I am aware of the studies that have been done regarding ELL status and their correlation to student success.

Many times ELL students are also low income and come from homes that do not support academic success. (Survey Participant 48)

Home Language in the Districts of Survey Participants

The most common home languages indicated by survey questionnaire participants were Spanish and Native American languages. Small numbers of students speak home languages of Somalian, Russian, Chinese, and Arabic.

Highlighting the diversity of home languages in New Mexico, Interview

Participant 4 stated, “Well, there are numerous languages spoken in this district.”

Interviews of Title I Directors

Using purposeful sampling, I selected eight (8) Title I Directors for face-to-face interviews (Mertens, 2005). Considerations included location in the state, substantial ELL population (Spanish or Native American home language), and rural versus urban status. I contacted potential interviewees by telephone and used a script to invite them to participate in the study (Appendix G). One of the directors I originally selected did not return the telephone call, so I selected an alternate district director and that person agreed to participate.

The interviews included four questions related to logistics and processes; seven questions related to ELLs and ways ELLs are served in their district; and two questions related to participant experiences. The duration of the interviews was 20 to 60 minutes. Seven of the interviews were conducted in the district offices of the directors or in nearby conference rooms. One interview was conducted in a hotel lobby in a separate city for the convenience of the director.

Demographics of Interview Participants

Number of Years Working in District. The experience working in the current district for the eight Title I Directors I interviewed ranged from 1 to 39 years. The average of 13.7 years in their current position was roughly double the average of 6.6 for the survey questionnaire participants.

Background Working with ELLs and/or Title I. Interview participants described a range of experience involving education, ELLs and the Title I Program. In

their own words, they discussed their work as teachers, coordinators, and administrators in Title I and bilingual programs. Only one of eight interview participants was never a K-12 classroom teacher (Interview Participant 7). Public school teaching experience ranged from first grade (Interview Participant 1) to high school (Interview Participant 6). Classroom experience at the K-12 level ranged from 0 years (Interview Participant 7, who taught at a higher education institution rather than K-12) to 9 years (Interview Participant 8). All interview participants had experience with Title 1 schools and with ELL students, mostly with students with a home language of Spanish or Navajo.

Home Language in the Districts of Interview Participants. I asked the participants to discuss the home language backgrounds of the ELLs in their districts. All eight participants discussed home language, two discussed cultural issues, and one each discussed language of instruction and parental involvement.

The directors indicated that ELLs present challenges for Title I teachers and directors. While “parents see a value in the students knowing the English language, that to get a job and to cater to English-speaking people, and to get that economic piece, they want them to get enough English to communicate” (Interview Participant 6),” but “their home language and home isn’t changing to English” (Interview Participant 6). In this way, family expectations may contribute to the challenges of teaching English language skills to ELL students in New Mexico.

Findings Related to the Research Question

How are Title I Programs being implemented in New Mexico public schools with respect to English Language Learners? I have organized the findings by major themes

and include data from document review, surveys and interviews. The major themes were ELLs in Title I Programs, Collaboration among Programs, and the Effects of Poverty.

ELLs in Title I Programs

Document Review. ELLs were specifically mentioned in 13 of the 87 district Title I applications. Four of the nine applications that listed professional development included references to Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP), a recognized framework for improving the academic achievement of ELLs (Daniel & Conlin, 2015; Short & Echevarria, 1999). Two applications indicated Title I funds would support tuition toward teachers obtaining an endorsement in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). The remaining applications listed training in assessment, standards and benchmarks, and bilingual education as strategies. The two applications that listed student instruction mentioned paying for tutoring and purchasing intervention programs to help students attain proficiency in mathematics and English language arts. The two applications that listed parent training included ESL classes and language resources for parents.

Academic needs of Spanish-speaking ELLs and Native American language-background ELLs. Forty-three of the 50 surveyed directors briefly discussed the academic needs of Spanish-speaking ELLs and Native American language-background ELLs in their districts. Their responses are summarized in Table 4.

Forty of 50 directors responded to this academic needs item, 10 left the item blank, and some indicated multiple needs, so Table 3 reflects the 43 needs indicated by the 40 respondents. The most common needs were students' lack of proficiency in English and the home language (15). Other needs expressed were lack of staff (6),

additional materials and support (5), Additional funding (1), additional professional development (1), identification of specific student needs (1), poverty (1), and vocabulary instruction (1).

Table 4

Academic Needs of Spanish-speaking and Native American Language-background ELLs

Need Expressed by Survey Participants	Number of Respondents
Needs Not Identified	12
Lack of Proficiency in English & Home Language	8
Students' Lack of English Proficiency	7
Lack of Staff	6
Additional Materials & Support	5
Additional Funding	1
Additional Professional Development	1
Identification of Specific Student Needs	1
Poverty	1
Vocabulary Instruction	1
Total	43

Regarding language proficiency, Survey Participant 8 stated, “Students come from a low income district and low educational level at home. Therefore, their English proficiency is very low in the academic language.” Survey Participant 51 expanded on this notion:

Spanish speaking ELLs are usually students who come to us from other countries. Their academic language need is to learn to speak, read, write and comprehend English. Native American ELL students usually need to focus on reading comprehension and writing.

Home Language and English. Survey Participant 36 stated, “Our ELL population struggles because they lack proficiency in both their first language as well as the English language.” In Chapter 2, I noted Romaine’s (1995) discussion of the idea of “semilingualism” that has been used to describe individuals who are less than proficient in more than one language and fluent in none. When this is the case, it is not accurate to state that a student has no language, as the issue of reliably classifying a bilingual individual’s language skill is extremely complex (García, 2009).

Other participants had similar comments: “We have students start school knowing very little of English or Native American. They are not well versed in either language” (Survey Participant 11); “Our ELL students come to us with limited vocabulary in either language” (Survey Participant 16); “We see multiple levels of Spanish proficiency and often that is seen as a barrier to learning a second language because of the limited proficiency in their home language” (Survey Participant 25). “We have kids coming in with no language. They’re not fluent in either one” (Interview Participant 1).

The comments continue. “Many come in at a very young age, which once they are screened, the issue really becomes that they really are not fluent in either English or their native language” (Survey Participant 22). “Our ELL students come to us with limited vocabulary in either language. ELLs are at a disadvantage in the upper grades as

they must continue to learn content while attempting to learn the language...and academic language at that” (Survey Participant 15).

Culture also plays a role in the educational experiences of ELLs. There is both the actual effect of the culture on the language acquisition of students in both the home language and English – and the perception of these phenomena by teachers and directors who often do not share the cultural background of students. Regarding native Navajo speakers, Interview Participant 1 revealed, “Home language is not being taught. A lot of parents don’t speak to their children a whole lot. Students aren’t learning either language so they’re coming into Kindergarten confused.” Survey Participant 14 revealed, “We have students that do not have the academic and instructional language to successfully complete their coursework.” Other study participants echoed these observations:

Spanish Speaking ELLs in our district make up the largest percentage of ELLs in our district. Academic needs include continued support by high-quality teachers in all content areas, especially in the secondary schools. Spanish speaking ELLs also need continued support in their home language as they learn English. We see multiple levels of Spanish proficiency and often that is seen as a barrier to learning a second language because of the limited proficiency in their home language. (Survey Participant 25)

Well, the very interesting thing about this particular community is that we have some generational gaps. Because the district is primarily Native American serving, our parents and their parents really are products of what happened as a result of dormitory BIA schools where students were discouraged to speak their

native home language and were encouraged to speak English. So as a result of that there was a breakdown in the native language and that was reinforced further by the fact that, culturally, parents respect children that don't speak until they're five, six years old and so in a roundabout way students are encouraged to not speak or allowed to not speak. And so ultimately what we wind up with in this community is a couple, three generations that are really probably limited English proficient as well as non-proficient in their home language and so that's something that we come up against. We work closely with the community Head Start program and with the tribe in an effort to try to build vocabulary skills of our young people. But generally we see our kindergarteners coming in with some tremendous gaps in their native language. Of the community I would say that there's – I've been told that there's in the vicinity of 50 to 75 fluent native speakers left in the tribal community of about 1200. And most of those folks are 50 years of age and older. And so the potential to lose the home language is pretty strong. (Interview Participant 2)

Home Language and Language of Instruction. Participants reflected on the challenges stemming from ELLs' lack of proficiency in the home language and further discuss challenges in teaching students in English.

We have students that do not have the academic and instructional language to successfully complete their coursework. (Survey Participant 14)

We have had a Bilingual program but cannot find a qualified Bilingual teacher, so we will serve our students through ESL. All of our students are served under

Title I because we are district wide. Our ELL's are not of an overwhelming number, so we will be able to serve them and hopefully get them caught up.

(Survey Participant 29)

They can't come in and speak either one very well. The majority of students that come in kindergarten are confused with their native language and with their English language. We have native language in all of the schools. We have teachers who go help these students try to understand both but if it's not being taught at the home, it's – we're coming in fresh with these kids trying to teach them English. Well I'm not – I haven't... but teaching a child how to talk from the basic ABCs to oral linguistics, everything. A lot of phonics, a lot of – all of the phonetic materials that the teachers teach the students are essential in kindergarten because they don't know how the sounds of the letters are. They're getting confused with their native sounds and their English sounds. We get a lot of funky words going on in elementary school and the K through 2 because of that, because of that linguistic... the interpretations of different sounds are so different. We have kids who are older who still have problems with that differentiating between different sounds of the alphabet. So they teach them the basics and they teach them just like any school. But they have to concentrate more on those phonetic sounds for the students because they're so different in their native language. (*Native language instruction*) It's limited. We have a few teachers in a school with several students... And different things that go on in our district. So... but it's limited. We have a couple of Native teachers who pull kids out for a short amount of time per day. So they're really with their main

homeroom teacher all day and that teacher has got to figure it out how to teach these kids English and how to learn how to read and write, mainly read. The big focus is reading. And it's hard to teach a student who is coming in and very confused with just the letter H is huge. The sound of the H has a totally different sound in the Native language. And so they're doing all the tricks they can.

(Interview Participant 1)

My district, like I said, has a tremendous number, but they are Spanish-speaking, and ...it is that advantage that we only really have one language that we need to consider beyond English. However, one of our issues is the community is still a very Spanish-speaking community, and so the kids go home to their home language and home isn't changing to English. The only time they get English is the six, seven hours they're at school, and even thinking of the smallest community that we have, you can go to the store there and it's all Spanish-speaking and the signs are all in Spanish. They really have no use for the English language. However, parents see a value in the students knowing the English language, that to get a job and to cater to English-speaking people, and to get that economic piece, they want them to get enough English to communicate. That they're bi-literate and can read and write it, I don't know if they're really that concerned as much as the verbal English, that they really need that.

Unfortunately, we have found that the Spanish-speaking parents want the kids to be immersed in English... and we'll take care of the Spanish. Well, they don't have academic Spanish to support the kids with, but they don't want them in our dual language program. They want them in an all-English program. Because

they need to have English, and you teaching Spanish isn't going to get them English. My bilingual director is very good about – he's the one that has to interview every parent that wants to check their kid out of the program, and he's real good about talking about the research and the foundation of reading, and you've got to have the first language before you can get a second language... Some of them listen and some of them, "No. They're going to do all English," and it's tough for those kids, and so they remain ELLs but they're not in program, and that is a tough group to deal with. You want them to be successful, but... we're having to add more to support them than what you would if they were in the program than the program supports. (Interview Participant 6)

ELL Instruction. Directors discussed the challenges and innovations that have assisted them as they work to provide a meaningful education to ELLs.

We have the Department of [name redacted] that is primarily responsible for making sure that – well, for the English language learners other than Native American students, assure that ... their charge is to assure that the needs of those kids are being met through that department. And of course, as I've said, we also do provide a number of services through Title I for our English language learners. (Interview Participant 4)

However, some Districts struggle to meet the needs of ELLs (Survey Participant 4). Survey Participant 32 stated, “Many educators do not realize that students learn best when taught in their primary language.”

In contrast, other districts have adapted to ELL needs: “Teachers modify their lessons to meet the individual needs of all students. ELL students are encouraged and

supported in all opportunities to participate. Our schools have a very high percentage of TESOL endorsed teachers” (Survey Participant 45). “Many of our teachers incorporate Spanish and English lessons into their curriculum” (Survey Participant 45).

Some are using methods other than bilingual education. For example, Survey Participant 3 revealed, “ELL is often approached in a foreign language instructional approach rather than a dual language approach” and Survey Participant 34 disclosed: “I sat in classes with them especially in English class and translated when need be. The use of translation programs helped me to build vocabulary,” while “Their step-father assisted at home.”

ELL Performance. Study participants noted some successes for ELLs. For example, Survey Participant 9 stated, “Generally speaking, all ELL's in the district, whether Spanish speaking or NA [read: Native American] Tiwa speaking, do keep up with the academic classroom and need very little extra help in the Language Arts portion” and according to Survey Participant 32, “It takes seven or more years to acquire a second language but when bilingual education is taught correctly, bilingual students outperform monolingual students academically because they are using both parts of their brains to think.”

Survey Participant 31 discusses the academic performance of current and former ELLs:

Both Spanish-speaking ELLs and Native students designated as ELL typically perform below or behind non-ELL peers on reading and other vocabulary-based subjects. Greater exposure and more-focused instructional strategies are needed for these ELL-labeled students. However, we have noticed that "exited" ELL

students (those performing high on the WIDA) are outperforming non-ELL students on NMSBA.

ELL Instructional Needs. Along with these successes, study participants also pointed to significant areas of need, including “Academic language development in both L1 and L2 languages” (Survey Participant 21). Vocabulary and reading skills are also areas of need. According to Survey Participant 46:

The greatest need of the ELL students in this district is vocabulary, especially written vocabulary. They are able to converse with peers and teachers, but have extreme difficulty when having to comprehend written directions or stories without a great deal of the vocabulary explained to them.

Survey Participant 24 added:

The Academic needs of the ELL's in our district are to become proficient in both English and Spanish academic language. Reading is a vital area of need. All students need to read well so they can learn in all areas.

Survey Participant 47 pointed to the need for greater support:

Providing more support during the day would be of great benefit. Having someone with whom they could communicate with on a daily basis would be helpful. Our ELL's, it seems, often communicate in other ways, and sometimes it is not in the most positive manner. Providing more texts, novels and other materials in their native language would also be beneficial. We do purchase ELL materials, but if the classroom teacher is English only, information is sometimes lost in translation. Having the ELL teacher alongside the English speaking teacher ensures that students understand and are able to function at a high level.

One strategy for effectively addressing the needs of ELL students is the implementation of bilingual programs including the dual language model.

Bilingual (Dual Language) Programs. Many Districts use bilingual programs to assist ELL students. For example, according to Interview Participant 8, "...our site administrators are very, very cooperative with the program, and they really support the needs because we service these kids... they know the importance of the dual language development." Survey Participant 30 and Interview Participant 2 expanded on the programs in their districts:

The population of ELL's in our district are Spanish speaking. Academically I feel that we meet the needs of our ELL population. We provide our students a 50:50 dual language program so that our students can maintain their native language as they learn English. All of our staff are highly qualified and receive proper training to meet the academic needs of our ELL population. (Survey Participant 30)

We have our state bilingual program that funds primarily support in the classroom for teachers, either one for professional development, supplies and materials for students, and of course instruction materials that they may need in the classrooms. The Title I program also provides intervention for – like I said, for the students, so a Title I in particular through the Indian Ed program where we provide some tutoring for them specifically. And we have five educational assistants that provide support for that population District-wide. (Interview Participant 2)

Other study participants highlighted specific efforts to foster bilingual programs: "The bilingual department has a couple of coordinators who go out and assist schools as

needed” (Interview Participant 3). “I work closely with our Dir. of Bilingual office. Many of the ELL trainings are offered to all staff and Title I funds are frequently used to provide Professional Development” (Survey Participant 12). “We’ll help fund any types of trainings for teachers in the Title I schools that might need more support in bilingual. We even have purchased a program called Imagine Learning for our ELL kids” (Interview Participant 3).

