

ENGLISH LEARNER INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMS IN TEXAS CHARTER
SCHOOLS: PERSPECTIVES OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS IN
THEIR SELECTION OF BILINGUAL/ESL PROGRAMS

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There are 184 active charter school districts in Texas, which use public tax dollars like traditional school districts, providing educational opportunities to over 350,000 Texas students. Charter schools accept state and federal funds and often operate with less oversight than their neighboring local public schools, yet they have the autonomy to accomplish the mission(s) set forth by the charter school operator. Although there have been numerous studies looking at the effectiveness of charter schools in terms of student achievement, very little research has been on the programs that charter schools implement to address the needs of their English learner populations. This study examined charter school leaders' perceptions in the selection of the EL instructional programs that are offered to their English Learners. Interviews of district bilingual/ESL directors of Texas charter schools, or their equivalents, were conducted. Using a constructivist grounded theory design, this study explored the factors and decisions of instructional leaders in implementing a particular second language program, with special attention to the ideologies informing these decisions. Themes emerged from the data and were explored. The findings of this study are vital in helping other charter school operators better understand the challenges and potential pitfalls faced by current charter school operators in supporting their EL populations.

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By

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In the 2018 Populations Projections, the Texas State Data Center and Office of the State Demographer (TXSDC) noted that between 2010 and 2050, the Hispanic population of Texas will likely double in size, going from about 9.5 million people to over 20 million and the Asian population would increase from about 950,000 people to over 5.7 million (Texas State Data Center and Office of the State Demographer, 2018). Further breakdowns of this report show that by 2050, for people under the age of 18, one in two (49%) will be Hispanic, and about one in 10 (11%) will be Asian. These figures proposed by the TXSDC show a necessity to prepare for the continuous population shift in Texas and to prepare programs that will help address the social, linguistic, and academic needs of those students who will soon comprise the largest group in Texas. In addition the U.S. Census Bureau (2011) indicated that the Hispanic population made up sixteen percent of the total population of the United States in the 2010 census, and that “the majority of the growth in the total population came from increases in those who reported their ethnicity as Hispanic or Latino” (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011, p. 2).

Texas public school enrollment data for the 2020-21 school year reported that there were over one million identified English learners (ELs) in the state from pre-kindergarten to twelfth grade, accounting for 20.6% of the total public school student enrollment (Texas Education Agency [TEA], 2021b). The make racial/ethnic makeup of this population, referenced in Table 1, was primarily Hispanic (88.3%), Asian (6.1%), White (2.9%), African American (1.9%), American Indian (0.4%), Multiracial (0.3%), Pacific Islander (0.1%). Additional reports from TEA, referencing Public Education Information Management System (PEIMS) data from 2020, stated that 89% of identified ELs in Texas had a primary language of Spanish, followed by

Vietnamese (1.5%, Arabic (1.2%), Urdu (0.5%), Mandarin (0.5%), and Telugu/Telegu (0.4%) (TEA, 2020d).

Table 1

Enrollment for Instructional Programs by Race/Ethnicity, Texas Public Schools 2020-21

Race/Ethnicity	English Learner (<i>n</i>)	English Learner (%)
African American	20,884	1.9
American Indian	4,703	0.4
Asian	67,189	6.1
Hispanic	979,290	88.3
Pacific Islander	1,083	0.1
White	32,483	2.9
Multiracial	3,251	0.3

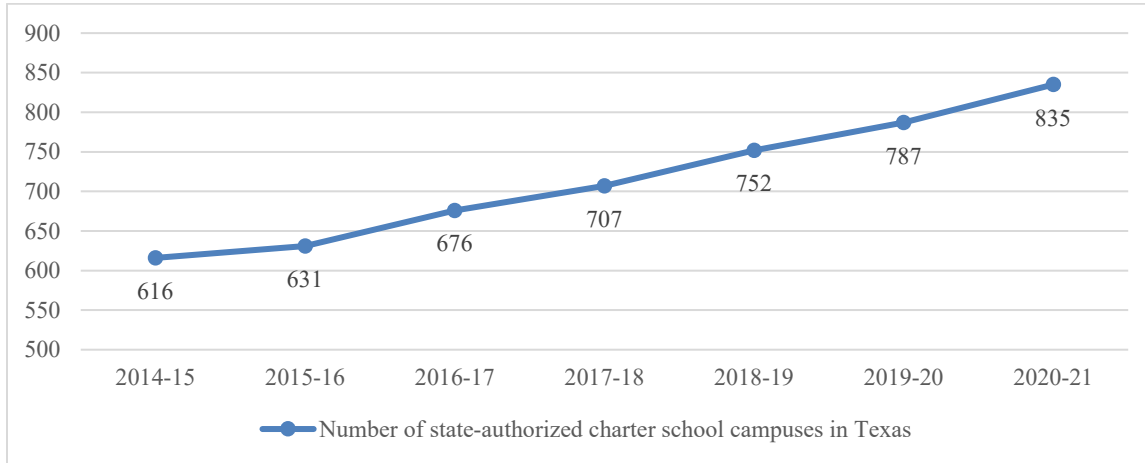
Note: Adapted from *Enrollment in Texas Public Schools 2020-21*, by (TEA, 2021b), pg. 33.

The EL enrollment trends illustrated in Table 1 correlate with the population trends mentioned in the TXSDC report mentioned above. During the 2020-21 school year, TEA reported that student enrollment had decreased (2.2%) for the first time since they had begun collecting enrollment data in PEIMS, while enrollment in charter schools had increased from the previous year (8.6%) (TEA, 2021b). Charter schools have gained prominence in the last 25 years, initially serving 2,426 students in 1996-97, representing 0.1% of all student enrollments and 6.8% of all student enrollments and serving 365,930 students in 2020-21 (TEA, 2021b). Charter schools tend to have less oversight than their neighboring local public schools. A reduction in oversight and an increase in autonomy are set in place to aid the charter school in accomplishing the mission(s) set forth by the operators of the charter (Bulkley & Fisher, 2002; Wohlstetter et al., 1995). Figure 1 shows the increase in the total number of active charter schools from 2014-15 to 2020-21, while Table 2 represents the student enrollment trends from

the 1996-97 school year through 2020-2021.

Figure 1

Number of State-Authorized Charter School Campuses in Texas, 2014-2015 through 2018-2021



Note: Figure illustrates the total number of active charter school campuses, as reported by the Texas Education Agency (TEA, 2016a, 2016b, 2017, 2018, 2019a, 2020e, 2021b).

Table 2

Statewide Enrollment, Texas State-Authorized Charter Schools, 1996-97 Through 2020-21

Year	<i>n</i>	Annual Change (%)	Representation in Public School Enrollment (%)
1996-97	2,426	–	0.1
1997-98	3,861	59.2	0.1
1998-99	12,240	217.0	0.3
1999-00	25,708	110.0	0.6
2000-01	38,044	48.0	0.9
2001-02	47,050	23.7	1.1
2002-03	53,988	14.7	1.3
2003-04	60,833	12.7	1.4
2004-05	66,160	8.8	1.5
2005-06	70,904	7.2	1.6
2006-07	81,107	14.4	1.8

(table continues)

Year	<i>n</i>	Annual Change (%)	Representation in Public School Enrollment (%)
2007-08	90,485	11.6	1.9
2008-09	102,903	13.7	2.2
2009-10	119,642	16.3	2.5
2010-11	134,076	12.1	2.7
2011-12	154,584	15.3	3.1
2012-13	179,120	15.9	3.5
2013-14	203,290	13.5	3.9
2014-15	228,153	12.2	4.4
2015-16	247,389	8.4	4.7
2016-17	272,835	10.3	5.1
2017-18	296,323	8.6	5.5
2018-19	316,869	6.9	5.8
2019-20	336,900	6.3	6.1
2020-21	365,930	8.6	6.8

Note: From *Enrollment in Texas Public Schools 2020-21*, by Texas Education Agency, 2021b, p. 55.

Texas charter schools have seen continued student enrollments since their inception in 1996 and even when enrollment at the state-level decreased as it did during 2020-21. Table 3 shows several data points, including statewide averages compared to charter school averages. Hispanic enrollment percentages are higher in charter schools than statewide averages, 62.4% to 52.9%, respectively, and EL percentages are also higher in charter schools than statewide averages, 28.8% to 20.6% respectively.

In looking at EL numbers in Texas public schools, it is also essential to know the types of instructional programs that serve ELs. Students identified as ELs may participate in bilingual or English as a second language (ESL) programs (see Tables 4 and 5). There are four state-approved bilingual models in Texas and two state-approved ESL models (Texas Administrative Code [TAC], 2020).

Table 3

Enrollment by Race/Ethnicity & Instructional Programs, Texas Public Schools, 2011-2012 through 2020-2021

Year	Total Enrollment	Statewide				Total Enrollment	Charter			
		Hispanic		EL			Hispanic		EL	
		<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%		<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
2011-12	4,998,579	2,541,223	50.8	838,418	16.8	154,584	84,261	54.5	26,666	17.3
2012-13	5,075,840	2,606,126	51.3	864,682	17.0	179,120	99,708	55.7	33,365	18.6
2013-14	5,151,925	2,668,315	51.8	900,476	17.5	203,290	115,497	56.8	41,299	20.3
2014-15	5,232,065	2,722,272	52.0	949,074	18.1	228,153	131,851	57.8	49,388	21.6
2015-16	5,299,728	2,767,747	52.2	980,487	18.5	247,389	145,760	58.9	57,018	23.0
2016-17	5,359,127	2,809,386	52.4	1,010,756	18.9	272,835	163,560	59.9	66,152	24.2
2017-18	5,399,682	2,827,847	52.4	1,015,372	18.8	296,323	176,905	59.7	73,603	24.8
2018-19	5,431,910	2,854,590	52.6	1,055,172	19.4	316,869	194,819	61.5	84,968	26.8
2019-20	5,493,940	2,899,504	52.8	1,113,536	20.3	336,900	209,831	62.3	95,170	28.2
2020-21	5,371,586	2,840,982	52.9	1,108,883	20.6	365,930	228,386	62.4	105,533	28.8

Note: From *Enrollment in Texas Public Schools 2020-21*, by Texas Education Agency.

Table 4

English Learner Enrollment in Bilingual Programs

Year	Transitional Bilingual Early Exit		Transitional Bilingual Late Exit		Dual Immersion Two-Way		Dual Immersion One-Way		Bilingual Alternative Language Program	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
2010-11	185,157	22.3	98,079	11.8	28,386	3.4	158,101	19.0	n/a	n/a
2011-12	182,622	21.8	88,176	10.5	33,518	4.0	172,981	20.6	n/a	n/a

(table continues)

Year	Transitional Bilingual Early Exit		Transitional Bilingual Late Exit		Dual Immersion Two-Way		Dual Immersion One-Way		Bilingual Alternative Language Program	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
2012-13	196,590	22.7	73,414	8.5	38,732	4.5	179,160	20.7	n/a	n/a
2013-14	196,077	21.8	69,344	7.7	42,874	4.8	186,667	20.7	n/a	n/a
2014-15	201,739	21.3	64,512	6.8	47,968	5.1	189,847	20.0	n/a	n/a
2015-16	188,115	19.2	60,824	6.2	52,193	5.3	199,401	20.3	n/a	n/a
2016-17	190,455	18.8	58,062	5.7	56,865	5.6	191,423	18.9	n/a	n/a
2017-18	198,812	19.6	56,841	5.6	60,359	5.9	164,890	16.2	n/a	n/a
2018-19	186,607	17.7	48,141	4.6	64,869	6.1	165,271	15.7	n/a	n/a
2019-20	164,271	14.8	38,747	3.5	67,832	6.1	168,348	15.1	70,283	6.3
2020-21	138,201	12.5	36,498	3.3	67,987	6.1	166,863	15.0	73,100	6.6

Table 5

English Learners Enrollments in ESL Programs or No Services

Year	Content-based		ESL Programs ESL Pull-Out		ESL Alternative Language Program		No Services	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
2010-11	189,011	22.7	123,305	14.8	n/a	n/a	49,773	6.0
2011-12	194,123	23.2	119,492	14.3	n/a	n/a	47,506	5.7
2012-13	199,032	23.0	129,760	15.0	n/a	n/a	47,994	5.6
2013-14	209,060	23.2	148,203	16.5	n/a	n/a	48,251	5.4
2014-15	221,601	23.3	175,740	18.5	n/a	n/a	47,667	5.0
2015-16	243,172	24.8	190,013	19.4	n/a	n/a	46,769	4.8

(table continues)

Year	ESL Programs						No Services	
	Content-based		ESL Pull-Out		ESL Alternative Language Program		n	%
	n	%	n	%	n	%		
2016-17	260,916	25.8	207,272	20.5	n/a	n/a	45,763	4.5
2017-18	264,301	26.0	225,643	22.2	n/a	n/a	44,526	4.4
2018-19	198,671	18.8	346,926	32.9	n/a	n/a	44,687	4.2
2019-20	158,543	14.2	347,252	31.2	52,476	4.7	45,784	4.1
2020-21	127,641	11.5	399,509	36.0	54,036	4.9	45,048	4.1

Note: From *Enrollment in Texas Public Schools 2020-21*, by Texas Education Agency (2021b)

Table 6

2015-2016 and 2019-2020 Enrollment and 2019-2020 Attrition in Texas

Race-Ethnicity and Gender	2015-16 9 th Grade Enrollment	2019-20 12 th Grade Enrollment	2015-16 9-12 th Grade Enrollment	2019-20 9-12 th Grade Enrollment	2019-20 Expected 12 th Grade Enrollment	Students Lost to Attrition	Attrition Rate
Native American	1,533	1,158	5,443	5,272	1,485	327	22
Asian/Pacific Islander	16,909	17,219	63,709	72,822	19,328	2,109	11
Black	52,785	41,453	182,892	187,235	54,038	12,585	23
White	117,755	101,931	443,499	434,169	115,278	13,347	12
Hispanic	213,989	170,313	734,841	777,461	226,400	56,087	25
Multiracial	7,708	6,908	27,479	32,946	9,242	2,334	25
All Groups	410,679	338,982	1,457,863	1,509,905	425,771	86,789	20
Male	214,741	170,854	747,092	772,577	222,378	51,524	23
Female	195,938	168,128	710,771	737,348	203,393	35,265	17

Note. From *2015-16 and 2019-20 Enrollment and 2019-20 Attrition in Texas* (Johnson, 2021), pg. 5.

In addition, as of 2020, §89.1207 of the Texas Administrative Code (TAC) states that an alternative language program can now be selected in PEIMS for students whose districts have filed for either the bilingual exception or ESL waiver (TAC §89BB, 2020). The term *EL instructional program* will refer to the various program models available to ELs in Texas, including the two alternative language programs.

In Texas, the Texas Association of School Administrators (TASA) acknowledged that charter schools educated a higher percentage of minority students than traditional public schools between 2007 and 2011: 48-53% compared to 46-47% (2013). In a 2021 study, the Intercultural Development Research Association (IDRA) noted a disparity among major race and ethnic groups when it came to high school attrition rates (Johnson, 2021). The study notes that 20% of the students that entered their freshman year during 2016-2017 had left prior to the 2019-20 school year. Table 6 illustrates this trend and breaks it down for each ethnic group. For white students, the attrition trend in Texas was just 13% compared to Native American students at 21%, Black students at 24%, and Hispanic students at 27%. The continued growth of Hispanic students and the trend, as mentioned above, of Asian populations in Texas raises issues connected to educational equity.

Problem Statement

The establishment of charter schools has led to numerous research studies and articles written about charter schools and their effectiveness concerning student achievement. There are studies where the findings indicate that charter schools outperform their traditional school peers (Center for Research on Education Outcomes, 2015); however, other studies affirm that charter schools perform lower or that there is not a significant difference (Nelson et al., 2004); and finally, some that say that the truth may be somewhere in the middle depending on the subject,

grade-level studies, or even age of the charter school being studied (Betts & Tang, 2008); Hanushek et al., 2007) in addressing performance gaps between them and traditional school districts with findings coming to promote and critique them.

The literature, however, provides minimal insight into the programs that charter schools implement to address the needs of its EL population. The reduction in oversight that charter schools operate in creates an environment where programs for EL population, including language programs and the students they serve, are not given the proper attention or consideration. The success of these programs and their charter schools are essential for continued educational reform and accountability, both academic and regulatory.

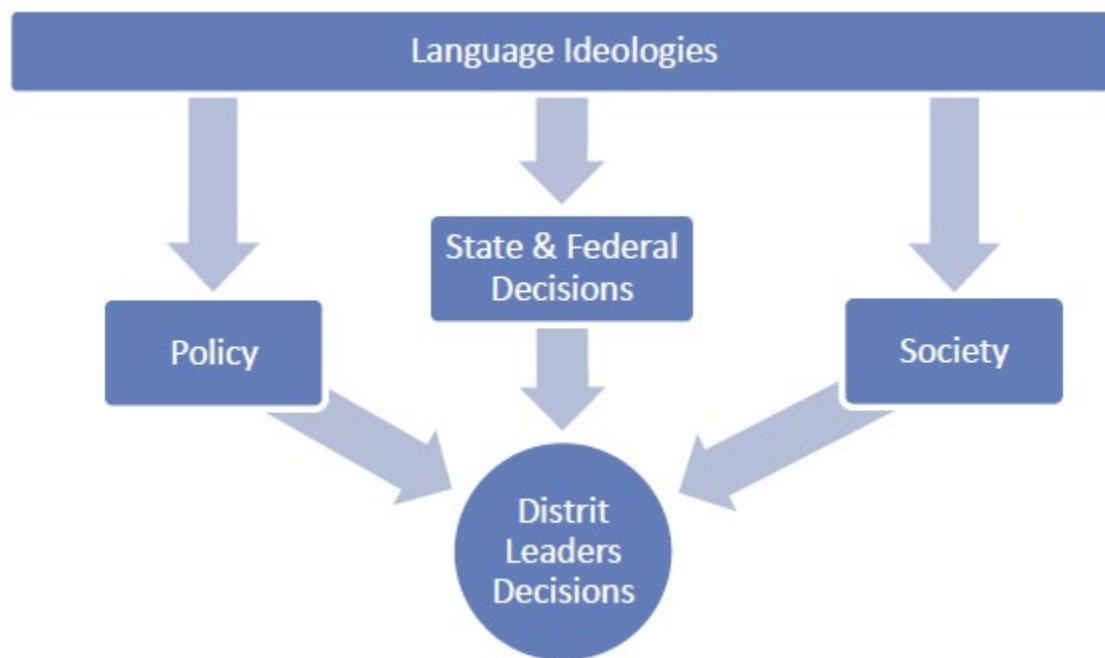
The research has not come to a consensus on whether or not charter schools have addressed the missions that they were created to meet. It seems that the answer lies in the details: who is conducting the research, what schools and grade levels are being studied, and what type of data analysis is guiding the study. Charter school research is lacking when it comes to the types of programs that they offer for English Learners (ELs). Many of these programs come from state and federal statutes, whereas other programs may help address the type of optional instructional programs they offer (i.e., International Baccalaureate (IB); international leadership partnerships; post-secondary access initiatives; science, technology, engineering, arts, and mathematics (STEAM) or (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM); project/problem based learning (PBL); etc.), these programs are mandatory in ensuring that all students have access to quality education. It is critical to gain a contextual understanding of what factors influence charter school leaders and operators in selecting the programs that address these populations.

Conceptual Framework

There have been several definitions and interpretations of what ideology means. Still, the shared agreement is that ideologies are shared systems or representations of ideas and beliefs about social reality (Apple, 2019; Van Dijk, 2006). Language ideologies look at these representations, “whether explicit or implicit, that construe the intersection of language and human beings in a social world” (Woolard, 1998, p. 3). This intersection of language and human beings in the world, coupled with the “time of very real political and ideological crisis” has a profound impact on the individuals and the groups that form the “others” (Apple, 2019, p. vi).

Figure 2

Proposed Conceptual Framework



It is with this lens that I analyzed the perspective of school leaders in their selection of language programs. For this study, following Woolard’s (1998) use of the terms, I used *linguistic ideology*, *language ideology*, and *ideologies of language* interchangeably. However, as Woolard notes, “differences among them can be detected” (p. 4). School districts are charged with

ensuring that students in bilingual education and other EL instructional programs participate effectively in the state's educational program. I aimed to provide extended research into the types of language programs implemented in Texas charter schools, the factors that influence decisions to implement specific programs, and charter school leader's perceptions of their own language ideologies in influencing a particular program.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of instructional leaders about the EL instructional programs that their charter school districts offer. Additionally, the charter school districts' programs, stage of implementation, and organization were explored. While there are studies that have looked at the effectiveness of charter schools, there is very little research into programs that serve EL students in charter schools. The intent was to better understand the types of language programs provided by charter schools and the factors that influenced their decisions in implementing their programs. Additionally, another purpose is to discover what these leaders see as the next steps in how they support their ELs.

If the trends continue, the State of Texas will likely see a continued increase in the number of charter schools that serve higher populations of minority students. The findings of this study are essential for EL instructional programs in that the challenges and obstacles faced by current charter school operators could be minimized or avoided by being prepared to engage in those conversations.

Research Questions

I addressed the following research questions:

1. What EL instructional program do charter schools offer to serve the linguistic needs of English learners?

2. What were the factors determining the selection of a language program?
3. What are the perceptions of charter school instructional leaders about these programs?

