Dual Language Education Programs: Current State Policies and Practices

U.S. Department of Education
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Executive Summary

This report presents an analysis of relevant research and extant data related to dual language education policies and practices. Dual language education programs are a type of bilingual education[1] program in which students are taught literacy and academic content in English and a partner language. Dual language programs aim to help students develop high levels of language proficiency and literacy in both program languages, attain high levels of academic achievement, and develop an appreciation and understanding of multiple cultures. Recent research suggests that the approach provides more opportunities for English learners (ELs) to reach higher levels of academic achievement than other types of programs (Valentino & Reardon, 2015; Gómez, 2013; Lindholm-Leary & Block, 2010; Marian, Shook, & Schroeder, 2013).

Dual language programs vary in structure, implementation, and enrolled student populations. The main models include:

- Two-way dual language programs (also known as two-way immersion programs), in which ELs who are fluent in the partner language and English-speaking peers are integrated to receive instruction in both English and the partner language.

- One-way dual language programs, in which students from predominantly one language group receive instruction in both English and a partner language. One-way dual language programs may serve predominantly ELs (also known as developmental or maintenance bilingual programs); predominantly English-speaking students (also known as one-way/world language[2] immersion programs); or predominantly students with a family background or cultural connection to the partner language (also known as heritage or native language programs).

Dual language education promises to give students access to key 21st century skills—namely bilingualism, biliteracy, and global awareness—and because of the expected benefits for ELs, an increasing number of schools are adopting this model. Dual language programs operate in a variety of policy contexts in schools around the country, which implement the model in diverse ways. Given the professed benefits and growing use of dual language education programs, it is important to understand the current status of dual language education in states and schools around the country to inform policymaking at the federal, state, and local levels.

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[1] For the purposes of this report, we use the term "bilingual education" to refer to education programs that feature instruction in both English and a partner language. Such programs include (1) dual language education programs that have the goal of developing students' proficiency in the partner language and (2) transitional bilingual education programs that use the partner language as a scaffold for promoting English proficiency and academic achievement.
[2] Sometimes referred to as "foreign language."

Focus of This Report

The study examines policies and practices related to dual language education programs as of spring 2015. It draws on multiple data sources, including reviews of studies and research summaries on dual language programs published within the last 10 years (since 2004), national extant data sets, state education agency (SEA) websites for all 50 states and the District of Columbia, and information gathered from interviews with officials in six case study states. The six case study states were selected for geographic diversity and to include states with policies that promote the use of dual language programs (Delaware, North Carolina, and Utah); states with policies that promote the use of bilingual education programs more broadly (Illinois and New Mexico);[3] and states with large EL populations and policies that constrain the use of bilingual education programs (Massachusetts).[4]

The first chapter of this report describes the historical and federal policy context for dual language programming and the data collection methods used to generate this report. Chapters II through VI then report on data collection and analysis for the following areas related to dual language programs:

- Chapter II: Key features and components of dual language programs, including state-issued definitions, requirements, and guidance

- Chapter III: State-level and district-level eligibility and EL reclassification criteria

- Chapter IV: Standards, assessment, and accountability policies and practices

- Chapter V: Teacher qualifications, including certification requirements and professional development for educators

- Chapter VI: State support available for dual language programs, including funding and technical assistance

The report concludes by briefly describing benefits associated with dual language programming; terminology, development, and sustainability challenges; state support for addressing these challenges; and areas for future research.

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[3] States with policies that promote the use of bilingual education programs include states that require districts to implement bilingual education programs when they serve a minimum number of ELs from the same language group (e.g., Illinois) and states that have designated funding streams to support bilingual education programs (e.g., New Mexico).

[4] States with policies that constrain the use of bilingual education include states that limit the conditions under which districts or schools can provide some or all forms of bilingual education to ELs (typically by requiring parents of ELs to sign a consent form or waiver to allow their participation in a bilingual education program). See Chapter VI for more information about states that promote or constrain the use of bilingual education.

Key Findings

State Policies and Guidance on Dual Language Education

Dual language programs vary in structure and implementation. The proportions of instructional time devoted to English and the partner language differ, but, in general, a minimum of 50 percent of instruction takes place in the partner language through the elementary school grades. Programs generally commence at the beginning of elementary school and continue throughout elementary school, with some programs extending through secondary education. They can be implemented as "whole-school" programs (in which all students in a school participate) or "strand" programs (with one or more classes at every grade level in the dual language program, while other classes follow a different model). Two-way programs serve both ELs and non-ELs by integrating ELs from a common language background (e.g., Spanish, Mandarin Chinese) with English-speaking students in the same program for academic instruction in both languages. One-way dual language programs enroll students who are predominantly from the same language background and receive instruction in English and their native language.

> **A majority of states in the United States reported that, during the 2012–13 school year, districts in their state were implementing at least one dual language program, with Spanish and Chinese the most commonly reported partner languages.**

In their 2012–13 Consolidated State Performance Reports (CSPRs), 39 states and the District of Columbia indicated that districts receiving federal Title III funding implemented at least one dual language program that year. In total, these programs featured more than 30 different partner languages. States most frequently reported dual language programs with Spanish (35 states and the District of Columbia), Chinese (14 states), Native American languages (12 states), and French (seven states and the District of Columbia) as the partner languages.

> **States' definitions of dual language programs reflect the inconsistent use of multiple program terms in the dual language education field. Few states prescribe a particular model, leaving program design decisions to the local level.**

Examining states' definitions of dual language programs is challenging because states vary considerably in how they apply the terminology associated with these programs. Although most states provide definitions or guidance for at least one type of dual language program, relatively few states have explicit requirements or expectations regarding particular program features. For example, only two states have set requirements for the ratio of English-speaking students to partner-language-speaking students in two-way dual language programs. Seven states have established expectations regarding the allocation of instructional time in English and the partner language, and four states suggest specific course-taking pathways for offering dual language programs at the secondary level. For the most part, however, states leave program design decisions to district and school stakeholders, although some states provide information and guidelines about program components to help inform local decision making. A few states—in particular, Delaware, Georgia, Utah, North Carolina, and New Mexico—have articulated specific state models or expectations for program design.

Student Eligibility for and Placement Into Dual Language Programs

State policies and practices play a role in determining students' eligibility for and placement into dual language programs, including their procedures for classifying students as ELs or English proficient. Some states give specific guidance regarding students' placement into dual language programs. Furthermore, states may help districts recruit and retain students in dual language programs through outreach activities or incentives that promote bilingualism.

> **All 46 states and the District of Columbia with publicly available information about their EL identification process require or recommend that districts administer a home language survey to identify students with a language background other than English, followed by an English proficiency assessment to determine whether such students are ELs. However, the specific criteria for EL classification vary across (and, in some cases, within) states.**

A home language survey is administered when students first enroll in order to collect information about the use of a language other than English in their homes. If the survey indicates that a student has a home language background in a language other than English, the student undergoes an assessment to determine his or her level of English proficiency. Twenty-eight states and the District of Columbia (all members of the World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment, or WIDA, Consortium) require that districts use a WIDA-developed screening test for EL identification, but states vary in the cut scores they have established for determining whether a student is English proficient. Ten states allow districts to select the English language proficiency (ELP) assessment they use for EL identification purposes, but most of those states (seven) limit this selection to a state-approved list. Ten states allow other factors to be considered in the EL identification process, such as content assessment scores, teacher referrals, interviews with family members, and prior academic records. Four states require or encourage districts to assess students' native language proficiency as part of their EL identification and placement process.

> **For reclassifying ELs as English proficient, among the 40 states and District of Columbia with publicly available information, 20 states and the District of Columbia require EL reclassification decisions to be based solely on students' performance on the state ELP assessment. The remaining 20 states allow districts to consider additional criteria when making such decisions.**

In dual language programs, unlike other types of language instruction educational programs for ELs, students remain in the program even after they are reclassified as English proficient. However, students' change in EL status may nonetheless have important implications for the programs. For example, students who exit EL status are no longer required (under federal law) to participate in the state's annual ELP assessment. In addition, many state and district data systems lack the capacity to track former ELs once their two-year monitoring period has ended, which means that the state or district may not be able to follow former ELs' long-term growth as part of dual language program evaluation efforts. Students' change in EL status also can affect the amount of funding available to support dual language programs.

Five states provide guidance on student eligibility for dual language programs: Two states require dual language programs to be open to students with varying backgrounds and ability levels; three states provide information on enrolling students after Grade 1 or 2; and two states require parents of ELs to submit annual written consent for their child to participate.

In most states, decisions regarding ELs' placement into particular types of instructional programs rest with the local districts (unlike identification and reclassification), including participation in dual language programs. As a result of other state policies on bilingual programs in general, Arizona and California mandate that parents of ELs sign annual waivers consenting to their child's placement in a dual language program.

State efforts to help recruit and retain students in dual language programs include providing outreach materials and support to inform parents and students about dual language programs (six states), offering a state Seal of Biliteracy to recognize high school graduates who attain proficiency in two languages (11 states and the District of Columbia), and creating opportunities for students to earn university course credit in high school (two states).

Delaware, for example, has developed parent outreach documents and slide presentations in both English and Spanish that provide an overview of the key features and benefits of dual language programs. Incentives that encourage students and families to participate in dual language programs include the availability of a Seal of Biliteracy (in California, this is a gold insignia on the diploma, which is awarded to high school graduates who demonstrate that they have attained a high level of proficiency in English and at least one other language), and the possibility of earning college world language course credits in high school.

Standards, Assessments, and Program Evaluation Practices

Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) requires that states adopt ELP standards and ELP assessments to measure student progress in acquiring proficiency in English. States also may choose to establish partner language proficiency standards and/or assessments to guide and measure acquisition of the partner language. The presence of standards and assessments in both English and the partner language underscores the value of learning both languages and emphasizes the goal of additive bilingualism in dual language programs.

As of spring 2015, most states use ELP standards developed by one of two multistate consortia: the WIDA English Language Development Standards (36 states and the District of Columbia) or the ELPA21 English Language Proficiency Standards (nine states).

As states have transitioned to college- and career-ready content standards such as the Common Core, they have had to ensure that they have ELP standards in place that correspond to the language demands of those content standards. The intent of the WIDA Consortium's 2012 amplification of its 2007 ELP standards was to ensure that the standards address the language demands presented by the Common Core,[5] Next Generation Science Standards, and other college- and career-ready content standards. The more recently established English Language Proficiency Assessment for the 21st Century (ELPA21) consortium similarly developed ELP standards that address the language demands students need to meet college- and career-ready standards in English language arts, mathematics, and science. The seven states that are not part of WIDA or ELPA21 use their own state-developed ELP standards.

> **As of spring 2015, ELP assessments in use include WIDA ACCESS for ELLs® (34 states and the District of Columbia); English Language Development Assessment (ELDA; three states); and state-specific ELP assessments (13 states).**

Under Title III, states must use ELP assessment results to hold Title III-funded districts accountable for achieving state-determined Annual Measurable Achievement Objectives (AMAOs), which include performance goals for the number/percentage of ELs making progress toward learning English and attaining proficiency in English. In setting those goals, states must define expectations for the amount of growth ELs should demonstrate on the ELP assessment from one year to the next, as well as the cut score(s) ELs must achieve on the ELP assessment to be considered proficient in English.