Interview Participant 6 gave a more detailed response:

The ones who stay in program will be in a dual language program, and we're dual language pre-K through 12, and so – Most of it is 50-50. I have one school that starts 90-10 and then moves to 50-50 – that's an elementary school – so that when they hit the sixth grade center, then we do dual language, and it's 50-50 at that point. We typically do math in both languages. Of course they have Spanish language arts and English language arts, and then we pick one other subject... Science or social studies will be in Spanish. Our first one we did was with a high school chemistry teacher who taught chemistry all in Spanish, and having been a chemistry teacher, I thought that would really be fantastic for the kids. It's a whole different level of using your language that they could see what it was really about, and so that person was from Mexico. Their visa expired, he went back, but we've been lucky enough to maintain a lot with visas having real masters of the Spanish language. I mean it's hard to teach chemistry. – academic Spanish is so high, you really need to have had the original, so we do a lot of visas in order to keep the secondary functioning in the dual language concept. We're committed to the bi-literacy seal, and we will have a group graduate this spring. We had very

few last May, got to have it. The state hasn't come up with – they've approved it, but the criteria for it the state hasn't approved, so the district just approved their own criteria and gave the kids a sash for their graduation and put a seal on there. It will be fun when it's a New Mexico seal rather than the district seal, but yeah, we're supporting them all the way through. Now, those are the kids in program. ELLs that are not in program are middle school for grades seven and eight. All of the teachers, and there's 40-some odd teachers at that school, are going through the (name redacted) TESOL program, and so come May of this year, they will be 100 percent TESOL-endorsed. We have quite a few kids that when the Mexican school turns from public education to private, that they go ahead and come over, because they are U.S. citizens, and come for that secondary education, and so we have a lot of them come that are at the starting, when they're– at the high school, along about ninth or tenth grade, here they come, zero English, and so even though we will support them with ESL and all of the classes necessary, it's nice to have the teachers that can also communicate and alternative strategies for the kids with second language needs. We're working on TESOL endorsements so that we can support the ELLs out of program.

Interview Participant 6 also pointed to challenges in effectively implementing bilingual programs:

You've got to support both languages and support that learning process that's going on in the brain, and so there is a difference. A lot of our LEPs have Spanish at home, and so when you send homework home or trying to get support at home for even flashcards and learning that, parents don't know the English side either.

Interview Participant 6 continued:

Title III, which works for the ELLs and their English language acquisition - It doesn't help their Spanish language acquisition. But we are committed as a district, and the board has voted on it, that we will be a dual language district, and that's how we've gone pre-K 12 and done the visas, because visas aren't cheap. But we're committed to it as a district. We're committed to it as a community that needs people fluent in two languages, and so when the Title III funds get so far in supporting the ELLs, we can't let it fall off. Title I is here to support all of our students, including the ones that are ELL, and we need to make sure they're most successful. Research shows ELL is more successful in a dual language environment, and so we'll support Spanish instruction so that they can learn their home language so they can learn a second language, and that, to me, is Title I and that district's biggest goal is to make sure that both languages are supported.

As a strategy to overcome the challenges of implementing and sustaining a program to help ELL students, Interview Participant 2 employs a pullout program:

We have a pullout program. It's sheltered for ELLs. Those students are receiving a period of English language arts and then they're also in an English language development setting where they're - usually that's kind of a blended approach. We're using the software but the TESOL endorsed instructors also do some sheltered content, do some scaffolding. They do a number of different strategies to help those students develop their English language arts skills. We also at the elementary school in some cases provide a secondary tier two intervention where some students get some additional time in support for English language arts. So

outside of their ELL setting a number of these students may be getting a third period of that. And then we also have the heritage program. It's a bilingual program at the elementary and so in addition to their regular school day these students also – every student in the school rotates through a class that's taught by our 520, our Native American language certified instructors in their home language of _____. And so the – all students including the ELLs have that. So some of our ELL students are exposed to one hour of their home language and then up to three periods of English language support. And then at the high school we have a much more traditional model. Students are in their regular English language arts. If they're identified as English language learners then they go into – again we have a TESL endorsed instructor and he's working with a program.

Interview Participant 8 also employs a pullout program:

We have – like as you mentioned, we have our three schools. Elementary schools, our dual language schools. Our middle school has a heritage language model and enrichment program. At the high school, we have our maintenance program, and we just recently added an enrichment program for our non-Spanish speakers. But our ELs are serviced through pull out programs. In some cases, we provide English language development classes at the middle school so students who are struggling – and those are just enrich...our remedial courses, so those that are struggling, we actually have established classrooms and programs for them so they can get the extra support that they need across all grade levels. And like I said, the dual language programs at the elementary schools are all inclusive of all the students in there. *(Interviewer: So there's not a separate dual language*

track and non-dual language track?) We have two separate tracks. We have a dual language, and then those parents that choose for their child not to be in program will be in the standard model if you will. We have – at two of our schools, we have the 90/10 model. We’re hoping to transition to the 50/50, and one is at – it’s a new program, so we’re right now at a 50/50 and hoping to keep that, but that one is in its inception, so we’re building as that grows right now. It’s a K1 dual language program.

While these study participants revealed their efforts and successes in implementing dual language programs, these programs require additional support. For example, Survey Participant 28 stated:

District serves significant populations of both Spanish speakers and Native Language speakers. Challenges: While we have a robust K-5 Spanish Dual program, the students frequently do not emerge as proficient in English in academic performance. Focus on Spanish literacy may reduce proficiency in math and science long-term. Native American students frequently struggle with the demands of building academic vocabulary as well as increasing English lexicon at a pace adequate to achieve proficiency. Lack of print text in Native languages restricts the quantity of print students have exposure with at school and in home.

Similarly, Survey Participant 30 stated, “I do believe that companies can do a better job providing native language supplemental materials at the secondary level” and Interview Participant 6 added, “As we expand K-3 plus, we get enough funding with K-3 plus that the schools that have enough kids we can run a Spanish dual language strand

within our K-3 plus. But it's a staffing issue more than a money issue is what it comes down to." Interview Participant 2 demonstrated how resources can be managed to accomplish the target goal:

And so where we can we reinforce the native language along with the English language. We also use resources, Title I school district resources ...everywhere we can look to try to supplement the classrooms with information that will impact all of our students including our ELLs. We ensure that all of our teachers know who their English language learners are in their classrooms and we encourage differentiation for those students in the regular classroom setting as well and so blending these different kinds of resources in a way that gives the classroom as many tools as possible to support those students in developing their English language arts. We also encourage all of our programs to find ways to support common core standards in both English language arts and math and in some cases science. But those are some of the things that we're giving a go.

Overall, these findings demonstrate how districts in New Mexico are implementing bilingual programs. But to be fully successful, New Mexico districts must consider culture.

Culture. New Mexico is home to many cultures and languages and has the only bilingual constitution among the 50 states. Therefore, it is not surprising that study participants emphasized the need to be responsive to cultural issues. Interview Participant 1 revealed: "A lot of our teachers here learn the Native way. That's a requirement for them to try to understand where their students are coming from. There's certain things that a teacher can't discuss with students because of that taboo."

Referring to professional development for teachers, Interview Participant 2 stated, “of course we want them to appreciate diversity.” Interview Participant 2 continued:

We currently are getting an Indian education district initiative grant, \$25,000 a year and we’re using that to introduce cultural relevance into the classrooms and we also use those funds to support a cultural relevance steering committee that’s made up of community personnel, community folks and the department of culture, the department of education and others in the community that have a voice in education. Along with the school district we’re working to try to make sure that we have not just these resources but some community support toward trying to align these and make things happen for our kids. We also will have on our cultural relevance steering committee one specific parent representing ELLs, one parent representing a title one effort and one parent representing Indian Education.

Again the Indian Education initiative – by bringing cultural relevance to the classroom. A lot of our teachers come from outside of the community. And it’s a belief of ours that if a classroom setting is more culturally relevant to students then they – their interest in learning is increased. And so we look to use those funds to try to make our classrooms more user friendly to all of our students including our ELLs.

So one of the components is professional development for teachers so that of course we want them to appreciate diversity. We want them to have an understanding of the local culture and the history of this community so that our teachers are better equipped to work with our students. In many cases our

teachers come from out of state. Many times from back east. Many times they're used to, I guess for lack of a better word, maybe a little more of an Anglo setting, and getting some background in the community helps them to be a little better informed. And then we use these funds and encourage our teachers to find ways to incorporate Native American language and culture into their classrooms with a specific focus on this particular tribe. So we see – we've seen website development. We've seen project based learning that oftentimes involves some hands on art or thematic instruction around particular Native American celebrations and it's kind of good to see some of the stuff that's out there.

Interview Participant 8 discussed steps taken to foster a relationship of mutual respect with the local tribe:

Then we have some liaisons that will work specifically with the governing counsel of the pueblo there, and so our administrator does a wonderful job in really I think mending the relationship that the district had with the pueblo, and then we're starting to – like I said, I think it's strong. It's maybe where it needs to be, but there's always room for improvement in trying to bring in more people.

(Interviewer: So it sounds like you have a good relationship at this point in time, but it wasn't always that way?) My understanding is that it has not always been that way. *(Interviewer: Do you know what the district did to improve that?)*

Really emphasizing that the students are our number one priority, and that we want to listen to what their needs are. And I think the turning point has been that that's the conversation where that conversation was maybe one sided in the past. It's really two-way now, and this is what we need, this is how we can help at

providing as much as we can, given the funding. So you know, donation of computers to support programs at those facilities and so on, and so I think it's making a difference.

These insights from Interview Participant 6 and Interview Participant 8 highlight the importance of culture, but also regarding the importance of collaboration in fostering language skills in ELL students.

Collaboration in Title I, Bilingual Education, and Indian Education Programs

Collaboration was a common theme among study participants in reference to Title I and to meeting the needs of ELL students. Promoting parental involvement includes organizational structures, parental involvement, and parent training.

Organizational Structures. One aspect of collaboration is organizational. The organizational structures of districts differed towards meeting the goals of Title I and the needs of ELL students. For example, Interview Participant 1 revealed that "In this district, recent administrative changes have increased the collaboration among Title I, bilingual education, Indian Education, and special education" and that "There's more of a collaboration with the Indian Ed. And the Bilingual Ed. My supervisor this year is the director of Indian Education but she's also the Director of SPED. Services to students are intertwined." Similarly, Interview Participant 5 indicated, "In this district key directors are all under the umbrella of the Assistant Superintendent. The departments meet regularly to review the needs of students" and that "The Curriculum and Instruction Department is under the Asst. Supt. Also under this person is Title I, Special Education, and Indian Education. These departments meet biweekly to discuss student needs." In Interview Participant 6's district, Title I and bilingual education directors both report to

the same person, a structure that greatly facilitates communication and collaboration. “Both bilingual education and Title I and federal programs are all inside instructional services department or division. They all report to me.”

Optimizing organizational structures to foster collaboration may require adjustments over time. As stated by Interview Participant 8:

Well, the collaboration starts first with the administrative team, so my co-director and I work closely in regards to the bilingual that I oversee, the Indian Ed. that she oversees, and then we share the Title I components. So we look at what our goals are, and then from there, we kind of work with our staffing, look at our staffing patterns, our needs. This year, because we’re both new to the district, we’re kind of just looking and feeling our way, looking at kind of doing a needs assessment, and then from there, we’ll hope to plan for next year what changes we need to make for the district.

To enhance collaboration, it is also important to make sure that all stakeholders are represented, according to Interview Participant 4:

I actually work quite closely with the director of the department that oversees bilingual education, not so much so with the Indian education program. We sit together on instructional leadership teams. For whatever reason, I don’t know why not, the director is not on that leadership team. So we’re able to – we do quite a bit of collaboration together.

It is possible that adding the Indian Education director to the team would extend the collaboration to Indian Education programs in the district of Interview Participant 4. It is also important to establish and embrace ELL programs for all ELL home languages:

And then of course our site administrators are very, very cooperative with the program, and they really support the needs because we service these kids. They are, I think, building and trying to hold onto their language more so than being fluent in their language at this point in time. But the Indian ed. program does not have an established program under the bilingual ed. component. (Interview Participant 8)

Further, not all districts enjoy a collaborative environment. For example, Interview Participant 7 revealed, “I don’t believe that the Title I office works very closely with bilingual and the Title III office here, so I pretty much work in isolation here.” This is the only interview participant who expressed working in isolation. However, other comments from this individual do indicate some collaboration in the district’s work with ELLs and parents of ELLs.

While these views highlight how organizational structures are critical for collaboration, perhaps equally important, meeting the demands of Title I and the needs of ELL students requires meeting the needs of the parents of ELL students and fostering parental involvement.

Parental Involvement. To nurture parental involvement and collaboration with parents, it is important to first appreciate the needs of parents of ELL students. For example, in District 7, the parental involvement programming in Title I is focused on ELL parents. When discussing programs for low income parents, this director mentioned a program that would help prepare parents to earn GEDs, or New Mexico High School Equivalency Credentials (HSEs). This is a goal that has the potential to lead parents to

obtaining better paying jobs, continuing their education, and setting an example for their children.

We're really focusing a lot on ELL parents, you know, and parents of maybe more of our schools that are maybe high poverty, high ELL. I really don't know what they're doing right now, but it was kind of like how to help your child succeed in school, how can you support your child. Maybe if the parent, I don't know, one of the other ideas was helping parents get their GEDs if they needed it. So things kind of like along that, just really support – help support parents help their – support their children in school. (Interview Participant 7)

Interview Participant 6 added:

...also helps that it's district-wide. Title I is district-wide, and we have so many ELL students and we are committed to the bilingual piece all the way through until twelfth grade, that anything we do we always considers Title I and what are the needs of parents in poverty, students in poverty, and then also what are the language needs. It's just a standard thought process that there's never anything that's done for just English-only, middle class. English-only middle class doesn't exist where we live, so it's very integrated, it's very collaborative, and if there's anything that I think that's weak, it's the summer school program. That is such a limited resource, and limited number of people who will work... that we could offer dual language summer school and Spanish classes, but we can't get enough staff that have that certification.

In addition to the needs experienced by all parents, mothers and fathers of ELLs also sometimes are unfamiliar with the language and culture of U.S. schools, and the

opportunities available to their children. In response to this, some districts are providing parent programs that specifically address these issues.

Parent Programs. Part of collaboration is having programs for parents of ELL students. Several study participants highlighted their steps to foster parental involvement programs. For example, Interview Participant 7 stated, “I know that the Native American office we have, they do a lot of activities for families and Native students. They have a huge parent involvement in different things going on.”

Interview Participant 4’s district includes a family literacy program:

Some of the district set-aside is Even Start. That is one that's been around for as long as – a lot longer than I have. Even Start is a family literacy program for preschool, three- and four-year-old students. And there again, I mean, absolutely supporting the needs of English language learners, not only the student but the parent. The child actually qualifies for the preschool portion of the program based on the literacy needs of the parent. So the parent needs to either be needing to work on a GED or take ESL classes. And we offer those through (name redacted). And then, there's several other components to Even Start and the preschool program for the little ones being one of them. Parent literacy and ESL are provided for the parents. Extended day academics are also funded by Title I – as is the (name redacted) family science program.

