

Bilingual & Biliteracy Development: Language Policy & English Language Learners in Texas

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Abstract

Current language policies in the U.S. and Texas play a role in restricting the number of years students considered English Language Learners (ELL) are provided with native language support. This study examined the oral, reading and writing skills in Spanish and English of 44 ELLs in one inner-city school district. Based on the theory of transference and interdependence, it is hypothesized that students who acquire literacy development in their native language are able to transfer those skills when developing literacy in a second language (Cummins, 1979, 1984, 1991; Durgunoğlu, 1998). Comprehensive Individual evaluation results were used to investigate the interdependence hypothesis, and to predict English literacy skills. Regression analysis results indicate the Spanish reading and writing skills were good predictors of English language development in these areas. Oral language skills in Spanish did not appear to be good predictors of oral language skills development in English. The ELL students in this sample did not appear to have developed sufficient skills in their native language to support a successful transfer into an English only curriculum.

Introduction

This study examined standardized test scores in English and Spanish of forty four students being considered for initial or continuing special education eligibility in one urban school district in Texas for the 98-99 & 99-2000 school years. Using Cummins' interdependence hypothesis (Cummins, 1984, 1991) as the theoretical base, students' Spanish standardized oral language and achievement test scores are used to predict English language (literacy and language) development.

Education around the world is defined by multiple layers of policies and practices (Nieto & Bode, 2008) and Texas is no different. Education policies are interconnected with civil rights, language rights, and human rights as well as the sociopolitical context of the time. The practices that evolve from policies, and manifest themselves in the micropolitical spaces of schools have negative effects for culturally and linguistically diverse students (Valenzuela, 2005). According to Valenzuela (1999), the institutionalized practices that have resulted from federal regulation and policies have served as mechanism for the continuation of subtractive schooling practices (e.g. NCLB).

Students who are not native speakers of English are the fastest growing population in the public school system in the United States, with Spanish being the language most represented by these culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students. The current label given this student population is English Language Learner¹ (ELL). Research indicates that ELLs who have acquired a high level of literacy in their native language are able to transfer those processes and most of their skills when developing literacy in a second or third language (Cummins, 1979, 1984a, 1991;

¹ Texas regulation uses Limited English Proficiency (LEP) rather than ELL as a category. The author will use LEP when referring to federal and state regulations.

Durgunoğlu, 1998; Verhoeven, 1990). The common underlying processes and proficiency skills developed in the native language facilitate the transfer of cognitive and academic language skills across languages (Guzmán, 2008; Verhoeven & Aarts, 1989). The principle of interdependence suggests that sustained instruction in the native language is effective in promoting proficiency in the second language (Cummins, 1984a, 1991; Cummins & Swain, 1986). The research indicates that ELLs should be provided with educational opportunities to establish academic oral language and literacy skills in their native language, which will assist in the process of second language acquisition.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to examine the factors that predict transference of skills from Spanish to English for ELLs. Specifically examining reading, writing and oral language skills of students who were being considered for initial or continued special education eligibility and services. Students who enter Texas schools speaking a language other than English, are initially identified through the use of a home language survey. Following the parent completion of the survey, in which a language other than English is noted, the school then proceeds to evaluate the student using an oral language proficiency test to determine if the student will require bilingual education program placement or another alternative. ELLs enter school at different stages or grade levels in their academic career. Most researchers agree that students may require 5-7 years of direct instruction to not only develop a strong foundation in their native language but also to acquire the cognitive and academic processes when acquiring a second language (Thomas & Collier, 2001). Students who acquire proficiency in Spanish through participation in bilingual education programs, can transfer their processes and skills when acquiring proficiency in English (Nieto & Bode, 2008). This study investigates ELLs level of oral language and literacy acquisition in their native language as the basis for acquiring a second language, based on their performance on norm-referenced oral language and achievement instruments administered in English and Spanish.

