Summarize her main arguments (or the arguments of the author of the posting) and share your own opinions. Discuss the implications for ELL students.

RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

1. **ELL Student Interview** Interview a current or former ELL. Ask questions to determine the extent to which the student has or has not benefited from the language and education policies in your state.
2. **ELL Teacher Interview** Interview a teacher of ELLs. Ask what impact NCLB has had on his or her classroom and whether the law's focus on standards and high-stakes testing has been beneficial or harmful to the ELLs. If the teacher is in a state with RTTT grants or ESEA Flexibility or that is in the PARCC, Smarter Balanced, WIDA/ASSETTS, or ELPA21 consortia, ask what changes have come as a result, how the teacher feels about the changes, and the impacts so far on the ELLs.
3. **ELL Classroom Observation** To understand how policy gets translated into practice, choose one or more of the policies described in this chapter that is applicable to your state (e.g., NCLB, RTTT, ESEA Flexibility, CCSS, bilingual education requirements or restrictions). With an understanding of the requirements of the policy, observe a classroom of ELLs and determine some of the specific ways the policy affects the classroom structure, teacher instruction, and student learning.
4. **Online Research Activity** Obtain detailed school achievement and accountability data for your own school or for a school with which you are familiar. These can typically be obtained in the form of school report cards available from your state's Department of Education website. Compare the achievement of ELLs with state, consortia, or federal expectations, and with other student groups in the school.

RECOMMENDED READING

Arias, M. B., & Faltis, C. (Eds.). (2012). *Implementing educational language policy in Arizona: Legal, historical, and current practices in SEI*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
This book takes a critical look at Arizona's Proposition 203 and the implementation of its mandated sheltered English immersion model. Leading experts in the field provide historical, legal, policy, and pedagogical analyses, revealing the harm of Arizona's policies and the need for changes to better address the needs of ELLs.

Hamayan, E., & Field, R. F. (Eds.). (2012). *English language learners at school: A guide for administrators* (2nd ed.). Philadelphia: Caslon.
Over 80 questions from teachers and administrators are answered by more than 70 ELL experts, who provide clear, concise, practical responses that can be applied in schools.

Menken, K., & García, O. (2010). *Negotiating language policies in schools: Educators as policymakers.* New York: Routledge.
National and state language and education policies are put into practice by classroom teachers who interpret, negotiate, resist, and (re)create these policies in different ways, and thus also become policymakers. This book provides examples from the United States and countries around the world of educators negotiating policies within their local contexts.

FIVE

Program Models for English Language Learners

There is no equality of treatment merely by providing students with the same facilities, textbooks, teachers, and curriculum; for students who do not understand English are effectively foreclosed from any meaningful education.—**Lau v. Nichols**

KEY TERMS

- bilingual immersion programs
- developmental bilingual education (DBE)
- dual language programs
- English as a second language (ESL)
- English language development (ELD)
- heritage language programs
- heteroglossic perspective
- home language instruction
- monoglossic perspective
- newcomer program
- primary language support (PLS)
- pull-in ESL
- pull-out ESL
- sheltered English immersion (SEI)
- sheltered instruction
- Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP)
- specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE)
- submersion
- transitional bilingual education (TBE)

GUIDING QUESTIONS

1. What are the essential components of any instructional program for ELLs?
2. What is the difference between English as a second language and sheltered instruction?
3. What are the pros and cons of each of the English-medium and bilingual education program models that we find in the field today?
4. How can educators determine what type of program is appropriate for their context?

Language and education policies for ELLs are realized at the district, school, and classroom levels through a variety of instructional programs. As we saw earlier, federal policy holds states accountable for the academic achievement and English language proficiency development of ELLs and grants each state the flexibility to identify what program models are eligible for funding. Educators who work with ELLs determine what instructional programs are appropriate for their school. Their decisions must be based on a consideration of federal and state policies, research, and the characteristics, strengths, needs, and desires of their students and community.

We begin this chapter with a discussion of the essential components of ELL programs: English as a second language, content-area instruction taught in the home language or through sheltered English instruction, and primary language support. We then discuss the differences between English as a second language and sheltered English content-area instruction, and the relationship between English as a second language and English language arts. Finally, we take a close look at the different program models for ELLs, looking first at bilingual models and then at English-medium models.

These various models demonstrate there is no one-size-fits-all program appropriate for all ELLs in all schools. But as research related to each model shows, strong forms of bilingual education provide ELLs with the best opportunities to draw on all of their

linguistic resources while learning challenging academic content and also enable students to develop high levels of proficiency and literacy in both English and their home languages. Different types of teachers (e.g., mainstream, English as a second language, bilingual) play different roles, according to the program type, as they collaborate to ensure the success of their ELLs.

Essential Components of Instructional Programs for English Language Learners

All effective instructional programs for ELLs have three essential components: English as a second language instruction, content-area instruction, and primary language support. Table 5.1 highlights each of these components with their various options.

English as a Second Language

English language instruction for students who have been identified as ELLs is called **English as a second language (ESL)**. Some states use the term *English for speakers of other languages (ESOL)*, and others use *English as a new language (ENL)* or *English as an additional language (EAL)*. Because there are many students for whom English is a third, fourth, or even higher-number language, these may be more accurate labels. In California and other states, and in the states and territories that belong to the World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA) state consortium, ESL is frequently referred to as **English language development (ELD)**. Since these terms are essentially synonymous, for the sake of simplicity, we use the more common term, *ESL*, from here on. The purpose of ESL instruction is to enable ELLs to develop their proficiency in English by mastering the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing to the extent that they are able to use the English language appropriately and effectively for authentic communicative purposes and to achieve academic success in English-language mainstream classrooms.

ESL is a separate content area, just like math, science, social studies, and language arts. It has its own set of standards, as mandated by Title III of the No Child Left Behind Act. In many states, these are called ELD standards, while in others they are called English language proficiency (ELP) standards or simply ESL standards. ESL also has its own set of curricular materials and must have its own separate time slot within the daily teaching schedule.

TABLE 5.1 Essential Components of Effective Programs for English Language Learners

Standards-Based English as a Second Language		Standards-Based Content-Area Instruction		Primary Language Support
Pull-Out English as a Second Language	In-Class English as a Second Language	Home Language Instruction	Sheltered Instruction	
A teacher trained and certified to work with ELLs pulls students out of the regular classroom for ESL instruction.	The classroom teacher is trained and certified to work with ELLs and provides ESL instruction within the classroom.	One or more content areas are taught in students' home languages.	One or more content areas are taught in English using sheltered instruction strategies and techniques.	The classroom teacher employs a variety of strategies and techniques involving the effective use of students' home languages to increase their comprehension of English during ESL and sheltered-content instruction.

Many schools that provide daily ESL instruction for ELLs typically do so only for students at the beginning stages of English proficiency and stop once the students reach the intermediate level. This approach is a mistake based on the false assumption that the students no longer need ESL because they can develop fluency in English through content-area instruction. Data collected for the state of California show that beginning-level ELLs move up to the intermediate levels within 2 to 3 years, but then most get stuck at the intermediate and advanced levels, often for several years (American Institutes for Research & WestEd, 2006; Hill, 2006). These studies reveal that ELLs at the intermediate and advanced levels need high-quality ESL instruction to reach the "fluent" level.

ESL instruction at the intermediate and advanced levels should provide more emphasis on increasing vocabulary and developing skills in advanced literacy. Many teachers report that ELLs at these higher levels have good listening and speaking skills (often described as "native-like") and sound fluent when they read text aloud. The problem is often that ELLs do not fully comprehend what they read because they lack higher-level vocabulary, knowledge of more complex sentence structures, understanding of the ways language use differs for social and academic purposes across various content areas (e.g., the language of English language arts differs from the language of mathematics), understanding of the more subtle uses of languages, and enough background knowledge to understand cultural references in the text. These same issues can lead to difficulties for students when writing in English. ESL at the intermediate and advanced levels focuses on these areas. ESL instruction is usually delivered in one of two ways—through a pull-out program or in class by the classroom teacher.

Content-Area Instruction

Comprehensible content-area instruction is the second essential component of every program for ELLs. The most effective way to make content comprehensible to ELLs is to teach it in the students' home languages. When home language instruction is not possible, teachers use sheltered English instruction.

Home Language Content-Area Instruction

Learning new concepts and skills can be challenging, and it's even harder in a language you do not know or do not know very well. Students learn best in the language they understand best. Thus, providing ELLs with content-area instruction in their home language while they are learning English as a new language helps to ensure that they will learn complex academic content and master grade-level content standards. It also ensures that they won't fall further behind their English proficient peers in those academic subjects (Wiley, 2005).

The same principle applies to home language literacy instruction. It is much easier for students to learn to read and write in the language they know best. Students need to learn how to read only once. Many of the skills students develop when they are learning how to read and write in their home language easily transfer to English. This ease of transfer is true for all written languages, even those that do not use the same script (letters, alphabet) as English, such as Chinese (Pu, 2008) and Khmer (Zehler & Sapru, 2008). **Home language instruction** is the distinguishing feature of the bilingual education models described in this chapter.

Effective content-area instruction in ELLs' home language requires a certified bilingual teacher who is fully proficient in that language and English. It also requires appropriate curricular materials in the students' home language. Home language content-area

instruction follows the content standards established for native English speakers, with the exception that some states, such as Texas and the states and territories in the WIDA Consortium, have adopted separate Spanish language arts standards aligned with state English language arts standards. Spanish language arts standards reflect unique aspects of listening, speaking, reading, and writing instruction in Spanish. New York has created Home Language Arts Progressions (standards) for teachers providing language arts instructions in a variety of languages spoken by ELLs (EngageNY, 2013). WIDA has also developed broader Spanish language development standards that parallel the ELD standards for use in programs where students receive content-area instruction in Spanish.