Similarly, the district of Interview Participant 6 includes a Hispanic family literacy program that includes English acquisition:

A lot of our LEPs have Spanish at home, and so when you send homework home or trying to get support at home for even flashcards and learning that, parents

don't know the English side either. So, you need to figure out some way to help the parents, as well, and to make that home connection so they know what they're supposed to be doing. (*Interviewer: What have you guys done in that area?*) We do offer ESL classes for parents. We have the Hispanic literacy – what is it called? It's the Hispanic literacy parent involvement piece, and if you want to know the real name, let me know and I'll look it up when I get home. But it's structured lessons, and it's about ten different sessions that you have with the parents, teaching them about American schools, what the expectations are, and then how can you help the kids at home and what can you do to support your students. We try to send everything home in both languages, especially if it's a parent notification that goes home, but the kids that are in the program, they have both, the books in English and in Spanish. So, if they're going to take home some work to do at night, the teachers can send home the English page or they can send home the Spanish page, and the kids can respond and get help from home, so we try to work that way with the parents at home. (*Interviewer: It sounds great, and the parent initiatives you were talking about, how are those funded? Do you know?*) Title III. It's English acquisition – is where that came. It happens during the school day, a lot of it. We mainly get mothers that are willing to participate, but one of our schools got this school improvement grant, and, with that, a parent liaison was hired. Okay, and so that person was a full-time employee and they went out to find the parents and offered this during school time, and so as part of that grant funding, we were able to get this whole thing started.

The district where Interview Participant 7 works has a partnership with a local community college to help ELL parents to earn their GED (HSE):

The other thing we do, we fund – it started out at a higher allocation, but we fund a little bit for a parent academy that we have going. And I think this year, they've partnered with the community college, and that's kind of – that kind of comes out of central office and not really under me. But we do put \$20,000 towards that programming. We're really focusing a lot on ELL parents, you know, and parents of maybe more of our schools that are maybe high poverty, high ELL. I really don't know what they're doing right now, but it was kind of like how to help your child succeed in school, how can you support your child. Maybe if the parent – I don't know, one of the other ideas was helping parents get their GEDs if they needed it. So things kind of like along that, just really support – help support parents help their – support their children in school.

Interview Participant 3 works in a district that used Title I funding to support parental involvement:

Oh, the other thing we do is we help fund for Title I schools a parental involvement program. And that's the Institute for Parent Involvement. We got this model out of California. In California, it's called Beacon. It's in the L.A. area. And so, we changed it. We purchased their curriculum and changed it to the New Mexico way. And so, it's an elementary, a middle, and a high school curriculum and what happens is it's a nine-week program. The parents come in and they learn all the educational jargon and then what they need to do for as their kids come in, like four-year plans, credits, asking the right questions, sort of

trying to break the mold and saying get more involved with your school. Insist on having meetings with your counselors. But we'll have people from the college come in, financial aid, the whole nine yards. Parental reception has been pretty good. When we first tried it at a couple of schools, I think the first year we did it at two schools in the springtime and I think at a middle school we had like 120 parents out of 800 attend the full nine... Yeah, and you know, it's – so they're averaging about 60 parents that show up faithfully for the nine weeks. And it's really neat because at the end we have a graduation and make a big *mitote* (to do) out of it ... and they get certificates ... But it really has helped I think in talking to the building principals, the attitudes of parents have changed because they're now more advocates for their kids to go to school and the importance of why and giving the skills to ask the right questions. "Make sure my kid is in AP class," or, "Make sure that you insist that he's aligned in the right classes and stuff." So yeah, it's been pretty fun to watch. It is offered in English and Spanish... Yeah, and the Spanish has – it's a small group. They're the hardest parents to get in. But they'll offer a morning, one like at about 10 o'clock and then we'll offer one at six. But there's always two sessions. We've hired facilitators and what we've done is parents that have gone through the program and are pretty strong, we've recruited them to be teachers.

Similarly, Interview Participant 5's district also used Title I funding to foster parental involvement:

We are doing a parent involvement series in conjunction with the Department of Diné Education, as well as with the NMPED and our district. Four parent

involvement conferences on Saturdays. Topics have included homeless, data, bullying, and other topics. Twenty percent of the allocation is set aside for the seven principles. Five of our schools are receiving these funds and will determine its use based on data within each school report card. Past activities have been Parent Corners, for parents to come in and read with their children, intensive tutoring, interventionists, and a behavioral specialist. The interventionists work with reading and math. Data is used throughout the district to make decisions for instruction. School sites have directed Title I funds toward after school tutoring, summer school, credit recovery, STEM, Academic Youth Development (AYD). AYD is very similar to K3Plus, but directed at students in grades 4-6.

Interview Participant 2's district incorporates after school programs to support parents:

But here's an example of a couple things that we've done. We did – we did a lights-on after school project last fall and the project was aimed at encouraging after school programs. But the agenda for the night focused around a menu of opportunities if you could picture parents coming to a workshop and go to this classroom to learn about English language learners and opportunities through Title III. Come over here to find out about our Title I funding and what we do with it and fill out this – so we kind of married those things together. This year one of the things that we're specifically working on with our parents. So one of the things that we're doing by way of procedures. We intend this year to establish a separate ELL parent advisory group. That parent group – we're intending to

ensure that they're aware of what we're doing with our Title I services in addition to what we're doing through ELL and Title III.

Interview Participant 8 works in a district that incorporates the Back to School Institute for parents and takes steps to make parental education inviting:

Right now, with the set-aside, we have of course for the parent involvement component at the school levels, like I said, they're funding primarily support staff in intervention...Funded by Title I... *(Interviewer: And the parent involvement district level set aside, can you talk a little bit about that, what that does?)* With those, we provide funding for parents to attend trainings. So for example, I believe it's called the Back to School Institute, so we fund the registration and travel and all that for parents. We provide them any – for school sites in particular, if they're hosting any parent events, any invitations for parents to come in for maybe a literacy night or a math night, refreshments for parents to come in or maybe some materials for parents to take home, how to support students with homework and that type of thing.

While this section highlighted the organizational structure, parental involvement, and parent training steps taken to foster collaboration, the following section demonstrates the need for continuing professional development in Title I schools.

Professional Development

Professional development was a common theme among study participants. Some study participants emphasized the need for increased professional development, while others emphasized the utility of language acquisition and coaching strategies.

The Need for Professional Development. To fully meet the needs of ELL students, some Title I directors in New Mexico expressed a need for more professional development. While the district of Survey Participant 12 offers many ELL Professional Development trainings for staff that are funded by Title I, the district of Survey Participant 3 lacks professional development regarding instructional pedagogy for ELL students. Similarly, while the district of Interview Participant 3 funds bilingual professional development programs, there is a need for more professional development in the areas of dual language and differentiation among bilingual language coordinators. These findings indicate that professional development is unevenly distributed within and across Title I districts in New Mexico, and that some districts expressed a need for additional professional development. One instructional model for which districts provided training is the Guided Language Acquisition Design (GLAD) (Hansen, 2003).

GLAD Strategies. Several participants indicated that their professional development includes GLAD strategies. The district of Interview Participant 7 uses GLAD as part of their professional development and the district of Interview Participant 4 employs GLAD training from the district's language and cultural equity department. According to Interview Participant 6:

...we do GLAD strategies – you're familiar – and we do AIMS for _____, the math side of that. We have in elementary more than 50 percent of the teachers trained in GLAD and in AIMS. Therefore, even though they may not be TESOL-endorsed, they have the instructional strategies for language acquisition, and so at the schools where the Somalians are the biggest group, those teachers are almost all GLAD trained and AIMS trained, so they're using those strategies. When you

can make connections, it doesn't really matter what the first language is, so yeah, we're working on it.

Coaches and Shepherds. Another professional development strategy is to employ strategies that include instructional coaches and shepherds. As stated by Interview Participant 6:

...oh, instructional leaders. That's what's got – they're really Instructional Coaches. They're mostly reading, but they're supposed to cover reading and math. There's one in every school. It is to assist the new teachers and to work on instructional strategies, helping to analyze the data. They are purely mentors for teachers. Yeah, and so yes, it falls into that section on PD is where they fall. We have most of them coming out of Title I, and some of them ended up with part-time Instructional Coaches and part-time an administrator, so I push them on out to operational totally.

In the district of Interview Participant 3, instructional coaches are making an important impact:

The district provides many training opportunities to teachers. Lots of training in the summer, funded by pooling federal monies to address common areas of need. The district has trained many educational specialists. Some of these folks are hired by the district as principals and the training process for specialists starts again. However, the focus on Instructional Coaches has possibly had the most significant impact on school/student growth.

Interview Participant 7 spoke about the funding of instructional coaches for professional development:

You don't have a lot of decision-making in how your Title I money is spent, but what the district does is give each _____ school in that zone \$150,000, and it basically funds two Coaches, and so that's how that's spent. (*Interviewer: What subject areas do the Coaches work in?*) Reading and math in the core areas. And then in the _____ zone, which is where most of our schools fall, they get ... last year, they got \$20,000. This year, they got \$15,000, that same type of money, and they can spend it either on like a staff position or professional development, so that's a big chunk of our... (*Interviewer: The area of professional development – Is that left up to the school?*) Yes, that principal can make – it does have to get – go through our chief of – our deputy superintendent, but basically, yeah, that gives them some – they have more decision-making, and that's so they can decide how they spend that money.

Interview Participant 7 also revealed that substitute teachers can be used to cover classes for teachers that are involved in professional development:

They do fund a lot of like Title I teachers, Coaches, or if their allocations don't quite cover the salaries of the coaches in the achievement zones, they might pick it up with their site. A lot of professional development. Substitutes – you know, send substitutes to cover classrooms when teachers are going to professional development, so lots of things like that.

The district of Interview Participant 1 is expanding the use of experienced Shepherds beyond the classroom to the mentoring of administrators:

At the district level we are doing something different this year. We are keeping in place Coaches in professional development. They go into the classrooms and

observe and help teachers learn how to do different things that might make the students better. It's really a professional development-type person within the school. In the core subjects mainly. They sort of hit on the reading and math. And we have two Shepherds this year. They help our principals with leadership, which trickles down to of course our teachers. We get a lot, a big turnover of leadership here. The Shepherds have been in the district for years. They have been principals who have had great success in their schools. And so now we're helping the principals become better leader for their staff which in turn teaches the kids. A new idea. It's pretty cool.

This section demonstrated how professional development has great utility, but also that professional development varies across districts, and that increased levels of professional development are needed in some districts in the areas of dual language, differentiation, and overall ELL instructional methods. Further, some districts are effectively implementing GLAD strategies, while other districts employ coaches and shepherds to mentor teachers and administrators. However, these strategies must be implemented in the context of the poverty of New Mexico ELL students and families.

Poverty, Language, and Educational Disruption

The economic poverty of participating districts was a common theme in the present study. Poverty, home language, and policy are intertwined in New Mexico Title I districts, including the educational disruption stemming from the mobility of families living in poverty. Survey Participant 8 linked the language deficits and challenges of educating ELL students to poverty, stating that "Students come from a low income

district and low educational level at home. Therefore, their English proficiency is very low in the academic language.”

As Interview Participant 6 summarized the extent and impact of poverty in New Mexico Title I districts, “the district itself is... sitting in about the poorest area in the United States...we are district-wide Title I because of the extreme poverty” and “As I look across New Mexico, whether it's Spanish or whether it's a Native American language, it's just an area that doesn't have a lot of growth economically, and so I don't see it changing statewide.” Interview Participant 6 continued:

...there's so many similar issues with ELL and poverty that that's also hard to separate out one from the other, because, like the TESOL endorsement that I talked about, that's designed for ELLs, but when you use pictures and help them make connections between prior learning and this, that's a big impact on poverty, too.

This linkage between poverty, home language, and policy was an eye-opening learning experience for Interview Participant 6, who saw this linkage as foreshadowing lifelong challenges:

I always say about 75 percent of the students have been ELLs. They just passed the test one day. But they still struggle, and from talking to other adults that have been second language learners, they struggle their whole life, and so I always pay attention that we have a lot more kids than 33 percent being... the district itself on Title I is sitting in about the poorest area in the United States, and so I learned a lot when I started about Title I's focus and what the emphasis was. As I reflect back to my prior jobs, now I better understand how that funding was used.

I didn't know, of course, at the time but we are district-wide Title I because of the extreme poverty. I think the people within that district don't realize the privilege they have through having such a focus both on ELLs and the focus on Title I, that we have those resources basically for all kids. Whereas in prior experience, it has been those kids get these things, but these kids don't. I had a tough time with understanding equity at that time. I better understand it now that I better understand who the kids are and that there really is an equity issue. To me, it means that equity does not mean that the child from poverty and a child from middle class, you give them the same thing. That's not really equity because the Title I kid did not have the background and the resources to come into this that I had, and they don't have the support mechanisms to get them through school like I had support mechanisms to get me through school. They need that just to catch up, and then we can go forward together, but it was an uneducated opinion of Title I and Title III and Migrant Education before I actually got to where it was used and I was involved enough to realize what it was really about. It's been a learning experience.

Interview Participant 6 pointed to the challenges related to the low home language skills of local students living in poverty. This is contrasted with a group of ELL students new to the district.

It's really hard to come up with just programs for ELLs. Because there's so many of them that if we offer something – Well, dual language, though, is not ELL only. My children could join – the dual language program, and so even something like that isn't there....We had Somalians move in, and we got quite a

lot of Somalians, and so it's like we've got second-language learners but they aren't fitting well into our dual language model because they don't know Spanish – they know Somalian. – but our TESOL-endorsed people – are better equipped for that – and are using strategies to help those kids. Of course, they're kids, and all of them came with language. It wasn't English, but we're not seeing the same effect of the high poverty lack of the first language. They are showing up with the first language, so going to the second language, they're catching on very quickly. Right now, they've been there for, what, four months, and it is significant the English they have – because they're picking it up so quickly. The mobility of families in poverty, including homeless families, leads to educational disruption, according to Interview Participant 6:

We do deal with... and the battered women's shelter is one of the facilities that meets the criteria. For the kids that end up there for the night or the week, or whatever, we go ahead and we leave them at their home school, and so transportation picks them up there and takes them where they need to go – and provides that support so everything isn't disrupted totally in their life along the way. We do have a high number because of the poverty and the homeless, and so we have a set-aside to help support the McKinney-Vento funding. It's not enough to cover our liaison's salary, let alone provide the supplies, so the district focuses on using McKinney-Vento for the shoes, the clothes, the school supplies, helping pay the electric bill or pay the deposit for them to get a rent, all of those things that's allowable. So, the money we get for that we try to keep for those things because Title I, our operational, can't buy those things, and so this year we're

down now to McKinney-Vento pays for 25 percent of the liaison's salary; the district picks up the other 75, plus the secretary for that. I guess 75 for the liaison and – that's a set-aside because that's under homeless, and then her secretary comes out of Title I.

Interview Participant 1 echoed the serious challenges of overcoming the educational disruption that comes from poverty.

We have a mish mash in my opinion of supplemental materials that are helping these students in the classroom. So if a child – and we have a huge district that the kids move around from school to school to school. So they go to school B and they're being taught some other kind of supplemental material for reading or math and they have to learn, relearn because it's got its rules and it's got all of its different components in it for the child to learn how to read. So they have to relearn the supplemental to do the core. I would say “You know what? Let's find a great program. Yeah, it's going to be hard but let's find some supplemental programs that we have in elementary, that we have in middle school that we have in high school.” Their – parents move around a lot. We have a huge poverty level here and so they're living in hotels which are their homes. They don't – some of them don't qualify for the homeless program which we have because they've chosen – that's where they live. They think that's fine. But then something happens and they go to Motel B over here and then go to some family's house over here. That's when they become a homeless situation but we have a lot of moving around of students. Or a parent gets upset at a school and decides well and fights for this other school. It's just – it doesn't make sense to

me that we have so many different kinds of programs for supplemental help. And I know supplemental is supplemental but we need some kind of consistency and that's what I would say. We need to spend some of our Title I funds for some good programs that are consistent throughout the district... and we're not doing that.