Definition of Terms

- *Bilingual education exception.* A request submitted to the commissioner of education, by Local Education Agencies (LEAs), when a district is unable to provide a bilingual education program because of an insufficient number of appropriately certified teachers. This request for an exception to the bilingual program allows the approval of an alternative language program that is valid only for the school year for which the application was granted (TAC §89BB, 2020; TEA, 2020e).
- *Bilingual education programs.* Bilingual education programs are created to accommodate the instruction, pacing, and materials to ensure that ELs have a full opportunity to master the essential knowledge and skills of the required curriculum, which includes the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills and English language proficiency standards (ELPS) and must address the affective, linguistic, and cognitive needs of ELs (TAC §89BB, 2020; TEC §29, 2021). The bilingual education program can be implemented through the following models: (a) transitional bilingual/early exit; (b) transitional bilingual/late exit; (c) dual language immersion/one-way; (d) dual language immersion/two-way (TAC §89BB, 2020; TEC §29, 2021).
- *Charter school.* Created by the 74th Texas Legislature in 1995, to provide an alternative method of operating from traditional schools, charter schools are public schools that are subject to fewer state laws than their traditional school peers, but have the same fiscal and academic accountability while having undue regulation of their instructional and pedagogical models (TEA, 2020a). According to the TEC §12.001, charters are intended to address the

following goals: (a) Improve student learning; (b) increase the choice of learning opportunities within the public school system; (c) create professional opportunities that will attract new teachers to the public school system; (d) establish a new form of accountability for public schools; (f) encourage different and innovative learning methods (TEC §12, 2001). The Texas Charter School Authorizing and Administration Division at TEA oversees the state’s charter portfolio (TEA, 2021f).

- *Dual language immersion/one-way.* A bilingual/biliteracy program model in which ELs are served in both English and the primary language and are prepared to meet established reclassification criteria to be successful in English-only instruction in no earlier than six or seven years after enrollment in the program, with the goal of acquiring full proficiency in the primary language as well as English (TAC §89BB, 2020). Ongoing instruction in literacy and academic content occurs in both languages, with at least half of the instructional time being delivered in the primary language for the duration of the program.

- *Dual language immersion/two-way.* A bilingual/biliteracy program model in which ELs and integrated with students proficient in English and are both served in both English and the primary language and are prepared to meet established reclassification criteria to be successful in English-only instruction in no earlier than six or seven years after enrollment in the program, with the goal of all participating students acquiring full proficiency in the primary language as well as English (TAC §89BB, 2020). Ongoing instruction in literacy and academic content occurs in both languages, with at least half of the instructional time being delivered in the primary language for the duration of the program.

- *Emergent bilingual student.* Emergent bilingual students are defined as a student whose primary language is other than English and whose English language skills are such that

the student has difficulty performing ordinary classwork in English (TEC §29, 2021).

- *English as a second language (ESL)*. ESL programs are created to provide intensive instruction in English by recognizing and addressing language differences in ELs (TAC §89BB, 2020; TEC §29, 2021). The ESL program may be implemented through the following models: (a) ESL/content-based; (b) ESL/pull-out (TAC §89BB, 2020).

- *English as a second language waiver*. A request submitted to the commissioner of education by local education agencies (LEAs) when a district is unable to provide an ESL program because of an insufficient number of appropriately certified teachers. This request for a waiver of the certification requirements for each teacher who will provide ESL instruction to ELs allows the approval of an alternative language program that is valid only for the school year for which the application was granted (TAC §89BB, 2020; TEA, 2020e).

- *ESL/content-based*. An English acquisition program that serves ELs through ESL-certified teachers in English language arts and reading, mathematics, science, and social studies with instruction that is linguistically and culturally responsive (TAC §89BB, 2020). The goal of a content-based ESL program is for ELs to attain full English proficiency in order to participate equitably in school.

- *ESL/pull-out*. An English acquisition program that serves ELs through ESL-certified teachers in English language arts and reading with instruction that is linguistically and culturally responsive (TAC §89BB, 2020). The instructional setting by the ESL teacher is in a pull-out or inclusionary delivery model. The goal of a content-based ESL program is for ELs to attain full English proficiency in order to participate equitably in school.

- *Limited English proficient (LEP)*. According to TEC §29.052, a “Student of limited English proficiency” is defined as a student whose primary language is other than English and

whose English language skills are such that the student has difficulty performing ordinary classwork in English. This term was amended and replaced with emergent bilingual based on a 2021 amendment to TEC §29.052. The term LEP was also previously interchangeable with the terms English Learners (ELs) and English Language Learners (ELLs) (TEC §29, 2021; TEA, 2020c).

- *Local education agency (LEA)*. A public school district, open-enrollment charter school, or regional education service center (TEA, 2020b).
- *Texas Administrative Code (TAC)*. The TAC is a compilation of all state agency rules in Texas as approved by the State Board of Education (TEA, 2021a).
- *Texas Education Code (TEC)*. The TEC includes all statutes, laws, and rules established by the Texas Legislature that governs public education in Texas that applies to most educational institutions supported in whole or in part by state tax funds unless specifically excluded by the code (TEA, 2021a).
- *Transitional bilingual/early exit*. A bilingual program model in which ELs are prepared to meet established reclassification criteria to be successful in English-only instruction two years, at earliest, and no later than five years upon enrollment in the program, with the goal of acquiring English proficiency during their use of the primary language (TAC §89BB, 2020).
- *Transitional bilingual/late exit*. A bilingual program model in which ELs are prepared to meet established reclassification criteria to be successful in English-only instruction in no earlier than six or seven years after enrollment in the program, with the goal of acquiring English proficiency during their use of the primary language (TAC §89BB, 2020).

Significance

This study has enhanced the understanding of how charter schools are carrying out

decisions related to the educational program for ELs. The data collected could also be used to help new charter schools make informed decisions on how to implement programs that are academically rigorous and beneficial to English Learners. As was previously mentioned, the number of charter schools is increasing and enrollment for Hispanic and Asian students is increasing. Properly serving this population is not just a matter of compliance to state and federal guidelines and regulations, but it is at the very heart of teaching the student in the most equitable environment.

Limitations of the Study

The primary delimitation of the study is the size of the sample population: Seven instructional leaders in Texas charter schools. A second limitation in the study is the experience and expertise of the instructional leaders in that they may have oversight of a program but not always have a clear understanding of the program's needs and requirements. The tenure of these individuals in their current roles could also influence their ability to provide contextual evidence from a historical perspective around decisions made by previous school leaders. Another limitation of this study was the methodology in collecting data. The primary source of data came from individual interviews, follow-up interviews, and questionnaires. Using a qualitative approach to the research, the aim is not for generalizability as quantitative research tends to pursue, but rather to provide preliminary understandings of the implementation of EL instructional programs in Texas charter schools and the ideologies that influence charter school leaders in their establishment of said programs.

Statement of Positionality

I am currently employed as a consultant with the Teaching and Learning division at Region 10 Educational Service Center. Specifically, I am a member of the bilingual/ESL and

migrant programs and have previously been employed in administrative roles supervising the implementation of bilingual and ESL programs at various charter school districts in Texas. Thus, I have a vested interest in this study, which can impact my objectivity. According to Charmaz (2014), in the constructivist approach, researchers' values shape the analysis of the data. Having worked in this field for several years and my current position supporting bilingual, ESL, and migrant programs in Region 10, I may have some familiarity with the some participants and/or the districts. In addition, having experienced a variety of instructional programs, in numerous traditional public and charter schools, have helped me realize that not serving emergent bilinguals with high quality programs is a social justice and equity issue.

Summary

Chapter 1 provided an introduction to this study. Changing state demographics and student enrollment trends were explored with a particular emphasis on enrollment of ELs in Texas charter schools. The significance of the study along with study delimitations were discussed as well as the disclosure of positionality of the researcher.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This literature review focuses on three components related to the establishment of bilingual and ESL programs in Texas charter schools and their impact on equity for ELs. The first section of this review of the literature provides background information on the history of charter schools, along with national policies that influenced their creation. Secondly, an overview of bilingual and ESL programs in Texas is provided. Due to the lack of research dedicated to the implementation of bilingual and ESL programs, research of other special population (i.e.: special education) programs was also explored. Finally, research regarding the question of language ideologies in education is examined.

Presidential Administrations: A Historical Perspective of Charters

Charter schools are a relatively recent phenomenon in education. In 1974, Ray Budde presented a paper titled *Education By Charter* at the Society for General Systems Research (Kolderie, 2005). Gebhard (2002) described seventeenth-century charters as arrangements in which a company would establish a specific mission, within a time frame, and resources that would be made available to an individual, who would decide it upon themselves as to how they would accomplish the mission. Gebhard (2002) continued by creating an analogy that compared these arrangements with education in which “teachers, principals, parents, and other community leaders to develop a proposal for the operation of a school and to specify the outcomes they hope to achieve” (Gebhard, 2002, p. 256). In his 2005 memo, Kolderie shared that Budde shelved that work because there had been a lack of interest in thoughts of reorganizing school districts. It appeared as though there was a sense of complacency with the status quo and that the system did

not need reorganization, but rather if there were any issues, one just needed to “get a good new program idea, do some in-service training. That’ll do it” (Kolderie, 2005, p. 1).

Reagan Administration (1981 – 1989)

Budde’s work remained shelved until the early 1980s when *A Nation at Risk* was published under Ronald Reagan’s National Commission on Excellence in Education (NCEE). The groundbreaking report began with “Our Nation is at risk” and continued to set education at the forefront of the national political agenda during the Cold War. The report continued setting a strongly worded parallel between the Cold War ideology and the tone in the wake of Sputnik 30 years prior, “We have even squandered the gains in student achievement made in the wake of the Sputnik challenge” (NCEE, 1983, p. 7). This report led to higher expectations for schools and teachers, along with the establishment of standards intended to increase academic performance.

In 1988, Budde published his paper and distributed it around and waited (Kolderie, 2005). American Federation of Teachers’ President Al Shanker heard about Budde’s ideas and, in a talk at the National Press Club, expressed support for the concept of teachers setting up autonomous schools. These schools, if “accepted would be a totally autonomous school within that district” (Shanker, 1988, p. 12). Budde (1996) recalled that what Shanker promoted was an adaptation of what he had proposed in that an entire school was chartered rather than a program or a department. Educational reform was underway. Budde and Shanker’s contributions helped shape the innovation that was underway. Budde (1996) recalled:

The essential idea is worth re-stating: It is to offer change-oriented educators or others the opportunity to go either to the local school board or to some other public body for a contract under which they would set up an autonomous (and therefore performance based) public school which students could choose to attend without charge. The intent is not simply to produce a few new and hopefully better schools. It is to create dynamics that will cause the main-line system to change so as to improve education for all students. (p. 2)

George H.W. Bush Administration (1989 – 1993)

A few short years later, in 1992, City Academy in St. Paul, Minnesota, opened its doors as the first charter school in the nation (Sanchez, 2012). The school was “initially designed for students who have dropped out of school and whose homes were wracked by poverty or substance abuse” (Jacobs, 2015, para 5). Founded by educators, City Academy recruited low-income students who had left traditional schools and had often dropped out and/or were homeless.

Although it was not a piece of educational legislation, George H.W. Bush’s *AMERICA 2000* was a national strategy that sought to enable educational reform by mobilizing the community and the “greatest national resource,” which lied “within ourselves – our intelligence, ingenuity – the capacity of the human mind” (Department of Education [DOE], 1991, p. 6).

One aspect of *AMERICA 2000* was that it intended to “foster educational innovation” with the creation of the New American Schools Development Corporation (NASDC) – “a private-sector research and development fund of at least \$150 million to generate innovation in education” (DOE, 1991, p. 10). The creation of the NASDC launched national competitions for teams to develop designs for schools. These R & D teams would be expected to “break the mold” and produce “extraordinary gains in student learning (DOE, 1991, p. 28). One such NASDC project was the Community Learning Centers of Minnesota (CLC). This project looked at Budde’s charter school concept and explored the idea of school choice for students with disabilities (Ahearn, 1994).

Clinton Administration (1993 – 2001)

The National Educational Goals, known as Goals 2000, were set by the United States Congress in the 1990s to set goals for standards-based education reform. Under the Clinton

administration, 49 states had implemented standards in core subjects and performance on the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) began to show increases (The National Archives and Records Administration, 2014). An additional component of Goals 2000 was the expansion of school choice for parents, which included the expansion of charter schools. The National Archives and Records Administration (2014), which maintains records of all documents and materials created on behalf of the United States Federal government, states that at the beginning of the Clinton administration, in 1993, only one charter school existed but towards the end of the administration there were over 2,000 nationwide serving over 250,000 students (National Alliance for Public Charter Schools, 2011).

One way the number of charter schools surged during this administration was through the creation of the basic Charter Schools Program (CSP), an amendment to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Clinton had proposed \$175 million in his 2000 Fiscal Year budget with the plans to fund State Education Agencies (SEAs) to “support for the planning, program design, and initial implementation of charter schools; the evaluation of the effects of charter schools; and the dissemination of information about charter schools and successful practices in charter schools” (DOE, 2000, p. 1). Ten years after his last term in office, President Bill Clinton was awarded a Lifetime Achievement Award from the National Alliance for Public Charter Schools (NAPCS, 2011).

George W. Bush Administration (2001 – 2009)

Under President George W. Bush, the charter school movement earned a champion that would continue the work he had done as Governor of Texas. A major policy initiative for the Bush Administration was reforming education, a notion that would be emphasized later when he called education “the great civil rights issue of our time” (Bush, 2002, para. 2). The No Child

Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB) was a reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. This act increased accountability for schools and sought to help address the performance gaps between disadvantaged children and their more advantaged peers. If schools did not achieve their adequate yearly progress (AYP) goals, a school could be penalized, and students could transfer to a better-performing school in the district if the school failed to meet AYP for two consecutive years.

NCLB also supported the charter school movement in other ways. Bold statements recognizing the accomplishments of charter schools were included in documents that were released from the Department of Education. These statements included references to charter schools showing “higher standards, parent and community involvement and greater freedom,” which could “result in higher achievement” or that programs provided by charter schools were often “more effective programs and choice to underserved groups of students” (Department of Education). Under the Bush Administration, the number of charter schools almost doubled to 4,640 when he left office in 2009 (NAPCS, 2016).

Obama Administration (2009 – 2017)

At the beginning of the Obama Administration, the American economy was struggling. A part of the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act, otherwise known as the Stimulus, was used to create a competitive grant for states called Race to the Top. Although Texas did not participate in it, many other states were more than happy to align themselves with the initiatives and education policies that came out of the Obama Administration because the recession had a significant impact on their states.

Race to the Top was an opportunity for states, which encouraged states with well-performing charter schools to promote their growth and innovation. United States Secretary of

Education, Arne Duncan, encouraged states to be open to charter schools because it could “jeopardize their applications under the Race to the Top Fund” (Duncan, 2009, p. 4). Under the Obama Administration, the number of charter schools rose to over 6,000, substantially growing sixfold in a period of 15 years (NAPCS, 2016).

Trump Administration (2017 – 2021)

On June 16, 2015, Donald Trump announced his presidential run as a Republican nominee (Page, 2015). With the economy continuing to struggle as it had during the Obama administration, the conversation around education focused on student loan reform and the federal government’s role. As the campaign rallies began, Trump established himself as the “nation’s biggest cheerleader for school choice” by proposing a \$20B block grant to expand charter and private school options (Emma, 2016, para 2). At a rally in Roanoke, Virginia on September 24, 2016, Trump referenced school choice as the “new civil rights issue of our time” (Lee, 2016, para 1).

A significant appointment of the Trump Administration was that of Betsy DeVos as Secretary of Education. Moore (2021) notes that this appointment was “particularly odd, given that she lacked any time working in public schools, districts or systems of schooling – she has no teaching experience whatsoever (p. 16). Despite her lack of teaching experience, her family had strongly promoted school privatization through charter schools.

Texas Charter School History

In 1994, George W. Bush ran for governor of Texas with a promise to revamp the Texas education code. He focused on “three education initiatives: charter schools, accountability, and vouchers” (Loyola, 2016). Then-Governor Bush “achieved genuine success as an education reformer” and was able to achieve significant legislative reforms for the first two initiatives

(Loyola, 2016, para 1). In 1996, for the first time, seventeen charter schools opened (Estes, 2006). Initially, this legislation, Texas Education Code (TEC) Chapter 12, created three types of charter schools: (1) Subchapter B - home-rule charter school districts; (2) Subchapter C - campus and campus program charter schools and; (3) Subchapter D - open-enrollment charter schools (TEC §12, 1995). In 2001, an amendment to the Texas Education Code established a fourth type: Subchapter E – college or university or junior college charter schools (TEC §12, 2001).

Home-rule school district charter schools are the first allowed under TEC. The statute allows an entire school district to convert to charter school status. There are currently no school districts which have sought home-rule conversion. The second type of charter is a campus and campus program charter school. In this type of school, a traditional school district can request a current campus to convert to a charter school or create an entirely new school. These schools may be run as separate campuses, through external partnerships, or within previously existing schools (i.e., schools-within a school). The third type, open-enrollment charter schools, are entirely new local education agencies. The State Board of Education sponsors these schools for a period of 5 years and go through a renewal process at the end of that period. The final type of charter school is a charter school on the campus of a public college or university. Faculty members must supervise these schools, and their financial operations are overseen by the college or university's business office.

Charter School Autonomy

The educational landscape changed significantly from the time Ray Budde first conceptualized the meaning of a charter school. However, the same factors that were attractive in the early 90s are still present today. Charter schools provide an ability for stakeholders to have increased accountability in exchange for reduced regulations and, overall, increased choice and

freedom, which would hopefully lead to high quality and innovative programs (Frisby, 2019). This idea of being left to construct the way a mission is to be accomplished is further echoed in Wells et al. (1999). The authors state that charter schools “operate with much less oversight and regulation than traditional public schools” (Wells et al., 1999, p. 174).

- *Certification requirements:* One of the ways charter schools experience the lessened restrictions around certain requirements is their ability to hire uncertified teachers. Becoming a teacher in Texas has five requirements that need to be met: (1) obtain a bachelor’s degree; (2) complete an educator preparation program; (3) pass the appropriate teacher certification exams; (4) submit an application to the state once all requirements are met; and (5) complete fingerprinting as part of a national background check (TEA, 2019b). In charter schools, having a bachelor’s degree is the minimum. The exception to this requirement is for special education or bilingual education/ESL teachers, which requires the state certification (TEA, 2021c). Similarly, to becoming a teacher, requirements to become a principal in Texas also has five requirements: (1) hold a master’s degree from an accredited university; (2) hold a valid classroom teaching certificate; (3) have two years of creditable teaching as a classroom teacher; (4) successfully complete an approved principal educator preparation program; and (5) successfully complete the required exam (TEA, 2020f).

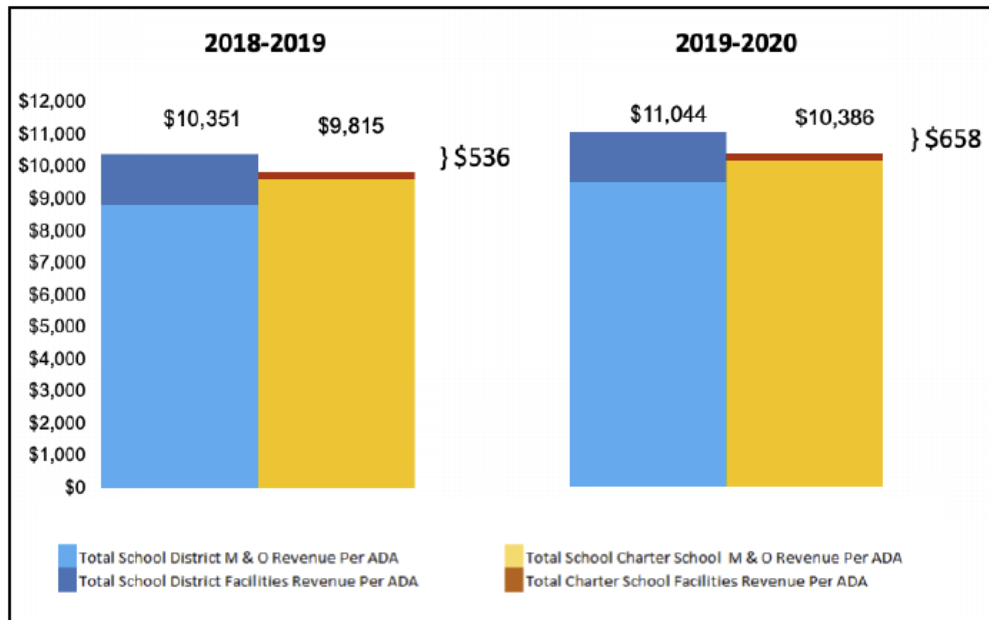
Texas Charter School Finance

All public schools in Texas, including charter schools, receive state funds based on the average daily attendance (ADA) of its students. The primary source of funding for schools, including charter schools, is through the Foundation School Program (FSP), which looks at the students attending along with what programs they participate in (i.e.: LEP, Bilingual, ESL, etc.). Unlike their traditional public school colleagues, charter schools do not receive funds from local

tax revenue, which comes from the Instructional Facilities Allotment Program (IFA). This program provides schools a guaranteed amount per student in state and local funds for each cent of tax effort to pay the principal of and interest on eligible bonds issued “construct, acquire, renovate, or improve an instructional facility” (TEC §46, 2019). To off-set this loss of funds, charter schools may seek out and accept charitable donations from public and private sources. According to a TEA (2019b) presentation, the average per pupil gap between traditional school districts and charter schools was \$658, a larger increase than the previous year. Figure 3 shows that while the per pupil amounts increased between 2018-2019 and 2019-2020, the funding gap increased as well.

Figure 3

ADA Funding for School Districts and Charter Schools



Note. From *HB 3 in 30: Charter School Funding* (TEA, 2019b), pg. 17.

Despite spending less per pupil, a 2020 Texas Association of School Boards (TASB) report, identified multiple metrics related to staffing. While charters may seek funding from outside organizations, when it came to how charter districts utilized state dollars, TASB reported

that charters spent almost double the percentage of their budget on central office administration than their traditional school district peers (Texas Association of School Boards, 2020).