Typically, the amount of home language instruction is gradually reduced as students learn more English.

Sheltered Instruction

Sheltered instruction refers to grade-level content-area instruction that is provided in English but in a manner that makes it comprehensible to ELLs while promoting their English language development (Echevarria & Graves, 2011). The word *sheltered* is a metaphor for simplifying the language without watering down the content, while protecting ELLs from language demands that may be beyond their comprehension. In California, sheltered instruction is called **specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE)**, and this term is now commonly used in other states.

I prefer the term *SDAIE* because it emphasizes that the instruction is different from regular instruction in English but it is on grade level and appropriately challenging. *SDAIE* has a positive connotation, suggesting that ELLs can and will learn academic content in English if the instruction is specially designed for them. But because *sheltered instruction* is widely used and recognized, I use that term from here on.

The **Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP)** model offers guidance to teachers who use sheltered instruction by helping them systematically plan, teach, observe, and evaluate effective instruction for ELLs (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2013). The model was developed in the late 1990s by Echevarria, Vogt, and Short, who recognized the importance of sheltered English instruction but were concerned that teachers lacked a clear understanding of how to provide it consistently and effectively. The SIOP model identifies eight key components of effective sheltered instruction: *preparation, building background, comprehensible input, strategies, interaction, practice and application, lesson delivery,* and *review and assessment.* Thirty items are organized into these eight components. The SIOP model is field-tested, and there is some research evidence of its validity and reliability as an observation protocol, as well as its effectiveness as a pedagogical approach (Echevarria, Short, & Powers, 2006; Short, Fidelman, & Louguit, 2012).

The items under *preparation* include having clear language and content-area objectives, appropriate content concepts, and plans for introducing meaningful activities and using supplementary materials. *Building background* items include building on students' prior knowledge and teaching key vocabulary. *Comprehensible input* items include providing clear explanations of academic tasks and teachers' adjusting their speech (vocabulary, pace, sentence complexity, etc.) to an appropriate level for their students. *Strategies* include using scaffolding, promoting higher order thinking skills, and teaching learning strategies. *Interaction* items include using wait time effectively, grouping students, and using primary language support to maximize students' ability to interact with the teacher and each other. *Practice and application* items include hands-on, cooperative learning activities that integrate the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and allow students to apply their content and language knowledge. *Lesson delivery* items

include meeting stated language and content-area objectives, pacing the lesson appropriately, and ensuring that students are engaged in the lesson. The *review and assessment* items include reviewing vocabulary and key concepts, providing feedback, and conducting assessments of students' learning.

The SIOP model has become very popular, and school districts are encouraging their teachers and administrators to receive SIOP training through professional development workshops. Research has shown, however, that SIOP training alone is insufficient to prepare teachers to work effectively with ELLs (McIntyre, Kyle, Chen, Munoz, & Beldon, 2010). Professional development in second language teaching, learning, and assessment, as well as an understanding of the sociocultural, historical, economic, and political factors that can affect students' ELD and academic content learning provide the foundation for effective sheltered instruction in the classroom. Thus, these foundational issues and constructs are emphasized throughout this book and in teacher education programs leading to certification in working with ELLs. Educators also need to understand how sheltered instruction fits into their overall instructional program for ELLs, whether bilingual or English-medium.

A key feature of the SIOP model is its inclusion of language objectives within the context of content-area instruction in English. This feature highlights the fact that content-area teachers—in addition to ESL and bilingual teachers/specialists—also have responsibility for helping ELLs develop their proficiency in English, particularly in the discipline-specific ways language is used in the content areas they teach. For example, the content objectives of a SIOP math lesson plan for teaching long division would include the math standards for long division, as well as language objectives for learning the vocabulary associated with long division and the language needed for talking about and completing long division problems. The language objectives are informed by state/consortia ELD (or ELP) standards. Again, all teachers share in the responsibility of helping ELLs meet these standards. Note, however, that this combination of language objectives with content objectives does not eliminate the need for separate ESL instruction, whether by an ESL teacher/specialist or the classroom teachers themselves. Echevarria, one of the creators of the SIOP model, emphasizes that ELLs need ESL instruction in addition to sheltered instruction (Echevarria & Graves, 2011). Sheltered instruction was designed for ELLs with at least intermediate proficiency and basic literacy skills; but because of a nationwide shortage of bilingual teachers, the scarcity of bilingual programs in languages other than Spanish, and policies in some states that discourage bilingual education, many teachers are faced with the challenge of providing sheltered content instruction to lower-level ELLs before they are really ready for it. Nonetheless, state/consortia ELD (or ELP) standards can help teachers differentiate their content-area instruction with objectives that are appropriate to the students' levels of English. Specific examples appear in later chapters.

Primary Language Support

Primary language support (PLS) involves the brief use of students' home languages during ESL and sheltered English content instruction by the teacher, a paraprofessional, or the students themselves. The purpose of PLS is to make instruction in English as comprehensible as possible for ELLs so they can learn the content and develop greater English proficiency. Teachers do not need to speak the home languages of their students to facilitate their effective use within different program models. Specific examples of PLS appear in later chapters, along with a more detailed discussion.

English as a Second Language and Sheltered Instruction

Educators are often confused about the difference between ESL and sheltered instruction. Many believe they are the same thing. They are not, and it is imperative that educators understand the difference. The focus of ESL is teaching English; the focus of sheltered instruction is teaching academic content (Table 5.2).

To illustrate the difference, let us return to the earlier example of teaching long division. Both the sheltered instruction lesson and the ESL lesson include content and language objectives as the SIOP requires, but the two objectives are weighted differently. The primary instructional and assessment goals of the sheltered instruction lesson involve content. The instructional goal is for ELLs to understand the concept of long division and to be able to solve long division problems on their own. While addressing the same math standards for all students, the math instruction and assessments are differentiated for ELLs in accordance with their ELP level. The teacher teaches the language of math (vocabulary, listening, speaking, reading, writing) so that ELLs can participate and achieve in the content-area instruction, but content learning is the major concern. In other words, with proper language objectives and scaffolding, ELLs can successfully learn long division despite their use of "imperfect" English. In contrast, during the ESL lesson, math may be the topic, but the primary instructional and assessment goals are language. The ESL instruction would focus on helping ELLs learn and use specific math vocabulary correctly and appropriately, verbally explain in English the steps and procedures involved in solving a long division problem, and read and comprehend long division problems. The ESL teacher uses the math lesson as a vehicle to teach language, and language learning is the primary concern. If students are struggling with math concepts and skills, they can learn the language they need in ESL to explain to their math teachers what they do not understand.

The overlap in content and language provide points of collaboration for sheltered instruction and ESL teachers. For example, the sheltered instruction teacher can identify

TABLE 5.2 English as a Second Language Instruction Compared with Sheltered Instruction

	English as a Second Language Instruction	Sheltered Instruction
Definition	Teaching English to students who are not yet proficient in the language	Making content-area instruction comprehensible to ELLs in English while supporting their English language development
Concepts or areas of focus	Listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary, communicative competence	Language arts, math, science, social studies, art, music, physical education, and other content areas
Standards	State (or consortia) English language development/proficiency standards	State (or consortia) content-area standards
Goal	Communicative competence for social and academic purposes	Content-area knowledge and skills
Assessment	State (or consortia) English language proficiency tests Classroom-based formative and summative English language proficiency assessments	State (or consortia) academic achievement tests Classroom-based formative and summative content-area assessments

the ways that reading, writing, listening, and speaking are used for academic purposes in the specific content area, and the ESL teacher can provide more focused ESL instruction in these academic language functions across content areas. If the classroom teacher is responsible for teaching both ESL and the content areas, he or she is in an excellent position to ensure that ESL instruction provides the support needed for the ELLs to be successful in sheltered content lessons.

Again, the inclusion of language objectives alongside content objectives in sheltered instruction is an important and effective way to help students develop proficiency in the discipline-specific uses of English within these content areas. These language objectives are not, however, a substitute for ESL instruction. Language learned in ESL lessons supports student learning in sheltered content instruction and lays the foundation for further language acquisition to take place through the language objectives of the sheltered content lessons. Simply stated, sheltered content instruction *supplements* but does not *supplant* effective, systematic, and direct ESL instruction for ELLs. Effective programs for ELLs include both ESL and sheltered instruction.

English as a Second Language and English Language Arts

The relationship between ESL and English language arts (ELA) can also cause confusion. Providing language arts instruction to ELLs in English is not the same as teaching ESL. Even if language arts instruction is provided using sheltered instruction strategies, it cannot substitute for ESL instruction. Recall that Title III requires states to have ELP standards, and Title I requires states to have language arts standards in addition to standards in other content areas. States with Race to the Top grants or ESEA Flexibility are required to ensure that their ELP standards "correspond" with the Common Core State Standards (or the state's own college and career readiness standards). Thus ELP and ELA content standards are to be aligned but are nonetheless separate. ELA standards and instruction are designed for proficient English-speaking students to refine skills in a language they already know. Few high school English teachers would describe themselves as language specialists. To them, English is a *subject* to be mastered, not a *language* to be learned. Thus, ESL teachers are more like foreign language teachers who teach a language and culture that is new to their students.

ELA instruction in the United States has traditionally focused on teaching reading and writing. Regular classroom teachers have typically spent little time, if any, on oral language skills because native English speakers are already proficient listeners and speakers of the language. The ELA Common Core State Standards, however, are leading to some changes with explicit language standards and listening and speaking standards. These standards are designed to expand the language skills of proficient English speakers. With this raising of the bar, ELLs may be left even further behind unless they are provided with substantial sheltered ELA instruction in addition to extensive ESL instruction.