Because of the mobility of families in poverty, Interview Participant 6 emphasized that the challenges of educating ELL students in poverty is a growing problem that is here to stay:

I think the problem is only going to grow. In a district such as ours, I think that's where the moving target of trying to hit proficiency rate and making good grades is really a real hard problem. We always start kindergarten students, basically more than half of them will be Spanish-speaking only when they walk in the front door. (*Interviewer: Monolingual Spanish speakers?*) Yeah, monolingual Spanish. The other half of them is 'poverty English', and research shows that's a very small vocabulary, and so Title I and Title III, meaning those two groups right there, those kids will always be here. If the amnesty stands, it's going to be a significant identified growth right now that's going to hit us. But, as long as New Mexico allows students to cross from Mexico and come to school, even so, the communities on the border are always going to be Spanish-speaking communities, and so I think in our community it will always be there. My hope would be maybe we could get to the point that poverty isn't so bad, and joblessness isn't such a horrible situation, that the economic area might grow. That would help our kids tremendously, whether they're ELLs or not ELLs. But, until there's some

sort of revolution and desert sand becomes a wealthy industry, we're going to be where we are.

While this section highlighted the challenges of educating ELL students in poverty, study participants had logical suggestions towards overcoming these challenges.

Overcoming Challenges: Positive Expectations, the Need for Change, and the Federal Role in Education

Study participants were forthcoming with strategies and suggestions towards meeting the challenges of educating ELL students in Title I districts. One strategy is to maintain high expectations. As Interview Participant 2 stated:

Well I would say that we use our – we have high expectations for all of our students and that we really try to maximize our resources in a way that impact all children and help them achieve at the – and graduate at the same level of expectation and our efforts are targeted to try to ensure that that happens with all of our kids, that they graduate at that twelfth grade with that ability to make a choice between what it is that they want to do in life. And that's what we do.

Interview Participant 2 continued:

Well, I think that really what this means to me is that we need to break down any barriers that we can to provide opportunities and assure that all of our students are achieving at the highest levels possible. We're not... if a student is two years behind in their English language development we don't treat that as an expectation. We look at it as an opportunity and try to find ways to support those students so that they can as quickly as possible have the understanding that they need in order to be competitive with their peers across the state, really across the

nation, really across the world and with the expectation that our students will graduate with the degree of choices whether it's to pursue college, whether it's to enter the world of work, whether it's to pursue the military, whatever it is but that they have the skills to be globally competitive and that they can do what they need to do. And so we do use the state standards. We just came through an instructional audit that highlighted that we're on target with doing those. We've got work to do but that's our – that – those common core standards, that's the beacon that we're using to bring our students along. We want our students to be able to compete with anybody else regardless of the story.

Beyond positive expectations, overcoming challenges also requires change.

Interview Participant 2 cited the need for more flexibility in educating ELL students:

I'd like to see – I'd like to see us be able to do more in serving our English language learners in what's currently allowable. It seems very restricted and very very prescribed. And I think that when it comes to language there's no one method. I think we have to open up some doors and look for some ways to get creative helping our kids. We can't do the same thing and one town as you do the next. It just doesn't work.

Interview Participant 1 pointed to the need for change and the benefits of having a safe after school program:

...back when I was teaching you couldn't – you could hold children back. Now that's all changed. So what do you do? Put them on forward? I don't know. I don't know the answer to what the future holds. I don't know. The standards in different parts of the country are so much higher. And in other parts it's so much

lower. There's no way of bringing them up together from what I can see because of the cultural differences, the home life, the way they're raised, the way that – what are they going home to? We have a huge district with bad stuff going on out there. These kids go to school. That's their safe place just to be in school and to get a meal. And then we're trying to teach them how to read and write and be happy and functional little people and young people and adults. And then they go home to abuse. And this is huge here which is unfortunate. So their safe place is their school and we're teaching them the best that we can and maybe the standards are – we're trying to meet those state standards as best we can but it's really difficult for them to reach that high achievement. And I'm not saying that our kids can't do it. Because they can if we get rid of all of the crud that they're trying to deal with. And I'm not using that as an excuse. It's real. And so I don't know what the future holds for the ELL students and Title I. I know that Title I can support the schools full force. They get the money. It's up to our district to make some really hard decisions and plans and I know there's been a lot of changes right now.

Interview Participant 1 continued:

I know that things have got to start changing. I think our education for our students in rural areas meets status quo. We're not challenging our students like we should because of the English language learners. Some of our, a lot of our district and I'm just saying this because I know. We are supposed to meet standards, certain state standards, but they're teaching to the test because of fear of not passing. And are the kids learning? I don't know. We have a lower

economic and our ELL is so high that our standards are low, lower. They just are. Not that our district wants them to be that way but how are you going to get kids bumped up to the next grades without bringing that down? I don't know. And I don't know how the district is doing it. I don't teach anymore. I haven't taught in years, but as a teacher I remember just banging my head up against the wall thinking "How are they going to get this? How are we going to teach these kids to understand what they need to know to get to the next grade?"

Interview Participant 1 then turned to the benefits of after school programs:

And we need, I think, an after school program. If we have our students that come in and don't, can't speak English very well and that carries on throughout their life as in school. We need to be helping them more in after school programs. A lot of the complaint is "Oh well that's babysitting. We're just babysitting." No. It doesn't have to be babysitting.

We need enrichment programs that intertwine the academic and make it fun for the kids. But a lot of our leaders, principals, think that it's just too much fun. How could these kids be learning? Well, if you're going to teach them the same old thing after school then they're not – they're going to shut down. They're tired. And another thing is – and I know it's a safe place for our kids to be. Why not have a great after school program for them? They're learning all kinds of stuff.

Interview Participant 6 mentions interventionists, education professionals who work alongside students who need additional help in language or one or more academic

areas. This participant also discussed challenges presented by funding restrictions in federal programs:

Title III won't do salaries, so I guess I've got to go to Title I to get salaries out of it. I do think if we had been able to keep – the other part of it is, though, teachers are not interventionists, and that was such a short phase of money, I honestly got very few of those people to being true interventionists. They were great teachers, but they didn't get how to really be interventionists. If the funding could come to do real professional development on how to be an interventionist, and then they could be working in the schools, I think we might see some growth.

Other study participants also focused on the key role the federal government can play in fostering positive change. For example, Interview Participant 2 opined:

What comes to mind is the need from the federal level down to encourage programs to look for ways to do what I think we're trying to do here at the school district level and that is to ensure that program services are blended, don't supplant but also don't compete and are aimed at helping our students graduate and be successful in school, something along those lines. I guess that would be what I would say. I'm hopeful that we see an increase in Title I funding. And I'd like to see some of the guidelines relaxed around Title III.

Interview Participant 7 also focused on federal funding for ELLs at all levels from pre-K to adults:

Well, I hope the federal government doesn't – as everyone says in education, we do not have enough funds, and they keep cutting back. And as our ELL population grows in this country, I just see a greater need for funding. So I would

say don't cut back on the funding, but really put a focus on it and increase it. I mean like right now the big focus is on early childhood and pre-K, and I think an equal focus should be on our ELL speakers in this country, too, and students.

Interview Participant 3 cited funding issues but also pointed to the core problems related to inconsistency in federal rules:

It's all up to D.C. You know, since I've been here, I think I've seen the allocation decrease. It's just getting less and less and it may be like \$20,000 or \$50,000, \$100,000 less every year. (*Interviewer: Title I allocation?*) Title I allocation, yeah. And it just makes you wonder what the direction is going to be. You hear talk about – you know, because they haven't reauthorized and now with the... I don't know what that's going to look like. And if it's a block grant and we have to apply, I don't know. I don't think we're going to be able. I don't know. I hope it still has enough good reputation that it's important and folks are seeing the benefits of Title I. My concern is that if it goes back to a Republican kind of thing that you get a lot of the charters or the privates involved. That scares me. Return of SES. No, that was – and so, I don't know. In today's age, I don't know.... I just don't know and that's sort of scary... In terms of that. You know, we went through a shake-up with Head Start and the district had been in Head Start for, God, 20-some years. And all of a sudden, bam, rules changed. We had to reapply. (*Interviewer: Did you get it?*) Yeah, we got it but we got – you know, it was – we were concerned only because they wouldn't make the formal announcements and it was delayed or it was a secret. We knew we were going to get funded through a phone call but we couldn't tell anybody, not even my boss.

But then we couldn't get the award letter in time. And so, we didn't get the award letter until after July 1 started and we have to certify all teachers. So we had to place them in other schools. So we had to start all over to bring teachers back. And if that's the kind of stuff they're doing ... It's disruptive on – and I don't know what they're going to do on the reauthorization. I'm hoping that... I think it's a program that I think both parties like. But how it's structured, I don't know. And if the same amount of funds are going to be allocated is going to be interesting... and I've gotten to a point now, I don't – I strongly recommend that schools do not hire people. If they do, it's after the school year starts. So they're temporary employees because I tell them – because right now I have close to over a hundred paid through Title I. And if the funds get reduced, it's – we're in a dilemma... So the future's unknown. So I don't know what – I don't know which way it's going to go. D.C.'s been too unpredictable or non-acting... so you know, I don't – I really don't know.

This section reviewed the need for change, strategies for overcoming challenges with positive expectations, and issues related to the federal role in education. The following section completes this results chapter by revealing perhaps the most significant finding of this study.

ELL Students are Our Students

Perhaps the most significant finding of this study was the observation that the study participants considered ELL students no differently from other students. That is, Title I Directors in New Mexico consider an ELL student is simply a student, not a rare or special student who is somehow different from students in general.

This is not unreasonable, given that 71% of survey participants indicated that ELLs are included in their district's Title I Program as part of the general population, while only 14% specifically mentioned ELLs in their district's consolidated application, and 10% only include ELLs in the Title I Program if such students were identified through a universal screening process. All eight interview participants include ELLs in their districts' Title I Programs and view them as regular and accepted members of their student populations. Further, only 5% of survey participants indicated that ELLs are not included in their district's Title I Programs. These findings support the idea that ELLs are very common in Title I districts in New Mexico, and are therefore not considered to be somehow separate, unique, special, or fundamentally different than non-ELL students.

For example, Survey Participant 47 stated that "Most of the ELL students with whom I have worked have similar supports as our other students; i.e. some have strong family support, others do not." This equity between ELL students and non-ELL students was echoed by other study participants:

It's equal opportunity. It's equity. It's access to equitable services for everybody, everybody, no matter what they are is to offer that support to get them to achieve, no matter whether you're Russian or Chinese or whatever. That's what that means. Just equitable access. (Interview Participant 3)

...no matter what circumstances they come from, whether they speak a different language or they're immigrants, that they have that support that they need when they come to our district, that we have that responsibility to make sure that their needs are met for their best education. (Interview Participant 5)

This concept of equity was based on more than simply a fundamental philosophy of education, but also based on the realization of the commonness of ELLs in Title I districts in New Mexico. Interview Participant 3 observed:

The district realized that it is serving the same *familias* in bilingual education, Title I, and Migrant. These programs work together to maximize resources and to avoid duplicating services in direct services to students and in the area of parental support and involvement.

This practical observation allows Title I districts in New Mexico to align resources to maximize results:

We really see the value in aligning all of our program resources and leveraging those resources so that we can get maximum impact to students. I mean that's what we want to do and so our Title III Improvement Plan, our Educational Plan for Student Success, the things that we set out as measurable goals to achieve in the school district are made clear to our district leadership team and then communicated with our faculty and staff. They respond by way of strategies and supports to achieve those goals but we really work to try to align bilingual, Title I and our Indian Education efforts in a way that makes sense.

We have one federal program office. ...So it's kind of nice because these three particular programs are integral to our district's vision and mission and so we're living it. I mean it's – yeah. We're living it. (Interview Participant 2)

These values were also revealed in how standards are set, as well as how districts focus on the progress of all students by treating each student as an individual. Interview Participant 4 stated that "...we're required to provide all students with the opportunity, all

students. And that certainly includes English language learners. And I think it's fairly well-evident that we're doing quite a bit to support our English language learners.”

Interview Participant 6 pointed to the individual needs of ELLs towards fostering equity:

Well, for LEPs specifically, just teaching the standard like you would to an English-only doesn't make it, because they can't make the connections.

(Interviewer: You were talking earlier about equity.) About equity...yes, I want them to have high-quality state standards, but they've got to have more of a support structure than an English-only student. Well, that's just – you've got to support both languages and support that learning process that's going on in the brain, and so there is a difference.

In teaching to individual differences, Title I funding benefits all students.

According to Interview Participant 1, regarding a district that includes many Native American students, “our funds help all students...in our district it’s helping all of our students.” Interview Participant 1 continued:

...to achieve the highest quality state standards and including the ELLs of course, it’s including the ELL students. This law... the requirements are inevitable in our district because we have such a high percentage. The requirement isn’t really a requirement here. It’s ... we have to do it. It’s not required. In order for our students to get through school we have to address this. There’s not a requirement. It’s a must. We don’t look at it as “Oh, we’ve to do this requirement now.” It’s part of the atmosphere here. It is what it is and we have to do it. So as far as it being required, yes it’s a requirement with the law but it’s a must in our district.

It's just what we do. We just... It's always been there. And this requirement is just, OK, well, we're doing that already.

Interview Participant 8 also viewed Title I Funding as being beneficial to all students, stating:

...all students are a priority. It's all students, it's not based on ethnicity. It's not based on ability. It's services for all students, that requirement I think is... the way I interpret it is... any money that flows through our district, its purpose is to service all students regardless of where they come from and where their parents come from and that type of thing. So anything that flows through our office is not for this group of kids, but it's for all students.

This section revealed that ELL students in Title I districts in New Mexico are treated with the same care and consideration as non-ELL students without stigma or goals other than maximizing the short-term and long-term educational progress of each individual student. The finding reveals how Title I funding benefits all students. This equity in treatment is also based on the commonness of ELL students in Title I districts in New Mexico. Overall, the participants in both surveys and interviews reflected the belief that "ELLs are our students, period." Interview Participant 1 stated it best: "That's who our kids are."

Summary of Results

This results chapter began with a review of data sources and the background of study participants, followed by the results related to the research questions. The document analysis, surveys, and interviews revealed that the students in Title I districts

have significant academic needs and that home languages include Spanish, Navajo, other Native American languages, and to a lesser extent, languages from other continents.

Bilingual programs are common in Title I districts in New Mexico, but must be enacted with consideration for cultural differences. Collaboration was emphasized by study participants regarding organizational structures and parental involvement, which may require parent programs in ESL. Professional development is also needed, but the level of professional development varied greatly and is lacking in some districts.

Poverty was a common theme among study participants, including a limited vocabulary in English and the educational disruptions that poverty can bring. Participants cited positive expectations and the role of federal (Title I) funds in fostering success for ELL students in Title I districts. Study participants indicated that ELL students are treated with the same respect and attention as non-ELL students, and Title I funding benefits all students. When directors think of ELLs they think “That’s who our students are.” However, while they may be positively disposed towards ELL students, there is a wide range of knowledge regarding best practices for ELLs among Title I Directors.

I discuss these findings in Chapter Five in the context of previously published literature, along with the implications and limitations of the study, important areas for future research, and study conclusions.