> **Of the 33 states with publicly available information, 15 states and the District of Columbia define expectations for students' progress in learning English as an increase in their overall score or a move from one level or band to the next on the state ELP assessment. Attainment of proficiency in English is defined by 29 states and the District of Columbia in terms of achieving a particular overall composite score on the state ELP assessment; 15 states require specific domain scores in addition to an overall composite score level.**

Although many states define progress in learning English as an increase in the score on the state ELP assessment, the size of the increase needed to demonstrate progress (as measured in point values) varies considerably across states. For example, among states that use the WIDA ACCESS for ELP assessment, states' annual growth expectations range from 0.2 points to 1 point. Another 14 states define their annual growth expectations in terms of moving from one English proficiency level or performance band to the next on the state ELP assessment. A similar observation holds for definitions of attaining proficiency in English. Many states require an overall composite score on the state ELP assessment to qualify a student as having attained

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[5] The development of college- and career-ready academic content standards, such as the Common Core State Standards, was led by state school chiefs and governors beginning in 2008. The state-led effort included governors and state commissioners of education from 48 states, two territories, and the District of Columbia. Standards development was informed by the best state standards already in existence and the experience of teachers, school administrators, content experts, state leaders, and the public. In addition to the development of standards, the implementation of standards—including how the standards are taught, the curriculum developed as aligned to those standards, and the materials used to support teachers as they help students reach the standards—is led entirely at the state and local levels.

English proficiency. However, these minimum scores vary, even across states that use the same assessment. Moreover, 15 of the states with publicly available information use a "conjunctive minimum" approach to measure students' attainment of English proficiency, whereby students must achieve a specific overall composite score combined with minimum scores in particular domains (i.e., listening, speaking, reading, writing).

> **Most states (42 states and the District of Columbia) have adopted world language proficiency standards; at least three of these states have used these standards to set grade-level partner language proficiency expectations for students in dual language programs. Five states require dual language programs to regularly assess students' partner language skills.**

Although not required under federal law, states may adopt or recommend language proficiency standards and assessments for students' acquisition of languages other than English. This applies to English speakers' second language and ELs' native language in two-way and one-way dual language programs. In 2011, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) found through a survey of state officials and reviews of SEA websites that 42 states had adopted world language proficiency standards (Phillips & Abbott, 2011). Of the 14 states and the District of Columbia that provided information about their world language proficiency standards on their websites in spring 2015, three states (North Carolina, Ohio, and Utah) have used the ACTFL proficiency scales to set grade-level or grade-span language proficiency targets specific to K–12 dual language programs. Illinois uses Spanish language development standards developed by WIDA to guide Spanish language instruction and assessment for dual language and other bilingual education programs.

Among the 16 states with information about partner language proficiency assessment policies on their SEA website, five states (Delaware, Kentucky, New Mexico, Oregon, and Utah) require state-funded dual language programs to assess students' progress toward developing partner language proficiency at least annually. The remaining 11 states with such information on their websites do not require districts or dual language programs to implement a particular assessment, but they do recommend or provide access to partner language assessment tools.

> **As of spring 2015, five states have posted information on their websites about statewide partner language arts standards.**

Dual language programs use the same academic content standards as other instructional programs and must measure student achievement related to those standards on annual content assessments. On their SEA websites, eight states specify that content instruction in dual language programs must align with the state content standards in reading/language arts, mathematics, and other content areas. Typically, monitoring whether dual language programs—and other programs that serve ELs—are implementing the state content standards occurs as part of a state process to ensure that districts are complying with requirements of state and/or federal funding programs. Although five states (California, Illinois, New York, Texas, and Wisconsin) have developed standards for language arts in the partner language to guide instruction and assessment, two states (California and Texas) have developed Spanish language versions of state standards in content areas other than language arts. Some state officials expressed a general concern about the availability of instructional materials in partner languages that align with state content standards,

particularly for languages other than Spanish. Several states have taken steps to assist dual language programs in that area.

> **In 2012–13, 10 states reported allowing ELs to take at least one content assessment in a language other than English for ESEA accountability purposes.**

Content assessment in dual language programs is a complicated issue because there are two languages of instruction. Federal and state policies on assessing ELs must be applied while those students have EL status to ensure that ELs meet annual state performance goals on academic content assessments. Officials from two of the six case study states mentioned challenges associated with using content assessment data for ELs tested in English in ESEA accountability or educator evaluation systems, particularly relating to concerns that the scores may underestimate student learning. Moreover, case study research on the use of dual language programs also has indicated that Title I and Title III requirements that schools demonstrate that ELs make adequate progress and meet the same content standards required of native English-speaking students have caused some communities to rethink implementation of dual language programs and consider implementing an English-only approach (Wright & Choi, 2006; Gandara & Rumberger, 2009; Warhol & Mayer, 2012; Lindholm-Leary, 2012; Menken & Solorza, 2012).

> **Four of the six case study states were planning or had implemented program evaluation efforts related to dual language or bilingual education programs.**

Although all states use content and ELP assessment data to monitor whether schools with dual language programs meet the state's performance goals under Title I and Title III, states also may conduct more focused evaluations to assess the implementation and outcomes of dual language programs, often submitting reports to their state legislatures. In some cases, these evaluations are part of a regular review of programs for ELs in the state.

Teacher Qualifications and Professional Development

Teachers in dual language education are expected to possess the credentials and core competencies needed by all teachers for their grade level and/or subject matter focus, but to be effective in the dual language setting, they need additional knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Key competencies include a high level of proficiency in the languages in which they teach, an understanding of sheltered instruction[6] and second language development, and skill in supporting second language learners in the content areas (mathematics, science, social studies, and so on).

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[6] Sheltered instruction refers to specialized instructional techniques that teachers use to accommodate the linguistic needs of students who are not proficient in the language of instruction. It generally refers to instruction that is focused on teaching academic content, although sheltered instruction also may aim to support students' acquisition of the language of instruction (Faulkner-Bond et al., 2012).

Twenty-five states and the District of Columbia issue teaching certificates in the area of bilingual education.

According to data collected by the National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality (NCCTQ) in 2009–10, 25 states and the District of Columbia have established certification requirements for a teaching certificate in bilingual education (NCCTQ, 2009). Examples of requirements include competence in areas such as English; the partner language; cultural diversity; the historical, philosophical, legal, and theoretical underpinnings of bilingual education; second language acquisition; instructional methods; linguistics; and assessment.

One state has developed credentials specifically for teachers in dual language programs, and another state is currently developing credentials. At least seven states require dual language program teachers to hold a bilingual certificate or endorsement.

According to its SEA website, Utah has developed credentials specifically for teachers in dual language programs, and an interviewed state official from North Carolina indicated that the state was currently developing these credentials. Utah has partnered with universities in the state to develop world language and dual language immersion (DLI) endorsements in the language of instruction, which teachers must acquire in addition to their state teaching certificate to teach in both one-way and two-way dual language programs.

Most states (36 and the District of Columbia) require teachers who provide instruction in English to ELs in Title III-funded programs to demonstrate their English fluency through the certification or licensure process and/or an English language assessment. Nineteen states require teachers who provide instruction in a language other than English in such programs to demonstrate their fluency in that language through a specific language fluency assessment.

According to data collected in 2009–10 as part of the National Evaluation of Title III implementation, all 50 states and the District of Columbia require teachers who provide instruction in English to demonstrate their English fluency (Tanenbaum et al., 2012). Most states require evidence of English fluency through certification, licensure, and/or a specific assessment. However, some states rely on local assurances from school districts that teachers are fluent in English. For example, Massachusetts requires superintendents of Title III-funded districts to submit annual written assurances certifying that they will ensure all language instruction educational program (LIEP) teachers who provide instruction in English are fluent in English. With regard to the partner language, the National Evaluation of Title III Implementation found that, as of the 2009–10 school year, 39 states required teachers to demonstrate fluency in languages other than English, through university certification or a licensure process, a language assessment, or assurances from local districts.

Officials from all six case study states identified a shortage of qualified teachers as a barrier to implementing dual language programs. Five case study states have taken steps to build the supply of teachers qualified to teach in dual language programs.

A growing number of programs around the country and a scarcity of teachers with the necessary language skills have led to a shortage of qualified dual language teachers. A report issued by the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Postsecondary Education (2015) indicates that 16 states identified bilingual education as a teacher shortage area for the 2015–16 school year. States have pursued a variety of strategies to expand the supply of dual language teachers, including creating alternative certification pathways, establishing partnerships with other countries to identify teachers with appropriate partner language skills, increasing recruitment efforts, forming partnerships with teacher preparation programs, and providing financial incentives for teachers.

Two states require teachers in dual language programs to participate in professional development. States offer professional development through workshops, conferences, summer institutes, and online courses. Some states provide professional development to school leaders to develop their expertise and ability to support dual language programs.

Ongoing, high-quality professional development for dual language program staff is an important tool for meeting the specific challenges of program implementation. Among the 11 states with information available on the professional development offered or recommended to teachers in dual language programs, three states indicated that this professional development is required. Nine states provide workshops or conferences that cover dual language education topics. Six states sponsor, require, or encourage teachers to attend summer institutes specifically designed for dual language program teachers. Four states conduct webinars or online professional development courses on topics related to dual language programs. Several states provide professional development on dual language programs to principals to help them support the programs and appropriately evaluate teachers.

State Support for Dual Language and Bilingual Programming

The development, implementation, and sustainability of dual language programs depend heavily on the policy environment in which they function. The range of allowable program types, support mechanisms, and funding are generally defined for schools and districts at the state level. For dual language programs that serve ELs, state policies related to EL education, particularly bilingual education, are an important part of the context in which they operate.

Seven states have formulated specific goals or value statements supporting dual language programs or bilingual education more generally. Five states have laws that require districts to offer bilingual education programs when they serve a minimum number of ELs with the same language background. In contrast, four states have laws constraining the use of bilingual education for ELs by requiring consent or waivers.

States have a range of policies related to dual language and bilingual education. According to their websites, seven states (Delaware, Georgia, New Mexico, North Carolina, Rhode Island, Utah, and Washington) have developed explicit goals or value statements promoting the use of dual language or bilingual education programs. Among these, Delaware, Georgia, and Utah have established initiatives specifically focused on dual language education. Five states (Connecticut, Illinois, New Jersey, New York, and Texas) mandate that districts provide bilingual education if they have 20 or more ELs in the same grade level from the same language background, and schools can implement dual language programs to meet this requirement. Four states have explicit laws constraining the use of bilingual education for ELs. In Arizona and California, ELs may only participate in a bilingual education program if prior written, informed consent is given annually by the child's parents or legal guardian. Massachusetts law restricts bilingual education in a similar manner, although an exception exists for two-way dual language and world language programs. New Hampshire state law requires English-only instruction for all students, although bilingual programs are permitted with prior approval from the state board and local school district.

Six states have recently offered funding opportunities specifically for dual language programs. In 2014–15, most states (46) provided additional funding for ELs, which could be used to support dual language programs that serve ELs.

Funding that supports dual language programs is occasionally targeted for these programs, but, more often, funding is based on the students served rather than the program type. According to their websites, six states (Delaware, Georgia, Indiana, Kentucky, Oregon, and Utah) offer funds that specifically support the development of dual language programs. Dual language programs that serve ELs generally have access to supports dedicated to those students. Three states (Connecticut, Michigan, and New Mexico) offer funding specifically for bilingual education programs, including dual language programs. Moreover, the Education Commission of the States (ECS) found that, in 2014–15, 46 states made state funds available to districts and/or schools that serve ELs through formula funding (34 states), categorical funding (nine states), or reimbursement (three states) (Millard, 2015).

Officials from four of the six case study states identified challenges associated with funding for dual language programs.