Unfortunately, some states attempt to combine ELA and ESL instruction. Some textbook companies produce ELA series that include peripheral suggestions in the teachers' guides and supplemental materials for meeting the needs of ELLs. These materials are welcome additions insofar as they help teachers shelter their ELA instruction. But they must not replace direct ESL instruction. A better approach, which other textbook companies have taken, is to provide a comprehensive ESL program combined with a separate but corresponding sheltered ELA programs.

Instructional Programs for English Language Learners

The many different program models currently in use for ELLs can be classified as either bilingual or English-medium. A bilingual program is defined here as any program in which one or more content areas is taught in the students' home languages. In English-medium programs, all content areas are taught in English using sheltered instruction strategies and supplemented with PLS as needed.

One major problem we face in the field of language education is inconsistency in how programs for ELLs are labeled in the literature and in practice (Faulkner-Bond et al., 2012). This brief review of prototypical program models for ELLs uses the following guiding questions to clarify the program labels used here:

1. Who are the target populations?
2. What are the goals of the program?
3. How is the program structured?
4. What does the research say about the effectiveness of the program?

Using consistent terms allows us to compare different program types to determine which are the most effective for ELLs and which are the most appropriate for a particular school and community. As you read through these program models, be aware that in practice they are usually not as neat and tidy as described here because of variations and constraints in local contexts, and the role educators play as policymakers as they interpret, negotiate, and implement policy mandates from above (Menken & García, 2010).

Bilingual Models

The following sections examine five bilingual models commonly found in the field today: transitional bilingual education programs, developmental bilingual education programs, dual language programs, bilingual immersion programs, and heritage language programs.

Transitional Bilingual Education Programs

Transitional bilingual education (TBE) programs, also called early-exit programs, are the most common type of bilingual program in the United States. TBE programs target
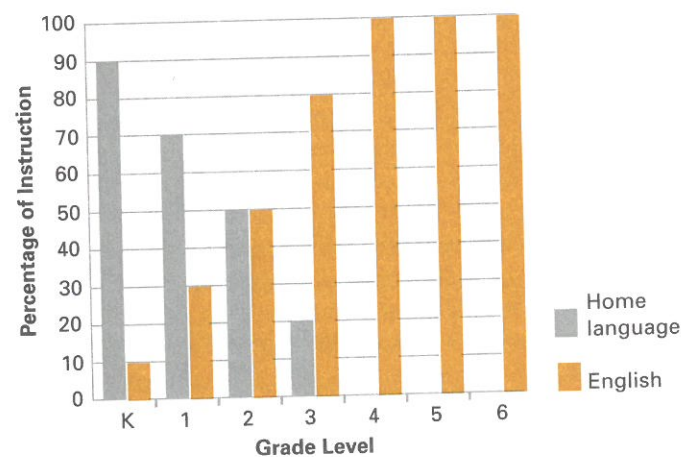
Figure 5.1 Transitional bilingual education model.

TABLE 5.3 Content-Area and English as a Second Language Instruction in Transitional Bilingual Education Programs

	Kindergarten	1st Grade	2nd Grade	3rd Grade
Home language instruction	Language arts, social studies, science, math	Language arts, social studies, science	Language arts, social studies	Language arts
Sheltered instruction	Art, music, physical education	Math, art, music, physical education	Science, math, art, music, physical education	Language arts, social studies, science, math, art, music, physical education
ESL (daily)	30–60 minutes	30–60 minutes	30–60 minutes	30–60 minutes

ELLs who speak the same home language and are most commonly implemented in the primary grades of elementary school. The goal of TBE programs is to transition ELLs to an English-medium classroom as quickly as possible. By providing content-area instruction in the students' home languages, schools can ensure that students do not fall behind academically while they are learning English.

Most TBE programs begin in kindergarten with about 90% of language arts and other content-area instruction taught in the home language and about 10% taught through sheltered English instruction, in addition to daily ESL instruction. Each year the amount of home language instruction is decreased and the amount of sheltered instruction is increased. Students first learn to read and write in their home language, to ensure that they do not fall behind academically while learning English. After 2 to 3 years, the students are transitioned to English language arts instruction, and the following year they are placed in English-medium classrooms (Fig. 5.1). Some weaker versions of this model attempt to transition students to all-English instruction much sooner. Table 5.3 presents a sample of the subjects that a school might offer in kindergarten through 3rd grade, gradually transitioning from mostly home language instruction to mostly sheltered English instruction.

Longitudinal research on the effectiveness of different types of bilingual and English-medium programs demonstrates that TBE programs are more effective than English-medium programs but less effective than other bilingual education models in ensuring that ELLs reach parity with their English-speaking peers by the time they complete the program (Thomas & Collier, 2002; Umansky & Reardon, 2014; Valentino & Reardon, 2014).

Researchers and practitioners have identified the following challenges associated with TBE:

- TBE programs tend to have a "language-as-problem" orientation and thus take a deficit view of ELLs. Also, because the goal of TBE programs is quick transition to English, these programs tend to lead to subtractive bilingualism. Many researchers and practitioners see the TBE model as essentially a remedial program (see, e.g., Crawford, 2004; Gonzalez, Yawkey, & Minaya-Rowe, 2006).
- TBE programs reflect an assumption that ELLs can become proficient in English in 2 to 3 years and thus be ready for all-English instruction in a mainstream classroom. But few students learn a second language fluently that quickly. Thus, many ELLs are pushed into mainstream classrooms before they are ready.
- ELLs in TBE programs may be segregated from the academic mainstream for most or all of their instructional day, making it difficult for them to find opportunities to interact with and learn alongside English proficient peers.

- Many ELLs do not begin school in the United States in kindergarten. They start in the grade level that matches their age at their time of arrival. Since most TBE programs are in the elementary grades, there may not be a TBE program available for many ELLs who would benefit from home language instruction in one or more content areas.

Despite these concerns, TBE programs are the most common because they received the greatest amount of federal support under the Bilingual Education Act. The TBE approach is still much preferred over English-only models. Offering students, particularly young children, an opportunity to develop literacy skills and academic content in their home language while they are developing proficiency in English is much more humane than simply throwing them into an English-only classroom where they may become frustrated and discouraged. Schools with established, effective TBE programs are often able to evolve to one of the stronger models of bilingual education described in the following sections. Box 5.1 provides an overview of the TBE model.

Developmental Bilingual Education Programs

Developmental bilingual education (DBE) is also sometimes called maintenance or late-exit bilingual education. DBE programs are much less common than TBE programs in the United States in large part because of the lack of federal support over the years for this model. Like TBE programs, DBE programs target ELLs who speak the same home

BOX 5.1 English Language Learner Program Profile: Transitional Bilingual Education

|	
Other name	Early-exit bilingual education
Target population	ELLs who speak the same home language
Typical grade span	K–3
Language goals	Learn English as quickly as possible to transition to the academic mainstream
Academic goals	Meet the same grade-level content-area standards as English-fluent peers and enter an English-only mainstream classroom as soon as possible
Culture goals	Acculturation to mainstream school and community; assimilation common
ESL instruction	30–60 minutes a day
Content-area instruction	Initially about 90% in the home language and 10% through sheltered English instruction; home language instruction decreases rapidly as students are quickly transitioned to sheltered instruction as they move up in grade level
Primary language support	Provided during sheltered instruction and ESL instruction as needed
Effectiveness research	Transitional bilingual education programs are more effective than English-only programs but are less effective than other models of bilingual education in ensuring that ELLs achieve parity with their English-speaking peers.
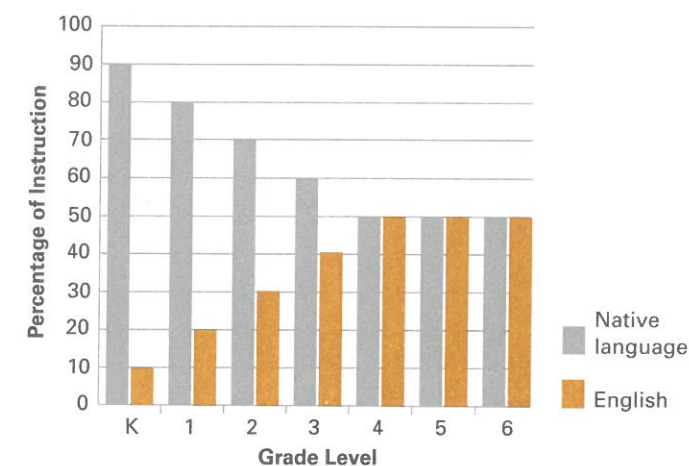
Figure 5.2 Developmental bilingual education model.

language, they are most often found in elementary schools, and they are taught by qualified bilingual teachers. The goals of DBE programs, however, are different. DBE programs aim to help the students develop both English and their home language, so that they become fully bilingual and biliterate, achieving academically through both languages and developing a positive sense of their cultural heritage and ethnolinguistic identities.

Most DBE programs begin in kindergarten and continue through the highest grade level in the school, which might be 5th or 6th grade. Some DBE programs in K–8 schools last through the middle-school grades. As in TBE programs, ELLs initially receive about 90% of their content-area instruction, including initial literacy instruction, in their home language, plus ESL instruction. Sheltered English instruction increases with each grade level until students receive an equal balance of instruction in both languages. Figure 5.2 shows the relationship between the home language and English instruction in DBE programs.