Chapter 5

Discussion

Utilizing document review, questionnaires, and interviews, I examined the nature of Title I Program implementation in New Mexico public schools with respect to English Language Learners. Chapter 1 includes background information, an explanation of the research question, and a discussion of the significance of the study. Chapter 2 includes the literature review and findings from other studies concerning the participation of ELLs in Title I Programs. I addressed the gap in the literature through direct communication with current Title I Directors related to the design and implementation of Title I Programs and the participation therein of ELLs. Chapter 3 detailed the research design, data sources and data collection procedures, sample, and data analysis. Chapter 4 contains the analysis of data and the results of the analysis related to the research question. Chapter 5 includes a review of the research question, implications of the study, a general discussion, limitations, areas for future research, and a conclusion.

Review of Research Question

The purpose of this qualitative study was to examine the nature of the participation of English Language Learners in Title I Programs. The research question was: How are Title I Programs being implemented in New Mexico public schools with respect to English Language Learners?

This study included document review, a questionnaire, and interviews. I reviewed eighty-seven 2011-2012 New Mexico public school district Title I applications to identify specific mention of ELLs in the planning and implementation of the district Title I Programs. I sent an invitation to an electronic questionnaire hosted by SurveyMonkey to

eighty-eight 2014-2015 New Mexico public school district Title I Directors. I chose eight directors for interviews based on purposive sampling.

Study Findings in the Context of the Literature

ELLs are Included in Title I Programs in New Mexico Public Schools

Although only 13 of 87 Title I applications I examined in the document review listed specific projects or activities to address the needs of ELLs, questionnaire, and to a greater extent, interview responses, revealed that districts, in fact, do consider ELLs in their Title I Programs. This is in contrast to the findings of August et al. (1999), McKay and Michie (1982), and Shaul (1999). These authors had found that few ELLs participated in Title I Programs. When they did benefit from Title I, ELLs in these studies were found to have participated in the same interventions in which non-ELL students engaged. Findings from the survey show 15 of 41 participants (37%) who completed this item indicated that activities designed specifically to address the needs of ELLs are including in their Title I Programs. However, interview data indicate all eight of the districts represented include activities directed specifically toward ELLs in their Title I Program designs. Possible reasons for the discrepancy in the percentages (37% vs. 100%) could be the more open-ended nature of the interviews, the substantial ELL populations in interview participants' districts, or the fact that because Title I Directors see ELLs as the population they serve, they may not have made a distinction between activities specifically for ELLs and activities for all students, of whom, ELLs are a large part.

The fact that New Mexico Title I Directors consider ELLs when designing Title I Programs for the schools in their districts not only demonstrates compliance with federal

requirements, it represents the attitude “these are our students, period.” This is consistent with META’s finding that “the amount of attention paid by school administrators” to the needs of ELLs determined the extent to which they were included in Title I Programs (META, 1998, p. ii).

As districts endeavor to create and improve programs designed to give ELLs access to the curriculum, the need to address language skills is critical. Language is the path and the key to unlocking the whole of the curriculum. The dearth of verbal and written skills was mentioned numerous times throughout this study. The following quote summarizes this reality as observed by study participants: “Our ELL students come to us with limited vocabulary in either language” (Survey Participant 16). The need for academic language development in English is addressed to various degrees in New Mexico Title I Program design.

When New Mexico districts design Title I Programs, they consider ELLs. During the course of one interview, a participant described “equity” in the context of the discussion of ELLs and their academic needs. The thoughtful reflection that comes through in the quote below shows the progression of an educator from compliance to understanding. This is a person who did the right thing, and then later acquired the experience and understanding that helped make it all make sense. An important thing here is the participant never uses any of these realities to make excuses or to express pity. They are expressed in a matter of fact way. Their existence gives additional meaning to the job of this participant.

I've been in education since 1971, and a classroom teacher first for high school.

In the community I was in at that time, ELLs were not an issue. I knew there was

Title I because I had one of the National Defense loans. If you worked at a Title I school, you got a certain portion forgiven. I knew they were there but I didn't work in one... It wasn't until actually I went to District 6 that I really got involved with Spanish-speaking students and also with Title I. My main emphasis had always been in technology rather than in federal programs type things. The last ten years, I worked a lot with the bilingual education department, as its part of my division, and learned a tremendous amount of their needs and paid particular attention to it. (Interview Participant #6)

ELLs Are Our Students, Period

This flows naturally from the first finding. The sentiment was expressed 11 times during the interviews. This is significant because it reflects the attitude of participants toward ELLs and their participation in Title I Programs. Related to the effects of teacher expectations (Rist, 1970; Rosenthal & Jacobsen, 1968), this statement shows that directors see ELLs as the intended beneficiaries of Title I. This means the needs of ELLs are being considered as districts develop their Title I applications as evidenced here:

Well, like I said, our funds help all students. ...in our district it's helping all of our students. And to achieve the highest quality state standards and including the ELL of course it's including the ELL students. This this law, the requirements are inevitable in our district because we have such a high percentage. The requirement isn't really a requirement here. It's ... we have to do it. It's not required. In order for our students to get through school we have to address this. There's not a requirement. It's a must. We don't look at it as "Oh, we've to do this requirement now." It's part of the atmosphere here. It is what it is and we

have to do it. So as far as it being required, yes it's a requirement with the law but it's a must in our district. It's just what we do. We just – It's always been there. And this requirement is just, OK, well, we're doing that already. That's who our kids are. We have to address it. It's a huge issue here. (Interview Participant #1)

Stein (2001) discussed "Title I" as a pejorative label for students. Further, García (2009) has documented negative attitudes toward ELLs because these students do not speak English fluently and they may be perceived to be not adapting to the language and customs of the U.S., or because the term bilingual, for some people, is connected with immigration, which itself viewed in a negative light by certain individuals. Some educators do not have a welcoming attitude for ELLs as they believe responsibility for ELLs belongs solely to bilingual and ESL teachers and they themselves have not received training to meet the needs of these students (Anstrom, 1997; Gitlin, Buendia, Crosland, & Doumbia, 2003; Walker, Shafer, & Iiams, 2004). In one study, researchers found that educators who possessed a negative attitude, did not have it when they started teaching. "Rather, the majority of teachers start out with little to no training in ELL education and as such are vulnerable to misinformation circulated by the media or the public at large" (Walker, Shafer, & Iiams, 2004, p. 152).

Based on the interviews I conducted, directors see ELLs as their students. While they are aware of the labels and the negative connotations thereof, New Mexico Title I Directors accept the students in their districts and understand it is their responsibility to provide these students with assistance above and beyond the general education provided to non-ELLs. This was clearly expressed during the interviews. Directors take seriously

their responsibility to serve all students in ways that will assist them to improve their educational achievement. Areas for future research should include classroom observations and an examination of student achievement in order to obtain objective data regarding the implementation of Title I Programs with regard to ELLs.

Effects of Poverty

Title I is intended to serve students who come from a background of poverty. However, it is meant to provide supplemental assistance. This means students receiving help in the form of Title I-funded activities must first receive the services a school provides to all students. The general education program should be taking steps to provide all students with an education. Students living in poverty have additional challenges in accessing and excelling within the public school system.

Coleman (1966) and Jencks et al. (1972) concluded that schooling made little difference in changing the economic situation of students. While there were no questions in my study that specifically mentioned poverty, several responses made reference to its effect on students' lives. One director expressed frustration over the situation children are in and the challenges faced by teachers in bringing students up to standards. Systemic poverty is discussed as a condition that is not soon likely to improve. Although participants were hopeful that their efforts would make a positive difference for students, the participants recognize that poverty places a burden on students.

This is where teacher expectations (Rist, 1970; Rosenthal & Jacobsen, 1968) can make a difference in students' chances for success. Edmonds et al., (1973), Edmonds (1977, 1979), and Weber (1971) demonstrated that effective teachers and schools do make a difference in the academic achievement of students living in poverty. Title I

Programs can fund professional development, coaches, materials, and activities that will assist teachers to positively affect the academic achievement of these students, ELL, low income, and otherwise. Because of the harsh effects of poverty and the ubiquitous, albeit unconscious, acknowledgement of the conclusions of earlier studies (Coleman, 1966; Jencks et al., 1972), teachers need deliberate, focused professional development and support to combat the negative ideas that have been accepted by society.

One way in which poverty is a factor in student achievement is when homelessness is involved. When a family has to move and cannot count on housing, stability is lost. This makes it very difficult for students to concentrate on school. When Title I and Neglected and Delinquent funds can be used to enable a student to continue attending the same schools, even in the event of a move, the stability makes a difference in the child's ability to retain a focus on education.

During the interviews, participants discussed the positive effects stability has on students' lives. In some situations, remaining in the same school while moving from motel to motel or a relative's home, means a student has a least one anchor. The school building, personnel, and students' classmates will not change even though their home life may be in total disarray.

Improving the System

Deficiencies were identified by study participants in the areas of staffing, professional development, internal communication, and parent participation. Survey Participant 29 stated, "We have had a Bilingual program but cannot find a qualified Bilingual teacher, so we will serve our students through ESL." Survey Participant 18 relates a "...lack of teachers in a district to provide the necessary service." Other

participants offered solutions. In order to staff a dual language program with teachers who not only mastered their subject areas, but also the Spanish language, District 6 sponsors visas for teachers from Spanish-speaking countries to staff teaching positions in mathematics and the sciences. Other districts provide professional development and tuition reimbursement for training leading to needed skills and certifications.

Communication and collaboration among different programs in a district facilitate optimal services for ELLs. The opposite is true when programs work in silos. Districts that foster collaboration among programs through organizational structures, regular communication, and data sharing, reported a unified and efficient system for serving ELLs (Johnson & Chrispeels, 2010; O'Day, 2002; Rowan, 1990). This is important because these students' needs can often be met by funds and programs that are administered by intersecting programs.

Participants identified the need for parental involvement that extends beyond school meetings and activities (Epstein, 1987, 2005). Parents of ELLs sometimes have needs related to English, understanding the U.S. education system, and navigating school and district policies and procedures (Azzam, 2009; Risko & Walker-Dalhouse, 2009; Sobel & Kugler, 2007). Several districts are providing training that addresses these issues. These findings demonstrate that Title I directors not only identify issues regarding unmet needs, but also have insightful solutions for optimizing Title I programs to benefit all ELL students in New Mexico. The findings of this study have important implications and recommendations for action.

Implications and Recommendations

Collaboration is vital to effectively implement Title I programs for ELLs. School districts should create and sustain systems that guarantee regular, meaningful collaboration among program personnel who serve ELLs. Interview participants highlighted the importance of communication with their district counterparts who also serve ELLs. The Directors who indicated the highest level of cooperation also were the most confident that program funds were maximized towards student benefit.

The importance of understanding, validating, and incorporating the cultures of students whom they serve was expressed by some participants. The week before school started at my first teaching job, our Polk Middle School principal drove staff and faculty, in a school bus through Isleta Pueblo. While we drove through the village, senior staff members pointed out important areas, buildings, and even homes of certain students. For me, this was an excellent way to show us the community of a group of our students. As district and school leaders make plans to collaborate with parents and the broader local communities in which they work, they should continue to reach out to community leaders in order to partner to provide the best education possible for all children.

Parent training and parent partnerships are important. Districts should provide training for parents in understanding the school system, advocating for their children, helping with homework, and partnering with the school for student success. Districts should also partner with local providers to offer parent classes in ESL, computer literacy, and High School Equivalency (HSE) preparation.

Educational disruption caused by poverty is serious but can be ameliorated. Because students living in poverty have high mobility rates within districts,

administrators should standardize not only primary textbooks by subject and grade level, but also supplementary resources. This will help students living in poverty to maintain consistency in the midst of moving from school to school within districts. Partnerships with district homeless programs can facilitate programs and services for students experiencing homelessness.

Professional development must be increased. Many ELLs enter school with limited academic English skills, but not all districts are professionally prepared or have the organizational structure to effectively meet this challenge. Districts should expand professional development opportunities for teachers and administrators working with ELLs (Suárez-Orozco & Suárez-Orozco, 2009). The responses indicated a wide range of knowledge of bilingual education among Title I Directors. While all directors welcome and accept ELLs as their students, a targeted professional development program at the district, regional, and state level would further equip them with research-based programs and strategies to enhance the education of ELLs.

Professional development should include a review of current research regarding language development in the home language and English, understanding local culture, bilingual education models including dual language implementation, partnering with parents, and the effects of teacher expectations. Coaches for teachers, and shepherds for administrators, are able to provide personalized professional development for individuals working with students. These models can be applied to overall training for school personnel as well as needs specifically related to the education of ELLs. Venues for sharing best practices related to serving ELLs should be encouraged and expanded at the

district and state level. This could include conferences, websites, webinars, and site visits.

This study revealed a wide variety of approaches to implementing Title I programs for ELL students. However, the cross-pollination of ideas among districts was not evident. This implies that Title I districts in New Mexico may benefit from strategy-sharing, whether in the form of meetings, conferences, or a web page for the sharing of both failed strategies and best practices. These same venues are ideal for sharing research findings and identifying promising practices. Per the survey data, 31 of the 50 directors who participated in this portion of the study are responsible for other programs in addition to Title I. Directors could benefit from participating in local, regional, and national conferences on strategies for improving the academic achievement of ELLs.

Limitations of the Study

Sample

This study was limited by the sample, which only included current Title I Directors in New Mexico public schools. Because participation was voluntary, self-selection bias could limit the generalizability of the study results. The sample size for interviews was limited to eight individuals. Other stakeholders, such as bilingual education directors, Indian education directors, teachers, parents, students, superintendents, and charter school officials were not included. A study that involved these additional participants would perhaps produce different results concerning the participation of ELLs in Title I Programs in New Mexico public schools. For these reasons, the generalizability of the findings of the present study is unclear.

Measures

This study was limited by the measures. Data were limited to document review and self-reported answers to questionnaire and interview questions, with no quantitative data that may have been useful for statistical analysis. Responses were limited by participants' understanding of question intent, memory, and the degree to which the items were complete in addressing the relevant issues. Because all survey and interview data were self-reported, with no objective data to validate responses, it is possible that some study participants may have engaged in socially desirable responses, resulting in an under-representation of socially undesirable responses and an over-representation of socially desirable responses (Dodou & de Winter, 2014; Krosnick, 1999). While the anonymity of the surveys may have reduced socially desirable responding (Dodou & de Winter, 2014), the honesty of participants could not be assessed within the measures of this study. Lastly, this study did not include any measures of the academic achievement outcomes of ELL students.

Design

This study was limited by the cross-sectional design, which precluded the assessment of changes over time in how Title I Directors implement policies to the benefit of ELL students.

Areas for Future Research

The present study should be replicated with larger, more diverse samples, including Bureau of Indian Education schools, charter schools, private schools, and other stakeholders, such as teachers, students, parents, principals, and state officers. This study

should also be replicated in other states to bring a greater understanding to how Title I is implemented for ELL students nationwide.

Research is needed to determine the effect of Title I dollars on the educational outcomes of ELLs, including achievement levels, achievement gaps, growth rates, attendance, graduation rates, school readiness, school letter grades, higher education enrollment, and employment as adults. Observations could provide insight into actual practices of teachers with students. Observed practices could be compared across classrooms, subject areas, grade levels, program designs, schools, districts, and states. Longitudinal designs that follow ELLs over the course of time may yield insights regarding the long-term effects of specific implementations of Title I policies and strategies for optimizing the education of ELLs. This includes research to determine the optimal strategies for effectively implementing bilingual programs, including the dual language model, for ELLs in New Mexico Title I schools.