Research Questions

The educational theory and research assumption is that students' native language and bilingual education programming provide a basis for the development of English proficiency. This study used the students' Spanish oral language development scores to assess the predictive value for English oral language and literacy scores. The research questions for this study are as follows:

- 1) Does Spanish oral language development predict English oral language development?
- 2) Does Spanish literacy (reading and writing) predict English literacy development?

Literacy skills in the native language should predict the development of English oral language and literacy skills. For this study, the theory of interdependence and transference suggest that oral and literacy skills developed in the native language provide the foundation for development of a second language. Common underlying linguistic proficiency (CUP) (Cummins, 1979; Guzmán, 2008) skills make it possible for an ELL or bilingual student to transfer their cognitive academic language skills when acquiring a second language. Findings should provide evidence of transference and may contribute to our understanding of the principle of interdependence in students who have been provided with bilingual education programming.

Review of Literature

Educational policies in the U.S. have been enacted at the federal level in terms of compulsory education for all U.S. citizens since the turn of the century, with an ensuing cycle of trickle-down education reform described as “a pendulum continuously oscillating from left to right” (Halcon & de la luz Reyes, 1992, p. 304). In general, the swings of the pendulum are ruled by the sociopolitical and economic conditions in society. The passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1965) was followed by an amendment to ESEA in 1968 that included the implementation of the Bilingual Education Act (Title VII). For culturally and linguistically diverse groups, the problem of trickle-down reform is that “proposed initiatives designed for mainstream students are not necessarily the most appropriate” (Halcon & de la luz Reyes, 1992, p. 306). The curricular needs of CLD students tend to be placed at the margins, while mainstream students are the center of proposed U.S. educational reforms.

Bilingual education, in general, can be defined as an educational program that involves the use of two languages for instruction at some point in a student’s school career (Nieto, 2004, p. 224). In the U.S. and in Texas, this point in the student’s career usually occurs at the elementary level. The most common form of bilingual education programming is early/transitional bilingual education programs, whose goal is to provide assistance to students in developing English skills needed for transition to English-only instruction (Brisk, 2006; Crawford, 1998, 2004). These programs use the student’s native language as a bridge to an English curriculum as soon as possible (Durgunoğlu, 1998; Nieto & Bode, 2008). According to Hakuta (1986), the history of bilingual education in the U.S. can be divided into pre-World War I and post-1960. Since the social movements of the 1960’s and the passage of the Bilingual Education Act (BEA) of 1968, bilingual education has consistently been criticized as a compensatory method of instruction for linguistic minorities (Padilla, 1990). The criticisms can be traced to the sociopolitical context of the time (Crawford, 2004; San Miguel, 2004).

The early exit or transitional bilingual education (TBE) programs do not continue to support the maintenance of the native language. Hakuta (1986) states that the terms bilingual and bilingualism have meaning beyond the use of more than one language, “the bilingual child in the American classroom commonly evokes the image of a child who speaks English poorly, has difficulty in school, and is in need of remediation” (p. 10). Therefore, the bilingual education model used in U.S. and Texas schools is seen as compensatory in nature rather than additive. Based on Texas Bilingual Education Policy (Chapter 89), the bilingual program model in Texas is one that is transitional in nature.

Although there is no official U.S. language policy, there is a complex set of laws, court cases, and government rules and regulations that prescribe the schooling linguistic minorities receive (Koyama, 2004, p. 417). Sutton and Levinson (2001), define policy as “a complex social practice, an ongoing process of normative cultural production constituted by diverse actors across diverse social and institutional contexts” (pg. 1, as cited in Koyama, 2004, p. 404). Using Koyama’s (2004) frame of practitioners as policymakers, the definition of policymakers is inclusive of all educators. At the district and campus level, this would include administrators, teachers, and specialists who appropriate policy. Students have access to programs based on decisions by educators whose practices are based on knowledge of and interpretation of the Texas education code and language policy.

Skutnabb-Kangas (2006) states that educational linguistic human rights include both the right to have basic education mainly through the medium of the home language and the right to

learn the dominant language as well. In an additive educational environment, children learn the dominant language without eliminating or erasing their native language. The daily practice of interpretation and appropriation of education policy, including language policy by educators produces variability in the education provided to CLD and ELL students, specifically those who enter who schools speaking a language other than English.