Because of its emphasis on bilingualism and biliteracy, DBE is a much stronger model for ELLs. The home language is viewed as a resource, used for instructional purposes, and further developed even after ELLs have attained sufficient proficiency in English to handle English-medium instruction. Because a DBE program could constitute half or more of a child's education and in such a program students have the opportunity to develop their home language skills to a higher level than in a TBE program, they are much more likely to be proficient bilinguals by the time they graduate from high school. Thomas and Collier's (2002, 2013) longitudinal research shows that ELLs who graduate from well-implemented DBE programs ultimately achieve educational parity with their English-speaking counterparts. Escamilla, Hopewell, and Butvilofsky (2013) provide longitudinal evidence that emergent bilingual learners in well-implemented DBE programs based on their "Literacy Squared" framework outperform ELLs in English-medium classes on standardized academic achievement tests. DBE programs are also empowering to parents who don't speak English because they are able to be much more involved in their child's education, including being able to help their children with their reading and other homework.

Currently, many schools with DBE programs are facing political pressure to push English literacy earlier and faster, particularly in states where high-stakes tests are administered only in English (Wright, 2007). Many school and district administrators worry that if extensive English literacy and content instruction in English is delayed to the later elementary grades, students will not have the English skills necessary to pass

BOX 5.2 English Language Learner Program Profile: Developmental Bilingual Education

Other names	Maintenance bilingual education, late-exit bilingual education
Target population	ELLs who speak the same home language
Typical grade span	K–6
Language goals	Bilingualism and biliteracy
Academic goals	Meet the same grade-level content-area standards as English-fluent peers, be prepared to fulfill societal needs requiring citizens with bilingual skills
Culture goals	Biculturalism
ESL instruction	30–60 minutes a day
Content-area instruction	Initially about 90% in the home language and 10% through sheltered instruction; home language instruction decreases slowly and sheltered instruction increases as students move up in grade level; instruction continues in both languages until the end of the program, even after students attain proficiency in English
Primary language support	Provided during sheltered and ESL instruction as needed
Effectiveness research	ELLs achieve parity with English-speaking peers and become bilingual, biliterate, and bicultural.

the test. This is not a flaw in the DBE models but a flaw in the testing and accountability systems that do not value and fail to accommodate high-quality education programs for ELLs. Box 5.2 provides an overview of the DBE model.

Dual Language Programs

Dual language programs, sometimes called two-way immersion or dual language immersion, are designed for even numbers of English speakers and ELLs from the same language background. For both groups of students, dual language programs aim to develop bilingualism and biliteracy, academic achievement in two languages, and cross-cultural understanding. Dual language programs typically begin in kindergarten (or pre-K) and continue through the elementary school grades, though a growing number of these programs can also be found in middle schools and high schools.

English speakers and ELLs in dual language programs spend most of the day together in the same classroom where they receive content-area instruction in both languages from qualified bilingual teachers. Content-area instruction is taught in sheltered English and in a sheltered version of the other language, such as Spanish, to make instruction comprehensible for the non-native speakers of those languages. Students learn to read and write in both languages, either simultaneously or first in one language and later in the other. Teachers also provide daily ESL instruction for their ELLs, and instruction in the other language for the native English-speaking students (e.g., Spanish as a second language).

The two prototypical dual language models are the 50/50 model and the 90/10 model, referring to the percentage of time allocated to each language for instructional purposes.
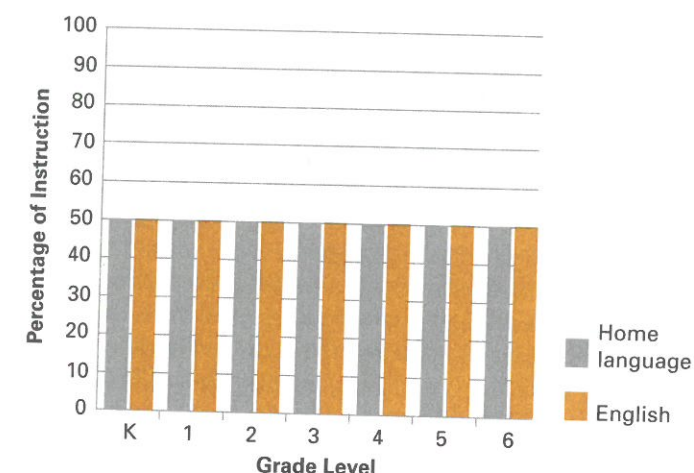
Figure 5.3 Traditional 50/50 dual language model (or two-way immersion).

Thus, in the 50/50 model, 50% of the instruction is in the home language of the ELLs and 50% is in English (Fig. 5.3). In the 90/10 model, 90% of instruction is in the home language of the ELLs for the first few years and 10% is in English. As students move up in grade level, the amount of instruction in each language balances out to 50/50 (Fig. 5.4). Some schools prefer an 80/20 or 70/30 model, which operate on the same principles but include more English at the beginning. For ELLs, the program functions as a developmental bilingual model and for the English speakers, the program functions as a bilingual immersion model (discussed in the next section). The researchers and practitioners who developed the idea of dual language programs advocated a rigid separation of the two languages for instructional purposes. This practice has received more and more criticism, however, because it does not reflect how languages are used in real life, it does not take advantage of the two linguistic systems for social or academic purposes, and it does not affirm students' identities (Sayer, 2008).

Dual language programs vary considerably in the amount of time spent for instruction in each language, which language is used for initial literacy instruction, and which subjects are taught in which languages. Most dual language programs in the United States are for Spanish and English speakers, but there are also programs for speakers of Vietnamese, Russian, French, Mandarin Chinese, Korean, Navajo, Arabic, Japanese,
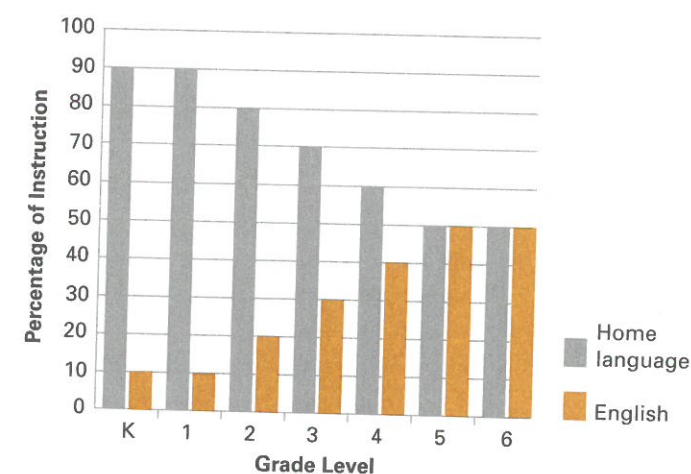
Figure 5.4 90/10 dual language model (or two-way immersion).

Portuguese, and others. The Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) maintains a searchable directory of two-way immersion programs in the United States.

What is exciting about the dual language model is that theoretically it puts the ELLs on an equal footing with the English-speaking students. When instruction is in the non-English language, the English speakers must rely on their ELL peers, just as the ELLs must rely on the English speakers when instruction is in English. The ELLs' home language is viewed as a resource to help them learn English and academic content; it also elevates their home language as a valuable asset that the English speakers also want to acquire. Thus, dual language programs have helped change the view of bilingual education as a remedial program to being viewed as an enrichment program. Comparative longitudinal research demonstrates that dual language programs are the most effective programs for ELLs (Lindholm-Leary & Hernández, 2011; Ramirez, 1992; Thomas & Collier, 2002, 2013; Umansky & Reardon, 2014; Valentino & Reardon, 2014).

Dual language models have grown in popularity with increases in federal support and the growing demand of ELLs' parents and parents of monolingual English speakers who want their children to be bilingual. The CAL directory listed over 420 programs in 31 states and the District of Columbia in 2014. There are likely far more.

Student and community demographics have led to innovative variations in dual language programs. Whereas the original dual language model seeks equal numbers of ELL and native English speakers, in many cases the English speakers are heritage language speakers who have some proficiency in their home language. In other words, a dual language classroom may be made up of all Latino students, half of whom are ELLs and half of whom are proficient English speakers with varying levels of proficiency in Spanish. The Gómez & Gómez Dual Language Enrichment Model is designed for schools in regions where the majority of the students are Latino (e.g., South Texas) and follows a unique 50–50 model that divides language of instruction by content area as well as by time (Gómez, Freeman, & Freeman, 2005). This model does not require an equal distribution of ELLs and English dominant students. It has become very popular in Texas, though some scholars are concerned about the model and its implementation (see, e.g., Palmer, Zuñiga, & Henderson, 2015). Educators who want to develop dual language programs in their school and community contexts need to begin with a clear understanding of their target populations and design their programs accordingly.

Scholars have identified several issues and challenges related to dual language programs in general. Whereas Spanish programs are relatively easy to develop because of the large number of Latino ELLs and the availability of Spanish bilingual teachers and materials, it can be quite difficult to develop programs in other languages where there are fewer students, and teachers and materials are in short supply. Also, while native English speakers may be interested in learning high-demand languages such as Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, and Arabic, there may be little interest for languages such as Somali, Karen, or Haitian Creole.[1] Another major issue is the reality that English is the dominant language of the United States, which makes it very difficult to value both languages equally within a dual language program and school (Palmer & Lynch, 2008). English, and proficient speakers of English, will always be more privileged. Research by de Jong and Howard (2009) shows that dual language educators must carefully address this issue to ensure that ELLs attain the linguistic, academic, and cross-cultural benefits that dual language programs claim to offer. Valdés (1997) notes that dual language educators need to be careful not to address the interests of more vocal middle-class English-speaking

[1] This problem can be overcome in programs that follow the model in which all students are from the same language background, but half are ELLs and half are English dominant.

constituents over less vocal minority constituents in placement or instruction. Valdés also warns that if dual language educators fail to consider language and power relations among target populations (e.g., English speakers and Spanish speakers) at school and in the community, ELLs may be exploited for the language resource that they provide for white English speakers without actually gaining access to equal educational opportunities at school or job opportunities in society.