Charter School Staffing Concerns

TEA provides broad overviews of public education each year on a variety of data elements at state and district levels in their annual Snapshots. Snapshot 2020 (TEA, 2021i) data from the Staff and Teachers sections can be seen below in Table 6.

Table 7

Snapshot 2020 Staff and Teachers Sections

Summary Level	All Charters	State of Texas (excl. Charters)	State of Texas (incl. Charters)
Staff			
42. Total Staff FTE	37,872.40	696,853.90	734,726.40
43. Total Teacher FTE	19,823.30	343,296.30	363,121.30
44. % Central Administration	2.0	1.1	1.1
45. % Campus Administration	5.2	2.9	3.0
46. % Professional Support Staff	12.6	10	10.2
47. % Teachers	52.3	49.3	49.4
48. % Educational Aides	11.1	10.6	10.6
49. % Auxiliary Staff	16.7	26.1	25.7
50. Average Central Administrative Salary	94,129	109,787	108,367
51. Average Campus Administrative Salary	75,872	83,146	82,512
52. Average Professional Support Staff Salary	60,071	67,849	67,352
53. Average Teacher Salary	52,601	57,351	57,091
54. % Minority	64.2	50.4	51.1
55. Number of Students Per Total Staff	8.9	7.4	7.5
56. Number of Students Per Teacher	17.0	15.0	15.1

(table continues)

Summary Level	All Charters	State of Texas (excl. Charters)	State of Texas (incl. Charters)
Teachers			
57. % With 5 or Fewer Years of Experience	65.1	33.6	35.3
58. Average Years of Experience	5.6	11.5	11.1
59. % With Advanced Degrees	23.0	25.4	25.2
60. Teacher Turnover Rate	29.2	16.2	16.8
61. % African American	20.4	10.2	10.8
62. % Hispanic	33	27.8	28.1
63. % White	40.7	58.7	57.7
64. % American Indian	0.3	0.3	0.3
65. % Asian	4.0	1.6	1.8
66. % Pacific Islander	0.3	0.2	0.2
67. % Two or More Races	1.3	1.1	1.1
68. % Regular Education	83.8	70.2	70.9
69. % Special Education	5.9	9.5	9.3
70. % Compensatory Education	1.0	2.9	2.8
71. % Bilingual/ESL Education	5.8	6.5	6.5
72. % Career & Technical Education	2.8	5.1	5.0
73. % Other Education (Includes G & T)	0.6	5.8	5.5

Note: Adapted from *Snapshot 2020: State Totals* (TEA, 2021i).

Table 7 shows that charter school staff members in their first five years of experience was almost double, 65.1% to 35.3%, the composition in traditional schools. Turnover rate was also almost twice the rate in charters, 29.2% to 16.8%, than their traditional school peers. In their study, Nasland and Ponomariov (2019) found that charter schools did have a substantially higher teacher turnover rate than traditional school districts. The authors attributed the higher turnover rates to labor environments and the flexibility that charter schools have to “more quickly terminate underperforming teachers, promote superior-performing teachers” (Naslund & Ponomariov, 2019, p. 18).

Special Education in Charter Schools

Gebhard (2002) indicated that some charter schools are influenced by the ideologies of their stakeholders. In wealthier communities, some parents may feel resentment at the state and federal funds that “go to schools serving large numbers of low-income, limited-English proficient or handicapped students. Charter school reform is one way they can use the wealth of their local communities to create the kind of public schools they want.” (2002).

This view was supported by Howe and Welner’s study that claimed that choice schools sometimes exclude students with special needs citing their “academically rigorous curriculum” as a “bad fit” (2002, p. 213). The authors, additionally, pointed out that while schools of choice are subject to less regulation from state rules, they are subject to federal laws regarding safety, health, and civil rights, including federal disability laws. For some charters, this amounts to underserving students or steering them away (2002).

According to Garda (2012), “charter schools’ largest transgression is noncompliance with the access rights granted to disabled students under Individuals with Disabilities Act [IDEA] and Section 504” (p. 23). Garda further stated that charter schools will struggle to enroll and appropriately serve students with disabilities because they are failing to satisfy basic federally mandated obligations (2012, p. 6).

Rothstein (1998) took this concept even further when he presented the idea of “creaming” into the picture. Rothstein reiterated Garda, Howe and Welner, Gebhard, and others in stating that charter schools have less regulation, especially when it comes to admitting or serving students with disabilities (1998, p. 7). He believed that refusing to admit or serve these students leads to increased stratification and exclusion of students.

Estes (2006) pointed to another complication when analyzing special populations

programs. Estes cited that out of the 142 charter schools during the 1999-2000 school year, only 92 reported having any special education enrollment data to the state. TEA also had a policy that required enrollments fewer than five to be “*masked*,” a dashed line replacing a numeric value. In the same study, Estes conducted six interviews with charter school administrators within a 100-mile radius of the Dallas/Ft. Worth Metroplex. Only one administrator had followed proper procedures in developing Individualized Education Programs (IEPs) for his students. Estes stated that “[c]ompliance with the law, it is assumed, can only be assured if there is knowledge of the law” (2006, p. 57). Estes continued to state that knowledge of compliance regulations had increased, demonstrated in that all charter schools during the 2004-2005 academic year reported a special education population to the state.

Gebhard (2002) and Wohlsetter et al (1995) mentioned that one-way charter schools potentially achieve their goals is by requesting waivers from state departments of education. Gebhard further pointed out that the waivers not only involve compliance issues, but also involved curriculum and instructional matters such as hiring teachers who have experience serving bilingual learners and their families, but may have taken “alternative routes into the profession” (Gebhard, 2002, p. 256).

Interestingly enough, Fusarelli (2002) cited a TEA 2000 report and states that there are significantly fewer special education and ELLs in charter schools than public schools statewide (2002, p. 21). Lazarín and Ortiz-Licon (2010) reported that Latinos account for 1 in five, public school students, accounting for over 10 million students. By 2050, this population will grow by 166 percent, which will inevitably lead to growth among ELLs. The authors acknowledged that “effective and culturally relevant instructional strategies and comprehensive services” allow students to meet high proficiency levels (Lazarín & Ortiz-Licon, p. 35).

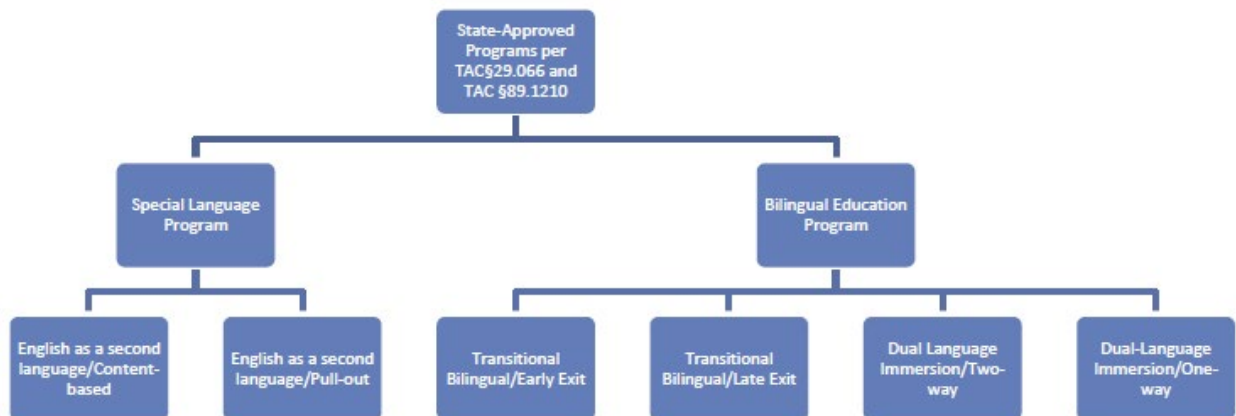
EL Instructional Language Programs in Texas

To understand the purpose of establishing language programs in Texas, an understanding of several pivotal court cases is needed. In *Brown v. Board of Education* (Warren, E.; Supreme Court Of The United States, 1954), the United States Supreme Court effectively reversed *Plessy v. Ferguson*'s separate but equal status and identified that "such segregation is a denial of the equal protection of the laws" (Warren, E.; Supreme Court Of The United States, p. 495). This decision helped lay a foundation in future cases. In 1974, another Supreme Court decision weighed in on a case that involved the question of equality. In *Lau v. Nichols* (Douglas, W. O.; Supreme Court of the United States, 1974), the Supreme Court ruled that there was "no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum" and continued to state that ELs were "effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education" (p. 566). This case primarily sought to level the field and ensure that students were not denied the same opportunities to participate in the instructional program offered by the school effectively. In 1971, *Alvarado v. El Paso Independent School District (EPISD)* (1976) a U.S. District Court held that the school district had intentionally promoted segregation by manipulating the attendance borders to prevent low-income Mexican American families and their children from attending mostly-White schools. The court found that EPISD was in violation of the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment of the U.S. Constitution. Finally, in 1981's *Castañeda v. Pickard* (1981) the ruling established a three-part assessment for determining how programs that supported ELs would be evaluated. The criteria were that the program 1) be based on a sound educational theory; 2) be implemented effectively (including resources, staffing, space, etc.); 3) after a trial period, the program would need to be evaluated to ensure that it had been effective in overcoming linguistic barriers.

In Texas, the current statute states that the “mastery of basic English language skills is a prerequisite for effective participation in the state’s educational program. Bilingual education and special language programs can meet the needs of those students and facilitate their integration into the regular school curriculum.” (TEC §29, 2021). Figure 4 depicts the six state-approved program models for ELs that can be found in both the Texas Education Code (TEC) and the Texas Administrative Code (TAC).

Figure 4

State-Approved Programs for ELs



Note: Adapted from TAC, §89.1210 (TAC §89BB, 2020) and TEC §29.066 (TEC §29, 2021)

The programs approved by TEA mirror the models most commonly cited in research. Two of the foremost experts in longitudinal studies in bilingual education for over three decades are Virginia P. Collier and Wayne P. Thomas, both Professor Emeriti at George Mason University. Table 8 provides additional insights into additional characteristics of the previously mentioned programs emphasized in Figure 4. When the programs in Table 8 are compared to the programs recognized in Texas, one can see that they mirror each other with ESL programs starting the progression on the left and culminating with two-way Dual Language programs.

Table 8

Summary of Characteristics and Effectiveness of Common Programs for English Language Learners

Student Services Provided	REMEDIAL				ENRICHMENT	
	ESL Pullout	ESL Taught Through Content	TBE with Traditional Teaching	TBE with Current Teaching	One-way DBE	Two-way DBE
Cognitive Emphasis	Little	Some	Some	Moderate	Strong	Strong
Academic Emphasis (in all school subjects)	None	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Linguistic Emphasis (L1 = primary language, L2 = English)	Only Social English (only in L2)	Academic English (only in L2)	Develops Partial L1 & L2 Academic Proficiency	Develops Partial L1 & L2 Academic Proficiency	Develops Full L1 & L2 Academic Proficiency	Develops Full L1 & L2 Academic Proficiency
Sociocultural Emphasis C1 = 1 st culture C2 = 2 nd culture	Little	Some	Some	Moderate	Strong C1 & C2	Strong C1 & C2
Program Length	Short-term 1-2 years	Short-term 2-3 years	Short-term 2-3 years	Intermediate 3-4 years	Sustained 6-12 years	Sustained 6-12 years
Percent of Achievement Gap With Native-English Speakers Closed by End of Schooling (Based on data-analytic research)	None Final average NCE scores equivalent to 11 th national percentile	About one-fourth Final average NCE scores equivalent to 22 nd national percentile	About one-third Final average NCE scores equivalent to 24 th national percentile	About one-half Final average NCE scores equivalent to 32 nd national percentile	All of gap fully closed by end of school Average scores at 50 th national percentile	All of gap fully closed by end of school Average scores above 50 th national percentile

Note: TBE = transitional BE; DBE = developmental bilingual education. Adapted from (Collier & Thomas, 1999, 2007; Thomas & Collier, 2001)

A specific concept to point out in Table 8 is the addition of the labels “remedial” and “enrichment.” Thomas and Collier (2002) identified four major categories of program types: (1) remedial English-only programs; (2) enhanced English-only programs, (3) remedial bilingual programs; and (4) enrichment bilingual programs (p. 345). Hamayan et al. (2013) identified these enrichment/additive programs in that their environment creates a situation in which students’ “home language is maintained and developed at the same time that they acquire competence in a second language” (p. 10). In other words, the program allows for the meeting of the students’ “linguistic (L1-L2), academic, cognitive, emotional, social, physical” needs (Thomas & Collier, 2003a, p. 18). The alternative language programs are subtractive. These programs seek to utilize L1 for a short period and then transition to, if not replace it with L2.

English as a Second Language Programs in Texas

As previously mentioned in Figure 4 Texas currently has six program models for ELs. The two ESL programs are English as a second language/content-based and English as a second language/pull-out. The goal of both ESL programs is for ELs to attain full English proficiency in order to participate equitably in school. According to TEC, both programs require instruction in English by a certified ESL teacher (TEC §29, 2015). In content-based ESL programs, the ESL certified teacher or teachers must provide English language development through content instruction in all core subject areas (English language arts and reading, mathematics, science, and social studies).

ESL pull-out programs, on the other hand, only require English language development in English language arts and reading. Although the title suggests that the program requires the instruction to be a “pull-out” approach, the program also includes “push-in” where a different teacher with the appropriate credentials provides the English development instruction. The

proper credentials for this teacher must be that they are certified in the proper core subject-area (whether that is an English Language Arts and Reading certification or a Generalist certification) and have the ESL certification attached to the core subject.

Table 8 includes ESL programs (pull-out and content-based) as remedial programs and ultimately subtractive. As previously mentioned, the goal of these programs is to attain full English proficiency without any maintenance or development of the L1. While scaffolding in L1 can be an effective instructional strategy in helping students make connections between L1 and L2, ESL teachers themselves do not need to be bilingual or hold a bilingual certification because the goal is English development. Thus, ELs, regardless of L1, can receive instruction from the same ESL certified teacher. This lack of development of L1, a strong approach to developing L2, and a lack of addressing the multilingual and multicultural needs of students are what factor in ESL programs being considered subtractive.

Bilingual Programs in Texas

The remaining four EL program models mentioned in Figure 4 are bilingual programs. They are transitional bilingual/early exit, transitional bilingual/late exit, dual language immersion/one-way, and dual language immersion/two-way. While the goal for ESL programs were identical, the program goals and general implementation for each of the four bilingual programs vary. Within these four program models, two principal divisions exist, the description of each previously discussed. This divisions are: remedial/subtractive and enrichment/additive programs.

Under the subtractive program type are the two transitional bilingual programs (early and late-exit). Per TEC, both of these bilingual program models require appropriately certified bilingual teachers (TEC §29, 2015) in the assigned grade level and content area. The goal for

these two programs is for ELs to use their primary language as a resource while acquiring full proficiency in English. The variation between these two programs is the intended period for the EL to be reclassified into English-only instruction. The early-exit program's reclassification time frame is no earlier than two or later than five years, while the late-exit program model calls for no earlier than six or later than seven years after the student has enrolled in school. While these programs do utilize the L1 as a component of the program, these programs are still considered subtractive in that long-term maintenance and development of the program is not a critical component.

Dual language programs are the remaining two state-approved EL program models in Figure 4. These also happen to be the two additive programs in Table 8. As opposed to the program goals of the previously mentioned programs, both dual-language programs aim for full proficiency in another language as well as English (or L1 & L2). Another distinction found in the statute related to these programs is the term "biliteracy." Bilingualism denotes an ability to *speak* in two languages, while biliteracy denotes an ability to listen, speak, read, and write in two languages. This coincides with the program's goal to gain "full proficiency" in two languages. Following best practices and research, the dual-language programs, students would not transition to English-only instruction any earlier than six or later than seven years after the student enrolled in the school. As with transitional bilingual programs, there is a distinction between the two dual-language programs. In one-way dual language programs, ELs are served in both languages by a teacher or teachers who hold the appropriate bilingual and content area certifications. In a two-way dual language program, ELs and students who are proficient in English are both served in the same environment by teachers holding the certification mentioned above requirements. The context in the latter program being that you have L1 dominant students and L2 dominant

students both learning from each other in the same instructional setting with the ultimate goal of students having full proficiency in both languages.

With full proficiency in both languages being the program model goals for dual language programs, these two programs are seen as additive programs. That is, they add “a new language at no cost to students’ first language” (Thomas & Collier, 2003b, p. 62). These programs not only focus on developing linguistic proficiency, but provide “literacy and content instruction to all students through two languages” and promote “bilingualism and biliteracy, grade-level academic achievement, and sociocultural competence” (Howard, et al., 2018, p. 3).

Language Ideologies

As previously mentioned, ideologies are shared systems or representations of ideas and beliefs. Woolard’s (1998) defines these representations as, “whether explicit or implicit, that construe the intersection of language and human beings in a social world” (p. 3) . It is essential to point out that there is no definitive definition of language ideology. Kroskirty (2004) stated that “there is no particular unity in this immense body of research, no single core literature, and a range of definitions” (p. 496). Woolard (1998) continued and identified four strands that are common to other language ideology scholars in their understanding of ideology. They are: 1) ideology as ideational or conceptual; 2) ideology as derived from, rooted in, reflective of, or responsive to the experience or interests of a particular social position; 3) ideology as apparatuses in acquiring or maintaining power; 4) ideology as being linked to distortion, illusion, error, mystification, or rationalization.

In the first strand, ideology is seen as a mental phenomenon. Woolard (1998) noted language as being in this strand of ideology. For some scholars, ideology, in this sense, is defined as “the more intellectual constituent of culture,” that ideology is more of the commonly held

notions by members of a society (Woolard, 1998, p. 5). Language is identified as one example of this definition of ideology. Even within this strand of ideology, there are various perspectives, such as whether or not ideology has to do with consciousness or whether it is behavioral a lived relation. Additionally, ideology as a mental phenomenon has variation in regard to how coherent the meaning of the ideology should be or whether contradictions, internal or external, can be held.

The second strand is seen as the ideology of social position. This strand is focused on the experiences of these social positions. Unlike the first strand, this strand of ideology brings in an individualistic sense that is dependent on the realities of the individual and not on a universally true ideology.

The third strand that Woolard (1998) identified is that of ideology as apparatuses in acquiring or maintaining power. Woolard identified Vladimir Lenin's position that ideology was a tool of any protagonist in the battle for power. Ideologies tend to be the tool for the dominant social group to maintain power and for the subordinate group to seek in acquiring power. This strand, in particular, has a strong association with language policies in Texas and the United States. Phillipson (1988) presents *linguicism* as a term in which one group utilizes ideologies and structures, such as language, to legitimate and produce an idealized version of itself to the disadvantage of another group. The history of bilingual education in the United States, and in Texas, is one of change. Educators and politicians alike have helped shift its influence on students and communities dependent on the change in perspectives and shifts in ideologies of those in power.

The fourth strand of ideology identified by Woolard (1998) was that of "distortion, illusion, error, mystification, or rationalization" (p. 7). In the Marxist tradition, class and power

were connected with ideology. It was the concept that the ruling class or the dominant groups established the way that people thought. The concept of the *camera obscura*, an apparatus that produces an upside-down image of the world, that helps distort reality. It is with this metaphor that Marxist tradition views the “false consciousness,” which the ideology of the subordinate class has a way of viewing the world, but is actually the ideology of the dominant group.

Woolard (1998) identified a division between the neutral and negative values of the term. When the focus is around power and/or the distortion of ideology in the maintenance or acquiring of power, a negative connotation is given. This is opposed to another conceptual understanding in which the term is broadly applied, but is uncommitted to the truth. This conceptual understanding is described as being neutral. As previously mentioned, Kroskrity (2004) stated that there is no set definition. In fact, there is quite a bit of variation in the various conceptualizations.

Language Policy Orientations

Wiley and García (2016) discussed several factors that influence language policies. Referencing Weinstein (1979, 1983), they identified the first two actors which are governmental planning and language strategists. Wiley and García (2016) continued and identified two more actors, which were de facto planners such as “key individuals in state educational agencies, schools, or universities who help shape or influence the interpretation, implementation, or resourcing of educational language policies” and *community stakeholders* (p. 50).

Wiley and García (2016) stated that language policies can be differentiated “in terms of their degree of formality or explicitness” with explicit policies usually being official policies, such as those from the governmental planners (p. 50). Language policies can also be implicit or even tacit. Language policies can also be distinguished in terms of their goals:

(a) promotion-oriented policies, (b) expediency-oriented policies, (c) tolerance-oriented policies, (d) restriction-oriented policies, (e) repression-oriented policies, (f) policies aimed at *erasing* the visibility and even historical memory of various languages, and (g) null policies, which refer to the significant absences of policies. (Wiley & García, 2016, p. 50)

Promotion-oriented policies involve the use of governmental or state resources as part of a “governmental plan to further the official use of a language or languages” (Wiley, 2004, p. 325). In the United States, most of the laws, statutes, and policies are written in English. Expediency-oriented policies are a weaker form of promotion-oriented policies in that they do not seek to further the use of a language, but rather they “allow the government to *accommodate* minority languages in the short term to facilitate educational and political access and to guarantee legal rights” (Wiley, 2004, p. 325). Tolerance-oriented policies are “characterized by the significant absence of state interference in the linguistic life of the language-minority community” (Wiley, 2004, p. 325). The small community-based schools that German, Czech, and Spanish/Mexican communities created during and shortly after the Republic of Texas are examples of tolerance-oriented policies. Restriction-oriented policies are those that “make social, political, and economic benefits, rights, and opportunities conditional on knowing or using the dominant language” (Wiley, 2004, p. 326). Wiley (2004) states that the English-Only school policies following World War I were all examples of restriction-oriented policies. Repressive-oriented policies “involve the self-conscious attempt to exterminate minority languages. There is a thin line between restrictive policies and repressive policies, and restrictive policies become repressive when they are linked to deculturation or linguistic genocide” (Wiley, 2004, p. 326). Repressive policies include the forbidding of enslaved Africans from using their native language or even the language policies of the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) schools of mid-nineteenth and early twentieth centuries (Mwaniki, Arias, & Wiley, 2017; Wiley, 2004).