The implications of school personnel appropriation of school policies, practices and programming may be affected by national education debates as well as the construction and promotion of the U.S. as a monolingual, English speaking and monocultural society (Nierto & Bode, 2008). English is then considered the legitimate language of instruction as well as the sole criterion by which CLD and ELLs are judged to be successful as illustrated by the high-stakes testing, currently mandated by NCLB.

Ruiz, Figueroa, Rueda and Beaumont (1992) state that Hispanic students continue to enter the special education process under suspect circumstances. In addition, Romaine (1995) claims that there has been an unacknowledged relationship between bilingualism and special education. These suspect circumstances and the unacknowledged relationship between difference and disability tends to surround the practice of special education in which, one may not be able to distinguish (with the naked eye) the presence or absence of a high incident disability (LD, MR, ED, SI). The mystery and the lack of knowledge on the part of educators seem to create a schism between policy, practice and research. This has been evident at the intersection of bilingual education and special education for ELLs.

Researchers note that students do not arrive at school with a special education diagnosis and ELLs appear to be affected by both policies and practices for bilingual education and special education. According to Artiles & Trent (1994), due to policies, practices and the political nature of schooling, educators may be socialized to equate bilingualism and diversity with a disability (p. 425). In addition, the diagnosis and eligibility determination for ELL students are "typically made by school personnel after the child has started school, relying on a subjective referral and eligibility determination process that varies from district to district and from school to school within the same district" (Blanchett, 2006, pp. 24-25).

Ruiz, et al. (1992) state that early literature on bilingual special education was predominantly prescriptive on how to merge bilingual and special education, and it had a very small empirical database (pg. 356). One major criticism with the early development of bilingual special education was that it appeared to suggest a system modification approach which "accepts the system as currently structured and attempts to improve practices without making fundamental changes in the referral, assessment and placement system" (Ruiz, Figueroa, Rueda, & Beaumont, 1992, p. 356). The negative consequence of these policies and practices result in inaccurate and invalid assessment of CLD students' capabilities (De la Luz Reyes & Halcón, 2001; Valencia & Suzuki, 2001) and leads to misplacement and misdiagnosis (Valdés & Figueroa, 1994) in special education programs.

L1 to L2 Transfer

Studies investigating L1 & L2 transfer suggest that students who are learning to read in a second language are helped by their first language (Crawford, 2004; Cummins, 2000; Durgunoğlu, 1998; Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Thomas & Collier, 2001). A study of dual language programming in CA by Lindholm-Leary (2001) indicated that the results clearly showed that both English and Spanish speaking students benefited from instruction in their native language. Having instruction in L1, did not retard or postpone academic achievement or oral language development of English. The

study showed that students who had higher levels of bilingual proficiency were associated with higher reading achievement results. This result was also evident across grade levels, “as students became more proficient in both languages, the correlation between reading achievement in English and Spanish increased” (Lindholm-Leary, 2001, p. 232). These findings are consistent with previous studies indicating that higher levels of bilingual language proficiency provides a base for higher levels of academic and cognitive gains (Cummins, 1979, 1984b).

In a study by Verhoeven (1990) on the acquisition of reading in a second language, he found that during the first two grades, both word recognition and reading comprehension appear to be most strongly influenced by children’s oral proficiency in the second language. This finding suggested that children learning to read in a second language should be helped to build up their oral skills, and that reading instruction should be matched to those skills (Verhoeven, 1990).

The Thomas & Collier (1997, 2001) longitudinal study investigating school effectiveness including bilingual education program model for ELL student success, indicates that the amount of formal schooling in L1 that students receives was the strongest predictor of how rapidly they will reach academic proficiency in L2 (Cummins, 2000).