Despite these challenges, dual language programs have been found to encourage friendships and cross-cultural understanding between English-speaking students and minority-language students, as well as among their families (Kibler, Salerno, & Hardigree, 2013). Perhaps these graduates of dual language programs will be at the forefront of resolving many of the social inequities our past generations have failed to solve. Box 5.3 provides an overview of the dual language program model.

Bilingual Immersion Programs

Bilingual immersion programs in the United States (not to be confused with English immersion), target English-speaking students exclusively. The goals are for English speakers to become bilingual and biliterate, to achieve academically in both languages, and to develop cross-cultural understanding. This model was developed in Canada, where native English speakers are immersed for language and content-area instruction in French, and extensive research demonstrates the effectiveness of these programs (Lyster & Genesee, 2012). In the United States, the bilingual immersion model is commonly implemented with English speakers wishing to learn a high-demand world language, as well as with Hawaiian and Native American students to help them learn their "native" language, which they or their parents may or may not speak at home. Because indigenous

BOX 5.3 English Language Learner Program Profile: Dual Language Programs

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Other names	Two-way immersion, dual language immersion
Target population	ELLs who speak the same home language and English speakers who want to learn the home language of the ELLs
Typical grade span	K–6
Language goals	Bilingualism and biliteracy
Academic goals	Meet grade-level content-area standards, be prepared to fulfill societal needs requiring citizens with bilingual skills
Culture goals	Biculturalism, cross-cultural understanding, cultural pluralism
Content-area instruction	50/50 model: 50% in the home language of ELLs and 50% in English; 90/10 model: initially 90% in the home language of ELLs and 10% in English. Instruction evens out gradually to 50/50 as students move up in grade level
Primary language support	May be provided for ELLs during English instruction or for English speakers during instruction in the home language of the ELLs, though dual language programs make efforts to separate the languages of instruction as much as possible
Effectiveness research	English speakers and ELLs reach or exceed grade-level expectations and become bilingual and biliterate with strong cross-cultural communication skills.
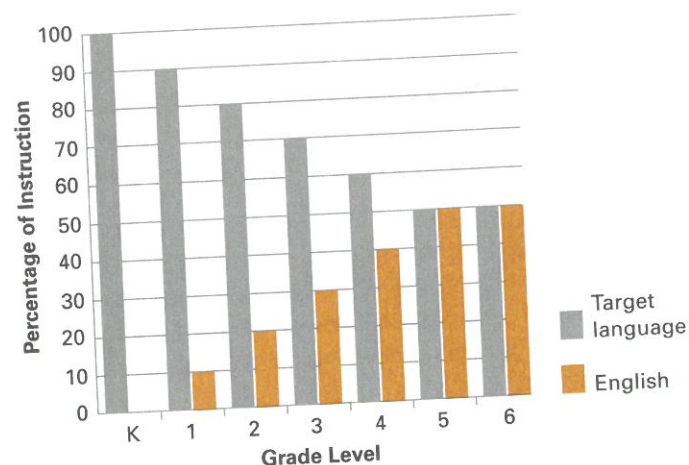
Figure 5.5 Bilingual immersion model.

languages in the United States are threatened with extinction, educators working with students from these language groups view bilingual immersion programs as a key component for helping to preserve these indigenous languages by passing them down to the next generation.

Bilingual immersion instruction begins in the non-English language, which is typically the language in which the students have the least amount of proficiency. Some programs provide up to 100% of instruction in the non-English language for the first year or two of the program. As the students increase their proficiency in the non-English language, English is slowly introduced and eventually both languages are given an equal amount of instructional time. Bilingual immersion programs are most commonly found in elementary schools and last for several years, usually up to 5th or 6th grade (Fig. 5.5). Box 5.4 provides an overview of the bilingual immersion model.

Heritage Language Programs

The term **heritage language programs** is fairly new in the United States and refers to a wide range of programs (including the bilingual models described earlier), such as in-school and after-school or weekend programs, in which language minority students have an opportunity to learn their "native" or "heritage" language. A heritage language student can be either an ELL or a student who is proficient in English and may have little or no proficiency in his or her heritage language, as is common for second and third generation immigrant students (Valdés, 2014). The term is also being applied to university-level foreign language classes geared to heritage speakers of the language being taught.

In-school heritage language programs are those that offer world (foreign) language classes at the secondary school level geared to students from homes where the language is spoken. These courses are called Spanish-for-Spanish speakers, Korean-for-Korean speakers, Arabic-for-Arabic speakers, and so forth. Educators have found that courses like these are particularly effective because ELLs typically need world language credit to graduate from high school or to get into colleges and universities with world language study requirements. Students who take these courses tend to be highly motivated by opportunities to develop greater proficiency and literacy abilities in their home languages, particularly because the vast majority have been in English-only education programs where they have had no opportunities for home language and literacy development.

These world language courses for heritage language speakers are much more appropriate and effective than regular world language classes. In Spanish classes, for example,

world language classes that target English speakers teach the standard Spanish dialect, which may differ substantially from the variety of Spanish spoken by Spanish-speaking ELLs. A good heritage language class recognizes and builds on the strengths of heritage language speakers by recognizing that these students may already have some vocabulary as well as listening, speaking, and perhaps literacy skills in the language. The courses can also be designed to recognize and value the variety of the language spoken by the students, while helping them to develop proficiency in a standard dialect of the language.

Schools that have transitional bilingual programs are well positioned to offer heritage language programs for former ELLs who have exited the bilingual program. Learning in a heritage language program (e.g., Spanish-for-Spanish speakers) gives these students opportunities to maintain and develop their home language after they enter English-medium instruction and helps counter the trend toward subtractive bilingualism we see in most TBE programs. Some secondary schools have developed specialized heritage language courses for graduates of DBE and dual language programs. Some double as Advanced Placement (AP) world language courses, meaning students can further develop their language skills and attain valuable college world language credits while still in high school.

Many after-school and weekend heritage language programs are operated by community-based organizations within language minority communities, such as Chinese and Korean schools run on the weekends by Chinese American and Korean American organizations, temples, and churches (Lee & Wright, 2014). Some public schools provide heritage language classes after school. In Fresno, California, for example, the school district, in cooperation with local community organizations, offers the Khmer Emerging

BOX 5.5 English Language Learner Program Profile: Heritage Language Programs

Other names	Community language programs, foreign language programs for native speakers (e.g., Spanish-for-Spanish speakers)
Target population	Heritage language speakers (ELL or non-ELL) who have varying levels of proficiency in their heritage language
Typical grade span	Any grade levels, pre-K–12, and college or university
Language goals	Broaden linguistic repertoire in the heritage language, with attention to the standard variety and literacy in that language
Academic goals	Meet the grade-level content-area standards related to foreign language learning or native language arts standards, be prepared to fulfill societal needs requiring citizens with bilingual skills
Culture goals	Biculturalism, cross-cultural communication skills
Program features	The heritage language is taught as a separate subject in school, for between 1 and 5 or more hours a week; out-of-school programs and foreign language courses designed for native speakers at the college or university level are also offered.
Effectiveness research	Little research is available to date on these relatively new programs, but heritage language students typically make much faster progress and attain higher levels of proficiency in the target language than traditional (non–heritage language) foreign language students.

Education Program (Project KEEP) 2 days a week at one of its elementary schools (Wright, 2014). Box 5.5 provides an overview of the heritage language program model.

English-Medium Models

Although bilingual education programs are more effective than English-medium programs, they are not always feasible. In a few states legislation resulting from voter initiatives place restrictions on bilingual programs and mandate English-medium approaches; in some communities educators, parents, or community members may be opposed to bilingual education because of their ideologies or misunderstandings of the program; and in many other communities, there are simply too many language groups in a single school without sufficient numbers of speakers of the same home language to make offering a bilingual education program practicable. In these instances, English-medium programs are the next best option. In English-medium program models all subjects are taught in English. English-medium does not mean English only. Effective programs provide a combination of sheltered content instruction, ESL instruction, and PLS. The following sections describe English-medium programs commonly found in schools today.

Pull-Out English as a Second Language Instruction

The goal of ESL instruction is to enable ELLs to increase their English language proficiency each year and ultimately to be redesignated as "fluent English proficient" (FEP)

and no longer in need of ESL instruction. **Pull-out ESL** is a commonly used model, particularly in elementary schools where ELLs make up a small portion of the total school population. In these schools ELLs are typically spread out across several classrooms. A certified ESL teacher pulls small groups of ELLs out of their regular classrooms to provide ESL instruction, typically for 30 to 60 minutes or more a day. Though students need daily instruction, some schools are able to offer ESL only 2 or 3 days a week because of shortages of ESL teachers.

The pull-out ESL model has been highly criticized as the least effective model (Ovando & Combs, 2011). The problems are many. First, and perhaps most important, students miss out on instruction in their regular classrooms when they are pulled out. Second, pull-out ESL may lead some mainstream classroom teachers to the view that the ELLs are mainly the responsibility of the ESL teacher. Third, many students feel stigmatized about being pulled out day after day in front of their English-only peers. In a study of former ELLs I conducted in California, one of the students described her feelings about being pulled out: "The other kids wouldn't say anything, but I would feel lost. Here I go again. Why do I have to do this? I felt so dumb. I felt like I'm dumb" (Wright, 1998). And finally, ESL instruction provided by the pull-out teacher typically is not coordinated with what the students are learning in their regular classrooms, largely because ESL teachers generally pull students from several different classrooms, making it very difficult to coordinate with every teacher. Furthermore, pull-out ESL teachers sometimes find that mainstream teachers are unwilling to collaborate.

Pull-out ESL may be more expensive than other models because it requires that one or more teachers be hired in addition to the regular classroom teachers. Another difficulty is finding space for the pull-out ESL class in overcrowded schools. In some instances ESL classes are held in portable classrooms far away from the main buildings where "real" learning is taking place. In other instances it is far worse. I have seen ESL classes taught in the cafeteria; the auditorium lobby or on the stage; and in teacher lounges, converted broom closets, basements, storage rooms in the back of other teachers' classrooms, and hallways. These poor accommodations may send the signal to the ELLs, and to the teachers, that ESL instruction is a low priority and that ELLs are second-class citizens within the school.