Language Ideologies and English

Gal (1989) identified that western-style schools operated with strong linguistic expectations and presuppositions, rigid and definable structures, including the exercise of power by teachers. Woolard (1998) echoed this notion in stating that multilingual communities have had self-conscious struggles and have treated language ideologies as “socially, politically, and even linguistically significant” (p. 16). The “false consciousness” mentioned above is evident in these discourses on language and power. The presupposition of those in the dominant group in enacting various early language policies throughout the history of the United States has helped form an ideology for the dominated group. This ideology has been used as a tool for control and power in devaluing of the suppressed group’s native language. Wiley and Lukes (1996) points out that language ideologies are “shaped largely by two dominant language ideologies” (Wiley & Lukes, English-only and standard English ideologies in the U.S., 1996, p. 512). The first is monolingual language ideology, seen in the English Only movement. The second, is the ideology of standard English, stressing the “importance and superiority of the standard, “literate,” or unaccented” variety of English” (Wiley & Lukes, 1996, p. 514).

Monolingualism Ideology

Wiley (1996), in referencing cognitive differences between literate and nonliterate people, pointed out that notions of superiority and inferiority were easily manipulated as instruments of social control. According to Wiley (2000) “a central tenant of the monolingual ideology is that languages are in competition” (p. 67). He continues and reveals that the reality is that the languages, themselves, have not been in competition, but that the real competition is between the speakers of the languages. Wiley (2000) references Kloss (1971, 1998/1977) in his explanation of *English monolingualism* in revealing that the language ideologies of the early

twentieth century were less about preventing bilingualism, but more related to issues of tolerance by those in power hoping to force non-English ethnic groups to assimilate to American society. To assimilate, educational programs were designed to ensure that cultures were “absorbed and integrated” into the dominant culture (Spring, 2016, p. 6).

Spring (2016) also identifies deculturalization as another educational model of colonization. He defines it as the:

educational process of destroying a people’s culture (cultural genocide) and replacing it with a new culture. Language is an important part of culture. In the case of the United States, schools have used varying forms of this method in attempts to eradicate the cultures of Native Americans; African Americans; Mexican Americans; Puerto Ricans; and immigrants from Ireland, Southern and Eastern Europe, and Asia. Believing that Anglo-American culture was the superior culture and the only culture that would support republican and democratic institutions, educators forbade Spanish and Native American tongues, and forced students to learn an Anglo-American centered curriculum. (Spring, 2016, p. 5)

Wiley (2000) criticizes Kloss’s passive stance on racial prejudice and discrimination, which he believed caused a disconnection of “language policies from ethnic and racial policies” (p. 69). Part of this reason was that Kloss “restricted his focus to formal policies, as opposed to *implicit* or *covert* policies and practices” (Wiley, 2000, p. 69). Another concern was that Wiley believed Kloss did not pursue *unofficial moral pressure*, which may have led to even more repressive results than formal policies.

Related to monolingualism, is the ideology of *racism/racialization*. Referencing Miles (1989:74), Wiley (2000) defined racialization as an ideological “process of delineation of group boundaries and an allocation of persons within those boundaries by primary reference to purportedly inherent and/or biological (typically phenotypical) characteristics” (p. 72). It involves the one group using power to its advantage, while using the same power to disadvantage another group and is “premised on the belief that some are inherently superior to others” (p. 72).

Similarly, *monoculturalism* is promoted by racism in that it promotes a dominant culture over others that are considered subservient.

Bilingualism/Multilingualism Ideology

When the topic of bilingual education comes into the discussion, notions of literacy and biliteracy come into play, which are underscored by broader sociopolitical and socioeconomic ideologies. Wiley and Lukes (1996) shares two different policies towards bilingualism. The first, was developed with language minority individuals in mind who had been denied equal access to learn. This policy was intended to provide a quick transition out of L1 instruction into English-only instruction, with the eventual loss of the native language. The second policy was intended for the “educational elite” who were pursuing a foreign language (Wiley & Lukes, English-only and standard English ideologies in the U.S., 1996, p. 512). These two policies demonstrate a subtractive approach for language minority students and an additive approach for the elite group. Wiley (1996) explored the deficiency explanations, a period when researchers challenged theories that blamed minorities and the poor for being low achievers. Conversations evolved in the 1960s and 1970s as studies began to indicate that student performance of bilinguals outperformed monolinguals on various tasks. Wiley (1996), quoting Baker (1993) on the topic of additive and subtractive bilingualism, pointed to a shift from purely cognitive discussions to a perspective that included “the enrichment or loss of minority language, culture, and ethnolinguistic identity at a societal level” (p. 152). Wiley and Baker (1996) also discuss bilingual policy:

Bilingual education in the U.S., when and where it is actually practiced, is usually based on a transitional (or weak) model (see Baker, 1993; Ruíz, 1995) rather than on a maintenance model, even though the latter has been demonstrated to promote educational achievement. (Ramírez, 1992) (p. 514)

Language Policies in Texas

As previously mentioned, the history of bilingual education in the United States is one of change in which fluctuations in perspectives and shifts in ideologies have helped shift the impact of its laws and policies on the students of the United States and of Texas. During the time of Spanish Texas, mission schools were established for Native Americans (Berger & Wilborn, 2019). Often established by the Catholic Church, these schools often taught in Spanish, French, English, and through a native language (Baker, 2010). In the 18th and 19th centuries, linguistic diversity was often encouraged in society. In Texas, early communities of Spanish, Mexicans, Germans, and Czechs flourished in the periods before and after the Republic of Texas. Small community-based schools were established and taught in the language of the ethnic homogeneity that lived within that area. Texas would eventually be annexed by the United States and a state agency was created, which in turn moved these rural schools into district-based systems. In the beginning of the 20th century, new Americanization and nationalist ideologies influenced many laws and policies in Texas and in the United States. The Nationality Act of 1906 required immigrants to speak English to become naturalized Americans. Texas House Bill 128 in 1918 required teachers in Texas to teach in the English language exclusively. Segregation was also prevalent during this time and Mexican schools established to continue segregating children and anti-German sentiment as a result of the First World War were examples of policies and societal attitudes impacting a once linguistically inclusive locale and moving to a linguistically intolerant perspective (Baker, 2010; Rodriguez, 2020; San Miguel, 2010). These Americanization movements would quickly expand to speakers of other languages as well (Wiley & Lukes, English-only and standard English ideologies in the U.S., 1996). These policies and ideologies continued until the Civil Rights movement of the 1960s.

The 1960s experienced a rise in civil rights protests and language policies on the state and national arena. The Chicano movement of this time period saw various groups use demonstrations to pursue racial equity and a path to reaching resolutions to the inequalities faced by various student groups. The Bilingual Education Act of 1968 and the 1974 amendments to the act began with steps towards inclusion of a student's home/native language in school (Baker, 2010). In 1969, students in Crystal City, Texas, went on strike due to discrimination and charges against the local school board. Bilingual education was one of the concessions that would be a result of that movement (Acosta, 2011). In 1969, Texas Senator Joe Bernal would help overturn the 1918 English-only laws that were still in effect by legalizing bilingual instruction (Rodriguez, 2020).

Raciolinguistic Ideologies

Another aspect of language policy orientations to mention is that of raciolinguistic ideologies. Flores and Rosa (2015) illustrated:

how appropriateness-based approaches to language education are implicated in the reproduction of racial normativity by expecting language-minoritized students to model their linguistic practices after the white speaking subject despite the fact that the white listening subject continues to perceive these students' language use in racialized ways. (p. 151)

In other words, the language minority student is still perceived to be deficient for even attempting to engage in English as opposed to the privileged perception that the white student would be subjected to if he were to attempt a similar task. Language ideologies can be utilized to help address hierarchical systems of oppression, which have been seen in the history of EL education in the United States.

Summary of Chapter 2

The literature reviewed in this section discussed the foundation and establishment of

charter schools along with various language ideologies that have helped shape the educational landscape in Texas. The various EL instructional programs in Texas were also discussed. The review of literature showed a limited body of research related to language ideologies and the impact that they have on the decision-making regarding EL instructional programs. Chapter 3 presents the methodology of the study including the research design, participant selection, sources of data, and procedures for the data collection and analysis.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

There have been numerous studies looking at the effectiveness of charter schools in terms of student achievement (Betts & Tang, 2008; Center for Research on Education Outcomes, 2015; Hanushek et al., 2007; Nelson, Rosenberg, & Van Meter, 2004). However, there has been very little research on the programs that charter schools implement to address the needs of special populations. This study used a constructivist grounded theory design. The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of instructional leaders about the EL instructional programs that their charter school districts offer for.

Additionally, the stage of implementation of the language programs in the charter schools and their organization was explored. The intent was to better understand the types of language programs provided by the charter schools and the factors that influenced their decisions in implementing those programs. Additionally, another purpose was to discover what these leaders see as the next steps in how they support their ELs.

The study addressed the following research questions:

1. What EL instructional program was offered in the charter school districts to serve the linguistic needs of English learners?
2. How were these programs chosen?
3. What are the perceptions of charter school instructional leaders about these programs?

This chapter on methodology is organized into the following sections: (a) research design, (b) purpose, (c) participant selection, (d) data collection, and (e) data analysis.

Research Design

As was previously mentioned, charter schools are increasing enrollment, and the

populations of Hispanic and Asian students are growing in numbers. Properly serving this population is not just a matter of compliance to state and federal guidelines and regulations, but it is at the very heart of teaching the student in the most conducive environment. According to Creswell and Poth (2018), qualitative research can be conducted when there is a problem or issue that needs to be explored. This problem cannot be understood without talking to people and allowing them to “tell the stories unencumbered by what we expect to find or what we have read in the literature” (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 45). As previous research on charter schools may look at the academic performance of students or the effectiveness of charters compared to traditional schools, research into factors influencing specific language programs or language ideologies held by individuals and organizations can only be understood by speaking to those that have direct insights of these programs. Thus, a qualitative approach is an appropriate approach to researching “things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 3).

Grounded Theory

In selecting an appropriate approach to qualitative research, this study sought to “develop a theory grounded in data from the field” (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 67). The authors continue and state that that grounded theory is “a good design to use when a theory is not available to explain or understand a process” (p. 87). Grounded theory originated in sociology in the 1967 publication *The Discovery of Grounded Theory: Strategies for Qualitative Research*, by Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss. These two sociologists believed that rather than having “a priori” theories, theories should be “grounded” in the data from the field (Creswell & Poth, 2018). According to Charmaz (2014, p. 7), the defining components of Glaser and Strauss’ grounded theory practice included:

- Simultaneous involvement in data collection and analysis.
- Constructing analytic codes and categories from data, not from preconceived logically deduced hypotheses.
- Using the constant comparison method, which involves making comparisons during each state of analysis.
- Advancing theory development during each step of data collection and analysis.
- Memo-writing to elaborate categories, specify their properties, define relationships between categories, and identify gaps.
- Sampling aimed toward theory construction (theoretical sampling), not for population representativeness.
- Conducting the literature review after developing an independent analysis.

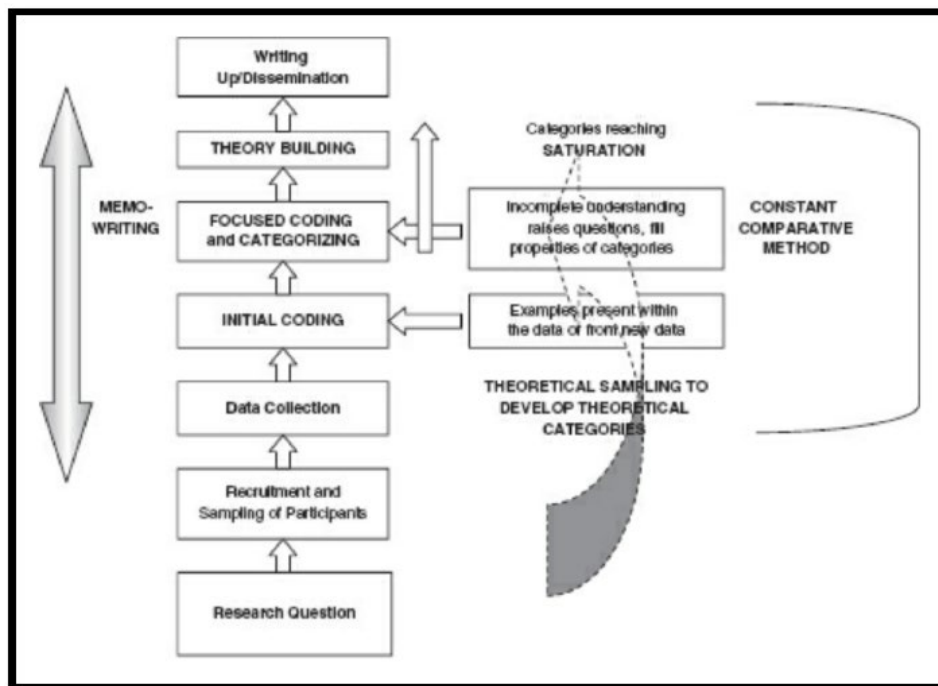
Although Glaser and Strauss collaborated with the development of grounded theory, they ultimately disagreed about its meaning. Charmaz (2014) explained that Glaser viewed grounded theory as a “method of discovery”, compared to Strauss who viewed grounded theory as a “method of verification” (p. 11). Strauss’ eventual co-author in later years, Juliet Corbin, would also share this view. Charmaz introduced a constructivist view in theory development. Rather than following a more systematic and analytic form of grounded theory prescribed by Strauss and Corbin, which Glaser felt forced data into categories, Charmaz contended that the constructivist approach “shreds notions of a neutral observer and value-free expert...it also means that their [researchers] values shape the very facts that they can identify” (Charmaz, 2014, p. 13). Rather than following a strict process of methodological rules or requirements, Charmaz emphasized flexible guidelines and the ability to use that flexibility to follow leads that emerge.

Glaser and Strauss (1967) suggested the constant comparative method as a method of joint coding and analysis that allows the researcher to move between the two to collect new data or to identify new codes or categories. Glaser and Strauss (1967) described four stages of the constant comparative method: “(1) comparing incidents applicable to each category, (2)

integrating categories and their properties, (3) delimiting the theory, and (4) writing the theory” (p. 1805). In constructivist grounded theory, the data collected is coded using a variety of analysis procedures: open coding, axial coding, and selective coding (Creswell & Poth, 2018). In open coding, the researcher begins forming categories about the phenomenon. In axial coding, the central phenomenon can be identified, and causal conditions or strategies may arise. In selective coding, “story lines” that connect the categories may be written, and theory may begin to materialize. Throughout the coding process, memo writing is incorporated to help develop the researcher’s ideas. Charmaz’s approach, however, does not follow the axial coding approach initially presented by Strauss and Corbin. Charmaz (2014) does incorporate the use of subcategories of a category as a way to keep analytic strategies as “*emergent*, rather than procedural applications” as formalized by Strauss and Corbin (p. 148).

Figure 5

Grounded Theory Method



Note: Adapted from Charmaz (2014, p. 18)

Participant Selection

This study was conducted in seven charter school districts in Texas. A unique characteristic of grounded theory is its use of theoretical sampling. Glaser and Strauss (1967) defined theoretical sampling as “the process of data collection for generating theory whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes, and analyzes his data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them, in order to develop his theory as it emerges” (pp. Chapter 3, Paragraph 1).

Birks and Mills (2015) describe theoretical sampling as different from other sampling strategies in that the researcher in other strategies identifies the participant sample size during the planning phase of their research design. In grounded theory, because the purpose is to construct the theory based on the establishment of categories from the data,

it is not possible to know at the outset of your study: the nature or type of data that will be needed to develop your theory. How many participants/data sources you will use. When, where or how you will generate or collect data. (p. 68)

I included seven charter school leaders (directors of bilingual/ESL, or their equivalents, who currently or have led seven different charter school districts Texas. The number of participants is subject to change based on the data collected. These initial participants and their districts account for the majority of ELs enrolled in Texas charter districts or organizations. Although theoretical saturation is “what grounded theorists aim for – or should aim for, “the number of total participants can be adapted based on the attainment of theoretical saturation (Charmaz, 2014, p. 214). All participants were selected based on the following criteria:

- Participants are currently or were previously Directors of Bilingual/ESL, or their equivalents, programs in Texas charter school districts or organizations.
- The charter district or organization must have an EL population.
- The charter district or organization must have primary and secondary schools. As defined by TAC §61.1036 an elementary school contains some or all grades from

prekindergarten through Grades 5 or 6, while a secondary school includes some or all grades from Grade 6 through Grade 12 (TAC §61).

Data Collection

This section includes a discussion of the data collection and data sources that was utilized in this study: intensive interviews, questionnaires, and memoing. Each of these three data sources will be discussed in a section that follows. Each interview, questionnaire, and other sources of data were managed and organized utilizing spreadsheets.

Interviews

Intensive interviewing is typically the most common source of qualitative data used in grounded theory (Charmaz, 2014). The nature of intensive interviews, an approach where the researcher gently guides a one-sided conversation on the research topic, allows the participant the opportunity to share their views of the topic in their specific context. Charmaz (2014) viewed intensive interviewing as a way to “explore, not to interrogate” (p. 65). Interviews of the initial participants, seven charter school leaders (Directors of Bilingual/ESL, or their equivalents) from seven different charter school districts across Texas, were conducted in their chosen location or via Zoom video conference. Each interview was scheduled for a 60-minute time block. An open-ended interview guide was used for each of the participants. The use of an interview guide allows the pace to be adjusted based on the responses and allows the researcher to be flexible about their questions and pursue new leads or themes. All interviews were recorded on a digital recorder or recorded video session and uploaded to an online transcription service. Once the transcriptions were received, the transcript was reviewed for accuracy.

Questionnaires

Participants were provided with a pre-interview questionnaire (Appendix A). The

responses to this questionnaire were codified and provided additional demographic and programmatic information from the participant or from the program site. Codes from this questionnaire followed the constant comparative method of data analysis and were analyzed for additional themes, codes, and patterns. The questionnaire was submitted to the potential participant before the interview. Information requested included demographic data from the participant, preliminary information about the program(s) provided by the district and at which grade levels, and an opportunity to select interview dates and times from a provided list.

Memoing

Memo-writing is what Charmaz (2014) referred to as “the pivotal intermediate step between data collection and writing drafts of papers” (2014, p. 162). These notes are a way the researcher can make connections between questions, provide thoughts to follow-up on, or be reminders the researcher could follow. Charmaz (2014) identified the moments when analytic ideas occur as an opportune time to “write a memo about each idea so that you can develop and check it” (p. 111).

Data Analysis

One of the most significant characteristics of grounded theory is its approach to data analysis. In grounded theory, data collection and analysis may happen simultaneously. Coding the data from the various sources begins to identify categories, and it allows the researcher to summarize the data. It is the focus on specific codes of data and extracting meaning that moves the researcher into the analysis. Charmaz (2014) described two main phases of coding as the initial phase and a selective phase.

During the initial phase, the researcher codes data to begin forming ideas to “pursue in further data collection and analysis” (p. 113). This phase involves exploring the data and seeking

all theoretical possibilities. Charmaz encouraged researchers to look at data “*as actions,*” which will aid in preserving the integrity of the codes and help curb “tendencies to make conceptual leaps and to adopt extant theories *before we have done the necessary analytic work*” (p. 116).

In selective coding, also referred to as focused coding, the researcher looks at the various theoretical possibilities that were established during initial coding and addresses those codes that appear more frequently or that have more significance. This coding involves the researcher’s skills and perspectives as part of the analytic process. The researcher defines the meaning and makes connections between the codes. Charmaz (2014) stated that the constant comparing of coding and the researcher’s involvement in the process is a strength of grounded theory coding.

Throughout these two phases, the researcher codes categories and possibly subcategories. Codes, categories, and subcategories are identified and defined through the researcher’s interpretation via the constant comparative method and theoretical sorting. Emerging themes based on the interrelatedness of categories can then help develop a theory of EL instructional programs in Texas charter schools and the perspectives of instructional leaders.

Participants

The participants consisted of seven current and former bilingual/ESL directors (or their equivalent) in Texas charter schools. All participants held valid Texas teaching certifications and had their English as a Second Language Supplemental (ESL Supplemental) endorsement or English as a Second Language Generalist certifications. One of the participants also had their bilingual certification as well. Additionally, the pre-interview questionnaire (Appendix A) also gathered characteristics such as experience in different school settings in Texas, total years in their position, as well as total years in education. These data are referenced in Table 9.