Evaluation Instruments

The study utilizes the scores derived from test instruments administered by the schools, therefore, a review of the evaluation instruments is provided. The Woodcock Munoz Language Survey (WMLS) (Woodcock & Muñoz-Sandoval, 1993, 2001) in English and Spanish is a standardized test that provides scores on the student’s current level of cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). For academic achievement, the student’s were administered the Spanish Bateria Woodcock-Muñoz: Pruebas de aprovechamiento – Revisada (Bat-R, ACH) (Woodcock & Muñoz-Sandoval, 1996a) and the English Woodcock Johnson Test of Achievement – Revised (WJ-R ACH) (Woodcock & Johnson, 1989b).

The WMLS was developed based on Cummins theory which distinguishes between two types of language proficiency (Woodcock & Muñoz-Sandoval, 1993); the first being basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and the other cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). BICS is defined as informal language that is necessary for daily communication. CALP is defined as the language proficiency required for academic or school based situations. CALP develops in a school based environment with direct instruction, while BICS develops in an informal contexts and situations (cafeteria, playground, etc.). Based on Cummins (1979, 1984a; & 1991) definition and theory, BICS and CALP are distinguishable based on one’s exposure to formal school experiences. The WMLS is designed to evaluate a student’s level of CALP based on a classification system. A score of one (1) indicates negligible oral language proficiency skills and a score of five (5) would indicate advanced skills. Research has indicated that CALP skills generally take from 5 to 7 or more years of direct instruction to develop (Thomas & Collier, 2001).

The WJ-R in English and Bat-R, ACH in Spanish are parallel normed referenced measures of academic achievement. The WJ-R and Bat-R, ACH tests yield standard scores with similar psychometric properties (Mean 100; SD 15). Standard scores are based on the normal distribution and students are compared to others their age. All of the assessment tests were administered during the school day using standardized testing procedures; the tests are administered in the student’s strongest or preferred language first. The test scores are used for determining the student’s level of oral language proficiency and academic achievement in English and Spanish. The scores from the WMLS evaluation instruments are being used to determine evidence of transference of oral language and scores from the WJ-R and Bat-R, ACH are being used to determine transference of literacy skills from Spanish to English.

Methodology

Participants

Comprehensive individual assessment (CIA) reports were reviewed and analyzed for forty four students in one inner-city school district in Texas. This district has a total of 57,565 students (See Table 1) in the 99-00 school year. Hispanic/Latinos make-up the majority of the student population (85%). African-American and White students make-up 14% of the student population; Asian and Native American students made-up the remaining 1% of the student population. Texas Education Agency data indicates that this district comprises a large number of students who are considered economically disadvantaged (85%). Seventeen percent (17%) of the students in the district are considered Limited English Proficient (LEP), with 13% of the students receiving bilingual/ESL programming at that time. The special education population in the district is 13.3%.

Table 1: District Demographics (99-00)

<i>District Demographics</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Total Number of Students	57,565	100%
African American	5,804	10%
Hispanic/Latino	49,078	85%
White	2,498	4.3%
Economically Disadvantaged	49,207	86%
Limited English Proficient	9,994	17.4%
Receiving Bilingual/ESL	7,304	12.7%
Special Education	7,652	13.3%

English and Spanish scores from forty-four comprehensive individual evaluations were reviewed. The participants were students being considered for initial or continued special education eligibility and services. The comprehensive evaluations were reviewed to extract norm-referenced scores on oral language and academic achievement based on the tests administered. The students in the sample had been referred for special education evaluation by the campus student support teams (SST) or Admission Dismissal and Review (ARD) committee to determine initial or continuing eligibility and services. Other data collected included intellectual ability scores, math scores in English and Spanish, special education eligibility and language proficiency testing completed by the Language Proficiency Assessment Committee (LPAC). For this study, the WMLS, Bateria-R and WJ-R student scores are used for analyses.