Research is needed on how to minimize the educational disruption of children living in poverty in New Mexico. As poor families in New Mexico move frequently, educational continuity is disrupted and these students fall behind in their schoolwork. Standardizing the curriculum and textbooks statewide may ameliorate the negative impact of educational disruption, but data are needed to determine the effectiveness of this strategy.

Research is needed to explore the effectiveness of alternative educational strategies, such as blended learning, for ELLs in New Mexico Title I schools. A blended learning approach that combines internet and digital access with classroom instruction (Freisen, 2012; Graham, 2006) may prove useful in closing the achievement gap for ELL

students, but controlled studies are needed to make solid conclusions regarding the effectiveness of a blended learning approach for ELLs.

One of the strongest findings of this study was in the area of collaboration, but the collaboration styles differed greatly. Future research is therefore necessary to determine how to foster effective collaboration, particularly in the area of parental involvement. While parent involvement is important for all students, the language and other needs of this group of students make this partnership even more significant for ELL success.

Conclusion

The purpose of this qualitative study was to examine the nature of the implementation of Title I Programs in New Mexico public schools with respect to English Language Learners. This study of document review, questionnaires, and interviews with New Mexico district Title I Directors revealed that ELLs in Title I Programs in New Mexico are served in ways that are generally consistent with research in best practices and that Title I directors consider the needs of ELLs in the planning and implementation of Title I Programs in New Mexico public schools. However, ongoing challenges include the language skills of ELLs in their home languages and in academic English, as well as the educational disruption experienced by students living in poverty. Study data also revealed that collaboration within a district and between schools and parents facilitates programs and services that contribute to improved outcomes for ELLs. Overall, this study highlighted the successes and challenges of implementing Title I programs for ELL students in New Mexico.

References

- Abedi, J. (2004). The No Child Left Behind Act and English language learners: Assessment and accountability issues. *Educational Researcher*, 33(1), 4-14.
- Abedi, J., & Dietel, R. (2004). Challenges in the No Child left Behind Act for English Language Learners. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 85(10), 282-785.
- American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) of 2009, Pub. L. No. 111-5, 123 Stat. 115, 516 (Feb. 19, 2009).
- Andersson, T. (1971). Bilingual education: The American experience. *Modern Language Journal*, 85(7), 427-440.
- Andersson, T. & Boyer, M. (1970). *Bilingual schooling in the United States, vol. 2*. Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.
- Anstrom, K. (1997). Academic achievement for secondary language-minority students: Standards, measures, and promising practices. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.
- Anstrom, K. (1995). *New directions for Chapter I/Title I. (Directions in Language & Education No.1-7)*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.
- Arraf, S., Fayz, M., Sedgemen, M., & Haugen, R.K. (1995). *Integrating Title I & Title VII: The evolving model of Dearborn Public Schools, Michigan*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.
- Au, W. (2007). High-stakes testing and curricular control: A qualitative metasynthesis. *Educational Researcher*, 36(5), 258–267.

- August, D., Hakuta, K., Olguín, F., & D. Pompa. (1995). LEP Students and Title I: A guidebook for educators. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.
- August, D., Piché, D., & Rice, R. (1999). Inclusion of limited English proficient students in Title I: An assessment of current practice. In C. Yu & W. Taylor (Eds.), *The test of our progress: The Clinton record on civil rights. Washington, DC: Citizens' Commission on Civil Rights.*
<http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED429150.pdf>.
- Apple, M. W., & Beane, J. A. (2007). Schooling for democracy. *Principal Leadership*, 8(2), 35-38.
- Azzam, A.M. (2009). Getting parents - and a system – on board. *Educational Leadership*, 66(7), 92-93.
- Ball, J. A. (2001). High-performing, poverty schools. *Leadership*, 31(1), 8-11.
- Barth, P., Haycock, K., Jackson, H., Mora, K., Ruiz, P., Robinson, S., & Wilkins, A. (Eds.). (1999). Dispelling the myth: High poverty schools exceeding expectations. Washington, DC: The Education Trust. (ED445140)
- Blodgett, J. H. (1891). The English language in the schools. *Journal of Education*, 34(14), 228-229.
- Brown v. Board of Education, 347 U.S. 483, 490 (1954).
- Bulman, R. C. (2002). Teachers in the 'hood: Hollywood's middle-class fantasy. *The Urban Review*, 34(3), 251-276.
- Chubb, J. E., & Moe, T. M. (1990). Politics, markets, and America's schools. Washington, DC: The Brookings Institution.

- Coleman, J. (1966). *Equality of educational opportunity*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Clair, N., Adger, C. T., Short, D., & E. Millen. (1998). *Implementing standards with English Language Learners: Initial findings from four middle schools*. Providence, RI: The Education Alliance, LAB at Brown University.
- Chun, T., Goertz, M. (1999). Title I and state education policy: High standards for all students? In G. Orfield & E. DeBray (Eds.), *Hard work for good schools: Facts not fads in Title I reform*. Cambridge, MA: Civil Rights Project, Harvard University. ED 447247.
- Coffey, A., & Atkinson, P. (1996). *Making sense of qualitative data: Complementary research strategies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Common Core State Standards Initiative. (2015). Retrieved from <http://www.corestandards.org/standards-in-your-state/>
- Consentino de Cohen, C., Deterding, N., & Clewell, B. C. (2005). *Who's left behind? Immigrant children in high and low LEP schools*. Washington, DC: Program for Evaluation and Equity Institute.
- Cordasco, F. (1968). The challenge of the non-English-speaking child in American schools. *School and Society*, 96, 198-201.
- Cordasco, F. (1970). Educational enlightenment out of Texas: Towards bilingualism. *Teachers College Record*, 71, 608-612.
- Cordasco, F. (1973). The children of immigrants in the schools: Historical analogues of educational deprivation. *The Journal of Negro Education*, 42, 44-53.

- Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (1990). Grounded theory method: Procedures, canons, and evaluative criteria. *Qualitative Sociology, 13*, 3-21.
- Crawford, J. (1990). Language freedom and restriction: A historical approach to the official language controversy. In J. Reyhner (Ed.), *Effective language education practices and native language survival* (pp. 9-22). Choctaw, OK: Native American Language Issues.
- Creswell, J. W. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five designs*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Crosnoe, R., & López-Turley, R. N. (2011). K-12 Educational outcomes of immigrant youth. *Future of Children, 21*(1), 129-152.
- Cummins, J. (1982). *Bilingualism and minority language children*. Toronto, ON: OISE Press.
- Daniel, S. M., & Conlin, L. (2015). Shifting Attention Back to Students Within the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol. *TESOL Quarterly, 49*, 169–187.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (1997). *The right to learn: A blueprint for creating schools that work*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2007). The flat earth and education: How America's commitment to equity will determine our future. *Educational Researcher, 36*(6), 318-334.
- Darling-Hammond, L., & Friedlaender, D. (2008). Creating excellent and equitable schools. *Educational Leadership, 65*(8), 14-21.

- Dawson, T. C., & Billingsly, K. L. (2000). *Unsatisfactory Performance: How California's K-12 Education System Protects Mediocrity and How Teacher Quality Can Be Improved*. San Francisco: Pacific Research Institute for Public Policy.
- de Jong, E. (2011). *Foundations for multilingualism in education: From principles to practice*. Philadelphia, PA: Caslon Publishing.
- Duckor, B., & Perlstein, D. (2014). Assessing habits of mind: Teaching to the test at Central Park East Secondary School. *Teachers College Record*, 116(2), 1-33.
- Dodou, D., & de Winter, J. C. F. (2014). Social desirability is the same in offline, online, and paper surveys: A meta-analysis. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 36, 487–495.
- Edmonds, R. (1977). Search for effective schools: The identification and analysis of city schools that are instructionally effective for poor children. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.
- Edmonds, R. (1979). Effective schools for the urban poor. *Educational Leadership*, 37(1), 15-24.
- Edmonds, R., Billingsley, A., Comer, J., Dyer, J. M., Hall, W., Hill, R., McGehee, N., Reddick, L., Taylor, H. F., & Wright, S. (1973). A Black response to Christopher Jencks's Inequality and certain other issues. *Harvard Educational Review*, 43(1), 76-91.
- Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965, 20 U.S.C. § 241 (1974).
- Elementary and Secondary Education Act Amendments of 1967; Title VII. (Bilingual Education Act). P.L. 90–247.

- Engler, J.M., & Hunt, J.B. Jr. (2004). Preparing our students for work and citizenship in the global age. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 86(3), 197–199.
- Epstein, J. L. (1987). What principals should know about parent involvement. *Principal*, 66, 6-9.
- Epstein, J. L. (2005). Attainable goals? The spirit and letter of the No Child Left Behind Act on parental involvement. *Sociology of Education*, 78(2), 179-182.
- Escamilla, K., & Andrade, A. (1992). Descubriendo la lectura: An Application of Reading Recovery in Spanish. *Education and Urban Society*, 24(2), 212-226.
- Fillmore, L. W. (1991). Second language learning in children: A model of Language learning in social context. In E. Bialystock, (Ed.). *Language Processing by Bilingual Children*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 49-69.
- Fine, M., Jaffe-Walter, R., Pedraza, P., Futch, V., & Stoudt, B. (2007). Swimming: On oxygen, resistance, and possibility for immigrant youth under siege. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, 38(1), 76-96.
- Flores-Dueñas, L. (2005). Lessons from la Maestra Miriam: Developing literate Identities through early critical literacy teachings. *Journal of Latinos and Education*, 4(4), 237-251.
- Friesen, N. (2012). *Report: Defining Blended Learning*. Retrieved from learningspaces.org/papers/Defining_Blended_Learning_NF.pdf.
- Fry, R. (2008). *The role of schools in the English Language Learner achievement gap*. Washington, DC: Pew Hispanic Center.
- Fryer, R.G., & Levitt, S.D. (2004). Falling behind: New evidence on the black-white achievement gap. *Education Next*, 4(4), 64-71.

- Gándara, P., Moran, R., & Garcia, E. (2004). Legacy of Brown: Lau and language policy in the United States. *Review of Research in Education*, 28, 27-46.
- Garcia, E. (1994). Attributes of effective schools for language-minority students. In E. Hollins, J. King, & W. Hayman (Eds.). *Teaching diverse populations; Formulating a knowledge base* (pp. 93-103). Albany: State University of New York Press.
- García, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Gass, S. (1977). Modeling second language acquisition. In *Input, Interaction & the Second Language Learner*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Gibbons, P. (1991). *Learning to learn in a second language*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Gibbons, P. (2003). Mediating language learning: Teacher interactions with ESL Students in a content-based classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(2), 247-273.
- Gibbons, P. (2009). *English learners, academic literacy, and thinking*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Gitlin, A., Buendia, E., Crosland, K., & Doumbia, F. (2003). The production of margin and center: Welcoming-unwelcoming of immigrant students. *American Educational Research Journal*, 40(1), 91-122.
- Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research*. Chicago: Aldine.

- Goodlad, J. I. (2004). Fulfilling the public purpose of schooling: Educating the young in support of democracy may be leadership's highest calling. *School Administrator*, 65(5), 14-17.
- Graham, C.R. (2006). Blended learning systems: Definition, current trends, and future directions. In C.J. Bonk & C.R. Graham (Eds.), *The handbook of blended learning: Global perspectives, local designs* (pp. 3–21). San Francisco: JosseyBass/Pfeiffer.
- Graham, P. A. (2005). *Schooling America: How the public schools meet the nation's changing needs*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Graham, P.A. (2004). Whom should our schools serve? *School Administrator*, 61(5), 18-20.
- Hakuta, K. (2011). Educating language minority students and affirming their equal rights: Research and practical perspectives. *Educational Researcher*, 40(4), 163-174.
- Hammond, H. G. (1927). *Don Juan de Oñate and the founding of New Mexico*. Santa Fe, NM: El Palacio Press.
- Hansen, L. E. (2003). Science in any Language. *Science and Children*, 41(3), 35-39.
- Haycock, K. (2006). No more invisible kids. *Educational Leadership*, 63(3), 38-42.
- Haycock, K, Lankford, H., & Olson, L. (2004). *The Elephant in the Living Room*. Brookings Papers on Education Policy, No. 7, pp. 229-263. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.
- Heath, S. B. (1976). A national language academy? Debate in the new nation. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 11, 9-43.

- Hochschild, J. L. & Scovronick, N. (2003). *The American dream and the public schools*.
Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Holton, G. (1984). A Nation at Risk revisited. *Daedalus*, 113(4), 1-27.
- Howard, E. R., Sugarman, J., & Christian, D. (2003). *Trends in two-way immersion in education: A review of the research, Report 63*. Center for Applied Linguistics.
The Johns Hopkins University.
- Huang, S., Yi, Y., & Haycock, K. (2002). *Interpret with Caution*. Washington, DC: The Education Trust.
- Improving America's Schools Act (IASA) of 1994, 20 U.S.C. § 6301 et seq. (1994).
- Izlar, J. L. (2010). Globalizing No Child Left Behind: A viable catalyst in implementing progress for social integration programs for immigrant, English language learner, and limited English proficient students. *Journal of Law & Education*, 39(4), 603-614.
- Jacobson, S. L. (2008). Leadership for success in high poverty elementary schools. *Journal of Educational Leadership, Policy and Practice*, 23(1), 3-17.
- Jencks, C., Smith, M. S., Acland, H., Bane, M. J., Cohen, D., Gintis, H., Heyns, B., & Michelson, S. (1972). *Inequality: A reassessment of the effect of family and schooling in America*. New York: Basic Books.
- Jennings, J. (2001). Title I: Its legislative history & its promise. In G.D. Borman, S. C. Stringfield, & R. E. Slavin (Eds.), *Title I: Compensatory education at the crossroads* (pp. 1-24). Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Jennings, J. (2015). ESEA at 50. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 96(7), 41-46.

- Jesse, D, Davis, A. & Pokorny, N. (2004). High-achieving middle schools for Latino students living in poverty. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, 9(1), 23-45.
- Johnson, P. E., & Chrispeels, J. H. (2010). Linking the central office and its schools for reform. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 46(5), 738-775.
- Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. New York: Longman Group Ltd.
- Krosnick, J. A. (1999). Survey research. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 50, 537-567.
- Labaree, D. F. (1997). Public goods, private Goods: The American struggle over educational goals. *American Educational Research Journal*, 34(1), 39-81.
- Lankford, H., Loeb, S., & Wyckoff, J. (2002). Teacher Sorting and the Plight of Urban Schools. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 24(1), 37-62.
- Lau v. Nichols. (1974). 414 U.S. 563. 414 U.S. 563 94 S. Ct. 786; 39 L. Ed. 2d 1; 1974 U.S. LEXIS 151.
- Lazarín, M. (2006). *Improving assessment and accountability for English Language Learners in the No Child Left Behind Act* (Issue Brief No. 16). Washington, DC: National Council of La Raza.
- Lemke, J. (2002). *Making meaning across textscales: A critical statement on Reading comprehension (contribution to the RAND Reading Study Group)*. Retrieved from <http://www.jaylemke.com/storage/MakingMeaningReadingComprehension.pdf>.
- López, M. G., & Abbas T. (2006). Differential outcomes of two bilingual education programs on English Language Learners. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 30(1), 23-145.