Table 9

Participant Characteristics

ID	Gender	Highest Degree	Texas Teacher Certificate	Bilingual/ESL Certified	Years in Position	Years in Education	Experience in Texas		
							Charter Schools	Traditional Schools	Private Schools
1	Female	Masters	Yes	ESL	2	24	Yes	Yes	No
2	Female	Bachelors	Yes	ESL	8	11	Yes	No	No
3	Male	Bachelors	Yes	ESL	10	15	Yes	Yes	No
4	Female	Bachelors	Yes	ESL Bilingual	10	21	Yes	Yes	No
5	Male	Masters	Yes	ESL	6	25	Yes	No	Yes
6	Female	Doctorate	Yes	ESL	4	33	Yes	Yes	No
7	Female	Bachelors	Yes	ESL	5	14	Yes	No	No

Summary of Chapter 3

In this chapter, research methods were outlined to describe the grounded theory methodology used to conduct study the perspectives of instructional leaders in their selection of bilingual/ESL programs at Texas charter schools. The context of the study, research design, data collection procedures, and analysis of the data process were presented. The findings of this study are essential for EL instructional programs in that the challenges and obstacles faced by current charter school operators could be minimized or avoided by being prepared to engage in those conversations.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of instructional leaders about the instructional language programs that their charter school districts offer for ELs. The perceptions of these school leaders may aid in identifying the factors that have influenced the selection of those programs and allowing current and future charter school operators an opportunity to better engage in conversations around the establishment and implementation of their own language program for ELs. The researcher posed the following questions:

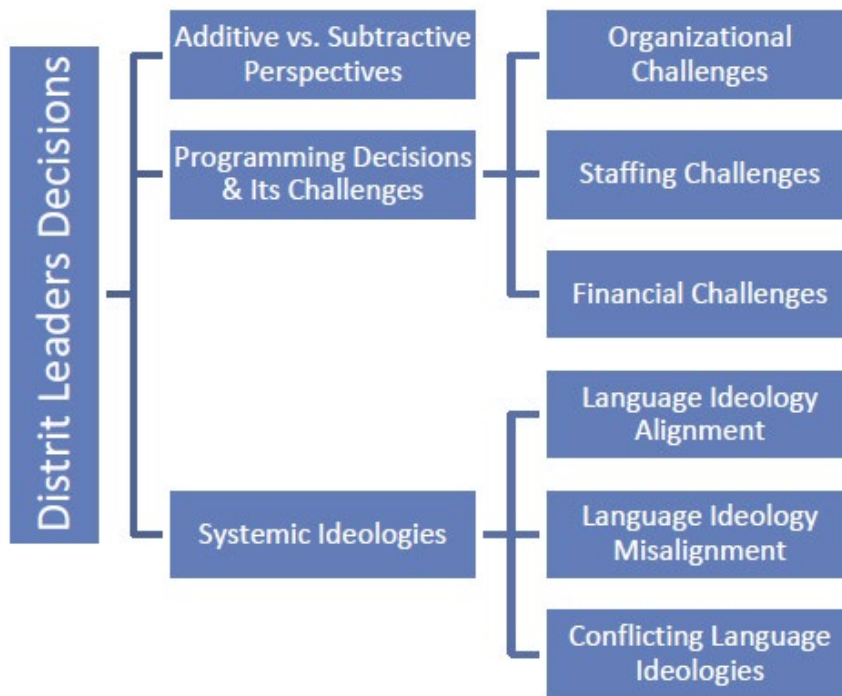
4. What EL instructional program was offered in the charter school districts to serve the linguistic needs of English learners?
5. How were these programs chosen?
6. What are the perceptions of charter school instructional leaders about these programs?

In constructivist grounded theory, Charmaz (2014) stated that “most researchers today cannot begin their research without prior knowledge of the scholarship about their field” (p. 59). Using an interview guide (Appendix A) allowed me the ability to explore the participants’ responses without interrogating and allowing the conversation to be “informal and conversational” (Charmaz, 2014, p. 65). Although each participant was not asked identical questions, it did allow the interview itself to be conversational.

Using the constant comparative method, the analysis of the findings produced multiple overall themes and subthemes. Figure 6 shows the three overarching themes addressed in this chapter which are: (1) additive vs. subtractive perspectives; (2) programming decisions and its challenges; and (3) systemic language ideologies. In this section, I discuss each of the overarching themes along with correlating subthemes as they relate to this study.

Figure 6

Themes Impacting District Leaders' Decisions



Additive vs. Subtractive Perspectives

A theme that emerged from the data collected from the participants was the difference between programs that were additive vs. subtractive. According to Collier and Thomas (1999; 2007) and Thomas and Collier (2001), programs were regarded as either *Remedial* or *Enrichment*, refer to Table 7. The authors further stated that the linguistic emphasis and the sociocultural emphasis of the programs were additive or subtractive in nature.

Participant 2, a female with a bachelor's degree and eight years in her role, discussed her experience working with ELs, primarily newcomers and how valuable it was for students to speak more than one language.

I think very broadly, I think we all need to be speaking more than one language. And so our kids that come to us already, you know, that don't have English as their first language are already sort of ahead of the game. And then, broadly speaking, it's, it's on us as

educators to make sure that we are supporting their native language, while also building English skills for them.

Participant 3, a male with a bachelor's degree and 10 years in his role, shared a similar perspective that also came from his experience teaching English overseas. He recognized that in particular languages, different realities existed based on the language spoken and that certain concepts were specific to that language, thus allowing the individual learning the language to have an experience.

You can only talk about something... if you have the vocabulary for it. And there are certain concepts in some languages that just don't exist in others...It would do a world of good for kiddos to start from an early age. And that's just normal. You know, we don't see bilingualism as, as something special or different...just something that's normal, that becomes part of your normal routine.

Participant 3 shared several connections about what he considered to be the norm in different parts of the world. Speaking multiple languages was one of those norms and something that is valued in other countries, but unfortunately, not one that he believed was valued in our schools.

Participant 4, a female with a bachelor's degree and 10 years in her role, grew up in a household where multiple languages were spoken. She reminisced about her parents being very adamant about learning and having both languages and encouraging her to pick up other languages as well. For her, a person's first language is a part of who they are and what makes them up. She reflected on seeing teachers restrain their students from using their native language, even during collaborative work with other students that spoke the same language. She saw how, they would not be able to fully express themselves in English and to be told that they also could not do it in their native language. To her, language was a part of what makes a person whole. Unfortunately, her perspective was that as a country, language is not valued if it's not English.

You know, I just, we highlight so many things and, um, you know, I think about when we go to other places, like when you go to other countries, you, it, especially, let's say you go to Europe, there's so many people that know so many different languages and it's, it's so valued and so respected and so, but yet here it's like, it's all about English, you know. You know, French, Korean, you know, Mandarin, oh, okay, no. Yeah. Do you know English? No. Okay. (laughing) You know. And that makes me sad because we're a country where, you know, essentially we're a country that kind of started with people from other countries, ... we have so many cultures that make up this country, but yet we don't really value. We don't value them. We don't value their language. We don't value their identity. And that makes me really sad.

Participant 5, a male with a master's degree and six years in his role, also shared experiences teaching overseas. He connected linguistic identities to notions of valuing and honoring his students and seeing those linguistic identities as something to add onto rather than something to replace.

It's that our students come with their own...what do you call it? Our students, our multilingual students come with their own experiences of the world, including language experiences. And we should see that as a plus, as a positive, and we should be leveraging that, um, in a positive way that we should be honoring and valuing and representing our students' linguistic identities. So we're not sort of filling them up with English at the expense of their first language.

Participant 6, a female with a doctorate degree and four years in her role, shared that her language ideology was shaped by her upbringing. She grew up in a country where she was a part of the linguistic minority and did not learn the language of the country until she began school. When she and her sister made the transition to the dominant language of the country, they began to speak that language to their parents and thus never developed their native language. She recalled:

It wasn't developed. It, it, you know, just everyday things. Um, and I felt more and more comfortable speaking, um, the, the language of the country. So, later on, I wanted to, to get back and to, to look more into, "Okay, what did I miss?" And I think I missed a lot...But, um, yeah, things like that, I did not even realize that impacts your, your, um, identity.

She saw learning languages and cultures as a "vehicle to success" as well as a way of

experiencing different countries and societies and transferring those opportunities to her students.

The experience of Participant 7, a female with a bachelor's degree and five years in her role, was directly shaped by her charter school district's linguistic liberation ideology in trying to address issues of equity and anti-racism. The experience of Participant 7 with her charter district led to taking an ideology of linguistic liberation and her program's alignment in trying to address issues of equity and anti-racism. She observed that her view of linguistic liberation is, "the ability to be fluent in their native language, but also English when it comes to those domains, speaking, listening, reading, writing, and thinking."

Participants shared that while teachers, school leaders, and charter school districts may share a belief that equity in education is a critical issue and an issue many charter school districts are directly addressing, there is also an underlying ideology that ELs are coming through their doors at a deficit, specifically around language. The most common response by these charter school districts is serving students with subtractive programs.

While some participants shared that these deficit-based views coming from teachers, school leaders, and charter school districts may be caused by a lack of knowledge around second language acquisition and general best practices for ELs, there were some instances where the views shared were deficit-based perspectives shaped by assimilationist philosophies. These deficit-based and subtractive philosophies and ideologies are discussed in a later section.

Programming Decisions and Its Challenges

Participants reported several factors that influenced the decision of the charter district and its schools to implement a specific language program. The theme of programming decisions and its challenges had several subthemes: (1) organizational challenges; (2) staffing challenges; (3) financial challenges. The overarching subtheme of programming decisions and its challenges

addressed the various operational factors that the participants found to influence programmatic decisions.

Participants were explicitly asked about the programs that their charter districts offered and what factors led to those programs being offered. Table 10 shows a breakdown of the programs that were offered at each participants’ respective districts as reported in the pre-interview questionnaire (Appendix A), along with some additional data that was discovered during the interview process regarding ESL waivers and bilingual exceptions.

Table 10

EL Instructional Programs Offered at Respective Schools

ID	English as a Second Language (ESL) Program Models		Bilingual Education (BE) Program Models				Program Compliance Forms Filed	
	ESL Pull Out	ESL Content Based	Transitional Early Exit	Transitional Late Exit	DL Immersion One Way	DL Immersion Two Way	ESL Waiver	Bilingual Exception
1	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
2	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
3	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
4	No*	No*	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
5	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
6	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
7	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes

*Participant 4 did not mark any ESL program models in their pre-interview questionnaire, but did imply that they offered it during the interview. They also acknowledge filing an ESL waiver and having an alternative language program. DL = dual language.

Organizational Challenges

Several of the participants discussed organizational challenges to being a factor in identifying what program was available at their districts. Under organizational challenges, participants identified that in most cases, they had not been a part of the founding of the charter

districts and that previous decisions regarding the program had been made prior to their arrival. In several cases, individual charter districts also adopted other curricular initiatives or academic programs that were district-wide. These programs, although not directly competing with bilingual/ESL programs, were identified by the participants as being significant in that they had collateral effects. In general, allocation of finite resources like human resources, economic resources, or simply time resources created environments where the participants could not make major systemic changes. Programs such as International Baccalaureate, international leadership partnerships, post-secondary access initiatives, STEAM (science, technology, engineering, arts, and mathematics) or STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) exposure, vocational programs, or even classical approaches to the instructional methodology were examples of programs that did not directly impact the EL instructional decisions, but had secondary implications. Thus, if a charter school was founded with a particular mission, gaining leadership support for programming decisions that would potentially impact those programs was challenging.

Participant 1, a female with a master's degree and two years in her role, shared challenges that she faced when she joined the team at her respective district. One of the instructional models of the district was a classical instructional methodology. Instructional best practices like having non-linguistic representations on walls for students to reference was not encouraged. Several participants shared that many of these decisions are simply because there is a lack of knowledge around EL program requirements and best practices. Staffing challenges will be addressed later this chapter, but the lack of knowledge created a situation where there was either no EL program whatsoever or there were no systems in place. Participant 1 shared this about the charter district she joined, "We had no systems in place when I came on board. There

were, there, there were absolutely nothing. There was nothing. I mean, everybody did something different. There were no forms, though.”

Participant 2 shared that the structure of the bilingual/ESL department was never clear and that it seemed like district leaders “just sort of, they needed a body or whatever other reasons people were hired.” Several participants shared feeling a pressure to ensure that they were “in compliance,” rather than having an opportunity to build the program they felt would be the most beneficial for their students. *Being in compliance*, according to participants, is summed up as ensuring that the proper procedures for identifying, serving, reclassifying or exiting ELs, and for monitoring those students previously identified as ELs are followed and have the proper documentation necessary per state statute.

Staffing Challenges

Organizational challenges are also closely tied to two other subthemes: staffing and financial challenges. As mentioned previously, one of the benefits that an increased autonomy grants charter schools is the ability to hire uncertified teachers. This is problematic because a requirement to be in compliance is for EL students to be served by certified teachers who have ESL and/or the appropriate bilingual education certification. For some participants, the hiring of non-certified teachers will not change, so their approach is to identify ways to still provide students the appropriate services. Participant 1 talked about this challenge, “I mean, as long as we’re hiring teachers who don’t have certifications, we’re going to be out of compliance.” This is further complicated when you look at additional people that have been hired in the organization, “but anytime you have a school system that’s hiring teachers who are not certified and hiring administrators who don’t, haven’t been teachers or are certified, you’re going to have these problems.” Participant 3 also shared his staffing challenges. EL students would be moved

into other classrooms for part of the day to ensure that they would be with a certified teacher who could accommodate their needs.

For other participants, hiring teachers with the appropriate certifications has become a common practice as the need for the certifications continued to increase. The staffing challenge for these participants became recruitment and retention of the teachers. For several of the participants, hiring teachers with their content certifications has become standard and during their time at the district, helping them earn their ESL supplemental is a goal. Several participants acknowledged that holding the ESL certification does not necessarily mean that second language acquisition best practices are taking place, but it does help the district ensure that they are “in compliance.”

Developing teachers and providing professional development to address the instructional components of teaching ELs while at the same time equipping them with the proper endorsements needed to address the statutory requirements of teaching ELs was identified as a challenge by all participants. This need to address the statutory requirements is not a challenge specific to charter districts, which means that all districts, charters and traditional districts alike, are developing strategies to attract teachers to their respective districts.

The staffing challenges were not unique to teachers and support staff. Leadership roles were also identified as being components of staffing challenges. Participant 1 shared, “that was the biggest thing, awareness. I don’t think anybody even knew English learners existed in [district redacted].” This was problematic for multiple reasons. Participant 1 continued, “we have many administrators who have been, who never have been a teacher. Yeah, I mean, so you have to educate them.” From a knowledge and understanding viewpoint, many of her administrators were “inexperienced”, which was “really sad, because if they really, if they really took the time

to understand it, they'd realize that their kids would be different scores, would be so much better, because their kids would do better..."

This lack of knowledge and understanding of the program also applies to the individuals who oversee the program. Participant 2 discussed how many individuals have been at the helm of her program. She noted that her organization likes to hire from within, which she is in favor of, but for certain roles, having a background is critical. In her 11 years at the organization, there have been eight or so leaders of her program. She continues,

these people have come in and have had almost less experience than myself or less educational certificates to back up their role versus others... There's never really been a set of guidelines as to who would be running the ESL program. It's just sort of, they needed a body or whatever other reasons people were hired.

Participant 2 questioned the overall retention of the program leadership. Participant 2 shared, "We have four people at the central management office that run the bilingual/ESL program and not a single one of them is actually bilingual, which to me says, maybe we need to look at our hiring practices for this." The role is more of a people manager than it is a program manager, a notion also echoed by Participants 3 and 5. This perspective is evident when participants shared their program's relationship with the Special Education (SpEd) program. Participant 4 shared that she and her SpEd counterpart collaborated frequently, especially around compliance issues, but acknowledged that there was a difference in how the programs were regarded. Participant 4 also noted that the collaboration was helpful in discussing students that were dual coded, which she believed were overrepresented. The SpEd program had more accountability from the charter school district and although both had state and federal accountability, she felt as though the charter school districts she had worked with were not as concerned with following certain requirements because they "weren't scared of it having any consequences."

Participant 7 also expressed similar sentiments regarding SpEd. She expressed that

certain components of the compliance factors of the program did not matter. She shared that with SpEd, there are a lot of court cases because parents advocate for their students. Parents feel empowered to pursue legal avenues if they feel like their student's civil rights are being violated. While ELs share similar civil right protections, Participant 7 shared that, in general, families would have to overcome multiple barriers to advocate for their children and some parents would be reluctant to pursue legal avenues due to their own possible legal status.

Financial Challenges

All districts that serve higher populations of ELs are also in need of the same teachers to address the same concerns. This leads to the subtheme of financial challenges. Professional development, time, and resources were invested into teachers that did not hold ESL supplemental or bilingual education endorsements. Participant 3 stated, "the economic reality is, is that a lot of those teachers will go to schools that will give them a \$5,000 or \$10,000 stipend because they're bilingual and [district redacted] doesn't offer that." This is where the staffing challenges and the financial challenges create a perfect storm. The districts are left to continue developing and training teachers only to let them go to districts that offer more competitive compensation.

Participant 3 further stated,

We keep filing this thing on paper that says, "We're still working on it." Um, but if I were a bilingual teacher and I was a graduate and I got offered this [participant gestures lower] salary or I got offered this salary [participant gestures higher], well, it's kind of a no brainer at that point, you know.

This cycle of hiring teachers, equipping teachers and aiding them in getting their certifications, not being able to retain teachers, applying for the bilingual exception and/or ESL waiver, and receiving permission from the state to not meet certain certification requirements continues to repeat year after year.

This cycle takes place if the leadership of the district or the program director has the background to know the program requirements and chooses to follow it. Participant 1 shared that their district, which has been in existence for over 20 years, was resistant to submitting an ESL waiver and Bilingual Exception.

Did we file for an ESL Waiver and Bilingual Exception? Yes. For the first time in 20 years [district redacted] to that actually filed it last year. That was a battle, uphill battle. First year, I didn't win, second year I won.

Participant 2 had a similar experience in her district, "Yes. Since 2009, when I started working [for district], we have filed for a bilingual exception every single year. We've also been approved every single year. So, it's kind of TEA at this point. (laughs)." Participant 4 mentioned, "Yes. And I mean like you, you mentioned the, the exception and waiver, where I'm at now, up until I got here, they hadn't ever done a waiver. They didn't know they had to, you know."

Participant 7, also experienced filing the ESL Waiver and Bilingual Exception. In the application for the Bilingual Exception, a district reports how many consecutive years they have applied for the exception. An interesting fact that came up in the conversation was that when individual districts merge or get acquired by another district for whatever reason, the possibility exists for those consecutive years to be reduced or even zeroed out if the "new district" operates under a name and organization that had not filled out the forms. Participant 7 had mentioned that the district had filed the exception for the previous five years, but when they merged with another organization, they started back at zero.

Yes, we did. Which, exactly what we did. (laughs). Which everyone was like, "Yeah!" You know, um...It's like, w-the state's not doing anything? For how many years...do we fill it out until they say "no"? No one is going to do anything if they're not getting caught. It's so sad. Or if they're not getting a slap on the hand..."

The filing of the ESL waiver and Bilingual exception does not indicate that districts are not trying to serve their students. Participant 6, for example, supported a district with campuses

that support a two-way dual language program. Similar to other participants, Participant 6 shared that many of their teachers do not have the appropriate certifications. They partner with governments to bring in teachers who do not hold valid Texas teaching credentials to work at their districts. These types of programs exist through organizations such as the Embassy of Spain or the partially financed by the People's Republic of China's Confucius Institutes. Recruitment has also increased into the Puerto Rico and Cuba as well for bilingual Spanish or Spanish language teachers.

Another component to the financial challenges that program directors face in leading their programs is simply access and transparency to the appropriate allotment of funds. Participant 7 spoke about having direct control of program funds. She indicated that those funds were earmarked for the individual campuses, which made it difficult for her to strategize and develop a growth plan for central office staff to be able to support the campuses and the students. Participant 7 noted that having ownership over those funds would be significant. For a large district like hers, central office staff would allow better alignment in processes and systems as well as a more consistent staffing model for district and campus support staff. Participant 1 discussed implementing a stipend program to incentivize teachers to earn their ESL supplemental or bilingual endorsements. Participant 1 reported being able to award over \$300,000 to teachers and looked forward to growing her department and the campus support as well.

Financially, charter districts would also face a challenge when it came to the district support staff as well. Participant 7 shared difficulty in developing a growth plan for central office staff, but several other participants shared similar struggles. Participant 2 recognized that it would be a significant undertaking to add to the central office instructional support team. To her knowledge, those individuals did not hold bilingual certifications. She recognized that in order to

begin implementing a program, being able to support the curricular components would be essential as well.

Systemic Language Ideologies

All participants held asset-based perspectives when asked about their personal language ideology and how it applies towards ELs. For several participants, their ideology was influenced by their personal experiences being ELs themselves or working primarily with ELs for the majority of their careers (Coady & de Jong, 2015; Coady, Harper, & de Jong, 2011; Daniel & Pray, 2016). Along with their personal beliefs, participants also identified several operational factors that influenced the program selections and those were discussed in the previous section. In addition to those operational factors, participants noted that there were philosophical factors held by the organizations that also influenced the selection of a district's EL instructional programs. I refer this theme as systemic language ideologies. Systemic language ideologies had several subthemes: (1) language ideology alignment; (2) language ideology misalignment; and (3) conflicting language ideologies. Through the interviews and the data collected and subsequently analyzed, this overarching theme addresses more of the philosophical factors that the participants found to impact the decisions.

Participants noted that district leaders in more senior roles impacted the decisions, both directly and indirectly, and the direction that districts followed in the implementation of their EL instructional programs. The directions that resulted from these decisions created situations in which there was alignment, misalignment, and conflicting language ideologies between the participants personal ideologies and that of the district.

Four (Participants 4, 5, 6, and 7) of the seven participants that were interviewed had experiences working in charter districts that had bilingual education programs. Table 11 below

summarizes the bilingual education program that each participant shared having had some experience with at their district.

Table 11

Bilingual Education Program Experience Reported

ID	Program Experience	Status of the Program	Context
4	Early Exit Transitional Bilingual Education Program	Active	The participant shared that an exception is still filed.
5	Two-way Dual Language	Active	The participant is no longer at that particular district.
6	Two-way Dual Language	Active	The program is active, but an exception is filed due to uncertified teachers.
7	Bilingual Education Program*	Inactive	The program was available at one campus prior to the participants arrival. *Unknown BE model.