The data is a convenient sample of CIA reports completed by the researchers during the 1999 and 2000 school years. The students included in the sample attend schools on the west side of district boundaries; five elementary schools and one middle school are included. In this sample (See Table 2), 54% of the students are male ($n = 24$) and 45% are female ($n = 20$) and were between 5 – 14 years old (K-8th grade). All of the students in the sample are considered Latino/Hispanic, with the first language being Spanish (97.7%) and were categorized as LEP by the district. In the sample, seven (16%) students were considered parental denials in terms of bilingual education programming (BE-7); which indicates that they are not receiving bilingual education

services. The students in the sample had Spanish as the first language (97.7%) with the exception of one student whose records indicated English to be the first language. Of the reports reviewed there were indications that only 32% of the students had been retained. Of the student's evaluated, 54.6% percent were in second and third grade at the time of assessment.

Table 2: Sample Demographics

<i>Demographics</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Latino/Hispanic	44	100%
LEP categorization	44	100%
Male	24	55%
Female	20	45%
Bilingual Education Programming	37	84%
Retained	14	32%

Procedures & Data analysis

Oral language and achievement test scores from the students' psycho-educational evaluations were reviewed and entered into an Excel spreadsheet. The data from the spreadsheets were then coded and entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) program for statistical analysis. First, correlation analyses were performed between the standardized test scores in English and Spanish. Correlations were used to determine a relationship between oral language scores and academic achievement scores in the native language and in English. Second, the scores in Spanish were used as predictor variables for English oral language and achievement scores using simple linear regression analysis. Regression seeks to predict an outcome variable based from a single predictor variable (Field, 2005).

Three separate analyses were run for oral language, reading and writing using the Spanish scores as predictor variables. The Spanish reading scores were used to predict English reading; Spanish writing was used to predict English writing scores; and Spanish oral language scores were used to predict English oral language. The regression model equation is: $Y_i = b_0 + (b_1X_i)$.

Results

The Pearson product moment correlation indicated a weak relationship between Spanish and English oral language scores. A significant relationship between Spanish and English oral language skills was not found for this sample. The correlation analysis did suggest a relationship between English oral language scores (WMLS) and English reading ($r = .642, p < .001$) and English writing scores ($r = .647, p < .001$) on the WJ-R. A relationship was detected between Spanish oral language scores (WMLS) and Spanish reading ($r = .434, p = .007$) on the Bat-R, ACH. A significant relationship was not detected between Spanish oral language and writing scores for this sample.

Regression Analysis

Spanish Reading explains 21% of the variance for English Reading. The regression analysis model results in a good degree of prediction, which suggests that Spanish Reading is a significant predictor of English Reading.

The Spanish Writing scores explain 22% of the variance for English writing results. This model results in a good degree of prediction, which suggests that Spanish writing is a significant predictor of English writing.

The WMLS oral language proficiency scores in Spanish did not appear to be strongly correlated and did not show significant predictive ability ($r = .053$; $R^2 = .001$; $p > .05$) for literacy skills in English. In terms of literacy skills, regression analysis indicate that Spanish Reading was able to predict 21% of the variance on English reading ($R = .458$, $p = .004$). For the relationship between Spanish and English writing, the Spanish score was able to predict 22% of the variance of the English score ($R = .47$, $p = .003$). The regression line is flat, and the correlation is weak for this sample size ($N = 44$). In terms of predicting English literacy skills based on a student's Spanish score, 78% of the variance can be attributed to other factors or variables.

Student CALP levels in the native language and English were consistent with the literacy scores obtained. Students with higher level CALP demonstrated better academic outcomes. Although for this sample, the most frequently occurring CALP score was a three (Limited) and the standard scores as noted above were within the below average range compared to same age peers. The results were noted in both English and Spanish.

Discussion

From this sample, one school referred a higher percentage (38%) of students for assessment than the other schools in the sample. Overall, the student's oral language proficiency scores appear to be within the low range in both English and Spanish. Students in the sample appeared to score within the low average range in reading and writing skills in both English and Spanish compared to other students their age. The average Spanish scores obtained appear to be one standard deviation greater than the English scores. Of the students evaluated, 54.5% did not meet eligibility for special education services based on state and federal guidelines. Of the student's who were identified as having a disability, 31.8 % were considered learning disabled.