Representatives from Illinois, Massachusetts, New Mexico, and North Carolina reported insufficient funding for dual language programs. The New Mexico spokesperson also noted a lack of comprehensive understanding at the local level with regard to appropriate uses of state bilingual education funding. The Illinois representative pointed out the difficulties inherent in fully funding dual language programs that include non-ELs, given that for non-ELs, schools do not receive the alternative language program funding that they receive for ELs.

Officials from five of the six case study states reported that the state provides technical assistance to districts and schools in implementing dual language programs. However, officials in four of the six case study states also noted that state capacity issues limit the SEA's ability to support dual language programs.

The states chiefly provide technical support by supplying information to school leaders and teachers who work in dual language schools (through technical assistance meetings, contracts with external technical assistance providers, state field agents, and online communication). Four of the case study states offer networking opportunities to facilitate collaboration among administrators and/or teachers in the state who are implementing dual language programs. At the same time, these states reported capacity concerns that make it difficult to support dual language programs, creating a need for additional state-level expertise and/or personnel. In Illinois, state contracts with external consultants and organizations improve the state's capacity to support dual language and bilingual education in the state.

Conclusion

Interest in dual language education is increasing as the desire to provide students with opportunities to gain proficiency in languages other than English grows, and as research evidence points to specific benefits of dual language approaches for educating ELs (Valentino & Reardon, 2015; Gómez, 2013; Lindholm-Leary & Block, 2010; Marian, Shook, & Schroeder, 2013).

Examining states' dual language programming and policies is challenging because states vary considerably in how they name their programs.

Greater standardization of terminology for program types would allow the field to conduct research and communicate about experience more efficiently and with less confusion. We suggest the field use the term "dual language" to refer to programs in which instruction is provided in two languages, with the goal of promoting proficiency in both. We suggest using the term "two-way" to describe dual language programs in which roughly equal numbers of students from two languages groups (e.g., English speakers and partner language speakers) participate, with the goal of both groups learning both languages. We suggest that the term "one-way" be used for programs in which predominantly one language group (e.g., language minority students, native English speakers, students with a family background or cultural connection to the partner language) participates with the goal of learning two languages.

States, districts, and schools face a variety of challenges when developing, implementing, and sustaining dual language programs.

One of the greatest challenges is finding qualified teachers to teach in dual language programs. There also are some additional costs not incurred by other instructional programs (particularly during the start-up phase) for items such as curriculum planning. Textbooks and other materials in the partner language also add costs to dual language programs and may be difficult to find. Some support may come from state and federal funding for the education of ELs, but that funding is not available for English proficient students or former ELs who have been reclassified.

To help address some of the challenges faced by districts and schools as they implement dual language programs, some states are providing support for dual language programs.

To increase the supply of teachers proficient in the languages of instruction, states are establishing alternative certification pathways, as well as partnerships with other countries, to help recruit highly qualified teachers. Some states offer professional development designed for dual language program teachers and support the development of curricula and materials, particularly in the partner language. States also are creating incentives for students, such as the Seal of Biliteracy for high school diplomas.

The growing number of dual language programs has created a need for more high-quality, research-based information to guide states, districts, schools, and families.

It would be useful to survey the states (once the various program types have been accurately named and described) to determine, among other things, the actual number and types of programs in existence, and to collect demographic information about the populations enrolled in these schools. Research on topics such as student learning trajectories and the influence of student background, as well as classroom- and program-level factors, also is needed to better understand how dual language programs can achieve their goals.

I. Introduction

Overview

In our globally connected and competitive world, all students need an educational experience that prepares them to become effective global citizens, equipped for success in college, career, and civic participation. Although this educational experience includes the development of a broad range of knowledge and skills across subject areas, the Partnership for 21st Century Skills has identified the development of bilingualism, biliteracy, and global awareness as particularly important:

> Global awareness is a new essential in the global economy. Americans need a secure understanding of global issues that affect them as citizens and workers. They need to be able to learn from and work collaboratively with people from a range of diverse cultures and lifestyles. They need to be able to communicate in languages other than English (Kay, 2010, p. xxii).

Numerous education and policy groups have echoed this theme, including the Large Countywide and Suburban District Consortium, a network of 17 large school districts around the country that collaborate on college and career preparation for all students through sharing effective educational policies and practices. In a recent report, the Consortium argues that college and career readiness goals for all students in public education in the 21st century should include "ability and fluency in more than one language" (Large Countywide and Suburban District Consortium, 2014, p. 5). Families, businesses, and policy-makers increasingly place language, communication, and cross-cultural skills among the desired outcomes of education.

For individuals in this country, bilingualism in English and another language can contribute to greater professional success, as well as increased earning power. In a recent study on the effects of bilingualism in the workforce (involving more than 6,000 young adults), Rumbaut (2014) found that bilingualism raised individuals' occupational status and increased their earnings. As the level of bilingualism increased, the advantages also increased. Another investigation of nearly 300 Californian businesses found that more than two thirds of employers preferred bilingual employees if their skills were comparable to those of monolingual employees (Porras, Ee, & Gandara, 2014).

Bilingualism also is associated with a variety of cognitive benefits. For example, executive function skills (i.e., cognitive processes involved in planning and carrying out actions) appear to be enhanced in students who are becoming bilingual (Esposito & Baker-Ward, 2013; see reviews of the research for young children in Ball, 2010; Espinosa, 2013; Sandhofer & Uchikoshi, 2013; and Barac, Bialystok, Castro, & Sanchez, 2014.) Research also shows that ELs can benefit from continuing to learn in their native language, both academically and cognitively (Lindholm-Leary & Genesee, 2014). Oral proficiency and literacy in a student's first language, for example, can facilitate English literacy development (August & Shanahan, 2006; Moughamian, Rivera, & Francis, 2009; Wu, 2005). ELs also can develop high levels of academic proficiency in their native language (while mastering English as well), giving them the asset of bilingualism. Looking ahead to high school graduation rates, Rumbaut's (2014) study found that bilingualism

was associated with a lower likelihood of dropping out of school among adult children of immigrants.

Bilingualism is an asset not only to individuals, but also to the countries they live in. As U.S. Secretary of Education Arne Duncan and Assistant Deputy Secretary Libia Gil have observed, it is important to maximize the resources students bring with them when they come to school, including their home language skills:

> In our country, we have a valuable yet untapped resource within the estimated 4.6 million students learning English—the fastest growing student population in our schools. These students come to school already speaking a variety of home languages, most commonly Spanish, Vietnamese, Chinese, Arabic or Hmong. These languages are significant not only to our economic competitiveness but also to our nation's security. The heritage languages our English learners bring to school are major assets to preserve and value (Duncan & Gil, 2014).

As Duncan and Gil note, there are already many students in the United States from language backgrounds other than English, and their numbers are growing. According to U.S. Department of Education statistics for 2012–13, for example, the number of students classified as English learners (ELs) is approaching five million, which represents 4.2 percent growth since 2007–08.[7] Although a large majority of ELs come from Spanish-speaking homes, many other languages also are represented, including Vietnamese, Chinese, Arabic, Hmong, Bengali, Korean, Navajo, Nepali, Portuguese, and Somali, to mention just a few. For these students, as well as for native English speakers, it is important to provide opportunities to gain critical 21st century language and cultural skills by creating clear and accessible paths to bilingualism and biliteracy in our schools, while simultaneously improving educational outcomes.

Given the advantages of bilingualism and biliteracy for individuals and society, as well as the increasing numbers of U.S. students who come from homes where a language other than English is spoken, how can educators and families help more students gain these benefits?

Study Overview and Guiding Questions

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) holds states accountable for closing achievement gaps and ensuring that ELs meet the same challenging academic content and student achievement standards that all students are expected to meet.

In September 2013, the U.S. Department of Education issued a Request for Information (RFI) asking respondents to comment on the evaluation and research needs of the Title III and EL community, which included, but was not limited to, administrators, teachers, teacher trainers, researchers and evaluators, families, and other members of the EL community. The Department used the data gathered from the RFI submissions and information gathered from national listening forums and conversations to develop an evaluation and research agenda to address the needs of ELs. As a result of these information-seeking activities, a range of questions regarding

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[7] Based on an analysis of data collected through states' Consolidated State Performance Reports and published through ED Data Express ((http://eddataexpress.ed.gov/data-elements.cfm/sgid/108/).

dual language education were identified as one of the top priority areas in need of more research, guidance, and technical assistance.

According to the Center for Applied Linguistics, in dual language education programs, students are taught literacy and academic content in English and a partner language (Center for Applied Linguistics, n.d.). Dual-language programs aim to help students develop high levels of language proficiency and literacy in both program languages, attain high levels of academic achievement, and develop an appreciation and understanding of another culture.

The purpose of this study is to summarize research and extant data on policies and practices related to dual language programs to answer a set of guiding questions generated by the RFI submission, national listening forums, and conversations (see Exhibit 1.1). This study is sponsored by the U.S. Department of Education's Office of English Language Acquisition (OELA) and Office of State Support (OSS). The Department requested the study in order to obtain information to describe the current state of dual language education programs, set priorities for future grant competitions, and refine research questions that may be informed by the review.

Exhibit 1.1. Study's Guiding Questions

Guiding Questions

1. State Policies on Dual Language Education Programs

What are the similarities and differences of dual language programs across states and within states? (Chapter II)

Do states have definitions for dual language education programs? If so, what range of characteristics do these definitions include? (Chapter II)

Do states provide guidance or information on the key components of dual language programs? If so, what guidance or information do states provide districts on the key components of dual language programs? (Chapter II)

Does the state have legislative requirements, regulatory guidance, and non-regulatory guidance related to dual language programming (e.g., the ratio of ELs to English proficient students or the ratio of ELs to native English speakers in the program)? If so, what are they? (Chapter II)

What is the typical length of time that ELs and English proficient students remain in a dual language program? (Chapter II)

Are there state legislative requirements and/or regulatory guidance that might encourage or constrain dual language programming? Are there other state policies that might encourage or constrain dual language programs? (Chapter VI)

Is there funding specifically targeted for dual language programs? If so, what is the source of this funding? If not, is there funding that can be used for these programs? If so, what is the source of this funding? (Chapter VI)

What are the state challenges to the implementation of dual language programs? What do states know about district challenges to the implementation of dual language programs? Are there state policies or activities to address these challenges? What do states know about district policies or activities to address these challenges? (Chapters IV, V, and VI)

2. State- and District-Level Eligibility and Exit Criteria in Dual Language Programs

What tools or instruments are used to determine ELs' eligibility for and placement in dual language programs (including the tools or instruments used to identify students as ELs)? What tools or instruments are used to determine English proficient students' eligibility for and placement in dual language programs? (Chapter III)

Do states have criteria for exiting EL students enrolled in dual language programs from EL status that are different from state criteria for exiting EL students enrolled in other types of programs? If so what are they? What is their source? (Chapter III)

Do states have laws or regulatory guidance in place to determine eligibility and placement for ELs in dual language programs? If so, what are they? Do states have laws or regulatory guidance in place to determine eligibility and placement for English proficient students in dual language programs? If so, what are they? (Chapter III)

Do states have recruitment and retention policies or guidance for enrolling students in bilingual or dual language programs? If so, what are they? What is their source? What can states tell us about the procedures that districts have in place for recruiting and retaining students in dual language programs? (Chapter III)

3. Assessment and Accountability for States and Districts Related to Dual Language Programming

What language (i.e., English and partner language) proficiency standards do states require districts to use in their dual language programs? What content standards do states require districts to use in their dual language programs? (Chapter IV)

Do states monitor implementation of English language proficiency, partner language proficiency, and academic content standards in dual language programs? If so, how? What can states tell us about how districts monitor this implementation? (Chapter IV)

What are states' requirements for assessing English language development and proficiency for ELs in dual language programs? Are state officials aware of any additional assessments that districts use to measure English language development and proficiency in dual language programs? (Chapter IV)

Do states have requirements for assessing partner language development and proficiency in dual language programs? If so, what are they? Are state officials aware of any district practices to measure partner language development and proficiency in dual language programs? (Chapter IV)

Do states use any other measures to determine the effectiveness of dual language programs? If so, what are they? (Chapter IV)

Do state accountability requirements support assessment strategies that encourage development in both languages, rather than in only one language or the other? (Chapter IV)

4. Teachers and Professional Development Specific to Dual Language Programming

Do states have qualification requirements for teachers in dual language education programs? If so, what are they? What can states tell us about district qualification requirements for teachers in these programs? (Chapter V)

Do states provide incentives to teachers to become qualified to teach in dual language programs? If so, what are they? Are these incentives for pre-service teachers, in-service teachers, or both? Do states take steps to actively develop the supply of teachers with the skills needed in dual language programs? If so, how? (Chapter V)

Do states have policies related to the content and other aspects of professional development (PD) for teachers currently teaching in dual language education programs? What can states tell us about

district policies related to the content and other aspects of PD for these teachers? (Chapter V)

Do states use or require districts to use specific professional development models for teachers currently teaching in dual language education programs? If so, what are they? What can states tell us about the models that districts use? (Chapter V)

To answer the study's guiding questions, the report draws on multiple data sources, including a review of descriptive studies and research summaries on dual language programs, a review of extant data sets, a review of SEA websites for all 50 states and the District of Columbia, and interviews with state officials in six states. The report reviews extant data regarding dual language programs that are available for ELs and students in all states and the District of Columbia.