Despite these drawbacks, there are some benefits of pull-out ESL. For example, in my research with former ELLs in California (Wright, 1998, 2004a), I found a number of students who did not receive any pull-out ESL instruction but were simply placed in mainstream English-only classrooms. These students described feeling frustrated and lost during the first few years of their education. One student commented, "I just sat there." Another mentioned that occasionally his teacher would try to call on him but he would simply sit quietly until she called on someone else because he could not understand the questions. Many of the students sought help outside of school. Pull-out ESL would have been a much better alternative for these students who received no help at all. In a study I conducted in Texas of newly arrived Khmer students in the 5th grade who received pull-out ESL instruction (Wright & Li, 2006), I found that although their regular classroom teacher did an excellent job trying to accommodate their needs in her classroom, these students were much more active, engaged, and vocal during their ESL time. The ESL teacher created a safe environment that effectively lowered the affective filter of her ELLs. The students enjoyed their time in the ESL classroom and developed a wonderful relationship with their ESL teacher. They made much greater progress in both language and academic development than they would have without pull-out ESL instruction, and their experiences in the positive, supportive environment of the pull-out ESL

BOX 5.6 English Language Learner Program Profile: Pull-Out English as a Second Language Programs

Other name	ESL withdrawal classes
Target population	ELLs
Typical grade span	K–6 (in secondary schools ESL is provided as a separate class period)
Language goals	Help students attain proficiency in English
Academic goals	Help students gain the English proficiency needed to understand content-area instruction
Culture goals	Acculturation to mainstream school and society; assimilation common
ESL instruction	30–60 minutes a day
Primary language support	May be provided as needed
Effectiveness research	Pull-out ESL in isolation does not enable ELLs to achieve parity with English-speaking peers; it is, however, an integral part of effective sheltered English programs when ESL is not provided in the classroom.

class made their school experience much more enjoyable. Box 5.6 provides an overview of the pull-out ESL model.

In-Class English as a Second Language Instruction

In-class ESL instruction is provided by the regular classroom teacher. This program is preferred over the pull-out ESL model for several reasons: (1) the students do not miss anything in class by being pulled out, (2) classroom teachers can coordinate their ESL instruction to prepare ELLs for specific sheltered content lessons, (3) the classroom teachers take full responsibility for the education of all their students, (4) what the classroom teachers learn about the ELLs through ESL instruction can help them tailor the language and content objectives of their sheltered content-area instruction to appropriate levels, and (5) the classroom teachers can coordinate interactions between ELLs and English proficient students in the classroom that will further assist ELLs in learning English. Finally, the school saves money by not having to hire additional teachers.

To provide effective ESL instruction, classroom teachers must be trained and certified to teach ESL. They must also be provided with an ESL curriculum and instructional materials. There are many frustrated ESL teachers who find they need to create their own curriculum and make or buy their own materials because their schools and districts fail to provide them.

Once classroom teachers have been trained to provide ESL instruction, they must do so. It is not enough for a teacher to claim, because there are ELLs in the classroom, "I teach ESL all day." ESL is a separate content area, with its own content standards, curriculum, and teaching materials. Thus, when there is no ESL pull-out program in place, the classroom teacher must provide in class the same type of instruction that a pull-out ESL teacher would provide.

A better alternative to pull-out ESL may be **pull-in ESL** or push-in ESL, meaning that the ESL teacher goes into the regular classroom to work with the classroom teacher

and her ELLs. The danger with this model, however, is that the ESL teacher may end up just working in the back of the room with the ELLs, or worse, just hanging out while the teacher lectures, then simply providing assistance here and there to individual ELLs while they do seat work. In these cases, the ESL teacher is treated more like a paraprofessional rather than a fellow teacher.

For pull-in ESL to be an effective model, the ESL and classroom teachers need to collaborate as team teachers, working together to address the content and language objectives of sheltered content-area lessons, and planning and delivering effective ESL lessons. The ESL teacher can serve as a valuable resource to the classroom teacher, helping her recognize the language demands of upcoming lessons and activities, setting appropriate language objectives, and providing advice and demonstrations of how to make modifications and provide effective scaffolding and accommodations. Through such collaboration, both teachers recognize they share in the responsibility for ensuring the success of their ELLs.

In secondary grades, ELLs are typically provided with one or two course periods of ESL. These courses, too, must be taught by a certified ESL teacher who has a curriculum to follow and materials to use. This instruction can be made more effective if the ESL teacher coordinates with the ELLs' general education teachers, though just as in the elementary school, coordination can be particularly challenging because of the large number of teachers in a typical middle or high school. Some secondary schools also make use of the pull-in model where the ESL teacher, in addition to teaching separate ESL courses, will spend one or more periods a day in content-area classrooms team-teaching with and helping the content-area teacher implement effective sheltered instruction.

Sheltered (Structured) English Immersion

Sheltered English immersion (SEI), sometimes called structured English immersion, typically refers to self-contained grade-level classrooms for ELLs with teachers who are trained and certified to provide language and content instruction for ELLs. In SEI classrooms, the classroom teacher provides daily ESL instruction and sheltered content-area instruction. In addition, even though all instruction is in English, teachers should use ample PLS to help make English instruction more comprehensible. SEI is the model mandated by the English for the Children initiatives in California, Arizona, and Massachusetts, and even these laws acknowledge the role of PLS, stating that teachers "may use a minimal amount of the child's language when necessary."

When a bilingual program is not viable for policy, ideological, or practical reasons, an SEI program is the next best option. It is helpful to think of effective SEI instruction according to the following formula, where SI stands for sheltered instruction:

$$SEI = ESL + SI + PLS.$$

In other words, a high-quality SEI program includes daily direct, systematic ESL instruction, sheltered content-area instruction, and ample PLS. The three English for the Children initiatives say that ELLs should be in SEI classrooms only for a period not normally intended to exceed 1 year. But as we saw in an earlier chapter, there is no research that suggests that most ELLs can learn enough English in 1 year to be placed in a mainstream classroom. Furthermore, federal law makes it clear that ELLs are to receive ESL and sheltered instruction until they are redesignated as fluent English proficient and thus no longer in need of special services.

One area of concern is that many SEI classrooms are SEI in name only. If the classroom teacher is not certified to work with ELLs or fails to provide ESL and sheltered

BOX 5.7 English Language Learner Program Profile: Sheltered English Immersion

Other names	Structured English immersion, sheltered classrooms, self-contained ESL classrooms (at the secondary level: sheltered math, ESL science, specially designed academic instruction in English [SDAIE], social studies, etc.)
Target population	ELLs (but class may also contain non-ELLs)
Typical grade span	K–12 (in secondary schools sheltered subject areas are provided as separate class periods)
Language goals	Help students attain proficiency in English
Academic goals	Meet the same grade-level academic standards required for all students
Culture goals	Assimilation or acculturation
ESL instruction	30–60 minutes a day, provided in class by the classroom teacher
Content-area instruction	All subjects taught in English through sheltered instruction
Primary language support	Provided as needed during ESL and sheltered instruction
Effectiveness research	More effective than pull-out ESL in isolation but not as effective as bilingual program models

instruction, then the classroom is not an SEI classroom at all. It's a mainstream, sink-or-swim, English-only classroom. Box 5.7 provides an overview of the SEI model.

Newcomer Programs

Newcomers ELLs are best served by bilingual programs, but when these are not available, a **newcomer program** may be the best approach. Newcomer programs are "specialized academic environments that serve newly arrived, immigrant English language learners for a limited period of time," typically for 1 to 2 years (Short & Boyson, 2012, p. viii). These programs recognize that newly arrived ELLs with little to no proficiency in English will have a very difficult time learning in a classroom where English is the language of instruction (including SEI classrooms).

Although there is no one set model, a comprehensive review of U.S. newcomer programs at the secondary level found that the main goals of these programs include (1) helping students acquire beginning English skills, (2) providing some instruction in the core content areas, (3) guiding students' acculturation to the school system in the United States, and (4) developing or strengthening students' native language literacy skills (Short & Boyson, 2012, p. viii). Newcomer program classrooms are taught by trained and certified ELL teachers. Bilingual teachers who speak the language of their ELLs are most effective as they can provide PLS to the students and effectively communicate with their parents.

Newcomer programs attempt to provide some sheltered instruction, especially to address literacy and numeracy development when the newcomers have had limited former schooling. The greatest focus, however, is on providing intensive ESL instruction so the students can acquire enough English to participate in an SEI classroom 1 or 2 years

later. Some school districts establish separate newcomer schools where district resources and personnel can be concentrated to best meet the students' needs. Students are sometimes bussed to the newcomer center from their neighborhood schools, stay there all day or part of the day, and then return to their home school. Other newcomer programs are centers within existing schools where newly arrived ELLs may spend anywhere from a couple of hours to the whole day.

Newcomer programs have been criticized for segregating ELLs into separate classrooms or schools, for lacking a focus on content-area instruction, and for being expensive to operate. For newcomer programs to be effective, the district must make a real commitment to provide the school with the best teachers, adequate resources, a clear curriculum, and small class sizes. High-stakes testing and school accountability have posed serious challenges to these programs, however, because newcomer students are rarely ready to take and pass state tests in English. Box 5.8 provides an overview of the newcomer program model.

Submersion (Sink or Swim)

One final approach to teaching ELLs is to do nothing at all for them. **Submersion** means placing an ELL in a mainstream classroom where there is no ESL instruction, no sheltered instruction, and no PLS. Furthermore, the teachers are not certified to teach ELLs. Thus, as the alternative name implies, these students are left to sink or swim. Unfortunately, submersion is very common, even though it is in violation of federal law.