Language Ideology Alignment

Participants 5 and 6 had both worked at charter districts that had an intentional focus on international mindedness. These districts were founded by individuals that shared an additive philosophy regarding language. They believed in adding to the linguistic repertoire of their students. The two-way dual language program, by nature, is additive because its structure emphasizes two groups of students learning, each with a strong base in the target languages, to learn from each other with the goal of having fully biliterate students. Participants shared that the founders of the school had explicitly stated the importance of developing additional languages beyond English in their charter applications and those beliefs permeated all other decisions that the district made. Participant 5 recalled,

This definite view around additive language, about asset-based language where we, we really truly believe the whole idea biliterate, bilingual students... You know, my time there, I mean, like I said, that was one of the core tenants of its reason for being, and because it was, you know, built with that in mind, everything revolved around that. So,

every decision about the school had that...you know, that had to be taken into consideration that we are offering a trilingual education. So how, how does, how does that look, even if you're discussing the cafeteria? How does that look?

Participant 6 shared similar experiences working at a district where the focus was to develop international leaders. With that international focus, developing another language was embedded into the way of life for the school. This district offered a two-way dual language program and in addition to that, offered a third language as requirement in the district's instructional program. Participant 6 attributes this attitude to the leadership.

And actually, this [a dual language program] was written in the charter, so when you open the charter, you write, okay, this is my vision. So, the dual language program, the two-way dual language program also was written in the charter, as well as the leadership here. So we have a very, very strong leadership...And, and believe me, each of us, each of us knows the mission. I mean, you, you kind of breathe the mission.

Participant 7 shared her experience stepping into a district that, at one point, had a bilingual education program. It should be noted that this program was no longer being offered when she joined the district. She expressed that their campuses in the district where the founding leaders had been strong advocates for bilingual education. She noted that early in the charter district, campus leaders had more autonomy to do what they needed to do so long as he could prove that it was working. When the leaders left, the program left with them. She also wondered if there was any district-level support for the program or if the school leader found ways to support himself. She also noted that many parents also pulled their students because of the changes to that campus's academic programming.

These three participants shared how having a knowledge of second language acquisition, being versed in the theory, having leaders advocate for a program and placing an intentional value in developing language aided in the establishment of their programs. It should be noted that none of these participants were present at the founding of their respective charter districts.

For Participants 5 and 6, there was a clear alignment in their language ideology and that of their districts, but that experience was not shared among the other participants. For Participant 7, she was not present when the bilingual program existed, but she acknowledged that, at least for a time, there was acceptance if not support. This slight, yet significant difference leads to the subtheme of misalignment.

Language Ideology Misalignment

For most of the participants, they held beliefs that the operational challenges shared in the previous section where the primary factors in a district's decision-making around EL instructional programs. As previously shared, some senior leaders in the organizations can be allies and advocates for the programs. Some participants were optimistic that they could help leaders take the steps in that direction and that it was a matter of helping shift district priorities.

Participant 1 shared that building relationships with the district's superintendents was critical in her ability to slowly build systems of support for all staff. She recognized the need to gain trust before moving forward with shifting mindsets, "so, I had to spend my first year developing relationships with [senior leaders of the district] because unless I have their support, nothing's going to change at the campus level, nothing." This was a district, similar to Participant 4, that had not previously filed a Bilingual Exception or ESL Waiver in the past, despite being in operation for over 10 years. Participant 1 faced resistance in her first year, but was able to garner enough support to be able to submit the appropriate forms in her second year.

So my biggest challenge was developing those relationships to get that trust so that they start understanding, [that] I know what I'm talking about following the ESL waiver and Exception and letting them understand compliance is necessary (laughs). And we have to find a way to get in compliance, we have to.

Participant 1 remains hopeful that she'll continue to take steps in that direction. With a slight laugh and some hesitant optimism she shared her plans moving forward:

If I stay here, there will be a dual language program. I'm just, you know, it's not going to be this year, but if, if I'm, if I'm here next year, it will be, it will happen because I'm gonna put my foot down (laughs). I mean, I'm not, I mean, I'm not going filing another exception, we're gonna have a dual language program. I just have to find a way to convince somebody to trust me to implement the dual language program. Um, I actually brought in a consultant and contracted with a consultant to even help me convince them to do a dual language, that didn't work. So I'm like, "Ah, let's think of something else." (laughs).

Participant 2 viewed the operational concerns as legitimate challenges that hindered progress in her program's development. Participant 2 shared that they were able to present data to show that there was a need to help address ELs that were newly arrived in the United States, newcomers. She and her team advocated for this population of students and they were able to pilot a program to help address the specific needs of that small population. This is a similar approach that would be needed to expand the EL instructional program offerings of her district. It would take TEA not approving their ESL Waiver and Bilingual Exceptions, that have been filed consecutively since 2009, for the district to shift.

I, think bottom line is they'd [the district] have to, "Okay, we have to offer this." They would have to reach out to ISDs to see, like "How, how do you run this program?"...So funning a bilingual program and [district redacted] wouldn't wanna just throw anything together. We would, we would have to choose the...for me, I think it's the 50/50 model [two-way dual language].

Participant 4 also identified a desire for the district to look at other ways of addressing the needs of ELs. While acknowledging the real impact that the operational challenges had upon the district, he also acknowledged that there was a way to overcome that challenge by gradually building the program.

If there were a way to overcome that somehow, um, and put that into place, I think the, the fear is that when you look at every, every campus and every school in the organization, um, and of course you don't have to have every kinder, first, second, third, fourth, fifth teacher, uh, bilingual certified, but if you start with one and move your way up and at least have a bilingual component in there somewhere so that over time you could look at the data and say, "Wow." You know, I think over time they would find

ways to reallocate, uh, funding or get more funding or ask for more grants, uh, because I think the data would speak volumes.

When I probed about this fear that he mentioned, Participant 4 identified several sources for it. For a campus-level administrator and for the Program Director, it would require individuals willing to take on that challenge. This willingness is a challenge in and of itself because for an organization that is data driven, seeing growth does not happen overnight. Participant 4 acknowledged that those individuals would need to be informed that it would be a long-term plan before seeing some of that growth. He also identified that the district was a bit contradictory when it came to looking at research-based initiatives. He could share the well-established effectiveness data from various studies, but stated that his district would want to

see results after, you know, a year or a semester (laughs). And I think that's the problem that we're facing is that, um, we don't have our own data and data, you know, [district redacted] likes its own data...you know, not other people's data.

Which is why he believes starting a pilot at one small campus and looking beyond the immediate data would be necessary. He questions why the district hasn't taken "bigger and bolder" steps to address the issue.

Participant 5 shared his experiences in two different charter schools. One district, which has been described earlier in this chapter, had a strong alignment to the personal language ideology of Participant 5. The other charter that he had experience working in had some degree of alignment. This district offered the International Baccalaureate program, which he acknowledged had some comparable positioning to asset-based approaches to language and also identified that there was a component to the program that considered every teacher as a language teacher that also included the ideas that "multilingual students, that uh, those linguistic identities should be honored, valued, and utilized as part of the program." And it's from this perspective, asset-based approach that has been tied to social emotional learning (SEL) and diversity, equity,

and inclusion (DEI) work, that Participant 5 has seen small steps in improving the programs and professional development offered by the district.

I feel like I've noticed in the last two years and this last year, particularly, you know, just the attending, uh, you know, some professional development opportunities and just following, you know, uh, people, um, involved in this field, I feel like that asset-based approach has really taken off, um, amongst the educators at least. Um, I'm not so sure that that has taken a grip in the...what would you call them? The institutions of education, um, in the sense that I don't think it has totally, uh, I don't think it has fully, or um, affected change on how English language programs are offered and run, but I do feel like there are definite steps.

Participant 5 shared that when the district wants to pivot, it can and has if they find value in it.

When SEL and DEI initiatives arose in recent years, Participant 5 noticed a "huge shift" when it was made a "network priority."

Part of that is their linguistic identity, and you would hope, you know that would be part of that diversity, inclusion and equity work, which is another big...It's kind of related to the SEL, um, with some overlap, but that's another big project that we've been involved in and no expense, or resource, or time, or commitment has been spared. And, you know, and, uh, we have hired people at very high levels to do these things...

Participant 5 also made a comment that acknowledged the secondary effects that SEL and DEI work has on his ELs, but also went on to note that he saw these programs as having more value to the district than improving the EL instructional programs offered and not "just meeting the basic requirements." He continued, "Do I think the same energy could be directed towards ESL if somebody wanted it? Yes, I do." With programs such as the International Baccalaureate, once it became a priority, everyone was expected to be "all in" regardless of "whether we were ready or not." Unlike the "all in" approach, he acknowledged that he was a practical person and would not like to see the program be turned "upside down tomorrow, but I definitely think that we could look at offering a bilingual pro-, pilot program on a campus and see how it goes."

Conflicting Language Ideologies

Unlike the first two subthemes in language ideology alignment and misalignment, a few

participants did share themes that were conflicting language ideologies between their personal language ideologies and that of the charter school. The remarks shared by the participants may have been subtle and others were less so. Some may have been out of lack of knowledge and yet others were said with a complete disregard to program statutory requirements.

Participant 2 remarked that her district held a belief that all of its students could succeed, but questioned whether they believed that about the program, “I know they believe every kid can succeed. I don’t know that their actions show that they want ESL to be as successful as possible.” This comment stems from the belief that leaders in superior roles do not seem to hire individuals who are strong advocates for the program and for the students it serves. Participant 2 shared that over her 11 years in the district she had seen seven other program leaders take lead over the program and not one had stayed in the organization, not one held the background or the credentials that she felt indicated a commitment to the program. She wondered if there was an unspoken understanding that if you wanted the option [of bilingual education] as a parent, you would go to the local ISD since a charter school is a choice.

Participant 2 wondered if this is also unspoken messaging from the TEA, “So maybe the state is saying, “Yes, you don’t have a bilingual program. But if that parent wants their child to participate in a bilingual program, they do have a home district they could attend.” She continued:

So, it’s kind of TEA at this point. (laughs) I think one of the – one of the rationales, I think we sort of break it down into is that like, we’ll look at our scores. Our students are, with the exception of this year, our students are gaining the knowledge they should be gaining. We are making the scores we should be making. Maybe it’s okay that they don’t have a bilingual program right now because the students aren’t struggling. They’re doing what they need to do to get done, to make sure the students are learning. Um, that’s just, maybe that’s just my personal view of like, ‘cause how can we file every single year and then get approved every single year?

In essence, she questioned whether the organization that should be protecting these students and

ensuring that they have the programs that have been legally established is turning the blind eye and rationalizing a lack of program accountability if the students are measuring up academically.

She implied that it should not be the only measure of success

I don't know what the plan is for ESL at the network level. I mean, I know it's to get our kids to pass their STAAR and EOCs, right? 'Cause that's all we care about, just you know, tongue in cheek...

Participant 4 also shared examples of conflicting language ideologies, only that her examples were a bit more obvious. Her language ideology included a significant emphasis on the idea of linguistic and cultural identity and an asset-based perspective to her EL students. She shared an example of the approach that some senior leaders took to what she considered to be a valuable asset of the student.

And I happened to go to, uh, a conference with one of my leaders and we were sitting doing a round table with a group and she was asked or told them how, how we individualize their instruction based on their language needs, and she was like, "Well, we take away their language now, but we give it back to them in high school when they take Spanish." And, and I'm like sitting here wanting to crawl under the table because the shock and every person's face on that round table, I was like, "Oh Lord, oh Lord. Oh Lord." You know. And I was like, especially because I'm one of the people on our round table with someone from TEA and I was like, "Oh my God, you know, I can't believe she just said this," because literally that's what it was. Yeah. We're not giving them Spanish and they have to learn... como a fuerza [Spanish for "by force"] they're forcing them to learn the language...

Participant 4 shared that collaborating with other leaders in the organization is similar. The belief that the organization should only work with the English language because "that's the data we really need" is a deficit-based approach that does not bring any value to the individual and seeks only the outcome in the data and that they see speaking English as superior.

Charters are a, a beast of, of their own, you know, they, I know they mean well, and they have a lot of things that are good in a charter, but I think in terms of that piece [question was regarding valuing of language and culture], it's not the same. They don't value it. They don't see it the same way because at the end of the day, their existence, I feel is the end product. You know, what, what are those numbers looking like on the state test at the

very end? And that's what they're targeting. That's what they're striving for. Um, and I sometimes feel that it's at the expense of everything else.

Summary of Chapter 4

In Chapter 4, I presented the data that was collected and analyzed using the constant comparative method. I presented the themes based on the coded data generated by the participants in the study. The summarized themes and subthemes were identified and described.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of instructional leaders about the instructional language programs that their charter school districts offer for ELs. This chapter includes a discussion on major findings related to the literature on language ideologies, Texas charter school history charter schools. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the limitations of the study, areas for future research, and a brief summary.

This chapter contains discussions and conclusions to help answer the research questions:

7. What EL instructional program do charter schools offer to serve the linguistic needs of English learners?
8. What were the factors determining the selection of a language program?
9. What are the perceptions of charter school instructional leaders about these programs?

In addition, the chapter includes a discussion about future research possibilities.

The theory of how English learner instructional language programs are implemented in Texas charter schools involves a variety of factors. The three themes that impacted the decisions that these leaders make in directing their district's programs: (a) additive vs. subtractive perspectives; (b) programming decisions and its challenges; and (c) systemic language ideologies. Some factors that influenced decisions were operational in nature, others were philosophical, but some were factors that were influenced by the relationship between both. All three of these themes, along with their respective subthemes, impacted the decisions made for the selection of EL instructional programs at Texas charters.

Each participant shared their perspectives working as a bilingual/ESL director or similar role in Texas charter schools. Their perspectives have been shaped by their personal experiences, their reaction to the programs that have been implemented by their districts before they were

hired, and their knowledge about the various allowable EL instructional programs in Texas. In addition, districts that they represented were diverse in size, with some being small and independent, and others being state-wide or even national organizations. Despite these differences, each of the three themes were significant in the discussions around factors and decisions of instructional leaders in implementing a particular EL instructional program. Each theme is described in the following sections.

Additive vs. Subtractive Perspectives

A theme that emerged from the data collected from the participants was the difference between programs that were additive vs. subtractive. According to Collier and Thomas (1999; 2007) and Thomas and Collier (2001), programs were regarded as either *Remedial* or *Enrichment*, refer to Table 7. The authors further stated that the linguistic emphasis and the sociocultural emphasis of the programs were additive or subtractive in nature. In Table 9, participants shared that they all offered ESL program models and two participants shared that they operated bilingual education models, Participant 4's district operated a transitional early exit model of bilingual education and Participant 6's district operated a two-way dual language immersion model of bilingual education. All participants also acknowledged having filed the ESL waiver and bilingual exception for their respective districts.

Linguistically Additive

In clear support for the concept of multilingualism, participants shared a common belief in additive programs that stressed a linguistic emphasis to add to students' existing knowledge bases. They held a desire to see students become bilingual and biliterate students "at no cost to their home language" (Hamayan et al., 2013, p. 11). Flores and Rosa (2015) stated that the assumptions that are implied by subtractive models is that "students must lose the linguistic

practices with which they were raised in order to acquire proficiency in Standard English” (p. 153). Two-way dual language programs, in particular, where the program they desired to implement. There is a considerable amount of research that demonstrates additive bilingual programs, such as one-way and two-way dual language programs, are associated with better academic performance as well as proficiency in both the native and target languages (Alanís & Rodríguez, 2008; Baude et al., 2020; Betts & Tang, 2008, 2011; Collier & Thomas, 2017; Genesee, 2015; Genesee & Lindholm-Leary, 2013; Genesee et al., 2009; Lindholm-Leary & Genesee, 2010, 2014; Robledo Motecel & Cortez, 2002). Collier and Thomas (2012) state:

In every longitudinal study we have conducted throughout all regions of the United States, we have found that all groups benefit in this powerful inclusion model – with time, the achievement gap is fully closed for ELLs, African Americans, students of multicultural heritages, and students of low socioeconomic background. (p. 166)

Collier and Thomas (2017) identify that based “on 42,317 longitudinal records of ELs who started school with no English,” only dual-language programs providing schooling to students in L1 and L2 “eventually close all of the achievement gap in L2 (p. 204). A two-way dual language program does not only benefit ELs, but also non-ELs as well, including those who come from low socioeconomic backgrounds or might otherwise be at-risk for academic difficulties (Collier & Thomas, 1997, 2012; Genesee, 2015; Mwaniki, Arias, & Wiley, 2017).

Dual language programs (whether one-way or two-way) would also help address possible overrepresentation of ELs in SpEd. Participant 4 shared that concern and students whose first language development is discontinued before the age of 12 can possibly experience negative cognitive effects in second language development that can then cause referrals for SpEd (Collier & Thomas, 2012). According to Collier and Thomas (2012) “could eliminate a lot of referrals to special education if U.S. schools understood this point!” (p. 160). This uninterrupted time to develop L1 aligns itself with the first predictor of academic success for ELs:

The first predictor of long-term school success is cognitively complex on-grade-level academic instruction through students' first language for as long as possible (at least through Grade 5 or 6) and cognitively complex on-grade-level academic instruction through the second language (English) for part of the school day... The second predictor of long-term school success is the use of current approaches to teaching the academic curriculum through two languages... The third predictor is a transformed sociocultural context for language minority students' schooling. (Thomas & Collier, 1997, pp. 15-16)

Socioculturally Additive

Howard et. al (2018) state that "an environment that facilitates learning requires equity among all groups; that is, all participants are treated with justice and fairness" (p. 11).

DeMatthews and Izquierdo (2019) share that often Latinx students can be viewed as un-educable because of their backgrounds. There are underlying ideologies that promote cultural and linguistic assimilation, but when a school system can create a supportive sociocultural environment, student achievement is usually associated with it (Thomas & Collier, 1997). In a two-way dual language class, as students participate and create a community in an environment that is nurturing and supportive the learning environment can help ELs and Non-ELs achieve. The use of L2 for ELs validates their identities and recognizes "students are far more than test scores and deserve to be valued for who they are and what they bring to the classroom each day (DeMatthews & Izquierdo, 2019, p. 5). According to Howard et. al (2018), knowing and addressing the linguistic needs is one component of creating equity. In a dual language program model, it is important to ensure that the integration of students' cultural values.

L2 academic proficiency is the goal of the ESL (pullout and content-based) and bilingual early exit programs that all participants (excluding Participant 6) provide. Referencing Table 7 Table 9, the linguistic emphasis is L2 academic proficiency and a partial L1 proficiency for Participant 4's bilingual early exit model. The research shows that these programs are the least effective in closing the achievement gap in L2 and, at best, have some sociocultural emphasis in

both C1 & C2. Participant 6 shared that they had implemented a two-way dual language model. Not only is there high cognitive emphasis in both L1 and L2, there is a goal of developing both L1 and L2 to academic proficiency. The sociocultural emphasis encourages strong C1 and C2, and not a replacement of C1. The research shows that the achievement gap is closed by the end of the program (so long as it is sustained). Collier and Thomas (2012) found that when students “in well-implemented dual language programs have elevated self-esteem, attend school more regularly, have a lower dropout rate than all other programs for ELLs, and achieve high rates of completion of a university degree” (p. 168).

Programming Decisions and its Challenges

Participants also discussed various factors that were influential in determining the selection of EL language programs. Some of these factors were operational in nature, but others were philosophical.

Figure 7

Interconnectedness of the Programming Decisions and Its Challenges Theme



The theme of *Programming Decisions and its Challenges* had three subthemes that the participants found to be operational factors: (1) organizational challenges; (2) staffing challenges; and (3) financial challenges. These three subthemes did not operate in isolation, but rather were interconnected as shown in Figure 7.

Organizational Challenges

Participants shared similar experiences with systemic obstacles that came from having charter schools. These systemic obstacles created subsequent challenges in other areas. The literature emphasizes that charter schools possess the flexibility to hire uncertified teachers, but participants shared concerns regarding the experience and the knowledge that campus and district leaders possessed.

TEA (2020f) outlines the requirements to become a principal in Texas: (1) hold a master's degree from an accredited university; (2) hold a valid classroom teaching certificate; (3) have two years of creditable teaching as a classroom teacher; (4) successfully complete an approved principal educator preparation program; and (5) successfully complete the required exam. It should be noted that none of the participants referred their campus leaders as "principal," but rather used titles such as directors", "deans", "headmaster/headmistress", etc., In the review of literature, the only references to principal and superintendent requirements for charter schools was found in the application itself. A question in the Generation 26 FAQ asks: "What are the certification and educational requirements for superintendents and teachers?" The response provided is "Superintendents and principals of open-enrollment charter schools are not required to meet certification standards applicable to their traditional ISD counterparts" (TEA, 2021g). Participants commented that they wondered if campus and district leadership knew the

statutory requirements that govern the bilingual/ESL programs, which for many preparation programs would be covered in courses around governance or legal aspects of education.

Staffing Challenges

Teacher attrition rates highlighted a major challenge by charter school. On average, two-thirds (67.9%) of the teaching staff at charter schools are in their first five-years of teaching and it also shows that nearly a third of all teachers (28.8%) leave each year (TASB, 2020 TEA, 2021i). Participants shared that often, a teacher would not have their certification, much less their bilingual or ESL endorsements, but that their districts would often support them in attaining them.