Historical Context

Bilingual forms of education have existed in the United States since early in its history. Schools established by various settler groups offered education in the language of the group, with some featuring bilingual instruction in English and the heritage language as English became more dominant (including, for example, German-English schools in Indiana, Ohio, Wisconsin, and elsewhere; French-English schools in Louisiana; and Spanish-English schools in New Mexico) (Crawford, 2004). In the early 20th century, schools moved away from the use of languages other than English, except in world language teaching, as laws and beliefs (including reactions to conflicts with other nations) emphasized the role of English. For American Indians, the move to English-only education came earlier, with mid-19th century policies banning the use of native languages in education (Crawford, 2004).

Bilingual education to serve the needs of ELs reappeared in the 1960s, spurred by the Civil Rights movement and other socio-political forces (Crawford, 2004). A pioneer in this new phase was in fact a two-way dual language program when, in 1963, the Coral Way Bilingual Elementary School in Miami brought together Spanish-speaking and English-speaking students in a program that sought to help all students become bilingual (responding, in part, to parents of English-speaking students, including those of Cuban descent, who wished to give their children access to bilingual education). In the 1970s, schools in Washington, D.C., Chicago, and San Diego adopted a similar model. In the late 1980s, dual language education attracted increased interest (including from the research community), and the numbers of programs began to grow. As Christian (1996, p. 67) has argued, "This interest was likely the result of a convergence of factors, including increased attention to foreign language learning for English speakers, research on effective programs for educating language minority students, and the availability of federal and state funding for programs using this approach." Since then, there has been a steady growth in the number of dual language programs, with a significant increase in recent years prompted by several state initiatives (including initiatives in Delaware, North Carolina, and Utah) that support the establishment of language immersion programs (including two-way immersion) to strengthen language learning and global awareness for all students.

As educators gained experience with the dual language model and research highlighted its effectiveness (see, for example, Gómez, 2013; Lindholm-Leary & Block, 2010; Marian, Shook,

& Schroeder, 2013; Valentino & Reardon, 2015; Lindholm-Leary, 2011), the approach became more widely accepted as a promising educational alternative for ELs. Programs spread to schools in diverse communities across the country—and to large urban, suburban, and rural school districts—and design variations were introduced to meet the needs of different communities.

Policy Contexts

At the federal level, policies related to the education of ELs are central to considering dual language education for this student population. Current federal policy builds on a series of legislative and judicial actions that occurred over the last 50 years and sought to promote equal opportunity in education for ELs (Hakuta, 2011). More recent attention to the needs of these students was prompted by Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, which prohibited discrimination on the basis of race, color, or national origin in any federally funded program. This law extended to public schools and their students because state and local education agencies receive federal funds. Ten years later, the Supreme Court issued a decision in a class action suit brought by families of Chinese ELs against the San Francisco school district (*Lau v. Nichols*, 1974), finding that the schools were violating Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 by not helping ELs gain the skills needed to participate fully in instructional programs. According to this ruling, school districts are obliged to take affirmative steps to help ELs (as members of national origin minority groups) learn English and benefit from educational offerings. This position was affirmed by federal legislation in the Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974, which, among other things, requires states and school districts to provide EL students with appropriate services to overcome language barriers (U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, 2015). This policy became the civil rights foundation for federal requirements for EL services.

A few years later, the Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals set the parameters for what constitutes "appropriate action to overcome language barriers" (*Castañeda v. Pickard*, 1981). Stated very generally, the three-part test calls for education programs for ELs to be informed by a sound educational theory, to be implemented adequately according to that theory, and to produce results for students in a reasonable time that show that the intent is being achieved (Hakuta, 2011). These standards have since been widely used by the U.S. Departments of Justice and Education when reviewing services for ELs. As recently as January 2015, the two agencies issued "joint guidance…to ensure that EL students can participate meaningfully and equally in educational programs and services" (U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights, 2015, p. 2). The communication outlines what state and local districts are legally obligated to do for EL students, as well as noting a number of issues that have arisen in compliance reviews.

Federal education legislation and regulations intersect with these pieces of civil rights legislation (Hakuta, 2011). Shortly after the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was enacted, the U.S. Congress in 1965 passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). Among other provisions, Title I of this act provided supplemental funds that states and districts could use to improve education for students from poor families. In 1968, an amendment focusing on the needs of ELs was passed—known as the Bilingual Education Act—which designated funding streams to supplement state and local support for instructional programs, teacher preparation, materials development, and other EL-related needs. This became Title VII of the ESEA, which included bilingual education as a viable (but not compulsory) instructional program model. The ESEA and

the related regulations that were issued established a framework of federal requirements for EL services in education.

The ESEA was discussed and amended several times in the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s, and the role and maintenance of languages other than English for ELs remained a consistent topic of discussion for Title VII—a core issue in any consideration of dual language education. Although federal law considered bilingual education a permissible instructional model, it was not compulsory, and renewals of the ESEA during this period varied in terms of whether they encouraged or discouraged programs that sought to maintain EL students' native languages while they learned English (Crawford, 2004). As a result, federal funding support for dual language education remained variable during this period.

The 2001 reauthorization of the ESEA—the No Child Left Behind Act—moved the provisions concerning ELs to Title III and increased the focus on promoting English acquisition and helping ELs meet challenging content standards. States now receive funds through a formula-based funding approach based on numbers of EL students, and most of the funds are allocated to districts to supplement their local language instruction educational programs (LIEPs) for ELs. In a new mandate that began with this reauthorization, Title I requires states to report on the proficiency of all students in achieving state-set standards in mathematics, reading or language arts, and science. States must maintain state academic standards, with aligned assessments and targets set for adequate yearly progress (AYP) in reading/English language arts and mathematics. EL students are included in these requirements, and their performance as a subgroup is part of the overall assessment of state and local attainment of AYP targets.[8] Furthermore, Title III mandates explicit accountability for ELs' English language proficiency (ELP) development and academic achievement. In addition to the Title I content standards, states are required to develop ELP standards for EL students, along with assessments that measure progress toward those standards. States also need to set annual measurable achievement objectives (AMAOs) for ELs, and districts that receive Title III funds must report on how well their EL students meet those AMAOs to ensure that they are making progress in learning English, attaining English proficiency, and learning grade-level academic content. Title III also requires states and districts to ensure that teachers in LIEPs are fluent in English and any other language in which they provide instruction.

The United States has no official language and generally leaves decisions about the language of instruction to states, district, and schools. Federal law does, however, affirm the rights of Native American populations—including American Indians, Alaska Natives, Native Hawaiians, and Pacific Islanders—to use and develop their native languages.[9]

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[8] As of 2012–13, SEAs with approved ESEA flexibility plans no longer need to follow specific AYP provisions outlined in Title I but are required to implement a system of differentiated recognition, accountability, and support for all districts and Title I schools, and this system must be designed to improve student outcomes and close achievement gaps for all subgroups, including ELs (U.S. Department of Education, 2012).

[9] The Native American Languages Act (NALA) of 1990 asserts that it is U.S. policy to: "preserve, protect, and promote the rights and freedoms of Native Americans to use, practice, and develop Native American languages"; encourage and support the use of Native American languages as a medium of instruction; encourage institutions of elementary, secondary, and higher education, where appropriate, to include Native American languages in the curriculum in a manner comparable to other world languages; and allow exceptions to teacher qualification

Dual language programs must comply with the Title I ESEA requirements, and if the school district is a Title III grantee, with the Title III requirements as well. In addition, states and local districts have their own policies that determine how school systems are organized and what kinds of programs may be offered. In recent years, some states (such as Arizona and California) have established policies that constrain the use of bilingual programming—including dual language programming, in some cases—for ELs (e.g., policies that require parents to provide informed consent before their child is placed in a bilingual program). These policies do not necessarily prohibit the use of dual language programs, however. For instance, despite California's policies requiring parental informed consent, the number of dual language programs in the state has increased in recent years.[10]

Some states have moved to increase the numbers of dual language programs in an effort to equip students with multilingual skills that will make them more competitive in the global marketplace. For example, the state of Utah passed legislation in 2008 that called for the establishment of dual language programs[11] throughout the state and provides funding for programs, teacher development, and curriculum and materials preparation (Utah State Office of Education, n.d.b). Since then, Utah has seen tremendous growth in the number of programs operating in the state.[12] Delaware, Georgia, and North Carolina are among other states that have recently undertaken efforts to promote dual language education. Local school districts also are expanding their dual language offerings. In many cases—such as in New York City, where programs are being added or expanded at 40 schools in fall 2015—the moves are part of a plan to improve services for ELs (Mitchell, 2015). To further promote multilingualism and dual language education, states and districts across the country are increasingly adopting Seal of Biliteracy policies that officially recognize students who become bilingual and biliterate by the time they graduate high school by awarding them a special seal or insignia on their high school diploma.

It also is important to recognize that policies that affect dual language education extend well beyond rules concerning the language of instruction in schools. Teacher qualification requirements set the ground rules for staffing dual language programs, and regulations for educating students with disabilities need to be followed. In school districts, the availability of magnet schools or busing may determine whether students from a particular language background who live in different neighborhoods can attend the same school (Dorner, 2010), and funding decisions may or may not allow for the purchase of materials in different languages. As a result, the policy context for dual language education is both multilevel (federal, state, local) and multidimensional (Johnson, 2009; Varghese, 2008).

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requirements for federal programs in situations where the requirements inhibit the employment of teachers who can teach in a Native American language (NALA, 25 U.S.C. 2903).

[10] For instance, between 2006 and 2012, the number of dual language programs in the state grew from 201 to 318 (Yang Su, 2012).

[11] In Utah, state-funded dual language programs begin in kindergarten or first grade and add an additional grade level each year through Grade 12.

[12] During the first year of Utah's initiative, the state had 1,400 students participating in 25 dual language programs; by 2013–14, it had 20,000 students enrolled in 98 dual language programs (Utah State Office of Education, 2013).