Based on Cummins (1979, 1984a, 1991) theory, if a bilingual student attains only a low level of competence in the first or second language, the interactions in his/her environment in that language, both input and out, may appear deficient. It is also hypothesized that the type of bilingual education programming being provided may have positive or negative effects on the cognitive development of the student. ELL students in this investigation may be transitioning to English before they have acquired sufficient oral and literacy skills in their native language.

Findings appear to suggest that this sample of ELL students in an urban school district did not appear to be developing sufficient literacy skills in their native language to support the transfer to English (CALP Level 3, Limited). The data suggests that for this sample of students, their emerging oral language scores in English are below average, which is an expected outcome while students are enrolled in a bilingual education program and are in the process of second language acquisition. However, review of the student's oral language skills in Spanish, did not indicate average scores in their native language. Student's CALP scores were also predominantly within the limited (CALP Level 3) range in Spanish and English. The results suggest that student's oral language skills in the native language may not be developing appropriately within the bilingual

education program environment. Other factors that may account for the remaining variance when predicting academic outcomes in English include the student's age, current level of functioning, attitude toward the language as well as other factors related to home and school. Systemic issues may also be factors that influence the student outcomes include the programming options available in the schools as well as teacher perceptions of students who are culturally and linguistically diverse students, which results in a referred for special education services.

Twenty four out of the 44 students (54%) in the sample were evaluated in second or third grade, which is a critical stage within the educational system, due to current high stakes testing requirements, as well as literacy development. Depending on the type of bilingual education program, ELL students would be expected to transition to English within a short amount of time (generally by third grade). The data suggest that student's in this sample may not have been prepared for an early exit or transition to English. Only five students in the sample exhibited fluent Spanish oral language proficiency skills (CALP Level 4). The data analyzed for this investigation suggests that student's may be transitioning before they have acquired sufficient CALP in Spanish to ensure transference of skills to English. Students may not be reaching the threshold needed to ensure academic success in the second language.

Another limitation of this investigation is the need to obtain a bigger sample of students over a longer period of time to allow for an intensive examination at the bilingual education and special education practices within the school system. Collaboration between bilingual education and special education personnel may support the need to provide appropriate services to ELL students rather than attempting to label students as disabled and placing in special services. Another area of study may include an investigation on the services being provided to ELL students who are also considered disabled. What types of services are offered to ELL students who are also receiving special education services and what are the outcomes?

Ruiz, Figueroa, Rueda & Beaumont (1992) state that Hispanic students continue to enter the special education process under suspect circumstances. In addition, Romaine (1995) claims that there has been an unacknowledged relationship between bilingualism and special education. The current findings suggest that the link between special education and ELLs requires further investigation of this issue.

Conclusion / Implications

Based on the current investigation, ELL students in one inner-city school district displayed below average oral and literacy skills in their native language. One factor for the low scores may be attributed to the type of bilingual education programming being provided. If students are being transitioned from Spanish to English based on an early exit model, the data in this investigation suggests that the ELL student's native language skills have not developed sufficiently to support the transfer to English only instruction. This is an area which would require further investigation to determine the effects of the implementation of the bilingual education program in which the student is enrolled. Early exit (transitional) bilingual education practice may be a factor contributing to the number of ELL students being referred for special education consideration. These factors may also be contributing to the low performance by ELL students on state mandated exams (e.g., TAKS, RPTE and SDAA). Based on the current data, students in this sample did not appear to be developing sufficient oral language proficiency in their native language, which may result in poor or stunted English proficiency development. State and local education agencies should ensure that evaluation personnel involved in the evaluation process of ELL students are adequately trained to

be aware of the factors that are involved in evaluating a bilingual child for special education eligibility and services based on state and federal guidelines. Evaluating student's in English alone would underestimate the student's actual abilities and could result in inappropriate decisions for special education placement and services.