BOX 5.8 English Language Learner Program Profile: Newcomer Programs

Other name	Newcomer centers
Target population	ELLs who have recently arrived to the United States and have little to no English proficiency (and sometimes limited former schooling)
Typical grade span	Any grade level, pre-K–12
Number of years	1–2 years
Language goals	Help newcomer ELLs learn enough English to be able to participate in a sheltered English immersion classroom the following year or 2
Academic goals	Help newcomer ELLs learn basic reading and writing skills in English and expose them to the content areas with a focus on developing the vocabulary and language skills needed to learn these subjects through sheltered instruction once they exit the newcomer program
Culture goals	Acculturation to mainstream school and society; assimilation common
ESL instruction	Intensive, for 1 hour or more a day
Content-area instruction	Sheltered instruction uses the content areas for vocabulary and other English language skills development, with a focus on beginning skills in English reading and writing; some programs may also include home language content-area instruction.
Primary language support	Provided throughout the day
Effectiveness research	Little research on these innovative programs

There are many excellent and experienced mainstream teachers with no training in ESL who regularly have ELLs placed in their classrooms, and who try their best to meet their needs. These teachers should take the initiative to complete ESL certification and other training to better meet the needs of their students. With such training they can transform their mainstream classrooms into sheltered English classrooms fairly quickly. In addition, they should advocate for the creation of one or more of the models de-

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BOX 5.9 Is It Sheltered English Immersion or Submersion (Sink-or-Swim)?

Use this checklist to spot submersion (sink-or-swim) classrooms disguised as sheltered English immersion classrooms.

- ❑ All textbooks and materials used are identical to those used in mainstream classrooms.
- ❑ All in-class assignments and homework are identical to those used in the mainstream classrooms.
- ❑ The teacher does not possess state certification for teaching ELLs, or the state's certification requires only a minimal amount of training for such certification.
- ❑ The teacher cannot immediately identify the ELLs in the classroom or cannot describe their level of English language proficiency.
- ❑ The teacher is unable to identify or describe each ELL's home country, ethnicity, home language, prior schooling, literacy in home language, or length of time in the United States.
- ❑ The teacher makes ignorant comments about the ELLs' language background, such as, "She speaks Mexican" or "I think he speaks Asian."
- ❑ The teacher knows little about the ELLs' cultures.
- ❑ The teacher makes little to no effort to modify his or her speech to make it more comprehensible for the ELLs.
- ❑ There is no regularly scheduled time for daily ESL instruction.
- ❑ The teacher claims, "I teach ESL all day."
- ❑ The teacher cannot articulate specific sheltering strategies or techniques used to make instruction comprehensible for the ELLs.
- ❑ The teacher makes comments about the strategy for teaching the ELLs, such as, "I just try to simplify everything" or "I don't give them as much work."
- ❑ The teacher claims that the strategies used are "just good teaching."
- ❑ Content-area lessons do not contain both language and content objectives.
- ❑ ELLs do not actively participate in or are excluded from classroom discussions and other activities.
- ❑ The teacher makes little to no use of, or allowance for, the ELLs' home languages in the classroom.
- ❑ Much of the teaching of the ELLs has been delegated to a paraprofessional.
- ❑ The teacher uses one-size-fits-all or scripted curricular programs.
- ❑ There is a heavy focus on test preparation using test-prep materials and frequent benchmark testing with materials designed for English-proficient students.
- ❑ When you ask the teacher about sheltered instruction, he or she responds, "What's that?"
- ❑ The teacher can tell you the number of hours of ELL training he or she has received but little about the content of the training.
- ❑ The teacher has a negative attitude toward the ELLs and would prefer that they were not in his or her classroom.
- ❑ The teacher admits to feeling ill-prepared to work with the ELLs.

Based on findings from Wright & Choi, 2005.

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scribed in this chapter and insist their schools and districts provide the materials and support necessary to do so.

Teachers should be aware that many SEI classrooms are SEI in name only. Box 5.9 provides a checklist to determine whether an SEI classroom is really just a submersion (sink-or-swim) mainstream classroom in disguise. If any of the items on the checklist applies to a program designated SEI, major changes need to be implemented if ELLs are to make progress in learning English and academic content.

Collaboration among English as a Second Language, Bilingual, Sheltered Instruction, and Mainstream Teachers

Often several of the programs described in this chapter are found in a single school. An elementary school may have an ESL specialist who pulls students out of bilingual, sheltered, or mainstream classrooms for daily ESL instruction or who pushes into those classes to work with ELLs. At the secondary level, ELLs typically have one or two periods of ESL in addition to some combination of sheltered, bilingual, and mainstream classes. As emphasized throughout this chapter, to provide the most effective instruction possible, ESL and classroom teachers need to work collaboratively. While challenging, this collaboration can be accomplished formally through regular meetings before or after school in grade-level or content-area faculty meetings. The ESL teacher could also spend time during planning periods observing regular instruction in different classrooms with ELLs. Chatting informally in the hallways, visiting each other's classrooms, or eating lunch together can also help. The purpose is to share what is being taught in the classrooms so that relevant lessons can be provided in ESL and support provided to the classroom teacher.

In schools that have a variety of programs but no ESL specialist, the bilingual and sheltered classroom teachers can help each other and the mainstream teachers by sharing ideas and resources with members of the same grade-level teams and help look over ELLs' work. I recall a sheltered-English teacher at my former elementary school who was puzzling over the writing of one of her Spanish-speaking beginning ELLs. The full page of writing appeared to be in Spanish but the student insisted it was in English. When the teacher showed it to one of her bilingual teacher colleagues, the bilingual teacher smiled and said, "This is a perfect example of a student with Spanish writing skills using Spanish phonics to write in English. Here, let me read it to you." As she read, it became clear the student had indeed written the paper in English. The mainstream teacher was elated as the bilingual teacher provided suggestions for helping the student transfer her Spanish literacy skills to English. For successful collaboration such as this to work, teachers in a school need to move beyond the view of "my students/your students" to "our students" and make a shared commitment to ensuring that all students in the school succeed.

Baker's Typology of Program Models for English Language Learners

Baker (2011) has created a typology of programs for ELLs in which he classifies program models as (a) monolingual forms of education, (b) weak forms of bilingual education, or (c) strong forms of bilingual education. These classifications relate to the societal aims

and language outcomes of different program models. In Table 5.4 I have adapted Baker's typology to classify the programs discussed in this chapter. The strongest forms are those that help ELLs—and in some instances, English speakers—become fully bilingual, biliterate, and bicultural. Monolingual forms of education, in contrast, are the weakest of all of these programs. They make little to no use of ELLs' home languages, they aim for social and cultural assimilation of students, and they frequently result in the loss of students' ability to speak their first language, that is, they result in subtractive bilingualism. As Baker's classification illustrates, not all bilingual education programs are strong. The societal aim of TBE programs is the same as the monolingual forms—assimilation.

The accuracy of any system of categorization like this is limited because of variations in programs. For example, I categorize heritage language programs in two places. Those that provide only a few hours of instruction each week fall under weak forms of bilingual education, and those that provide an hour or more a day are under strong forms. Strong forms include models such as Spanish-for-Spanish speakers. The value of such a

TABLE 5.4 Typology of Program Models for English Language Learners

Program Model	Students	Language of Instruction	Societal Aim	Aim in Language Outcome
Monolingual Forms of Education				
Mainstream (submersion)	ELLs	English	Assimilation	English monolingualism
Pull-out ESL	ELLs	English	Assimilation	English monolingualism
Sheltered/structured English immersion	ELLs	English	Assimilation	English monolingualism
Newcomer centers	ELLs	English	Assimilation	English monolingualism
Weak Forms of Bilingual Education				
Transitional bilingual education	ELLs	Moves quickly from home language to English	Assimilation	Relative English monolingualism
Heritage language programs (provide a few hours each week of heritage language instruction, e.g., after school)	Heritage language speakers with varying degrees of proficiency in the heritage language	Heritage language	Biculturalism	Broaden linguistic repertoire of heritage language speaker
Strong Forms of Bilingual Education				
Developmental bilingual education	ELLs	Bilingual with initial emphasis on the home language	Biculturalism	Bilingualism and biliteracy
Dual language	ELLs and English proficient students	English and the home language of the ELLs	Biculturalism	Bilingualism and biliteracy
Bilingual immersion	Language minority students with little proficiency in home language, proficient English speakers	Bilingual with initial emphasis on the non-English language	Biculturalism	Bilingualism and biliteracy
Heritage language programs (provide 1 hour or more a day of heritage language instruction, e.g., Spanish-for-Spanish speakers)	Heritage language speakers with varying degrees of proficiency in the heritage language	Heritage language	Biculturalism	Bilingualism and biliteracy

typology, however, is that it reveals that programs for ELLs are multidimensional. As Baker (2011) observes, "Bilingual education is not just about education. There are sociocultural, political, and economic issues ever present in the debate over the provision of bilingual education" (p. 208). This statement applies to English-medium programs as well.

Determining the Most Appropriate English Language Learner Program Models for Your School

While strong forms of bilingual education with the goal of helping all students become bilingual/biliterate and master academic content should be available to all ELLs, the reality is that no single program model is appropriate for all students in all school contexts. The appropriate models for a school must be determined by teachers and administrators working collaboratively to study the characteristics and needs of the ELLs; the desires of their parents and community; the current and potential resources of the school; and local, state, and federal policies. For example, strong forms of bilingual education maybe very feasible in a school with large numbers of Spanish-speaking ELLs and less feasible in a school with dozens of different languages but only a handful of speakers of each language. Furthermore, bilingual teachers and resources are more readily available in languages such as Spanish, and may be nonexistent in languages such as Somali, Maay, or Karenii.