(This brief discussion highlights just a few of the major legal provisions that affect the education of ELs. For a fuller discussion of the policy context for EL education established by Title III, see U.S. Department of Education, 2013, and Tanenbaum et al., 2012, p. xiii.)

Current Status of Dual Language Education in the United States

Dual language education holds the promise of giving students access to key 21st century skills, namely bilingualism, biliteracy, and global awareness. A growing body of research also suggests that the approach provides more opportunities for ELs to reach higher levels of academic achievement (Gómez, 2013; Valentino & Reardon, 2015)[13] as well as more positive motivation and a sense of identity (Lopez, 2010). As a result, the number of schools adopting this model is rising quickly, particularly in response to concerns about the education of EL students. However, recent research also has raised questions about the ability of dual language education to secure its goals for ELs in educational settings in which English is perceived as having a higher status than the partner language (de Jong & Howard, 2009; Scanlan & Palmer, 2009). Given that dual language programs operate in a mosaic of policy contexts in schools around the country (which implement the model in diverse ways), it is important to understand the current status of dual language education in states and schools around the country to inform policymaking at the federal, state, and local levels.

Focus of This Report

This report will focus on policies and practices related to two types of dual language programs: (1) two-way dual language programs (also known as two-way immersion programs), in which language minority students participate alongside English-speaking peers and receive instruction in both English and a partner language; and (2) one-way dual language programs, in which students from predominantly one language group receive instruction in both English and a partner language. One-way dual language programs may serve predominantly language minority students (also known as developmental or maintenance bilingual programs); predominantly English-speaking students (also known as one-way/world language immersion programs); or predominantly students with a family background or cultural connection to the partner language (also known as heritage or native language programs). Both types of programs share the goals of promoting bilingualism, biliteracy, grade-level academic achievement, understanding and appreciation of multiple cultures, and positive cross-cultural attitudes. (This report does not include a focus on transitional bilingual programs, which feature instruction in two languages with the goal of exiting students once they become proficient in English.)

Overview of Analytic Approach and Data Sources

This report draws on multiple data sources to address the guiding questions, including a review of the literature related to dual language programs, a review of extant data sets, a review of SEA websites for all 50 states and the District of Columbia, and interviews with state officials in six states.

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[13] See also Lindholm-Leary & Block, 2010; Lindholm-Leary & Genesee, 2014; and Marian, Shook, & Schroeder, 2013.

Literature Review

This study began with a review and synthesis of the literature related to dual language programs published within the last 10 years. The review incorporates theoretical and empirical sources. We excluded editorial and opinion pieces. The methodological process for the literature review involved multiple steps. The first step was to identify the literature related to two-way dual language education programs and one-way dual language education programs for ELs. A protocol was developed that outlined the terms for searching the literature. The search terms were determined based on the guiding questions. Three major education research databases (ERIC, Professional Development Collection, and PsycINFO), as well as the What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) website, were searched. The thesaurus in each database was checked to search for any subject-heading terms relevant to the concept of dual language programs. There were no consistently used subject-heading terms for this concept, so we used the phrase *dual language* as the main search term. We searched on that phrase in both the title field and the abstract field, combining it with several truncated "program" terms appearing in any or all searchable fields. The program terms were truncated to ensure that the search would pull articles that used the term *program* or *programs*, as well as *class* or *classroom* or *classrooms*, for example. The preliminary search was limited to peer-reviewed, English language results published within the last 10 years. This preliminary search identified 196 articles published in English between 2004 and 2014. In addition, the study team found 20 WWC articles published between 2004 and 2014 by using the search terms *bilingual, English language learner, English learner, literacy,* and *Spanish.* Among the 196 articles, 11 duplicate articles were found and removed, resulting in 185 articles. Twenty WWC articles also were included in the preliminary screening process, resulting in a total of 205 articles.

The search was then expanded in an effort to find high-quality technical reports and publicly available dissertation research that aligned to the research questions. Other sources also were used to locate literature, including, for example, Google and Google Scholar, the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, the Center for Applied Linguistics, and the Council of Chief State School Officers websites. An extended list of search terms connected with both dual language and bilingual education programs and related to the research questions was used. Examples of search terms include *dual language programs and policies*, *dual immersion programs and policies, two-way immersion programs and policies, bilingual education assessment*, and *bilingual education policy*. Through this second search, the study team identified a total of 63 supplementary documents, which included technical reports, journal articles, and publicly available dissertations. Of the 63 supplementary documents initially found, 29 documents were not included in the preliminary screening because they did not meet the inclusion criteria (i.e., they were not technical reports, publicly available journal articles, or publicly available dissertations). Of the 63 supplementary documents, abstracts from 34 publicly available technical reports, journal articles, and dissertations responded to at least one guiding question and therefore met the criteria for further coding. These 34 supplementary documents were entered into the crosswalk matrix.

The second step was to crosswalk the abstracts of the 239 identified studies from the searches with the project's 20 guiding questions in order to eliminate studies that did not align with the research questions. A detailed spreadsheet was created to conduct the "crosswalk" of each study with the entire set of guiding questions. Although the majority of the article abstracts did not address the guiding questions, a total of 51 abstracts responded to at least one guiding question.

To begin the coding process, the study team created a detailed spreadsheet to capture each study's title, year of publication, and abstract for the full literature review. In the third step, each of the studies was then read in its entirety, and the sample, methods, measures, outcomes, key findings, limitations, and themes that supported the research questions were coded. To calibrate this step, two analysts read and coded an article together to ensure that the process was conducted consistently and to fine-tune the coding instrument. After this process was refined, the remaining studies were coded individually. Finally, the results were summarized by research question.

In the fourth step, after the analyses of state data were complete, we conducted another literature search to inform our interpretation of the results and provide additional context for our findings. The search was guided by the chapter topics and research questions associated with them. Inclusion criteria were expanded to include books or book chapters and literature prior to 2004 if they provided historical context. Relevant literature published in 2015 also was included. Sources included those cited above as well as books and educational periodicals.

All of the sources cited are listed in the references following the report. Appendix A includes studies that most specifically focused on dual language programming and policies and addressed the report's research questions.

Review of Extant Data Sets

By beginning the policy scan with analyses of extant data sets, the study team gained an important baseline understanding of particular policies and contextual factors related to dual language programs. The study team examined databases and evaluated their usefulness to the study using the following criteria: (1) responsiveness to the guiding questions, (2) timeliness of the data, and (3) ability to provide relevant background or foundational information for the study. Databases consulted included the Colorín Colorado State Policy Database, the Education Commission of the States (ECS) ELL State Policy Database, the Consolidated State Performance Reports[14] (CSPRs), the EdCounts database, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) database, the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS), the Civil Rights Data Collection (CRDC), and data collected through the National Study of Title III Implementation. For this report, the study drew extant data variables primarily from the CSPRs for the 2012–13 school year and the ECS ELL State Policy Database. The study team extracted relevant variables from these data sets and stored them in Excel spreadsheets, which carefully documented the following for each data variable collected: the data source (i.e., database name and location), variable name, variable definition, and data collection year.

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[14] It is important to note that some of the reported data from CSPRs are applicable only to districts with Title III funding, which include many but not all school districts. When reporting data from the CSPRs, we specify whether the data reflect all districts in a state or only those that receive Title III funding.

Review of State Websites

The research team's review of extant data sets found that relatively little information about state dual language policies and programs had already been compiled. As a result, the study team conducted systematic searches of state websites to gather and analyze dual language policy documents and resources from individual states. This involved developing data collection tools and procedures, locating and capturing data, and reviewing data for quality assurance.

Developing data collection tools and procedures. To facilitate the collection of policy information related to the study's guiding questions—and to ensure consistency in data collection procedures—the study team developed a structured protocol that outlined the types of information to be collected from state websites, as well as procedures for locating and capturing those data. Using a matrix of key constructs derived from the study's guiding questions, the study team designed protocol questions to guide state website reviewers in collecting information relevant to those constructs. The protocol featured a mix of closed-ended questions (which required a yes/no, categorical, or numeric response) and open-ended questions (which required a descriptive response, such as excerpts from state policy documents or written summaries). In conjunction with the data collection protocol, the study team developed a set of Excel spreadsheets to serve as data capture forms for entering data on state dual language policies. Each data capture form corresponded to a particular item on the data collection protocol and was structured to allow the data collection team to record relevant data from all 50 states and the District of Columbia (using one row per state).

Before commencing the full state-by-state review of websites from all 50 states and the District of Columbia, the project team piloted its data collection instruments and procedures with a sample of six states: Illinois, New Jersey, New Mexico, North Carolina, Texas, and Utah. These states were selected for the pilot because they promote dual language programming or bilingual education more generally, and because a large number of districts in these states implement dual language programs or other types of bilingual education programs. Based on lessons learned during the pilot website searches, the study team revisited the study's guiding questions and construct matrix to reflect its new understanding of the state policy landscape and the types of information it might expect to find in policy documents posted on state websites. The revised construct matrix was then used to revise the state website data collection protocol for the full state website review. (See Appendix B for the final data collection protocol.) Given the large sample size, the revised protocol focused on high-level questions that the study team anticipated could be answered for most, if not all, states and the District of Columbia. In addition to revising the data collection protocol, the study team refined the data collection procedures and data capture form to help ensure that the data collection process ran as smoothly and efficiently as possible.

Prior to conducting both the pilot website search and the full state website review, members of the data collection team participated in training sessions to review the protocol and data collection procedures. As part of this training, each reviewer received a guidance document that identified potential data sources, such as state EL or dual language program manuals/handbooks, state policy letters, state-developed technical assistance materials (e.g., PowerPoint presentations), and state laws. The guidance document also listed basic procedures and tips for completing the search.

Locating and capturing data. To locate relevant policy information, state website reviewers systematically reviewed key sections of states' SEA websites. Although each SEA website is structured differently, reviewers were instructed to examine (where applicable) SEA webpages related to EL services and/or Title III, world languages, research and evaluation, teacher certification and licensure, and Title I. Reviewers also performed targeted keyword searches using both the SEA websites' internal search engines and external search engines such as Google. To help ensure the timeliness of the data collected, reviewers sought the most recent information available on state websites and limited their searches to information published within the last five years (except in cases where a reviewer found evidence that information older than five years was still in effect).

Once state website reviewers had located information relevant to a particular protocol question, they entered that information into the appropriate Excel-based data capture form. In addition to featuring columns for entering state policy data, each data capture form also included a notes column for recording clarifying information and data quality concerns, as well as a series of data source columns for documenting the name and location of the webpage from which data were retrieved. In addition to logging data sources and publication dates in the data capture form, reviewers downloaded and saved a copy of each data source alongside the data collection protocol on a secure project server. Exhibit 1.2 displays an excerpt from one of the data capture forms used for the state website review.