It should be noted that while the turnover rates are higher in charter schools, it does not necessarily indicate that student achievement is impacted. Naslund and Panomariov (2019) found that the “turnover itself cannot and does not have a positive effect on student achievement, per our results turnover is somewhat less harmful to student achievement in charter school organizations” (p. 18). The ability to fire underperforming teachers is a flexibility not easily practiced at traditional school districts. The impact that this flexibility does have, coupled with voluntary turnover, where teachers choose to leave for other opportunities or financial incentives, creates an environment where the Bilingual/ESL Directors are constantly working to ensure that ELs have the appropriately certified teachers made available to them. From a programming perspective, this would clearly influence the ability to fill a staffing model that would lead to additive bilingual programs that the participants shared they desired.

During my data collection, Participant 7 shared that her district had a bilingual model, but when the leader left, the program phased out and that many parents also pulled their students at that time due to the program not being offered. This story reinforces my previous comments

about understanding the community and how to best address their needs and to understand what they value. It also helps shed light to the importance of proper staffing, beginning with the leadership of the campus and the organization. Howard et al. reference this scenario, “If a program relies on one person for leadership, even the most successful program can collapse if that leader is drawn away” (Howard, et al., 2018, p. 12). When you add the turnover rates in Texas charter school staff, as shared in Table 6, the importance of having multiple leaders and stakeholders invested and advocating for the program is essential.

A question in the Generation 26 FAQ asks: “What are the certification and educational requirements for superintendents and teachers?” The response provided is “Superintendents and principals of open-enrollment charter schools are not required to meet certification standards applicable to their traditional ISD counterparts” (TEA, 2021g). The requirements for traditional school district principals and superintendents include required master’s degree, two years experience in the classroom for a principal, a required principal certification or equivalent for the superintendency certification, approved preparation program, amongst others (TEA, 2020f). Charter school districts do not require any of those. Staffing concerns and challenges were discussed in all of the interviews. The flexibility with certain policies and regulations as well as the reduced oversight were initially created to promote innovation. Hanushek et al. (2007) mentioned that while it was “appealing as an institutional device to encourage innovation, charter schools are frequently started by people with relatively little experience at either developing new enterprises or running schools” (p. 824). Participants shared that this flexibility created a situation where many have been fighting an uphill battle with just being “in compliance.”

Before discussing my recommendations later in the chapter, it is important for me to make the following statement. A campus or district leader is not automatically an effective leader

just because they possess a principal or superintendent certification. This is also true for teachers. Possessing a bilingual and/or ESL certification does not equate to effective teaching practices. The certifications do not guarantee that the holder of the certification will apply the knowledge and understanding that their certification suggests. So previous partnerships mentioned such as the Embassy of Spain teachers or Confucius Institutes teachers could be more knowledgeable and effective than certified teachers.

I do not recommend changing this requirement, but I do recommend that school leaders be trained and develop a background in second language acquisition, instructional methodologies tied to ELs, and Texas statutory requirements. Again, all seven participants' districts had continued to apply for the bilingual exception and ESL waiver. Participant 3 shared that his leadership gave provided him with a great degree of flexibility to attend trainings from his local education service provider, which is a great beginning. But I would submit that it would be a greater impact to the campus and the district if in-service trainings were held by an effective leader who had the background and, just as important, where the trainings were aligned to the goals and vision of the program.

The teacher aspect mentioned in the staffing subtheme is a significant challenge. Howard et al. (2018), referencing Kennedy (2013) state “this shortage is one of both quantity of appropriately trained and credentialed teachers and quality of the teachers” (p. 91). The authors continue:

According to Kennedy (2013), dual language programs need a two-pronged approach to recruitment of bilingual staff: (1) a clearly articulated and implemented recruiting plan that relies on a variety of sources (e.g., international recruits, partnerships with local colleges and universities, grow-your-own programs, high school dual language student pipeline projects) and (2) a recruiting process that is conducted through a collaboration of school leadership staff and district administration staff (human resources) to ensure that appropriate strategies for outreach, screening, and incentivizing (e.g., bilingual teacher stipends) are utilized. (Howard, et al., 2018, p. 91)

As previously mentioned, establishing a clear recruitment plan using various sources such as the Embassy of Spain, Confucius Institutes, and other international programs can help provide potential teacher candidates. I acknowledge that some of these teachers would not, initially, have the required certifications and that the bilingual exception and ESL waivers would still need to be filed. The critical component is maintaining a mindset that a program could still be implemented and developed, regardless of certification status. This is opposed to the mindset that says a program cannot be implemented, so a bilingual exception and ESL waiver will be filed.

The partnership with local colleges and universities is an avenue that I believe has not been tapped nearly enough. None of the participants shared this possibility, but establishing a teacher training program could help charter school districts with some of the financial challenges that were shared previously, by providing internships for university students. Not only would the experiences benefit the students, but it would allow the charter school districts to bring in potential staff to a campus that would begin to learn the “[insert charter school district] way” and to internalize the mission, vision, goals, philosophies, and, hopefully, newly defined and aligned asset-based ideologies. Developing this pipeline could also help mitigate the turnover rate that plagues charter school districts.

Lastly, just like the campus leader, the importance of having someone with the knowledge and background to properly lead the program is important. Participants shared significant concerns with the former individuals in a role that they already believed was less of a program manager and more of a people manager. Castellano et al. (2002) state that principals are “agents of change”, but unfortunately, the individuals leading these programs have not shared similar experiences. The data indicated that program directors had very little impact on the development of the program itself and most of the decision-making they exercised dealt with the

day-to-day compliance, instructional support, curriculum support, etc. Participants shared that programs could be further developed if program directors were hired with certain standards such as hiring individuals with the education and certification background showing experience and advocacy work for ELs. Several participants shared comments that experienced educators from traditional school districts would be more likely to be agents of change than those internal hires.

Additionally, several participants shared comments relating Bilingual/ESL departments to Special Education departments. Participant 2 shared significant concerns with the charter school districts previous hiring practices. As previously mentioned, she shared that over her 11 years in the district she had seen seven other program leaders, not one held the background or the credentials that she felt indicated a commitment to the program or a willingness to advocate for the program. In a follow-up to her initial interview, she shared that hiring practices for the leader of the SpEd program was different. These individuals had a strong background in special education and special education law, with some former directors holding doctorates. Like her, I wonder if there is an unspoken desire by some districts, those who do not share asset-based language ideologies, to purposely hire individuals that would not promote bilingual education.

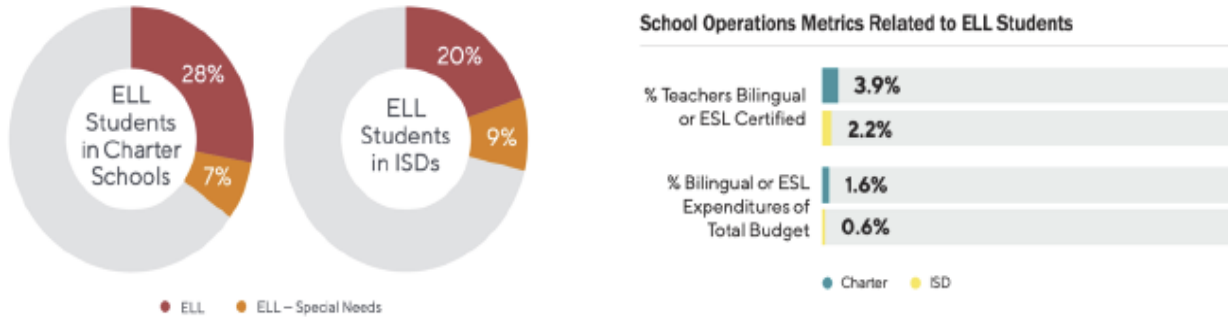
Financial Challenges

However, once they did have them, many would leave for higher compensation or simply because they had credentials that were highly sought after.

Table 7 also showed that the average teacher salary in charter schools was \$52,601 compared to \$57,351, which amounts to a difference of \$4,750. The Texas Public Charter Schools Association (TPCSA) states that school operations expenditures on bilingual and ESL programs in charter schools are three times that of traditional public schools and employ almost double the percentage of teachers with bilingual and ESL certification (Mattison, 2021).

Figure 8

Texas Public Charter School Metrics per TPCSA



Note: From *English language learners fly higher in Texas public charter schools* in Mattinson, 2021, pg. 5.

Inexperienced school leaders may not have a working knowledge of second language acquisition, but many are well attuned to the workings of school finance. The topic of program participation funding was not discussed in the interviews. I wonder whether program directors and other district leaders are aware of the funding weights based on Bilingual/ESL Funding Codes. Students generate ADA funding based on the program they are enrolled in. Table 12 shows how two-way dual language program programs generate significantly more funds than ESL, transitional bilingual, or alternative language programs.

Table 12

Bilingual Education Allotment (BEA) Funds Based on Program Participation

EB/EL Indicator Code	Bilingual/ESL Funding Code	Funding Weight
EB/EL	BE (ESL, Transitional Bilingual, or Alternative Language Program)	0.10
EB/EL	D1 (Dual Language One-Way)	0.15
EB/EL	D2 (Dual Language Two-Way)	0.15
Non-EB/Non-EL or Reclassified English Proficient (EP)	N/A (ESL, Transitional Bilingual, Alternative Language Program, or Dual Language One-Way)	0.00
Non-EB/Non-EL or Reclassified English Proficient (EP)	D2 (Dual Language Two-Way)	0.05

Note: Adapted from Texas Education Agency (2021d). BEA = bilingual education allotment; EB = emergent bilingual; EL – English learner.

Per Table 12, in a two-way dual language classroom with 20 students, 10 ELs would generate 0.15 BEA, and 10 Non-ELs participating in the program would also generate funds at 0.05 BEA. Had this been a classroom with a push-in ESL model, only 10 ELs would generate funds at 0.10 BEA. The BEA generated by the two-way dual language program classroom would be twice that of the ESL push-in model.

Going back to the planning stages and what potential charter school candidates submit to TEA, proper understanding of the demographics and projected enrollment can help schools make better informed decisions. Having a clear understanding of how funding could work can help make the case for pursuing two-way dual language programs rather than a program that is essentially an afterthought. Intentionality and purpose can go into truly making the best decision for students, rather than the perception that, for most, districts the EL program is an afterthought and simply something that needs to be taken care of and be “in compliance.”

Systemic Language Ideologies

Participants shared their perceptions about the programs offered by their districts and the programs that they hoped to implement in the future. The participants were all hired *after* the programs were chosen and implemented. This coincides to what Wiley and García (2016) call *de facto* planners which are “key individuals in state educational agencies, schools, or universities who help shape or influence the interpretation, implementation, or resourcing of educational language policies” and (p. 50). This reality turned out to be a significant factor in the participants’ abilities to direct their programs. The results of this study found that not only are there operational factors that influenced the decisions, but there were also philosophical factors. Regardless of which combination of factors were present, it appears that the program directors themselves had little to no impact on shifting the instructional language program at the

organizational level. The interviews ultimately prompted the participants to think about how their beliefs about language and ELs impacted their decisions related to the EL instructional programs they oversaw. Participants shared their past experiences both inside and outside of their educational careers and how those experiences shaped and informed their language ideology.

A common trend that the participants shared, at varying degrees, was the idea that ELs came to their programs with something of value. That could be their native language or languages, their cultural or ethnic identities, and even their economic or political experiences and backgrounds. Throughout the interviews and discussions, the participants shared that their job was to find ways to add to that background and not to replace it. This perspective aligns with what Wiley (1996) referenced when he discussed additive and subtractive bilingualism. While the participants noted that there was a tremendous amount of longitudinal data to support the cognitive benefits of bilingualism, a shift had occurred to include a perspective in subtractive bilingualism that included the “enrichment or loss of minority language, culture, and ethnolinguistic identity at a societal level” (Wiley, 1996, p. 156). This cognitive shift is where I identified the theme of systemic language ideologies and resonate it with what Woolard (1998) identified as that ideologies can be used as apparatuses in acquiring or maintaining power and dominating the subordinate group, ELs in this case.

In addition, I identified systemic language ideologies as factors that the participants noted influenced EL instructional program decisions and implementation. The theme of systemic language ideologies had three subthemes that the participants found to be factors in the selection of EL instructional programs: (1) language ideology alignment; (2) language ideology misalignment; and (3) conflicting language ideologies. These systemic language ideologies, found in Table 13 were dependent on other individual’s perceptions and beliefs and may have

manifested themselves as the organizational set of beliefs depending on the individuals and the time and place in which the conversations took place.

Table 13

Participant, Charter, and Language Ideology Alignments

ID	Current Program(s) Implemented	Add or Subt	Personal Ideology	Desired Program	Add or Subt	District Leader Perception	Ideological Alignment
1	ESL pull out	Subt	Asset-based	Two-way DL	Add	Deficit-based	Misaligned
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ESL pull out ESL content based 	Subt	Asset-based	Two-way DL	Add	Deficit-based	Conflicting
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ESL pull out ESL content based 	Subt	Asset-based	Two-way DL	Add	Deficit-based	Misaligned Conflicting
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ESL pull out ESL content based Early exit transitional bilingual education program 	Subt	Asset-based	Two-way DL	Add	Deficit-based	Misaligned
5	Two-way dual language	Add	Asset-based	Two-way DL	Add	Asset-based	Aligned
6	Two-way dual language	Add	Asset-based	Two-way DL	Add	Asset-based	Aligned
7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ESL pull out ESL content based 	Add	Asset-based	Two-way DL	Add	Asset-based	Aligned

Note. Add = additive, Subt = subtractive.

Participants shared their experiences working at various charter organizations that they either led or had been a part of along with how they believed the systemic language ideologies influenced their abilities to shift the direction of the programs they supported. Some systemic ideologies were well established prior to them joining an organization and may have been strongly aligned to the mission of the organization or the charter application itself. Examples of these are Participant 5 and 6’s experiences working at charter schools where the EL language program was directly impacted by district leaders who had a strong background of second language acquisition and development.

Language Ideology Alignment

The charter schools that had a two-way dual language program had those programs because there was intentionality in a decision to offer the program, not just to ELs, but to all of its students. Participants 5 and 6 had been hired after the charter school had been founded and after the EL language program had been decided. These *de facto* planners, Wiley and García (2016, p. 50) refer to them as, had the intentionality of the desire to promote multilingualism ideologies, with one of the districts offering not only Spanish two-way dual language programs, but also implementing an enrichment Mandarin Chinese program. Although they continue to struggle with certifications and file the bilingual exception, the leaders of that program still have confidence in the program model itself.

Kenji Hakuta presented a simple, yet very effective analogy regarding asset-based philosophies for ELs. He stated:

If you were in the Christmas tree business and you found some land on which pine saplings were already growing, would you (a) bulldoze the area and plant new saplings or (b) take care of the land and cultivate the samplings? You would choose (b) unless the existing saplings were not of value to you or got in the way of commercial productivity. (Hakuta, 2011, p. 172)

Ideology Misalignment

Participants 1, 3, 4 and 7 shared that school districts were responding positively towards culturally responsive teaching practices and diversity, equity, and inclusion philosophies. While these practices were happening superficially, ELs continue to be looked at from a deficit-based perspective and some charters act as if learning English will help save ELs from their environments and the situations they find themselves in.

Participants shared that these districts allow them to attend professional development session around EL best practices, especially as they align to other district priorities such as DEI

or equity work, but at the same time the districts hold onto what Wiley and García (2016) call *expediency-oriented* or *tolerance-oriented implicit* policies. The attitude that the districts are saying is, “help ELs learn English is the goal, and if using a little bit of the native-language helps us accomplish that then we’re on board, so long as we remember English is what will ultimately help them.” While the data suggests that school leaders are seen as having good intentions, the actions they make and the actions they avoid indicate otherwise. Unless school leaders embrace the research, identify the opportunity to impact not only ELs, but potentially all students, and choose to be an advocate, I believe that movement towards additive bilingual education programs in Texas charter schools will not happen.

Misalignment of language policies also extended beyond the charter schools. Participants 2, 5, and 7 also indicated that there were conflicting messages by TEA. Although the change from *English learner* to *emergent bilingual*, was a step looked upon favorably by the participants, as was the improved funding formulas promoting dual language instructional programs, they also believed it was a long way to go from correcting the implied policies sent by TEA when they keep approving bilingual exceptions and ESL waivers for years, sometimes more than a decade. The interpreted message, as Participant 2 put it, was that if students were making academic progress, then maybe having a bilingual program was not necessary.

Conflicting Language Ideologies

The deficit view of bilingualism and biliteracy can be seen in the history of language and schooling in the United States and in Texas. Hakuta (2011) points that although we live in an “increasingly global society, and in a nation that is linguistically and culturally diverse,” we as a society “admire the bilingualism of the diplomat but not the multilingualism of the cab driver” (p. 172). There is an elitist mentality to that approach, a valuing of biliteracy only when the

individual was, initially, a white monolingual. Participant 3 made the connection that other countries such as Canada had different attitudes towards language.

In Canada, you know, there are strictly English-speaking parts of Canada that have French immersion schools. You know, and they're in places where there are no French speakers, but the parents value bilingual education enough because I guess bilingualism is kind of part of Canada's identity.

Wiley and Lukes (1996) reference this notion when they discuss the history of the term *limited English proficient* (LEP). The term initially referred to “oral abilities in English, but in 1978 it was expanded to include reading and writing” (Wiley & Lukes, 1996, p. 519). As the definition changed, the term reflected a deficit-based attitude in that it only addressed what the students lacked, English proficiency, rather than acknowledging the potential assets that the students possessed, as in Participant 3's example above. The term “renders abilities in other languages invisible” (Wiley & Lukes, 1996, p. 519). Participant 3 also made references to Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, a position that Kay and Kempton (1984), referencing Brown (1976) that states that structural differences between languages “strongly influences or determines the world-view he will acquire as he learns the language (p. 66).

Participant 2, identified some tacit policies when she shared the turnover experienced by leaders of the bilingual/ESL program she was a part of. In 11 years in the district she had seen seven other program leaders take lead over the program and not one had stayed in the organization, not one held the background or the credentials that she felt indicated a commitment to the program. She wondered if there was an unspoken understanding that if a parent wanted bilingual education, then as a school of choice, you could choose to leave and go elsewhere. She remarked that she felt as though her senior leaders wanted students to succeed, but she felt as though their actions indicated that they did not want the ESL program to be successful. These districts also operated *tolerance-oriented implicit* policies in trying to ensure that students were

successful, but not to the degree of validating or promoting their native languages (Wiley & García, 2016).

Participant 4 also shared examples of conflicting language ideologies. The district leader in her interview provided *explicit* and *repressive* language ideologies *explicit* and *repressive* language ideologies *explicit* and *repressive* language ideologies and promoted a monolingual position that was in clear conflict with the participant's position (Wiley & García, 2016). The school leader stated, "Well, we take away their language now, but we give it back to them in high school when they take Spanish." Participant 4 shared that the position was that they were forcing the students to learn English and in doing so they stripped their identity, culture, and language from the students.

Generation 27 Open-Enrollment Charter Application

Each year, TEA requests applications from eligible entities to operate open-enrollment charter schools. The 2021-2022 cohort application is called the Generation 27 Open-Enrollment Charter Application (Texas Education Agency, 2021h). A major component of the charter school application is the executive summary. In this section, potential candidates provide a description of the proposed school plan. It covers the following information:

- (1) proposed community; (2) educational philosophy of the applicant team and an explanation of how that philosophy aligns with the school's mission, key design elements, and innovative design; (3) capacity of the proposed board and superintendent to successfully open and operate a high-quality charter school; and (4) an explanation of how the model will effectively serve students in the proposed community. (TEA, 2021h, p. 2)

The Generation 27 application also requests applicants to provide the anticipated demographic percentages for their proposed campus based on the data of surrounding districts as reported on the TEA Texas Academic Performance Reports (TAPR). This requested data looks at race/ethnicity figures, as well as at-risk indicators including the EL indicator. The purpose is

to encourage the applicants to reflect and carefully analyze the communities in which the campus will be placed in order to project Year 1 funds if the application is approved. Additionally, the Generation 27 Application also includes a Special Populations: English Learners section under School Design. In this section, the applicants project staffing for EL staff including bilingual/ESL teachers and support staff, a description of the methods for appropriately identifying and placing ELs in the appropriate instructional setting, a description of the anticipated program (bilingual or content-based ESL), and the monitoring and evaluating of EL progress.

The most senior stakeholders of the charter school district are involved in the creation of this application. In some cases, the campus principal has already been identified and is also involved. The applicants craft a mission (or fundamental purpose of the school) as well as a vision (what the school will achieve over the long term).

Implications for Theory and Research

Chapter 2 included descriptions of two prevalent language ideologies: monolingual ideologies and bilingualism/multilingualism. The theory of how English learner instructional language program implementation decisions fit with these language ideologies is discussed in the following sections.

Monolingualism Ideology

Monolingualism is embedded in the history of education in the United States and in Texas. Various ethnic communities have come into contact and for those in positions of power, helping those who are non-English speaking groups assimilate to American society was necessary. Wiley (2000) stated that the languages themselves are not in competition, but that the speakers of those languages were the real competition. Spring (2016) identified and gave

multiple examples of how the educational system can be utilized to deculturalize peoples who are not in the dominant role of society. The same continues to be seen, especially in light of the previous presidential administration. Under the Trump Administration, the English-only ideology gained much traction within and outside education. What became implicit and tolerance-oriented policies, became more explicit and at times promotion-oriented policies. President Trump believed in the need to have individuals assimilate in the United States and speak English. Wiley (2000) identify *racialization*, *linguicism*, and *monoculturalism* as components that can be utilized to promote a dominant culture over others.

This was evident to varying degrees in this study. More than half of the participants discussed implicit and sometimes explicit policies towards the use of native languages in their schools. Sometimes these came from the teachers themselves, who were encouraged by their campus leaders to repress the use of Spanish in the classroom. It was evident in the district leader who explicitly stated that they would “take away” their language, but give it back to them once English proficiency was attained, or once they were in high school, whichever came first. These students were often viewed from a deficit-based perspective, as “un-educable because of racist and classist perceptions” (DeMatthews & Izquierdo, 2019, p. 8).