The lack of teachers and resources, however, does not mean bilingual programs are impossible in such languages. For example, when my former school district in Long Beach started a Khmer (Cambodian) bilingual program, potential bilingual teachers were recruited from the community and provided with training and support to become certified. These teachers then worked after school and during the summers to create Khmer-language books and curricular materials for their classrooms. The questions in Box 5.10 can be used to begin the conversation among administrators and teachers about the most appropriate models for their context. Regardless of the program models selected, schools and teachers must fully commit to implementing them to the best of their ability.

Monoglossic and Heteroglossic Bilingual Programs

Taking a sociocultural view of bilingualism, García (2009a) and others have given us a new way of understanding and challenging the traditional program models described in this chapter, which mainly have grown out of cognitive views of second language learning. García makes a distinction between monoglossic and heteroglossic perspectives of bilingualism.

Most bilingual programs are grounded in a **monoglossic perspective,** which views monolingualism as the norm and treats the languages of bilinguals as two separate distinct systems, as if students are two monolinguals in one (double monolingualism). A **heteroglossic perspective** views bilingualism as the norm and treats the languages of bilinguals as co-existing. Based on the monoglossic perspective, transitional models of bilingual education focus on moving students quickly from the home language to English (often resulting in subtracting the home language), developmental models seek to

BOX 5.10 Considerations in Determining the Most Appropriate English Language Learner Program Model

As teacher and administrators collaborate to develop the most appropriate program models and structures for the ELLs in their schools, the following questions can help start the conversation:

- Who are our ELLs?
- What are our goals for their language and academic achievement?
- What are their prior education experiences? Have the students had prior opportunities to develop literacy skills or receive content instruction in their home language?
- How many students in each grade level are at each state-defined level of English proficiency?
- What languages do the ELLs speak?
- How many ELLs at each grade level speak one or more of these languages?
- Are there enough speakers of one or more languages at each target grade level to be able to offer a bilingual program? (E.g., 20 or more is required in some state policies.)
- How many certified bilingual teachers for these languages do we have or are available to be hired? If none, are bilingual individuals available to be trained, certified, and hired as teachers?
- Do the parents want their children to be bilingual and biliterate? Have they been informed of the goals and objectives of different ELL program models and the research supporting bilingual instruction?
- What are the state policies, if any, regarding ELL program models?
- What books and instructional materials are available to provide instruction or support in the home language? If few are available, what resources can be used to purchase or create them?

simply add English to the home language, and many dual language programs seek complete separation of home language and English during instruction.

Drawing on García's distinction, Flores and Beardsmore (2015) argue that monoglossic perspectives and practices erase the natural fluid ways bilingual students use their languages in everyday life. Students do not compartmentalize their language practices into neat and discrete languages as is expected in many bilingual programs. They argue for programs grounded in heteroglossic perspectives of languages, wherein bilingualism is viewed as normal and program structures acknowledge multilingual speakers' fluid language practices in their full complexity. This view is realized through translanguaging practices, wherein teachers can help students draw on all of their linguistic resources—including standard and nonstandard forms of home languages and English—as they work to communicate and engage in academic tasks in the classroom.

Faltis and Ramírez-Marin (2015) argue that such an approach is especially appropriate and needed for ELLs at the secondary level. While these new ideas have yet to be developed into full pedagogical models, they are nonetheless consistent with and help expand traditional notions of PLS, and they also suggest ways traditional program models can be adapted to make more effective use of translanguaging to help students master academic content (Celic & Seltzer, 2011).

SUMMARY

All program models for ELLs must, at a minimum, ensure that ELLs (1) learn English and (2) learn academic content. Thus, each program model must include ESL instruction

and content-area instruction. The teaching of content areas may be provided through home language instruction or sheltered instruction or a combination of the two. Schools should also provide as much PLS as possible, especially in nonbilingual programs, including allowing for and facilitating students' translanguaging practices so they may draw on all of their linguistic resources when learning academic content. Although dual language and DBE are considered the strongest program models for ELLs, no single approach is appropriate for all contexts. The appropriate models for a school must be determined by teachers and administrators working collaboratively to study the characteristics and needs of the ELLs, the desires of their parents and community, and the resources of the school. Regardless of the program models selected, schools and teachers must fully commit to implementing them to the best of their ability. Failure to do so means ELLs will be left behind.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Consider the program models described previously. What factors should a school take into consideration when deciding which program models to offer? Discuss the types of ELL programs offered by a school you are familiar with. Do you feel these programs are appropriate and effective? Why or why not?
2. What minimally should be included in any program model for ELLs? Why are these components critical? What can result if one or more of these components are left out of a program for ELLs?
3. One of the major issues involved in meeting the unique language and academic needs of ELLs is whether or not they should be taught in separate classrooms or programs. This consideration raises the sensitive issue of segregation. When might separate classrooms or programs be needed? What are some possible solutions to the segregation problem that still address the needs of the ELLs?
4. View the video of a 3rd-grade sheltered English immersion classroom. What are the key features that distinguish this classroom from a mainstream classroom? What specific strategies and techniques does the teacher appear to be using to make the instruction comprehensible? What model does the teacher use to guide her sheltered instruction? Do you feel the instruction is effective? Why or why not?
5. Review one of the bilingual education program profiles from Portraits of Success, a joint project of the National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE), Boston College, and Northeast and Islands Regional Educational Laboratory at Brown University. How would you classify this program based on the typology of program models in Table 5.4? Discuss what you see as the key features that contribute to the program's success.

RESEARCH ACTIVITIES

1. **ELL Student Interview** Interview a current or former ELL who has participated in one of the programs described in this chapter. Ask the student to provide details about the teacher, the students, the curriculum, and the amount and type of instruction provided in English and the student's native language. How does the students' description compare with the description of the program model in this chapter?
2. **ELL Teacher Interview** Interview a current teacher who teaches in one of the program models described in this chapter. Ask the teacher to describe the program, the rationale, the academic and linguistic goals, the curriculum used, how English and the native language are used, what a typical day is like for students in the classroom,

and how effective the teacher feels the program is in meeting the needs of the ELLs. How does the teacher's description compare with the description of the program model in this chapter?

3. **ELL Classroom Observation** Observe a classroom for ELLs following one of the program models described in this chapter. Pay attention to how the classroom and instruction is structured, the curriculum being used, when and how much the teacher and students use English and the native language, and the level of engagement of the ELLs. What appear to be the linguistic and academic goals of the program? How effective do you feel the model is in meeting the needs of the ELL students? How does your observation compare with the description of the program model in this chapter?

4. **Online Research Activity** Find a video, description, or news article of one of the ELL program models described in this chapter. What are the characteristics of the program, and how do they compare with the description in this chapter? Describe and critically analyze the content in terms of how the program is portrayed.

RECOMMENDED READING

Echevarria, J., Vogt, M., & Short, D. (2013). *Making content comprehensible for English learners: The SIOP model* (4th ed.). Boston: Pearson/Allyn & Bacon.
    The authors introduce their SIOP model. The chapters provide the theoretical and research background of the 30 items on the SIOP and include vignettes of sheltered instruction for readers to evaluate and discuss using the SIOP.

García, O. (2009a). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective.* Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
    The author makes a compelling case for why bilingual education should be the only way to educate children in the 21st century. Provides detailed descriptions of bilingual education theory and practice throughout the world.

Lessow-Hurley, J. (2012). *The foundations of dual language instruction* (6th ed.). Boston: Pearson.
    A comprehensive overview of the dual language program model, featuring descriptions of effective programs and instructional strategies and the dynamics of culture in schooling.

SIX
Assessment

An ELL's English language proficiency level clearly affects her ability to learn acdemic content in English and to demonstrate academic knowledge and skills on assessment events carried out in English. —**Jamal Abedi and Robert Linquanti**

KEY TERMS

- accommodations
- assessment
- bias
- criterion-referenced test
- evaluation
- formative assessment
- multiple measures
- next-generation assessments
- norm-referenced test
- peer assessment

- performance assessment
- portfolio assessment
- reliability
- self-assessment
- standard error of measurement (SEM)
- summative assessment
- testing
- validity
- value-added measurement (VAM)

GUIDING QUESTIONS

1. What are the differences between testing, assessment, and evaluation?
2. Why should ELL educators be wary of overreliance on standardized tests of ELLs' academic achievement and English language proficiency?
3. What are the features of next-generation assessments associated with the Common Core State Standards?
4. Why is there a need for multiple measures?
5. How can ELL educators use authentic alternative assessments to provide valid and reliable evidence of ELLs' growth and achievement?
6. What is value-added measurement and why must ELL educators be cautious of its use?

ELLs are probably the most tested students in our educational system. In addition to taking the same federal and state tests required for all students, ELLs take language proficiency tests every year. ELLs also participate in district-level and school-level tests, and they take classroom-based tests developed by classroom teachers. In one Texas school district, between March and the end of the school year, 5th grade ELLs were required to take nine different state and district tests.

Educators need to be aware of the heavy testing burden placed on ELLs and the impact test results can have on students' and teachers' lives. Test results are often used to determine whether students are placed in or exited from special programs, allowed to progress to the next grade level, required to attend summer school, or awarded a high school diploma. Test scores are also often used to judge the adequacy and skills of teachers, to determine, for example, which teachers receive monetary rewards, which teachers must obtain additional training, and which teachers may be required to find another job. Shohamy (2001) has outlined specific features of the power inherent in tests (Box 6.1).

Nonetheless, assessment of ELLs is one of most important things teachers do in the classroom and proper assessment is essential for identifying students' strengths and areas in need of improvement in their language proficiency and academic development. This