Exhibit 1.2. Excerpt From Excel-Based Data Capture Form for State Website Review Protocol Question Q21a

Q21a State Requirements for Assessing English Language Development and Proficiency

State Name	Name of State English Language Proficiency Assessment	State-Defined Annual ELP Growth Target (Title III AMAO 1) "Making Progress"	State-Defined Proficiency Cut Scores (Title III AMAO 2) "Attaining Proficiency"	Notes	Data Source for Name of ELP Assessment	Data Source for ELP Growth Target	Data Source for Proficiency Cut Scores
Alabama	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs©	An increase of 0.5 on the proficiency level from one data point to another data point	A composite proficiency score of 4.8		EL Handbook http://alex.state.al.us/ell/sites/alex.state.al.us.ell/ell_files/EL%20Handbook%202014-2015%20revised.pdf	EL Handbook http://alex.state.al.us/ell/sites/alex.state.al.us.ell/ell_files/EL%20Handbook%202014-2015%20revised.pdf	EL Handbook http://alex.state.al.us/ell/sites/alex.state.al.us.ell/ell_files/EL%20Handbook%202014-2015%20revised.pdf
Alaska	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs©	A gain of 0.4 on the composite proficiency level from the prior year to the current year	An overall composite proficiency level of 5.0 or higher on the ELP Assessment and 4.0 or higher on each domain: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Students in Grades 1–12 must take Tier B or C of the ACCESS for ELLs to attain proficiency. No tiers apply for kindergarten students.		AMAO document http://www.eed.alaska.gov/nclb/pdf/Title_III_Objectives_AMAOs.pdf	AMAO document http://www.eed.alaska.gov/nclb/pdf/Title_III_Objectives_AMAOs.pdf	AMAO document http://www.eed.alaska.gov/nclb/pdf/Title_III_Objectives_AMAOs.pdf

The Excel-based data capture forms offered several features that aided in the collection, management, and review of state policy information: (1) a format that was suitable for both quantified and text data; (2) a flexible interface, in which new variables could be inserted or data could be updated easily; (3) fields to indicate when data were updated; (4) flags to indicate when data were uncertain and in need of verification; and (5) mechanisms to facilitate basic counts, tabulations, and charts. The Excel format also allowed the study team to integrate the data collected from extant data sets into the same data capture file for analysis.

In-Depth Policy Review in a Sample of Six Case Study States

The final stage of the state policy scan involved an investigation into the dual language program policies and practices within a purposefully chosen subsample of six states: Delaware, Illinois, Massachusetts, New Mexico, North Carolina, and Utah. The purpose of the case studies was to

find out more in-depth information not only about dual language programs and policies but also about the conditions that enhance or inhibit dual language programming.

Toward this end, six case study states were selected, to include states with policies that promote dual language programs (Delaware, North Carolina, and Utah), states with policies that promote the use of bilingual education programs (Illinois and New Mexico), and a state with a large EL population and policies that constrain the use of bilingual education programs (Massachusetts). The case study states also were selected to ensure geographic diversity. Exhibit 1.3 presents the characteristics of the six case study states.

Exhibit 1.3. Characteristics of Case Study States

	Number of Dual Language Programs, 2014–15	Number of ELs in the State, 2012–13	Percentage of ELs in the State, 2012–13	Percent Growth in State's EL Population, 2007–08 to 2012–13	Top Five EL Language Groups, 2012–13
Delaware	15 (including four two-way programs)	7,503	5.9%	9.8%	Spanish, Amharic, French, Chinese, Vietnamese
Illinois	30 (including two districtwide programs)	190,172	9.3%	8.4%	Spanish, Arabic, Polish, Chinese, Urdu
Massachusetts	20	71,066	7.1%	45.1%	Spanish, Portuguese, Haitian/Haitian Creole, Chinese, Creole and Pidgin
New Mexico	653 (including 143 two-way programs)	59,071	15.6%	-2.6%	Spanish, Navajo, Nias, Vietnamese, Zuni
North Carolina	95	102,311	6.5%	-10.7%	Spanish, Arabic, Vietnamese, Chinese, Hmong
Utah	118 (including 27 two-way programs)	39,238	5.4%	-25.5%	Spanish, Navajo, Somali, Arabic, Chinese

Exhibit Reads: Fifteen dual language programs, including four two-way programs and 11 one-way programs, were operating in Delaware in 2014–15.

Source: SEA website searches and state interviews conducted in spring 2015; Consolidated State Performance Reports, 2012–13; Consolidated State Performance Reports, 2007–08.

The case study data collection included two primary components: (1) more extensive searches of the case study states' websites to uncover additional policy information, and (2) interviews with SEA officials with primary responsibility for overseeing state policies and practices related to dual language programs.

Case study state website searches. Website searches for the case study states followed the same general procedures as the other state website searches conducted for this study, but they involved more in-depth exploration of key study topics, with a greater emphasis on collecting rich, descriptive information on states' dual language education policies and practices. Website

searches for the case study states also incorporated a broader set of topics than the other website searches. By focusing on the six case study states, the study team was able to investigate important, policy-relevant topics without expending the resources required to examine those topics across all 50 states and the District of Columbia.

Interviews with officials in six case study states. In addition to conducting these more comprehensive examinations of state websites, the study team interviewed state officials from the six case study states to identify and obtain relevant policy documents that were not available on the states' websites, request clarification on policy information that had been collected, and gather additional information that was unavailable through extant sources. SEAs vary in how they organize responsibility for dual language programming, which meant that the SEA officials interviewed for this study held different roles within the SEA. However, they were all determined to be the officials with primary responsibility for dual language programming. The case study interviews followed a semi-structured interview protocol that aligned with the protocol developed for the state website searches. Prior to each interview, the study team tailored the state interview protocol to reflect the data already collected for that state through the SEA website searches. This process allowed the interviewer to customize the conversation with each state official to ensure a detailed and accurate understanding of policies specific to that state.

All interviews were audio recorded to back up note taking and allow for comprehensive and accurate summaries. Following each interview, the interviewer cleaned the interview notes to ensure that they were easy for an outside reader to follow (i.e., free from abbreviations and partial sentences; pronouns, proper nouns, and acronyms explained), and the interviewer then sent a copy of the cleaned notes to the state interview respondent for confirmation and clarification. Once state interview respondents returned a finalized copy of the interview notes, the study team used these notes to verify the information entered into the state website data capture form, revising entries and inserting additional detail as appropriate. To store and analyze data that were unique to the state interviews (e.g., data on state challenges in implementing dual language programs, which were not available through extant data sources), the study team developed state interview data capture forms that mirrored the data capture spreadsheets for the state website search. When conducting the telephone interviews with state officials, the study team also requested any relevant documents that were not publicly available on the state website, such as dual language program guidelines and evaluation reports. These materials were reviewed and analyzed in conjunction with the policy documents collected directly from the SEA websites.

Data Analysis Procedures

Entering data into the data capture forms marked a critical first step in terms of organizing and summarizing state-level data, but additional coding was necessary to identify all important data variables. For example, the prevalence or relevance of certain variables may not have been readily apparent during the first round of data entry, but later became apparent as study team members delved into specific areas of state policy and practice. In some cases, patterns and trends across states emerged over the course of the data collection and analysis, at which point analysts would go back to the data capture form to explore these patterns more systematically. Furthermore, in some cases, it was determined that the initial coding categories did not adequately reflect states' policies and practices. These categories were then revisited and revised to more accurately capture and interpret the data on the topic. When necessary, the study team

also reexamined state policy documents and webpages to fill in missing details, clarify ambiguous information, and ensure the accuracy of the coding.

This second phase of analysis was an iterative process that involved reviewing and filtering the data included in the Excel data capture form to (1) locate important information related to the key constructs featured in the study's guiding questions, and (2) develop coding categories that reflected the variation in states' approaches to particular policies or practices. Applying these coding categories to the qualitative state data allowed the study team to quantify patterns in state actions (for example, by producing counts of the number of states with specific policies or practices in place).

Considerations

The findings presented in this report should be interpreted with the following considerations in mind:

- Although this report summarizes findings from other research studies that sought to identify best practices and/or causal relationships between dual language education practices and student outcomes, the report's analyses of states' policies, guidance, and practices related to dual language programs are descriptive in nature.

- This report provides counts of the number of states that have particular policies in place or have taken specific actions related to dual language programs. These counts are based solely on the study team's interpretation of the information available on state websites, within extant data sets, and through interviews with officials from the six case study states. With the exception of the state interview data, this information has not been confirmed by representatives from the states. The state counts in this report should therefore be interpreted with caution.

- Unless otherwise noted, the data presented in this report are intended to reflect state policies and practices in place at the time of data collection (spring 2015). However, despite efforts to ensure that the information gathered from state websites was current and timely, the data collection procedures could not account for recent changes in state policy or practice that had not yet been communicated on states' websites, unless information on such changes was available through other data sources (such as the six state interviews).

- The terminology used to describe dual language programs is inconsistent across research studies and state websites. In some instances, the same terms were used to refer to different types of programs. At other times, different terms were used to refer to the same program. The study team bore such inconsistencies in mind when interpreting research findings and state policy information, using the study's definitions of two-way and one-way dual language programs as a framework for examining research and state policy information using a common language.

Organization of This Report

The study's findings are presented in the chapters that follow. Chapter II presents information on the design of dual language programs and the guidance that states provide regarding the features of these programs. Chapter III describes the policies and procedures that states have in place regarding EL and English proficient students' eligibility for and placement in dual language programs. Chapter IV examines states' policies related to the use of standards, assessments, and program evaluation measures in dual language programs. Chapter V explores states' policies regarding the qualifications of teachers who serve in dual language programs, as well as states' approaches to providing professional development opportunities for those teachers. Finally, Chapter VI presents information on state-level support for dual language and bilingual programming, including political support, funding, and technical assistance.

II.   Dual Language Education Program Design—Features and Guidance

This chapter begins with a brief discussion of key themes in the literature on dual language education program characteristics, and how these features are designed to support student learning. It then examines the information that states have posted on their websites, including the terms and descriptions used to define their programs and the guidance provided to local districts regarding implementation.

Key Findings

- Dual language programs vary in structure and implementation but share three common goals for students: (1) to develop bilingualism and biliteracy, based on high levels of proficiency in two languages (English and a partner language); (2) to achieve academically at grade level or better in both languages; and (3) to develop an understanding and appreciation of multiple cultures, with positive cross-cultural attitudes toward fellow students, their families, and the community.

- To promote bilingualism and biliteracy, dual language programs integrate language and academic content instruction in English and a partner language.

- Dual language programs vary in how they divide instructional time between English and the partner language, but a general principle is that at least 50 percent of instruction takes place in the partner language through the elementary school grades.

- Dual language programs generally commence at the beginning of elementary school (in either kindergarten or Grade 1) and continue throughout elementary school, with some programs continuing at the secondary level.

- Dual language education can be implemented as a "whole-school" program (in which all students participate) or a "strand" program (in which one or more classes at every grade level are dedicated to the dual language program, while other classes follow a different model).

- Two-way programs serve both English learners (ELs) and non-ELs by integrating ELs from a common language background (e.g., Spanish, Mandarin Chinese) and English-speaking students in the same classroom for academic instruction in both languages (Lindholm-Leary, 2012).

- One-way dual language programs typically include one language group (from a common language background) learning through two languages, rather than students from two different language backgrounds learning together.

- The majority of states (39 states and the District of Columbia) reported that districts in their state were implementing dual language education programs during the 2012–13 school year. The most commonly implemented programs were dual language programs with Spanish or a Chinese language as the partner language.

- Twenty-six states and the District of Columbia have issued definitions of two-way dual language programs, and 16 states and the District of Columbia have issued definitions of one-way dual language programs that predominantly serve language minority students. States' program definitions tend to emphasize the programs' goals of promoting bilingualism and biliteracy, academic achievement, and cross-cultural understanding.

- Relatively few states have explicit requirements or expectations regarding particular program features. For example, out of the 16 states and the District of Columbia that provide guidance on

the ratio of English-speaking students to partner-language-speaking students in two-way dual language programs, only two states have set requirements for this ratio. Seven states have established expectations regarding the allocation of instructional time in English and the partner language, and four states have articulated specific pathways for offering dual language programs at the secondary level.