- Malakoff, M., & Hakuta, K. (1990). History of language minority education in the United States. *Bilingual education: Issues and strategies*, 27-43.
- Mariani, L. (1997). Teacher support and teacher challenge in promoting learner autonomy. *Perspectives: A Journal of TESOL Italy*, 23(2), <http://www.learningpaths.org/papers/papersupport.htm>
- McKay, M., & Michie, J. (1982). *Title I services to students eligible for ESL/Bilingual or Special Education programs*. A special report from the Title I district practices study. Reston, VA: Advanced Technology, Inc. ERIC Accession No. ED243243.
- Meek, M. (1998). *How texts teach what readers learn*. Stroud, UK: Thimble Press.
- Meier, D. (1995). *The power of their ideas*. Boston, MA: Beacon Press.
- Merriam, S. (2002). *Qualitative research in practice*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Mertens, D. M. (2005). *Research and evaluation in Education and Psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods*. 2nd Ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Meyer, L. (2000). Barriers to meaningful instruction for English learners. *Theory Into Practice*, 39(4), 296-304.
- Mohr, K. A. J., & Mohr, E. (2007). Extending English-language learners' classroom interactions using the response protocol. *The Reading Teacher*, 60(5), 440-450.
- Multicultural Education Training & Advocacy Inc. (META). (1998). A report to the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OBEMLA): *Analysis of the participation of Limited English Proficient students in Massachusetts Title I Programs*. Somerville, MA: META, Inc.

- National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs (NCELA). (2011). *The growing number of English language learners*. http://www.ncela.us/files/uploads/9/growingLEP_0809.pdf.
- National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983). *A nation at risk*. Washington, DC: Government Printing Office.
- Neal, D.A., & Johnson, W.R. (1996). The role of pre-market factors in Black-White wage differences. *Journal of Political Economy*, 104(5), 869-895.
- New Mexico Administrative Code (NMAC). (2015). <http://164.64.110.239/nmac/>.
- New Mexico Constitution. (1912).
- New Mexico Statutes Annotated (NMSA). (1978). Article 23, Bilingual Multicultural Education, 22-23-1.1.
- New Mexico Public Education Department. (2004). *Bilingual Multicultural Education Handbook*.
- New Mexico Public Education Department. (2013). Response to IPRA #13-047.
- New Mexico Public Education Department. (2014). *New Mexico Common Core State Standards: English Learner Professional Development*.
<http://newmexicocommoncore.org/pages/view/236/english-learners-pd-/15/128-english-learner-pd>
- Nieto, S. (2003). Challenging current notions of “highly qualified teachers” through work in a teachers’ inquiry group. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 54(5), 386-298.
- 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.

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001, Pub. L. No. 107-110, § 115, Stat. 1425
(2002).

Noddings, N. (2008). Schooling for democracy: Students need to understand that going to college is not the only valuable path they can pursue. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 90(1), 34-37.

North Central Regional Educational Laboratory (NCREL). (2003). *Understanding the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001: English proficiency*. Retrieved from the ERIC database. (ED480690).

O'Day, J. (2002). Complexity, accountability, and school improvement. *Harvard Educational Review*, 72, 293-329.

O'Malley, J.M., & Chamot, A.U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Parrett, W. & Budge, K. (2009). Tough questions for tough times. *Developing School Leaders*, 67(2), 22-27.

Parrish, T. B., Merickel, A., Pérez, M., Linquanti, R., Socias, M., Spain, A., Speroni, C., Esra, P., Brock, L., & Delancey, D. (2006). *Effects of the implementation of Proposition 227 on the education of English learners, K-12: Finding from a five-year evaluation* (Final report for AB 56 and AB 1116). Palo Alto and San Francisco: American Institutes for Research and WestEd.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods, 3rd Ed.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Paul, D. G. (2004). The train has left: The No Child Left *Behind* Act leaves Black and Latino literacy learners waiting at the station. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 47(8), 648-656.
- Peske, H. G., & Haycock, K. (2006). *Teaching inequality: How poor and minority students are shortchanged on teacher quality*. Washington, DC: The Education Trust.
- Piche, D. M., & Ruth, T. (2004). *Schools count*. Washington, DC: Poverty & Race Research Action Council. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/210363512?accountid=14613>.
- Rapoport, A. (2010). We cannot teach what we don't know: Indiana teachers talk about global citizenship education. *Education, Citizenship and Social Justice* 5(3), 179–190.
- Ravitch, D. (2000). *Left back: A century of failed school reforms*. New York: Simon and Schuster.
- Reardon, S. F. (2013). The widening income achievement gap. *Educational Leadership*, 70(8), 10-16.
- Reyhner, J. (1993). American Indian language policy and school success. *Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students*, 12(3), 35-59.
- Risko, V.J., & Walker-Dalhouse, D. (2009). Parents and teachers: Talking with or past one another – or not talking at all? *The Reading Teacher*, 62(5), 442-444.
- Rist, R. C. (1970). Student social class and teacher expectations: The self-fulfilling prophecy in ghetto education. *Harvard Educational Review*, 40(3), 411-451.

- Roberts, C. A. (1995). Bilingual education program models: A framework for understanding. *The Bilingual Research Journal*, 19(3-4), 369-378.
- Romaine, S. (1995). *Bilingualism* (2nd ed.). Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishers.
- Rosenthal, R., & Jacobsen, L. (1968). *Pygmalion in the classroom: Teacher expectation and pupils' intellectual development*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Rowan, B. (1990). Commitment and control: Alternative strategies for the organizational design of schools. *Review of Research in Education*, 16, 353-389.
- Rubie-Davies, C. M., Peterson, E., Irving, E., Widdowson, D., & Dixon, R. (2010). Expectations of achievement Student, teacher and parent perceptions. *Research In Education*, 83, 36-53.
- Santoro, D.A. (2011). Good teaching in difficult times: Demoralization in the pursuit of good work. *American Journal of Education*, 118(1), 1-23.
- Scheurich, J., Skrla, L., & Johnson, E. (2000). Thinking carefully about equity and accountability. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 82(4), 293-299.
- Scribner, A. P., & Scribner, J. D. (2001). *High-performing schools serving Mexican American students: What they can teach us*. ERIC Digest. ED 459048.
- Shaul, M. S. (1999). *Public Education: Title I Services Provided to Students with Limited English Proficiency*. United States General Accounting Office, Washington, D. C.
- Shields, P. M., Humphrey, D. C., Wechsler, M. E., Riehl, L. M., Tiffany-Morales, J., Woodworth, K., Young, V. M., & Price, T. (2001). *The status of the teaching profession 2001*. Santa Cruz, CA: The Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning.

- Short, D. J., & Echevarria, J. (1999). *The sheltered instruction observation protocol: A tool for teacher-researcher collaboration and professional development*. Santa Cruz, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence.
- Sobel, A., and Kugler, E.G. (2007). Building partnerships with immigrant parents. *Educational Leadership*, 64(6), 62-66.
- Slavin, R. E., & Cheung, A. (2005). A synthesis of research on language of reading instruction for English Language Learners. *Review of Educational Research*, 75(2), 247-284.
- Stein, S. J. (2001). These are your Title I students: Policy language in educational practice. *Policy Sciences*, 34, 135-156.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1994). Grounded Theory Methodology. In NK Denzin & YS Lincoln (Eds.) *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 217-285). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Strauss, A.L., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for developing Grounded Theory*, London: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Stringfield, S. (1991). The people of Chapter I: Gilbert Martinez. *The Phi Delta Kappan*, 72(8), 581.
- Suárez-Orozco, C., & Suárez-Orozco, M. M. (2009). Educating Latino immigrant students in the twenty-first century: Principles for the Obama Administration. *Harvard Education Review*, 79(2), 327-340.
- Suiter, D. & Meier, D. (2009). *Sustaining Change: The struggle to maintain identity at Central Park East Secondary School*. Coalition of Essential Schools (Resource

paper #521). Retrieved from

<http://archive.essentialschools.org/resources/521.html>

SurveyMonkey. (2015). How does SurveyMonkey adhere to IRB guidelines?

Szasz, M. C. (1983). American Indian education: Historical perspective. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 61(1), 109-112.

Thomas, W. P., & Collier, V. (1997). *School Effectiveness for language minority students*. National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education. George Washington University, Washington, D.C.

Toohey, K. (2007). Are the lights coming on? How can we tell? English language learners and literacy assessment. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 64(2), 249-268.

Towers, J. M. (1992). Twenty-five years after the Coleman Report: What should we have earned? *The Clearing House*, 65(3), 138-140.

Tyack, D. & Hansot, E. (1982). *Managers of Virtue: Public school leadership in America, 1820 – 1980*. New York: Basic Books, Inc.

Uro, G., & Barrio, A. (2013). *English language learners in America's great city schools: Demographics, achievement, and staffing*. Council of the Great City Schools. Washington, DC.

U.S. Department of Education. (2002). *Meeting the Highly Qualified Teacher Challenge: The Secretary's Annual Report on Teacher Quality*. Washington, DC: USDE Office of Postsecondary Education.

- U. S. Department of Education. (2006). Building partnerships to help English Language Learners, press release.
<http://www2.ed.gov/nclb/methods/english/lepfactsheet.html>
- U.S. Department of Education. (2012). Budget history tables.
<http://www2.ed.gov/about/overview/budget/history/index.html>
- U.S. Department of Education. (2015). ESEA Flexibility Requests and Related Documents. <http://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/guid/esea-flexibility/index.html>
- Valdez, G. & Figueroa, R. A. (1994). *Bilingualism and Testing: A special case of bias*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Walker, A., Shafer, J., & Iiams, M. (2004). Not in my classroom: Teacher attitudes towards English language learners. *NABE Journal of Research and Practice*, 2(1), 130-160.
- Weber, G. (1971). *Inner-city children can be taught to read: Four successful schools*. Washington, D.C.: Council for Basic Education.
- Williams, T., Perry, M., Oregón, I., Brazil, N., Hakuta, K., Haertel, E., Kirst, M., & Levin, J. (2007). *Similar English learner students, different results: Why do some schools do better? A follow-up analysis, based on a large-scale survey of California elementary schools serving low-income and EL students*. Mountain View, CA: EdSource.
- Woodrum, A. (2009). Cultural identity and schooling in rural New Mexico. *Journal of Research in Rural Education*, 24(8), 1-5.

Appendix A

Cases and Laws Relevant to English Language Learners in the United States

Meyer v. Nebraska (1923). The U.S. Supreme court struck down a law in Nebraska that required public school instruction only in English (*Meyer v. Nebraska*, 262 U.S. 390 (1923)).

Mendez v. Westminster (1947). The U.S. Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit upheld a lower court ruling that struck down segregation of Mexican and Mexican American students in Orange County, California school districts (*Civil 4292, Mendez et. al. v. Westminster School District of Orange County et. al.*, 03/02/1945 - 07/18/1947).

The Bilingual Education Act (1968). This was added to the ESEA (Elementary Secondary Education Act of 1965, 20 U.S.C. § 241 (1965) as Title VII and provided funding to enhance the education of limited English proficient children and included provisions for teacher training and parent involvement. The Act has been reauthorized with the ESEA. In NCLB, Title III has replaced Title VII and the name and focus of the Act have shifted to English language acquisition (NCLB, 2002).

Serna v. Portales Municipal Schools (1972). The district was ordered to hire more Spanish-speaking teachers and to further develop its bilingual education plan (*Serna v. Portales Municipal Schools*, 499 F. 2d 1147 (10th Cir. 1974)).

Lau v. Nichols (1974). The U.S. Supreme Court ruled that the San Francisco Unified School District must provide assistance to the district's 1,800 non-English-speaking students that would enable them to pass the required English language graduation exam. This landmark case was filed by parents of Chinese-speaking students (*Lau v. Nichols*, 483 F. 2d 791(9th Cir. 1973)).

Equal Educational Opportunities Act (1974). This law prohibited states from denying equal educational opportunity to students by failing to overcome language barriers that would prohibit equal opportunities to participate in an instructional program (Equal Educational Opportunities Act (EEOA) of 1974).

Plyer v. Doe (1982). The U.S. Supreme court upheld a lower court decision that prohibits districts from denying an education to students on the basis of their immigration status. The outcome of this case is what makes possible the ability of schools around the country, including in New Mexico, to accept and educate students without questioning their legal status (*Plyer v. Doe*, 457 U.S. 202 (1982)).

Flores v. Arizona (2009). The Ninth Circuit Appeals Court ruled that Arizona must increase funding for the education of English-language learners. The U.S. Supreme Court overruled the lower court's ruling and found in favor of the state. Thus, the state does not have to provide additional funding for the education of ELLs (*Horne v. Flores*, 129 S.Ct. 2579).

Appendix B

Effective Instructional Strategies for Students Who Are English Language Learners

This appendix provides background information and current approaches to classroom instruction. In determining ELLs' participation in Title I Programs in New Mexico, it is helpful to understand their specific classroom needs. Some ELLs are literate in their home languages, some are not literate in any language, and others are somewhere in between. Their diverse linguistic and academic levels require differentiated methods.

The entire school community is responsible for and should be involved in the success of ELL students. These children are not the responsibility of ELL teachers alone (Gibbons, 2003, 2009). In New Mexico, all but a handful of Title I schools implement schoolwide programs. The schoolwide program design means that supplemental Title I funds are to be used to upgrade the curriculum of the entire school. The upgrades are determined by an annual needs assessment. A targeted assistance Title I program provides supplemental help to a targeted group of students only. All classroom teachers should receive training in and be involved in instruction for ELLs.

Teachers mediate meaning. They are the bridge from the student to the knowledge he or she needs to know. The student and the teacher work collaboratively in an ideal learning environment (Gibbons, 2003). As ELLs negotiate meaning in a new language, they need modeling and guidance to maximize their learning. The teacher is the person who will help them navigate and know when and how to apply prior knowledge to the new language.

Practices Focused on Instruction/Environment. ELLs need to interact with the English language in meaningful ways. Fillmore (1991) illustrates the importance of the variables involving the learners, speakers of the target language, and the social setting in which opportunities for learning occur. She states that social, linguistic, and cognitive processes affect the language learning process. An ideal community or environment exists when students feel free to take risks in responding in English (Escamilla & Andrade, 1992; Gibbons, 2003, 2009; Mariani, 1997). Learners who are outgoing and willing to take risks, will likely have more and earlier success in learning a second language. Frequent opportunities for interaction between language learners and target language speakers are crucial to language acquisition (Slavin & Cheung, 2005).

Language learning is not a passive process wherein teachers provide comprehensible input and students' instincts do the rest. The teaching of a second language should be a thoughtful, concerted effort, guided by sound theory and practice (Howard, Sugarman, & Christian, 2003; López & Abbas, 2006). Language learning is deliberate on the part of both the teacher and the student (Gibbons, 2003; Mohr & Mohr, 2007; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Cummins (1982) explained the distinction between Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). An example of BICS would be playground English. Children pick this up quickly, in a context rich environment, full of visual and other non-verbal cues. Academic language, however, can take much longer to develop and should be supported in other areas of the curriculum (Gibbons, 1991, 2003, 2009; Thomas & Collier, 1997).

Scaffolding is a technique used by teachers to help students access the curriculum. It is important that teachers have high expectations and that they also support their students in meaningful ways. Recasting, reformulation, and recontextualizing can be used to nudge students into the Zone of Proximal Development. The level of help a teacher provides must be just enough to move the student along the mode continuum without frustrating him or her (Gibbons, 2003). The goal of this gradual improvement is ultimately facility with and understating of the target language.

The generally accepted standard in the assessment of comprehension is writing about the text one has read. All other means of comprehension assessment are shortcuts (Lemke, 2002; Meek, 1988; Toohey, 2007). Thus, comprehension assessments do not tell the whole story. They do not indicate when an ELL may be increasing in understanding and use of English. However, they only assess the degree to which an ELL is interpreting language as would authoritative readers (Toohey, 2007).