Monolingual policies and the instructional programs that align to them (those that promote L2 proficiency over L1) have shown to be the least effective in closing the achievement gap. Parra et al (2014) has also identified that monolingual programs, such as Structured English Immersion (SEI) programs in Arizona have “subjected Spanish speaking ELL students to conditions of abuse within the school setting” (Parra et al., 2014, p. 50). The authors continued and identified the following manifestations: (a) “intense emotional distress”, (b) “development of a sense of hopelessness and helplessness”, (c) “intense emotional discomfort”, (d) “sense of lack

of control”, (e) “an impaired sense of self”, (f) “internalization of self-adjudicated blame” (Parra et al., 2014, p. 51). Research also shows that loss of native language is often associated with lower attainment in L2, academic underachievement, and psychosocial disorders, such as the ones previously listed (Hammer, Lawrence, & Miccio, 2008; Howard, et al., 2018; Lindholm-Leary, 2014; Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, 2006; Montrul, 2016; Parra, Evans, Fletcher, & Combs, 2014).

Texas does not have a written monolingual program such as the SEI program in Arizona, but I have concluded that when EL instructional language programs are not intentionally implemented, the implicit, explicit, and tacit policies of de facto planners, administrators, and teachers have results that are too dissimilar. Participants shared that their district leaders have explicitly stated and have acted on a perceived desire to promote diversity, equity, and inclusion along with ensuring that students’ identities are reinforced. Choosing any other instructional language program before promoting dual language enrichment programs would challenge that perception.

Bilingualism/Multilingualism Ideology

Dual language programs are the only EL instructional program that is an enrichment program model. It is additive, it values the assets that students bring with them, it values C1 and C2, and it of course leads to linguistic proficiency in L1 and L2. With proper program implementation, the environment promotes equity, and if it is a two-way dual language program, it promotes equity among all groups. And as has been mentioned in the literature, it is associated with academic achievement and closing the achievement gap. It is with this lens that the theory of how English learner instructional language programs should be implemented in Texas charter schools is identified. This theory and its recommendations are discussed in the next section.

Recommendations and Implications

The following recommendations for practice in Texas charter schools may allow for increased levels of ideological alignment between the Bilingual/ESL Directors and the charter school district they support. Participants in the study shared that a common challenge is ensuring that the district is *in compliance* rather than making an impact on the student achievement or instructional components of the programs they have and the programs they wished for. It is clear that participants believed that there is an underlying assimilationist and deficit-based perspective and attitudes that many superior charter school leaders have. What is not clear is whether that is genuinely due to a lack of knowledge and experience or if it is with a genuine belief in ensuring that these students assimilate as quickly as possible in order to “increase” student achievement. The recommendations I make are aligned to the guiding principles shared by Howard et al. (2018). In the following sections, I go through my recommendations and correlate them to the strands and principles listed in Table 14. The approach I take in giving my recommendations is to be chronological, which I believe will help charter school district leaders see potential next steps in how they support their ELs in light of the various influential factors participants shared and the overarching themes the study produced. I share my recommendations based upon starting a new charter although a similar approach would be followed if an existing charter would open a new campus.

Table 14

Guiding Principles of Dual Language Education and Study Findings Alignment

Key	
T1	Additive/Asset-based vs Reductive/Deficit-based Perspectives
T2	Programming Decisions and Its Challenges
T2A	Programming Decisions and Its Challenges: Organizational Challenges
T2B	Programming Decisions and Its Challenges: Staffing Challenges
T2C	Programming Decisions and Its Challenges: Financial Challenges
T3	Systemic Language Ideologies
T3A	Systemic Language Ideologies: Language Ideology Alignment
T3B	Systemic Language Ideologies: Language Ideology Misalignment
T3C	Systemic Language Ideologies: Conflicting Language Ideologies

Guiding Principles of Dual Language Education		Recommendation Thematic Alignment
Strand 1: PROGRAM STRUCTURE		
Principle 1	All aspects of the program work together to achieve the three core goals of dual language education: grade-level academic achievement, bilingualism and biliteracy, and sociocultural competence.	T1, T2 & T3
Principle 2	The program ensures equity for all groups.	T1, T2 & T3
Principle 3	The program has strong, effective, and knowledgeable leadership.	T2B
Principle 4	An effective process is in place for continual program-planning, implementation, and evaluation.	T2A & T2C
Strand 2: CURRICULUM		
Principle 1	The program has a process for developing and revising a high-quality curriculum.	Beyond Scope

(table continues)

Guiding Principles of Dual Language Education		Recommendation Thematic Alignment
Principle 2	The curriculum is standards-based and promotes attainment of the three core goals of dual language education.	Beyond Scope
Principle 3	The curriculum effectively integrates technology to deepen and enhance learning.	Beyond Scope
Strand 3: INSTRUCTION		
Principle 1	Instructional methods are derived from research-based principles of dual language education and ensure fidelity to the model.	T2A & T2B
Principle 2	Instructional strategies support the attainment of the three core goals of dual language education.	Beyond Scope
Principle 3	Instruction is student-centered.	Beyond Scope
Principle 4	Instructional staff effectively integrate technology to deepen and enhance the learning process.	Beyond Scope
Strand 4: ASSESSMENT & ACCOUNTABILITY		
Principle 1	The program creates and maintains an infrastructure that supports an assessment and accountability process.	Beyond Scope
Principle 2	Student assessment is aligned with program goals and with state content and language standards, and the results are used to guide and inform instruction.	Beyond Scope
Principle 3	Using multiple measures in both languages of instruction, the program collects and analyzes a variety of data that are used for program accountability, program evaluation, and program improvement.	Beyond Scope
Principle 4	Student progress toward program goals and state achievement objectives is systematically measured and reported.	Beyond Scope
Principle 5	The program communicates with appropriate stakeholders about program outcomes.	T1, T2, T3
Strand 5: STAFF QUALITY & PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT		
Principle 1	The program recruits and retains high-quality dual language staff.	T2B & T2C
Principle 2	The program provides high-quality professional development that is tailored to the needs of dual language educators and support staff.	T2A & T2B

(table continues)

Guiding Principles of Dual Language Education		Recommendation Thematic Alignment
Principle 3	The program collaborates with other groups and institutions to ensure staff quality.	T1, T2, T3
Strand 6: FAMILY & COMMUNITY		
Principle 1	The program has a responsive infrastructure for positive, active, and ongoing relations with students' families and the community.	T1, T2 & T3
Principle 2	The program promotes family and community engagement and advocacy through outreach activities and support services that are aligned with the three core goals of dual language education.	T1
Principle 3	The program views and involves families and community members as strategic partners.	T1, T2 & T3
Strand 7: SUPPORT & RESOURCES		
Principle 1	The program is supported by all key stakeholders.	T1, T2 & T3
Principle 2	The program is equitably and adequately funded to meet program goals.	T2C
Principle 3	The program advocates for support.	T1, T2 & T3

Note: Adapted from Howard et al. (2018, p. 148)

- The first recommendation is *to understand the mission*. The purpose of this study was not to engage in the argument of whether traditional public schools are better than charter schools. The purpose of this study was to analyze the perspectives of school leaders in their selection of special language programs in Texas charter schools. Through this study, I found that in the majority of cases, instructional language program decisions were made as an afterthought. If the mission is to “ensure equal educational opportunity” to ELs then it is not only a student achievement and language proficiency issue, but it also becomes an equity and justice issue.

- The second recommendation is *to bring in the stakeholders*. The charter application process for TEA involves a robust look at the surrounding districts and enrollment trends and projections. The application encourages the stakeholders that complete the document to plan accordingly and to establish a mission and vision for the school. With the exception of the charter schools that have maintained dual language programs in place, the perception this part of the planning process lacked individual(s) that were knowledgeable about the various instructional language programs, much less informed advocates. The planning period can also encourage participation from community stakeholders, which involves several of the guiding principles mentioned above. The primary purpose of EL instructional programs is to effectively serve students in ensuring that they have an opportunity to master grade-level academic content and to develop their English language proficiency. Charter schools were established to provide a choice for parents and students beyond their traditional school district. Providing parents and the communities that the schools serve a choice of instructional programming should also be possible.

- The third recommendation is *to establish a clear commitment to a program*. Before moving continuing, a memo kept reoccurring during the interviews and that was of *incorrect*

assumption regarding exception and waiver. This memo was related to the perception that the participants implied that their goal was to not have to submit those documents and that if they accomplished that task, that would mean the program would finally be where it needed to be. The challenge is there is the potential to have a robust program and still have to submit the bilingual exception and/or ESL waiver. Your district may have a two-way dual language program in one language, but student enrollment may require another language as well, or you may have highly qualified teachers, but they be lacking the appropriate certification. In either case, establishing a clear commitment to a program is needed for a program to exist.

While it may seem like a simple comment, one of the most important contributions of this study is that for five out of seven participants the implementation of EL instructional programs lacked a program vision. The results of the study indicate that very little progress towards programs is made when the decisions to have the program were not established from the foundation of the school. Strand 1 in Howard et. al (2018) is focused on this foundational step...establishing the program structure. The authors stated that effective school practices conclusively demonstrated that high-quality programs had a “cohesive school-wide shared vision; a set of goals that define their expectations for achievement; and an instructional focus and commitment to achievement and high expectations that are shared by students, parents, teachers, and administrators” (2018, p. 10). Serving emergent bilinguals with high quality programs is a social justice and equity issue. A dual language program is not only linguistically additive, but it is also socioculturally additive. A dual language program promotes biliteracy, academic achievement and sociocultural competence not just for ELs, but for all students in the case of two-way dual language programs.

- The fourth recommendation for charter school instructional leaders is to *go all-in*.

Participants presented examples of how their districts went *all-in* for other initiatives and programs, I shared EL enrollment trends in charter schools and public schools, the projected population trends for the State of Texas, the potential funding opportunities that exist for dual language programs (especially two-way dual language programs), and the various ways that dual language programs help promote an equitable program where students of linguistic, cultural, and socioeconomic diversity can thrive. So it is reasonable to think that with proper planning and an understanding of the issues raised, that charter schools could find ways to mitigate the challenges raised by the status quo and move forward. This is only possible if there is a willingness to move forward.

Going *all-in* involves continuous planning and reflection. Utilize the data that was used for the charter school application. Stakeholders must be aware of the funding opportunities and be able to apply those funding projections to plan for the number of teachers, the appropriate campus leaders and support staff. Just as important, the district can use those funding formulas and be creative from a compensation standpoint as well. The turnover rate at charter schools is a significant challenge that requires further research. At the district-level, establishing talent pipelines through partnerships such as the Embassy of Spain, Confucius Institute, or teacher preparation programs at colleges and universities could help create a pathway to maintain and expand the instructional program.

- My final recommendation is to be patient. Howard et. al (2018) stated that duration of the program was a significant factor in establishing a program structure. The growth will not happen overnight, but dual language programs are the programs that will close the achievement gap ((Collier & Thomas, 1999, 2007; Thomas & Collier, 2001). Having a community of knowledgeable advocates will help the program endure and help people recognize that dual

language programs are a longterm approach not just for the academic achievement component, but for also for social justice and equity.

Impact on the Field of Bilingual Education

EL instructional program alignment to the language ideology of the organization is critical in ensuring that intentional planning and program implementation takes place. The results of this study showed that, with a few exceptions, Bilingual/ESL Directors do not actually have the ability to direct the program. The study also demonstrated that language ideologies are strongly embedded in the history of Texas and the history of individual charter school districts. Because of this, intentionality in deciding which program to implement is critical. Howard et al. state:

Planning in effective schools includes a district-wide plan that provides a clear description of the dual language program model and components, at least for K-6 planning and ideally including a preK-12 pathway. This pathway should be developed prior to implementation. (2018, p. 13)

If charter school districts and their leaders looked at this phenomenon objectively, the solution to many of the themes identified in this study can be solved with proper planning. This is the case with existing programs as well. While some of the recommendations could be addressed easier pre-implementation, it is never too late to pause and ask yourself if there is a plan for this program? What are the goals?

That is if there is a willingness by those who can influence these decisions. These language ideologies, exist beyond the program leader and charter district, to the Texas Education Agency as well.

Implications for Further Research

The charter school phenomenon has created a series of complex challenges that are not

simple to overcome. The results of this study highlight how alignment between language ideologies and instructional models are critical in implementing an intentional program. This study presents the perspectives that instructional leaders have in their decision-making around EL instructional programs for ELs. Participants were able to share their perspectives and their language ideologies in the hopes of shedding light to common challenges they faced in trying to implement their programs and the programs they desired to be implemented. The most notable contribution to the research around EL instructional programs for ELs and charter schools is that the actual decision-making abilities are not held by the individuals hired to guide the program. The study identified organizational language ideologies that impacted those decisions, some of which were underlying and unspoken. The hiring of the instructional leaders itself is a way that the organizational language ideologies impact the program development.

Language ideologies of parents and students are issues that emerged from the study as possible future research topics. Charter schools were established to provide options to parents for their students. As parents become more adept and savvy in researching school options, learning what the parents hold as valuable can help better inform districts of where they should prioritize their resources and efforts. Additionally, looking at current and past EL students, with a particular emphasis on those who have graduated and are several years removed from the school would help provide additional layers of perspectives regarding their own language ideologies and whether or not they changed.

Final Thoughts

Instructional leaders overseeing bilingual and/or ESL programs in Texas charter schools are charged with creating an environment where all students, including ELs, are able to meaningfully participate in the educational program. Charter schools share that mission when it

comes to teaching ELs, but for many charter school operators *teaching* English equates to *removing what is not English*.

This study provided opportunities for current or former Directors of Bilingual/ESL, or their equivalents, in Texas charter schools to share what their language ideology was and how it aligned with their districts' language ideologies. The participant interviews allowed dialogue around the topic and provided the latitude for the participant to share what they believed were the most significant topics related to their personal beliefs about language and ELs.

Through the discussions held with the seven participants in this study, a hopeful optimism was present that encouraged those involved to continue leading their programs towards additive and asset-based philosophies around language. In order to ensure that charter school instructional leaders are equitably serving their EL students, dual language programs should be implemented to ensure true equity. Following these steps: 1) Understand the mission; 2) bring in the stakeholders; 3) establish a clear commitment to a program; 4) go all-in, and 5) be patient are steps to begin the process.

APPENDIX A
INTERVIEW GUIDE

Adapted from Charmaz (2014).

Initial Open-ended Questions

1. Tell me about how you came to work in this organization and in this role?
2. What contributed to _____?
3. How would you describe the work that you do?
4. Who if anyone else is involved? How are they involved?
5. Could you describe a typical day for you?

Intermediate Questions

1. What, if anything, did you know about _____?
2. Could you tell me about your thoughts and feelings when you learned about _____?
3. What happened next?
4. Who, if anyone was involved? When was that? How were they involved?
5. If you recall, could you tell me about how you learned to handle _____?
6. What positive changes have occurred in _____ since _____?
7. What negative changes have occurred in _____ since _____?
8. Tell me how you go about _____. What do you do?
9. As you look back on _____, are there any other events that stand out in your mind? Could you describe [each one] it? How did this event affect what happened? How did you respond to _____ [the event; the resulting situations]?
10. Where do you see _____ in two years [five years, ten years, as appropriate]?

Ending Questions

1. After having these experiences, what advice would you give to someone who has just discovered that he or she _____?
2. Could you tell me how your views may have changed since you have _____?

3. Is there something that you might not have thought about before that occurred to you during this interview?
4. Is there something else you think I should know to understand _____ better?
5. Is there anything you would like to ask me?

Program-Specific Questions

1. Could you tell me about the mission of your charter organization?
2. What impact do you believe your charter organization has made towards that mission?
3. How do English Learners contribute towards that impact?
4. Describe the enrollment process for your district/schools?
5. How do you identify English Learners?
6. What systems exist for addressing student academic concerns?

APPENDIX B

INITIAL EMAIL COMMUNICATION ASKING FOR PARTICIPATION IN STUDY

Dear [Charter School Leader],

My name is Jesús Navarrete, and I am a doctoral candidate in Curriculum and Instruction at the University of North Texas. As part of my dissertation research, I am currently recruiting Directors of Bilingual/ESL, or their equivalent, to participate in my research study. In order to participate, the individual and district must meet the following criteria:

- Participants are Directors of Bilingual/ESL, or their equivalent, in Texas charter school districts or organizations.
- The charter district or organization must have an EL population.
- The charter district or organization must have primary and secondary schools.

The purpose of this study is to analyze the perspectives of school leaders in their selection of special language programs in Texas charter schools. The data collected will provide insights to better understand the types of special language provided, the factors that influence their decisions in implementing those programs, and to discover what leaders see as next steps in how they support their English Learner population.

Participants will be asked to complete a preliminary questionnaire regarding demographic information from the participant, preliminary information about the program(s) provided by the district, and at which grade levels. This initial survey would require 10 minutes of their time. In addition, the questionnaire will provide the participant with an opportunity to select a date and time for their individual interview. This interview will be recorded for accuracy and take approximately 60 minutes of their time. In total, I anticipate their involvement lasting no longer than 90 minutes. A second in-person interview may be requested if additional information is needed or existing information requires clarification. This additional interview (if necessary) would be between 30 and 45 minutes. Additionally, dependent on the initial interview, additional participants may be sought out to provide further context or information.

Participation in this research study is entirely voluntary. If additional information is needed, Dr. Ricardo González-Carriedo, Associate Professor in the Department of Teacher Education and Administration at the University of North Texas and the chair of my study, can be reached at Ricardo.Gonzalez@unt.edu or [940-565-2514].

I look forward to hearing your response to participate in this study.

Thank you,

Jesús Navarrete
Doctoral Candidate, University of North Texas
Email: Jesus.Navarrete@my.unt.edu –

APPENDIX C

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH TEXAS INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD INFORMED

CONSENT NOTICE

Before agreeing to participate in this research study, it is important that you read and understand the following explanation of the purpose, benefits, and risks of the study and how it will be conducted.

Title of Study: Special Language Programs in Texas Charter Schools: Perspectives of Instructional Leaders in Their Selection of Bilingual/ESL Programs

Investigator: Ricardo González-Carriedo, University of North Texas (UNT) Department of Teacher Education & Administration, Jesús Navarrete, University of North Texas (UNT) Department of Teacher Education & Administration.

Purpose of the Study: You are being asked to participate in a research study which seeks to analyze the perspectives of school leaders in their selection of special language programs in Texas charter schools. The data collected will provide insights to better understand the types of special language provided, the factors that influence their decisions in implementing those programs, and to discover what leaders see as next steps in how they support their English Learner population. The following questions will guide this study:

1. What is your language ideology?
2. What factors influenced the decision of the charter schools to implement a specific language program?
3. What language ideologies influenced the choice of a specific language program?
4. What are the perceptions of charter school leaders regarding the types of language programs allowed by state policy?
5. What do district leaders see as the future of EL instruction within their organization?

Study Procedures: Participants will be asked to complete a preliminary questionnaire regarding demographic information from the participant, preliminary information about the program(s) provided by the district, and at which grade levels. This initial survey would require 10 minutes of your time. In addition, the questionnaire will provide you an opportunity to select a date and time for your individual interview. This interview will be recorded for accuracy and take approximately 60 minutes of your time. In total, I anticipate your involvement lasting no longer than 90 minutes.

Foreseeable Risks: No foreseeable risks are involved in this study.

Benefits to the Subjects or Others: This study will help enhance the understanding of how Texas charter schools are carrying out decisions related to the educational program for English learners. I hope that data collected could help new charter schools make informed decisions on how to implement programs that are academically rigorous and beneficial to ELs. I hope to better understand the practices that Texas charter schools have taken on and hope to help identify and avoid the pitfalls that other charters may face when implementing special language programs.

Compensation for Participants: None.

Procedures for Maintaining Confidentiality of Research Records: Confidentiality of the participants in this study is of the utmost importance. All individuals and their schools will be given new names in order to protect the identity and confidentiality of those participating. In an effort to maintain this level of confidentiality and anonymity, identifying information and the coded transcriptions and thematic categories will be stored in separate locations. The confidentiality of your individual information will be maintained in any publications or presentations regarding this study.

Questions about the Study: If you have any questions about the study, you may contact Jesús Navarrete at [redacted].

Review for the Protection of Participants: This research study has been reviewed and approved by the UNT Institutional Review Board (IRB). The UNT IRB can be contacted at (940) 565-3940 with any questions regarding the rights of research subjects.

Research Participants' Rights:

Your participation in the survey confirms that you have read all of the above and that you agree to all of the following:

- Jesus Navarrete has explained the study to you and you have had an opportunity to contact him/her with any questions about the study. You have been informed of the possible benefits and the potential risks of the study.
- You understand that you do not have to take part in this study, and your refusal to participate or your decision to withdraw will involve no penalty or loss of rights or benefits. The study personnel may choose to stop your participation at any time.
- You understand why the study is being conducted and how it will be performed.
- You understand your rights as a research participant and you voluntarily consent to participate in this study.
- You understand you may print a copy of this form for your records.

I agree to participate in the study.

Printed Name

Signature

Date

APPENDIX D
PRE-INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

Gender: _____

Highest Degree Obtained: _____

Role/Title: _____

How many years have you worked in your current role? _____

How many years have you worked in education? _____

Are you a Texas Certified Teacher?

Yes No

Do you have your bilingual or ESL certification?

Yes No

Have you worked in (circle all answers);

Texas Traditional Public Schools

Texas Charter Schools

Texas Private Schools

Other (specify): _____

Program Information

What type(s) of special language program are offered in your district (select all answers)?

ESL Pullout

ESL (Content-Based)

Early-Exit Bilingual

Late-Exit Bilingual

One-Way Dual-Language

Two-Way Dual Language

Other (specify): _____

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