This investigation did not appear to support the transfer of oral language skills from student's native language to English. Previous research suggests that children learning to read in a second language should be helped to build up their oral skills, and their reading instruction should be matched to those skills (Verhoeven, 1990). In this sample, the student's oral language skills do not appear to be consistent with the instruction being provided. The data in this research study suggests that further investigations are needed to determine appropriate factors which are impeding ELL students from acquiring literacy skills in their native language. In addition to investigating the types of bilingual education programs provided, other factors need to be taken into account when interpreting data on evaluations completed on ELL students. These include cognitive ability, number of years in U.S. school system, socioeconomic status, mobility/attendance and motivational factors. Campus referral committees may need to take into account a lot of the factors affecting ELL students' acquisition of English before referring the student for special education evaluations. The campus LPAC committee may need to re-evaluate the student's level of surface level fluency before determining appropriate bilingual educational programming. A student's surface level fluency (BICS) in the second language does not appear to be sufficient to determine the student's success in the classroom where cognitive academic language and literacy are required. Further studies need to be conducted to determine if these findings are consistent for ELL students in other school districts within the San Antonio area as well as Texas.

This investigation also suggests that the evaluation practices used for ELL students being referred for special education services may need to be reviewed. At this time, there are limited resources available to evaluation specialist for testing bilingual students using standardized measures. Evaluation specialist conducting special education assessments for language minority students need to be fully aware of the limitations of evaluation instruments currently being used. More evaluation instruments have been created in Spanish within the past several years, but there are limited tests available in other languages. Some local education agencies are using innovative practices such as curriculum based measurements (CBM) and establishing local norms in which to compare their ELL populations. CBM are also used for intervention purposes before a child is referred for a special education evaluation.

Educational services for CLD students must take into account the students linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Artiles & Ortiz (2002) argue that this requires an emphasis on a comprehensive system of program options. One that will force professionals to transcend what until now has been almost an exclusive focus on student deficits (p. 19). In districts with small or non-existent bilingual programs, CLD students have a history of being disproportionately served in special education programs in the 1970's (Rueda, Artiles, Salazar, & Higareda, 2002; Valdés & Figueroa, 1994). This suggests that a lack of language support programs influences the placement rates for CLD students.

Educator perceptions of CLD students may place them at higher risk of being referred, evaluated and found eligible for special education services based on deficit thinking models (Valencia, 1997) as well as flawed institutionalized practices. Future research may includes looking at students who are ELL (LEP) and have not been placed in bilingual education program and comparing the scores between students who are provided with bilingual education programming over time (longitudinal).

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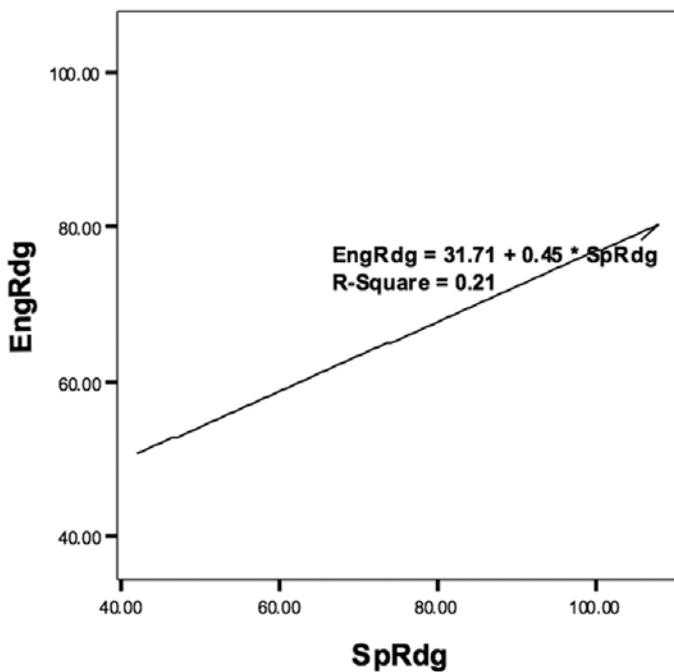
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Appendix