Types of Dual Language Programs

Two-Way Dual Language Programs

Two-way programs serve both ELs and non-ELs by integrating ELs from a common language background (e.g., Spanish, Mandarin Chinese) and English-speaking students in the same classroom for academic instruction in both languages (Lindholm-Leary, 2012). Ideally, there should be a 50:50 balance of partner language speakers and English proficient students, which allows students to serve as language models for each other (Faulkner-Bond et al., 2012). If a 50:50 ratio is not possible, each language group should account for at least one third of a program's students in order to have enough second language peers (in both languages) to facilitate interactions between the two groups and stimulate the second language acquisition process (Gómez, Freeman, & Freeman, 2005; Lindholm-Leary, 2007; Rosado, 2005; Torres-Guzman et al., 2005). The expectation is that native speakers will serve as language models and resources, and there is some evidence to suggest that native speakers provide limited and specific scaffolding for their classmates who are learning the language (for example, through word translation and explanation of grammar or word usage) (de Jong & Howard, 2009). See the text box titled "Operating a Spanish Two-Way Dual Language Program at the Elementary and Secondary Levels" for an example of programs that feature a balance of students from two language groups.

It has become clear, however, that the benefits of integrating linguistic groups do not automatically occur when students from different backgrounds share a classroom (de Jong & Howard, 2009; Hernandez, 2015). There are a number of reasons for this, including the unequal linguistic status of the two languages of instruction (with English the more powerful and higher status language in the United States), which can lead to differences in peer interactions. For example, ELs may become proficient in English faster than English speakers become proficient in the partner language, which may create pressure to switch to English for discussions, limiting opportunities for ELs to serve as language resources. Cultural differences and teacher expectations about academic language skills also may affect these opportunities (de Jong & Howard, 2009). De Jong and Howard (2009) have suggested specific actions that teachers can take to address these challenges, such as providing native language speakers with explicit direction in being "academic language experts" for their classmates, and separating students by native language for brief periods (two hours per week) to address particular language needs (e.g., giving more challenging instruction to native speakers and/or targeted help to second language learners).

Operating a Spanish Two-Way Dual Language Program at the Elementary and Secondary Levels

Lindholm-Leary, Hardman, & Meyer (2007) describe Spanish two-way dual language programs operating in a small community in southern San Diego County, California, that allow students to participate in dual language education throughout their elementary and secondary schooling. The goals of these programs include promoting "bilingualism and biliteracy, academic excellence in both Spanish and English, and positive cross-cultural relationships and high levels of self-esteem" (Lindholm-Leary, Hardman, & Meyer, 2007, p.20).

Students typically enter the program in kindergarten at Nestor Language Academy, which serves a diverse student population that is more than 85 percent Latino and about 50 percent EL. Nestor Language Academy's program follows a 90:10 model of language allocation that begins by providing kindergarteners with instruction in Spanish for 90 percent of the school day and in English for 10 percent of the school day. Then, during each successive school year, the proportion of instruction in Spanish decreases by 10 percent, until the instructional day is evenly split between Spanish and English by the fifth grade. Students first learn to read and write in Spanish, and they begin receiving formal literacy instruction in English in Grade 3.

The program follows a district-adopted curriculum that is aligned with the California State Standards, but it fulfills the curriculum and other state and district instructional requirements through the lens of two-way dual language education. For example, teachers integrate multiple cultures and perspectives into the curriculum to allow students to feel that their own culture is valued while developing their appreciation for other cultures. They deliver their instruction using a variety of instructional strategies designed to support students as second language learners, such as visuals, cooperative learning, and scaffolding. Moreover, teachers enable students to serve as language models for their peers: they seat students in groups that intentionally feature an equal balance of native English speakers, native Spanish speakers, and bilingual students to ensure that each group always has a "language expert" at the table.

After Grade 6, students from Nestor Language Academy transfer to nearby Southwest Middle School, where they can continue the two-way dual language program in Grades 7 and 8. At this time, new students also may join the middle school program, but they must pass assessments of reading, writing, and mathematics in Spanish and English to ensure they have sufficient background in both languages to benefit from the dual language instruction. The program at Southwest Middle School divides the instructional day evenly between Spanish and English instruction, devoting 15 hours per week to each language. Students receive social studies, mathematics, and language arts instruction in Spanish and science/health, physical education, and language arts classes in English. They also may participate in an optional academic support class provided in English before the start of the school day. Teachers in the middle school dual language program collaborate with teachers from Nestor Language Academy's K–6 program to enhance their skills in providing high-quality dual language instruction. Once students complete Grade 8 of the middle school program, they have the option of continuing their language studies at Southwest High School by taking Advanced Placement (AP) college-level courses.

According to Lindholm-Leary, Hardman, & Meyer (2007), evaluations of these two-way dual language programs have shown success in accomplishing the programs' goals. With regard to language proficiency, 92–93 percent of sixth graders were rated as proficient in their second language (i.e., English or Spanish). In Grades 5 and 6, 60–63 percent of English proficient students and 41–47 percent of ELs scored Proficient or Advanced on the state English language arts (ELA) and mathematics assessments, meaning they scored comparable to or higher than the state average for all students. Furthermore, when the programs' first cohort of students reached 10th grade in 2005–06, all students—including former ELs and students receiving special education services—passed the California High School Exit Exam (CAHSEE) on their first try, and many reportedly received perfect scores.

One-Way Dual Language Programs

One-way dual language programs typically include one language group (from a common language background), learning through two languages, rather than students from two different language backgrounds learning together. As described in the text box titled "Types of Dual Language Education Programs" and in Exhibit 2.1, one-way dual language programs include student populations who are English proficient speakers who are acquiring a world language or a heritage language.[15] Heritage language programs are designed to support students who have a family background or cultural connection to a particular language. The third type of one-way dual language program, often known as developmental or maintenance bilingual programs, enrolls language minority students—generally ELs and former ELs—who share a common native language (Feinauer & Howard, 2012; Valentino & Reardon, 2015; de Jong, 2004). Three studies that describe such a model (Gómez, Freeman, & Freeman, 2005; Lindholm-Leary & Block, 2010; Lopez Estrada, Gómez, & Ruiz-Escalante, 2009) are summarized in the text box titled "Implementing a Dual Language Approach With a Majority of Students From the Same Language Background."

Types of Dual Language Education Programs

Two-Way Dual Language Programs

Two-way dual language programs (also referred to as two-way bilingual or dual language immersion programs) enroll equal populations of ELs and non-ELs and instruct both groups in English and the non-English partner language. The goals of the program are academic achievement, bilingualism, biliteracy, and biculturalism. Programs generally follow either a 50:50 model (with 50 percent of instruction taking place in English and 50 percent taking place in the partner language) or a 90:10 model (which begins by delivering 90 percent of instruction in the partner language and 10 percent of instruction in English, and then gradually transitions to a 50:50 balance of instruction between the two languages over the course of several years). Programs may balance languages by dividing instructional time based on content area, class period, instructor, day, week, unit, or semester. Each group of students acquires language and content-area knowledge in their own language, as well as in the partner language (Faulkner-Bond et al., 2012).

One-Way Dual Language Programs

- **One-way immersion programs** (also known as world language immersion programs) are very similar to two-way dual language programs in terms of implementation, but have different student populations. In one-way dual language programs, students are predominantly from one language group and are usually native English speakers, although programs also may include some ELs or heritage language learners of the partner language (Gómez, Freeman, & Freeman, 2005; Howard et al., 2007; Parkes & Ruth, 2011).

- **Developmental bilingual education programs** (also referred to as maintenance bilingual programs) are generally for ELs only. These programs offer a balance of instruction in the non-English partner language and English to promote academic achievement, bilingualism, and biliteracy. Programs follow either a 50:50 model or a 90:10 model and may balance languages by dividing instructional time based on content area, class period, instructor, day, week, unit, or semester. Students acquire language and content-area knowledge in English and the non-English partner language (Faulkner-Bond et al., 2012).

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[15] In the case of one-way dual language programs that serve predominantly native English-speaking students, the partner language is often referred to as a world or foreign language.

- **Heritage or native language programs** are language development programs that are designed or tailored to address the needs of heritage language learners. A heritage language learner has a family background in, or a cultural connection to, the language he or she is studying (Kelleher, 2010). Heritage language programs also may seek to rejuvenate an indigenous language, in addition to promoting bilingualism and biliteracy (with English). Indigenous communities commonly call this type of program a native language program. In some cases, this type of language program is designed to respond to the potential extinction of the language and culture of indigenous people (Pacific Policy Research Center, 2010).

Implementing a Dual Language Approach With a Majority of Students From the Same Language Background

The Gómez and Gómez model of dual language education is a schoolwide, 50:50 model, designed to support the academic and linguistic development of first- and second-language learners in elementary school. In this model, the majority of students are from the same language background (e.g., Spanish) but vary in their proficiency in the home language and in English, with some students being home language-dominant and others being English-dominant. Each content area is taught consistently in one language at a time. Mathematics is taught in English, science and social studies are taught in Spanish, and language arts is taught in both English and Spanish. The language for all other activities alternates daily (Gómez, Freeman, & Freeman, 2005; Lopez Estrada, Gómez, & Ruiz-Escalante, 2009). The Gómez and Gómez dual language model is being used at more than 360 schools in Texas and in schools in the state of Washington (Gómez, Freeman, & Freeman, 2005; Lopez Estrada, Gómez, & Ruiz-Escalante, 2009).

A central component of the Gómez and Gómez model is bilingual grouping, which pairs Spanish-dominant students with English-dominant students. Learners are grouped in bilingual pairs or groups for all content-area instruction. The pairs/groups change regularly, usually on a weekly basis. This pairing also is used in bilingual learning centers and bilingual resource centers. Bilingual learning centers—employed in kindergarten and Grade 1—are interactive, subject-based learning areas with activities that support first- and second-language learners. Bilingual learning center activities align with the themes that classes are studying, serving as previews or extensions of the content objectives related to those themes. In bilingual resource centers, which are employed in Grades 2 to 5, students work in bilingual pairs on self-directed learning activities for a minimum of 30 minutes per day. Bilingual resource center activities are used exclusively with lessons during content-area instruction; they use cooperative learning and project-based activities (Gómez, Freeman, & Freeman, 2005).

Exhibit 2.1. Overview of the Key Attributes of Dual Language Education Programs, by Program Type

| | Two-Way Dual Language Programs | One-Way Dual Language Programs | | |
| | | | | |
	Two-Way Immersion/ Dual Language Immersion	World Language Immersion Programs	Developmental Bilingual Education Programs	Heritage Language Immersion Programs
Student Population Served	ELs and non-ELs (ideally 50 percent in each group, or a minimum of 33 percent)	Primarily English speakers; can include ELs and heritage speakers	ELs and former ELs only	Students whose families' heritage language is/was the partner language
Languages	English and the ELs' home (partner) language	English and a partner language	English and the ELs' home (partner) language	English and the heritage (partner) language
Staffing	One bilingual teacher, who teaches in both languages, or one teacher per language	One bilingual teacher who teaches in both languages, or one teacher per language	One bilingual teacher who teaches in both languages, or one teacher per language	One bilingual teacher who teaches in both languages (prevalent model)
Time Allocation per Language	Primarily 50:50, or a combination that starts with more of the partner language (90:10, 80:20, and so on)			
Language of Academic Subjects	Varies by program			
Language Allocation	Language of instruction allocated by time, content area, or teacher			
Duration of Program	Throughout elementary school, with some programs continuing at the secondary level			
Size of Program	Strand or whole school			

Exhibit Reads: Two-way dual language programs, also known as two-way immersion or dual language immersion programs, serve a student population consisting of both ELs and non-ELs (ideally, 50 percent in each group, or a minimum of 33 percent).