Practices Focused on the Student. When teachers value a student's mother tongue this communicates respect for culture, history, and family. Research supports the use of the mother tongue in the classroom and building upon knowledge and skills in a student's first language as the student acquires a second language (Escamilla & Andrade, 1992; Flores-Dueñas, 2005; Gibbons, 1991, 2003, 2009; Meyer, 2000). Second language learners make connections between knowledge in their first language to similar concepts in the target language (Krashen, 1985).

Gass (1977) makes a distinction between comprehensible input and comprehended input. The latter puts the focus on the language learner instead of the teacher. ELLs need to be engaged in the classroom (Mohr & Mohr, 2007). Only input

that is comprehended will be put to use by the learner in the process of language acquisition. Teachers can help lower significant barriers to language acquisition: cognition load; culture load; language load; and learning load (Meyer, 2000).


Cultural differences between the cultural perspective of the text and that of a student reading it lead to different interpretations (Toohey, 2007). This presents a problem for ELLs, as their writing skills in the target language may not be developed to the extent that they can accurately communicate in writing their understanding of a text passage they have read.


The focus of the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) “is on the acquisition and use of procedural skills that facilitate academic language and content learning” (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 191). This method requires that students conduct a self-evaluation of their progress in the language learning process. This contributes to student motivation and the realization that they are in control of their own learning instead of attributing success, or the lack thereof, to natural attributes they cannot control (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Appendix C

Email Invitation to Participate in the Study (Questionnaire)

Gabe Baca - UNM Title I and ELLs

 Gabriel Baca
To: Gabriel Baca; ✕

 Reply all | ▾

Tue 10/21/2014 8:25 PM

• You forwarded this message on 11/12/2014 7:09 PM

Hello, this is Gabe Baca. I am a graduate student at the University of New Mexico (UNM), working on a doctoral degree in Educational Leadership. I am conducting a research study entitled "English Language Learners (ELLs) in Title I Programs in New Mexico Public Schools."

While I work at the New Mexico Public Education Department (PED) as Special Education Director, this current research is related to my UNM dissertation, and I will not share the raw data from the research with PED.

The purpose of the study is to determine the nature of the participation of ELLs in Title I Programs in New Mexico. [You are invited to participate in a brief survey designed to determine the nature of ELL student participation in Title I Programs in New Mexico Public Schools.](#)

I am sending you this survey because your district is one of the 88 New Mexico public school districts which operates a Title I Program. The results of the research study may be published, but your identity will remain confidential and your name will not be made known to any outside party. In this research, there are minimal risks to you. Although there may be no direct benefit to you, a possible benefit from your participation is the information gathered as a result of this study. The results will be available to you, other directors, and policy makers to add to the body of knowledge in the field.

This survey is related to my Ed.D. dissertation in Educational Leadership at UNM. Participation in the survey is voluntary and anonymous. Neither your name, nor the name of your district, will be asked or will be tied to survey data. Further information is contained within the Informed Consent page at the beginning of the survey. In addition to UNM's IRB protocol, I will comply with any additional requirements unique to your respective district policies. You may decide to participate or not to participate in the survey.

This survey will take approximately ten minutes to complete, and I will use your response to help answer the research question in this study:

How are Title I Programs being implemented in New Mexico public schools with respect to English Language Learners (ELLs)?

This link is uniquely tied to your email address; please do not forward this message to others. However, I have set SurveyMonkey not to record IP addresses.

To take the survey, click the link below:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/ELLS_Title_I_NM

Thank you in advance for your participation.
Gabriel C. Baca, Graduate Student
UNM, Educational Leadership Program
gbaca@unm.edu
505-927-0338

If you have additional questions, please email or call me.

Appendix D

Survey Questionnaire

1. Informed Consent Form

*** 1. INFORMED CONSENT: PARTICIPANTS 18 YEARS OF AGE AND OLDER**

Dear Potential Questionnaire Participant,

My name is Gabriel C. Baca and I am a student at the University of New Mexico working on a doctoral degree in Education Leadership. I am conducting a research study entitled “English Language Learners (ELLs) in Title I Programs in New Mexico Public Schools.” The purpose of the study is to determine the nature of the participation of ELLs in Title I Programs in New Mexico.

Your participation will involve completing an online questionnaire, which will assist in addressing the research question of this study. The survey should not take more than 20 minutes of your time. You can decide to be a part of this study or not. Once you start, you can withdraw from the study at any time without any penalty or loss of benefits.

If you do not wish to participate in the study, check the appropriate box at the bottom of this page. If you wish to withdraw during the data collection process, you may do so at any time by following the instructions on the last page of the survey. If you decide not to participate after you have completed and submitted the questionnaire, you may contact me by email within one week to inform me of your wish to withdraw. All you need to provide in the e-mail is the participant ID that you will create on the last page of this survey. I will reply by email to confirm your data will not be included in the study.

The results of the research study may be published, but your identity will remain confidential and your name will not be made known to any outside party.

In this research, there are minimal risks to you. Although there may be no direct benefit to you, a possible benefit from your participation is the information gathered as a result of this study. The results will be available to you, other directors, and policy makers to add to the body of knowledge in the field.

If you have any questions about the research study, please contact me at 505-927-0338 or gbaca@unm.edu.

This research has been reviewed and approved by the University of New Mexico Institutional Review Board. You may talk to them at (505) 277-2644 or

IRBmaincampus@unm.edu for any of the following:

- o Your questions, concerns, or complaints are not being answered by the researcher**
- o You cannot reach the researcher**
- o You want to talk to someone besides the researcher**
- o You have questions about your rights as a research subject**
- o You want to get information or provide input about this research**

As a participant in this study, you should understand the following:

You may decide not to be part of this study or you may want to withdraw from the study at any time. If you want to withdraw, you can do so without any problems. Your identity will be kept confidential. Data will be kept in a secure and locked area. The data will be kept for three years, and then destroyed. The results of this study may be published.

By checking the "Yes" box on this page, you agree that you understand the nature of the study, the possible risks to you as a participant, and how your identity will be kept confidential. When you check the "Yes" box, this means that you are 18 years old or older and that you give your permission to volunteer as a participant in the study that is described here.

YES: Check Yes if you agree to participate in this study.

NO: Check No if you do not wish to participate in this study.

2. General Information

2. What is the enrollment size of your district?

- a. 0-199
- b. 200-299
- c. 300-399
- d. 400-499
- e. 500-599
- f. 600-699
- g. 700-799
- h. 800-999
- i. 1,000-1,999
- j. 2,000-3,999
- k. 4,000-5,999
- l. 6,000-9,999
- m. 10,000 or greater

3. How is the director position configured in your district?

- a. Full-time Director of Title I and nothing else
- b. Title I Director also directs other programs
- c. Superintendent is Director
- d. Teacher is assigned Director responsibilities
- e. Other (please specify)

4. For how many years have you held the Title I Director position/responsibility?

Number of years:

3. ELLs in Title I Programs

5. Please describe your familiarity with English Language Learner issues.

6. How are ELLs included in your district's Title I Program?

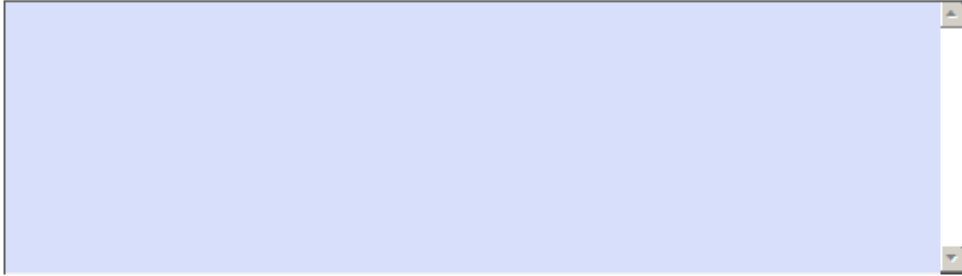
- a. Part of the general population
- b. Specifically mentioned in our Consolidated Application
- c. Only if identified through universal screening process
- d. Not included

7. To what degree are you familiar with the language in NCLB, SEC. 2112 that specifically mentions LEP students as one of the subgroups whom Title I is designed to assist?

- a. Very
- b. Somewhat
- c. Not familiar

8. Briefly discuss the academic needs of Spanish-speaking ELLs and Native American Language-background ELLs in your district.

9. Briefly discuss the ways in which Spanish-speaking ELLs and Native American Language-background ELLs participate in the Title I Program in your district.



4. Thank You

10. Thank you for your participation.

If you arrived at this page because you answered "no" on the Electronic Informed Consent page, you may exit the questionnaire. Thank you.

If you have any questions about this study, you may contact me at 505-927-0338 or gbaca@unm.edu.

If you decide to withdraw from participation after you have completed and submitted the questionnaire, you may contact me at gbaca@unm.edu to inform me of your choice to retroactively withdraw. I will reply by email to confirm that your data will not be included in the study.

If you anticipate withdrawing in this manner, please create a random 7-digit code and enter it below. Include at least two letters in the code. Write this code down as you will have to refer to it if you choose to withdraw after you have completed the questionnaire.

Thank You,

**Gabriel C. Baca
Doctoral Student
University of New Mexico**

Enter 7-digit code here.

Appendix E

Consent Form for Interview Participants

INFORMED CONSENT: PARTICIPANTS 18 YEARS OF AGE AND OLDER

Dear Potential Interview Participant,

My name is Gabriel C. Baca and I am a student at the University of New Mexico working on a doctoral degree in Education Leadership. I am conducting a research study entitled “English Language Learners (ELLs) in Title I Programs in New Mexico Public Schools.”

The purpose of the study is to determine the nature of the participation of ELLs in Title I Programs in New Mexico.

Your participation will involve participating in an interview, which will assist in addressing the research question of this study. The interview should not take more than 30 minutes of your time. You can decide to be a part of this study or not. Once you start, you can withdraw from the study at any time without any penalty or loss of benefits.

If you do not wish to participate in the study, check the appropriate box at the bottom of this page. If you wish to withdraw during the interview, you may do so at any time. If you decide not to participate after you have completed the interview, you may contact me by email within one week to inform me of your wish to withdraw.

I will reply by email to confirm your data will not be included in the study.

The results of the research study may be published, but your identity will remain confidential and your name will not be made known to any outside party.

In this research, there are minimal risks to you. Although there may be no direct benefit to you, a possible benefit from your participation is the information gathered as a result of this study. The results will be available to you, other directors, and policy makers to add to the body of knowledge in the field.

If you have any questions about the research study, please contact me at 505-927-0338
Or gbaca@unm.edu.

This research has been reviewed and approved by the University of New Mexico Institutional Review Board. You may talk to them at (505) 277.2644 or IRBmaincampus@unm.edu for any of the following:

- o Your questions, concerns, or complaints are not being answered by the researcher
- o You cannot reach the researcher
- o You want to talk to someone besides the researcher
- o You have questions about your rights as a research subject
- o You want to get information or provide input about this research

As a participant in this study, you should understand the following:

You may decide not to be part of this study or you may want to withdraw from the study at any time. If you want to withdraw, you can do so without any problems. Your identity will be kept confidential. Data will be encrypted. The data will be kept for three years, and then destroyed. The results of this study may be published.

By checking the "Yes" box on this page, you agree that you understand the nature of the study, the possible risks to you as a participant, and how your identity will be kept confidential. When you check the "Yes" box, this means that you are 18 years old or older and that you give your permission to volunteer as a participant in the study that is described here.

- YES: Check Yes if you agree to participate in this study. Please complete next page.
- NO: Check No if you do not wish to participate in this study. Thank you.

CONSENT

You are making a decision whether to participate in this study. Your signature below indicates that you read the information provided. By signing this consent form, you are not waiving any of your legal rights as a research participant.

I have had an opportunity to ask questions and all questions have been answered to my satisfaction. By signing this consent form, I agree to participate in this study. A copy of this consent form will be provided to you.

Name of Adult Subject (print)

Signature of Adult Subject

Date

INVESTIGATOR SIGNATURE

I have explained the research to the participant and answered all of his/her questions. I believe that he/she understands the information described in this consent form and freely consents to participate.

Name of Investigator/ Study Team Member (print)

Signature of Investigator/ Study Team Member

Date

Appendix F

Interview Questions

1. *How long have you worked in the district?*
2. *Tell me about your experience in education, with particular attention to your work with ELLs (Spanish-speaking and Native American language background) and/or with Title I.*
3. *Tell me about the home language backgrounds of the ELLs in your district.*
4. *How are English Language Learners served in your school district?*
5. *Tell me about the collaboration between bilingual education programs, Indian education programs, and the Title I Program in your district.*
6. *Describe the process your district uses to decide where and how to spend Title I funds.*
7. *Describe your district's Title I Program activities at the district and school levels and the information on which these decisions were based.*
8. *Tell me about any (additional) programs your district offers for ELLs. Are any of these programs supported with Title I funds? If not, how are they funded?*
9. *The language in Title I Law, SEC. 1112, states a requirement to provide all students with the opportunity....to achieve high quality state standards, including those who are Limited English Proficient (LEP). What does this mean to you? How have you interpreted this requirement?*
10. *Does your district maintain separate Title I, bilingual education, and Indian education offices and directors?*

i. *If Yes, describe the interaction between the Title I and bilingual education directors and departments.*

11. *Describe current agreements or procedures regarding ELLs who may also be eligible for Title I services.*

12. *If you were asked to summarize, for your school board, ideas around the use of Title I funds to address the needs of ELLs in your district, what would you say?*

13. *What are your thoughts about the future of Title I and services to Spanish-speaking and Native American language-background ELLs?*

Appendix G

Telephone Script for Inviting Directors to Participate in the Study (Interview)

Hello, this is Gabe Baca and I am a graduate student at the University of New Mexico (UNM) working on a doctoral degree in Education Leadership. I am conducting a research study entitled “English Language Learners (ELLs) in Title I Programs in New Mexico Public Schools.”

While I work at the New Mexico Public Education Department (PED) as Special Education Director, this current research is related to my UNM dissertation, and I will not share the raw data from the research with the PED. I will not tell PED which directors I am interviewing or which districts they represent.

The purpose of the study is to determine the nature of the participation of ELLs in Title I Programs in New Mexico.

You previously received an email invitation to participate in a survey. I am calling today to invite to participate in an interview on the same topic. The interview will allow me to explore the research question more deeply.

I am calling today because (name of district) is one of eight districts that has been chosen via purposeful sampling taking into consideration the relative size of your ELL population and your geographic location in the state. The results of the research study may be published, but your identity will remain confidential and your name will not be made known to any outside party. In this research, there are minimal risks to you. Although there may be no direct benefit to you, a possible benefit from your participation is the information gathered as a result of this study. The results will be available to you, other directors, and policy makers to add to the body of knowledge in the field.

Participation in the interview is voluntary and anonymous. Neither your name, nor the name of your district, will be asked or will be tied to survey data. Further information is contained within the Informed Consent page at the beginning of the survey. You may decide to participate or not to participate before, during, or after the interview.

The interview should not take more than 30 minutes of your time. You can decide to be a part of this study or not. Once you start, you can withdraw from the study at any time without any penalty or loss of benefits.

If you agree to participate, we can set up a time in (district town) to conduct the interview. I was thinking that a neutral location may be best (not in your office). The interview will be digitally recorded and transcribed. After transcription, you will have the opportunity to review to transcript to ensure it is accurate. After you validate the transcription, the paper document which links you to your responses will be destroyed.

A code will be assigned to your data that will not identify you or your district.

Again, this work is completely separate from my work at PED. If you decide to participate, your name will not be made known to PED.

Thank you for considering participating in the interview.

Gabriel C. Baca, Graduate Student

UNM, Educational Leadership Program

gbaca@unm.edu

505-927-0338

If you have additional questions at a later time, please email or call me.