A. Regression Analyses

Regression Analysis for Spanish Reading

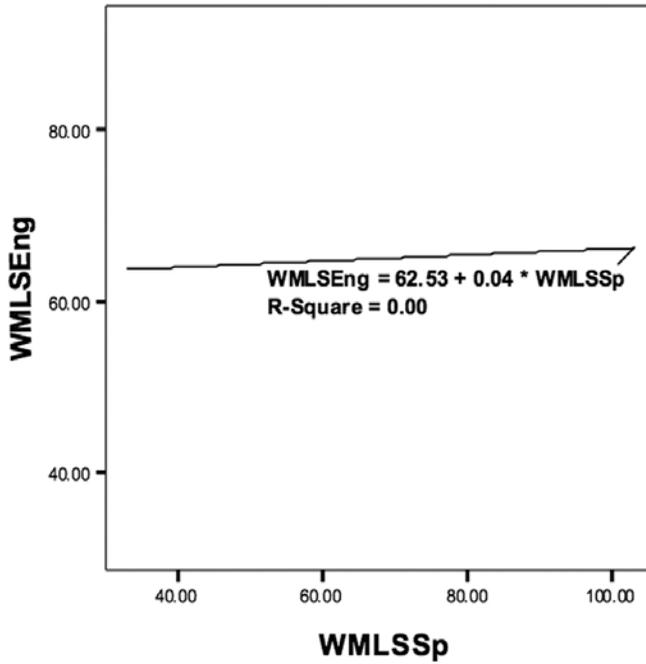
Predictor	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
SpnRdg	85	16	0.45	3.091	.004



Linear Regression

Regression Analysis for Spanish Oral Language

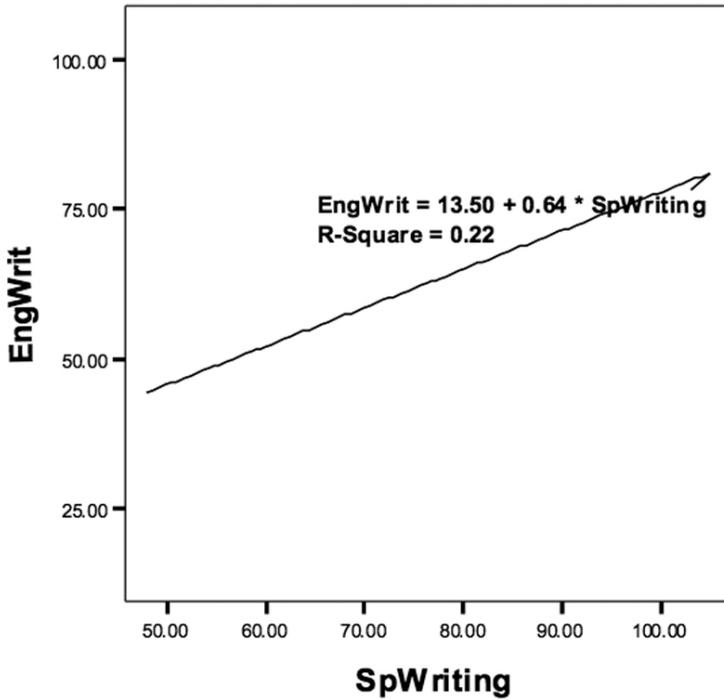
Predictor	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
SpnOral	78	14.5	0.36	.202	.841



Linear Regression

Regression Analysis for Spanish Writing

Predictor	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
SpnWrt	79	13	0.64	3.146	.003



Linear Regression

Table 3: Spanish CALP Scores (n = 37)

<i>CALP Level</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Percent</i>
1.5	2	5.2 %
2 – 2.5	7	19 %
3 – 3.5	23	62.3 %
4	5	13.5 %

Table 4: English CALP Scores (n = 42)

<i>CALP Level</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Percent</i>
1 – 1.5	7	16.7 %
2 – 2.5	18	42.9 %
3 – 3.5	17	40.4 %
4	0	0