Characteristics of Dual Language Education Programs

Dual language education is, first and foremost, a full instructional program for participating students (even when delivered as a strand program, rather than a whole-school program). It is not a partial or specialized program that is combined with another general education program; rather, it provides the full educational experience for its students, with dual language classrooms covering the core curriculum (i.e., the same content that is taught in all schools in a district). The defining element of dual language programs is the provision of instruction in two languages.

This section summarizes the key features of dual language education, focusing on characteristics specific to this approach. The findings apply to both two-way and one-way models of dual language education unless otherwise noted.[16]

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[16] It also is important to note that the characteristics of effective schools apply to dual language schools as well, from teacher preparation and school leadership to instructional practices, school organization, and parent involvement (Lindholm-Leary, 2007).

Common Goals

Dual language programs vary in structure and implementation but share three common goals for students: (1) to develop bilingualism and biliteracy, based on high levels of proficiency in two languages (English and a partner language); (2) to achieve academically at grade level or better in both languages; and (3) to develop an understanding and appreciation of multiple cultures, with positive cross-cultural attitudes toward fellow students, their families, and the community (Lindholm-Leary, 2007; Torres-Guzman et al., 2005; Howard et al., 2007; Alanís & Rodriguez, 2008; Block, 2011; Paciotto & Delany-Barmann, 2011; Parkes & Ruth, 2011; Rodriguez & Alanís, 2011).

A key element in realizing these goals is the "additive bilingual" purpose, whereby all students learn (or add) a new language while continuing to develop academically and linguistically in their home language. As dual language education offers the promise of bilingualism for all students, its role for ELs is especially noteworthy because ELs can benefit from continuing to learn through their native language, both academically and cognitively (Esposito & Baker-Ward, 2013; Lindholm-Leary & Genesee, 2014). For example, oral proficiency and literacy in ELs' first language has been shown to facilitate English literacy development (August & Shanahan, 2006).

Most reviews of dual language education outcomes have focused on the first two goals listed above, and they have found promising results in the development of proficiency in two languages and academic achievement (de Jong, 2014; Lindholm-Leary & Howard, 2008; Lindholm-Leary & Block, 2010; Cheung & Slavin, 2012; Valentino & Reardon, 2015). There has been relatively little research on outcomes related to the third and "most elusive" goal—cross-cultural awareness and appreciation (Feinauer & Howard, 2014, p. 258). More recently, however, research has identified the development of "strong, positive multilingual identities" (Feinauer & Howard, p. 258) as a key component in achieving this third goal. Cross-cultural awareness and appreciation is particularly relevant to two-way dual language models, where students from different language backgrounds are integrated for all or most of their instructional time. The rationale behind this approach is that, through collaboration and daily interactions, students will form positive relationships with peers from different backgrounds and will develop an appreciation and understanding of social and cultural differences (Lambert & Cazabon, 1994; Lindholm, 1994; Lindholm-Leary, 2003). Students in two-way dual language programs appear to appreciate having classmates from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, and tend to have more positive cross-cultural attitudes than peers in other programs (Block, 2011; Feinauer & Howard, 2014). Although one-way programs may not have built-in student diversity to draw on as a resource in this area, cross-cultural awareness and appreciation may still be developed by paying careful attention to social and linguistic context, and by fostering opportunities for positive cross-cultural experiences and multilingual identity development.

Integration of Language and Content Instruction in English and the Partner Language

To promote bilingualism and biliteracy, dual language programs integrate language and academic content instruction in English and a partner language. As a result, language is taught through content. In other words, most instruction does not focus explicitly on language forms; rather, content instruction is structured to simultaneously develop language skills. All students in dual language programs learn some academic content through a second language, so instruction needs to be designed to make the content comprehensible to them, and to help them expand their second language skills. Sheltered instruction incorporates a variety of techniques to make content more accessible to second language learners (Lindholm-Leary, 2007), such as visually presenting materials, checking regularly for comprehension, integrating language objectives into content lessons, and scaffolding both language and content. (See Short and Echevarria, 2015, for an extensive discussion of sheltering strategies.) Incorporating various explicit language development strategies (such as attention to vocabulary) into content lessons is recommended for second language learners (Graves, August, & Mancilla-Martinez, 2013).

In some programs, students may receive supplementary language instruction in their second language (English as a second language [ESL] for ELs, Spanish as a second language for English speakers in a Spanish-English program, and so on). In two-way dual language programs, this practice is generally limited to newcomers to the program or students who are struggling with the language. This ensures that students are not separated into native language-based groups for longer than is necessary. Some two-way programs also separate students for early reading instruction in their native language, while others integrate students for literacy, either in the partner language or in both program languages simultaneously.

Two-way dual language programs face the difficult task of challenging native speakers of a language while also making instruction accessible to non-native speakers (since the two groups are integrated in the classroom) in order to promote high levels of proficiency and literacy. There is substantial evidence that native English speakers attain high proficiency in English (with no significant differences when compared with English speakers in other programs), though there may be a lag in literacy (not oral language) in the primary years in programs with a higher proportion of partner language instruction (Lindholm-Leary & Genesee, 2014). Among ELs, native language (or partner language) proficiency has not received as much attention, but research indicates that they become reasonably skilled (Lindholm-Leary & Hernandez, 2011). However, other researchers have noted that, due to differences in the status of English and the partner language, more attention may be paid to English-speaker needs during partner language instruction, resulting in less challenging native language demands for ELs. This status difference can affect peer interactions, which will then tend to be in English, providing ELs with less opportunity to develop their native language (Hernandez, 2015). Indeed, some argue that without explicit attention to language status issues, the benefits of dual language instruction may not be as strong for ELs as for English speakers (de Jong & Howard, 2009).

Allocation of Instructional Time

Dual language programs vary in how they divide instructional time between English and the partner language. In general, however, at least 50 percent of instruction takes place in the partner language through the elementary school grades.

Overall allocations: Many programs follow one of two widely adopted models at the elementary level: the 50:50 model and the 90:10 model. In the 50:50 model, students receive half of their instruction in English and the other half in the partner language throughout their elementary years (Gómez, Freeman, & Freeman, 2005; Montague, 2005; Palmer, 2007; Lindholm-Leary, 2012; Gómez, 2013). In some programs, students first learn to read in their primary language and then add second language literacy; in other programs, students learn to read in both languages simultaneously (Lindholm-Leary, 2012). In the 90:10 model, 90 percent of the instructional day is provided in the partner language in kindergarten and Grade 1, and 10 percent is provided in English (Gómez, Freeman, & Freeman, 2005; Palmer, 2007; Alanís & Rodriguez, 2008; Lindholm-Leary, 2012). Reading instruction generally begins in the partner language for both native speakers of that language and native English speakers. At each successive grade level, the percentage of English instructional time increases until Grades 4, 5, and 6, when students' instructional time is balanced equally between English and the partner language (Lindholm-Leary, 2012). Although these two models reflect the boundaries of language allocation in dual language education, in practice students experience many points between these boundaries (e.g., 60:40, 70:30, and so on), often as a result of practical considerations such as the availability of resources or assessment concerns. In a few schools, a third language is introduced, and the program may begin at 80:10:10, with 10 percent of instructional time delivered in the third language (Howard & Sugarman, 2007). In general, however, at least 50 percent of instruction throughout elementary school needs to be delivered in the partner language in order to promote bilingualism and biliteracy (Lindholm-Leary, 2007).

These models of dual language education build on the knowledge base of modern world language immersion programs, which came to the United States from Canada in the late 1960s. The results of these programs demonstrated that native English speakers could be immersed in another language without harming their knowledge of English or their academic achievement. The early immersion programs were "total" or 90:10 models. As programs spread around the country, however, a 50:50 model—or "partial" immersion model—became popular (Christian, 2011). At the same time, bilingual education programs were emerging to educate ELs, based on growing evidence that delivering education in the native language, while simultaneously teaching English, could benefit the EL population. One version—developmental bilingual education—aimed for students to maintain and develop their native language. These programs tended to follow a 90:10 model, with the amount of instruction in English increasing each year.

The blending of these two traditions—world language immersion programs and bilingual education programs—led to the emergence of the two-way dual language approach, which brings the two groups of students together while continuing with the same 90:10 and 50:50 language allocation models. Research comparing 90:10 and 50:50 models is not extensive, but evidence suggests that both models produce similar outcomes for students (Lindholm-Leary, 2007; de Jong, 2014). The most pronounced difference occurs in levels of proficiency in the partner language, which may not be as high in the 50:50 model, especially among English speakers (de Jong, 2014).

In any allocation model at the elementary level, the language of instruction is usually determined by content area, teacher, or time (Lindholm-Leary, 2007; Torres-Guzman et al., 2005; Howard et al., 2007). For example, mathematics may be taught in English for all or half of the year, while social studies is taught in the partner language. Alternatively, students may be taught by two teachers, each using a different language of instruction, or by a single bilingual teacher, who instructs in both languages. Last, different languages can be scheduled for different blocks of time, such as in 50:50 programs that alternate between languages every day or half day.

Instructional use of language within classrooms: Although dual language education models are characterized by the proportion of instruction delivered in the two languages, the actual mix of languages in the classroom on a day-to-day basis is variable. Drawing on second language acquisition literature, early guidance called for the separation of languages, based on the principle that extended monolingual instruction was important for promoting language development (Collier & Thomas, 2005; Lindholm-Leary, 2007). This meant that teachers and students were expected to use only the current language of instruction in any given lesson (Howard et al., 2007). This principle has since been called into question, however, particularly by those who argue for a dynamic approach to bilingualism and maintain that individuals with two or more languages benefit from drawing on all of their linguistic resources in any situation (Garcia, 2009). For example, a Spanish-speaking EL may offer an explanation in English to an English speaker during a lesson in Spanish—a form of "translanguaging" (Garcia, 2009). According to proponents of this approach, a "blending of language separation with language integration" is called for… [to reflect] the dynamic bilingual use of the twenty-first century" (Garcia, 2009, p. 304). Discussion and debate about the most appropriate approach—based on the age of students, the degree of bilingualism attained, and other factors—is ongoing.

The power and status of the two languages of instruction also have prompted concern about interaction within the classroom. In particular, there are concerns that the dominance of English can lead to a preference among students for using English in the classroom (particularly when ELs have gained a level of English proficiency), which may reduce students' opportunities to develop high levels of proficiency in the partner language (de Jong & Howard, 2009).

Beyond the elementary grades, the design of dual language programs is not as well defined. Generally, secondary schools offer students who come to them from elementary programs opportunities to take a core content area course in the partner language, along with a specially designed language/language arts course (accounting for between 25 percent and 40 percent of class time). Offerings are often limited by the availability of teachers qualified to teach the content in the partner language and by scheduling issues (Montone & Loeb, 2000; Sandy-Sanchez, 2008). It becomes more difficult to give the languages equal status in this restricted context (de Jong & Bearse, 2014).

Program Duration

Dual language programs generally commence at the beginning of elementary school (in either kindergarten or Grade 1) and continue throughout elementary school, with some programs continuing at the secondary level. Generally, students do not exit these programs during the elementary school years, even if ELs become proficient in English, as developing bilingualism and biliteracy in both languages is a goal for all students enrolled in the program (Faulkner-Bond

et al., 2012). In contrast, many programs for ELs focus solely on English proficiency, regardless of grade level, and, when this is attained, students move to English-only programs.

Guided by research on the length of time needed to develop second language proficiency suitable for grade-level achievement (Hakuta, Butler, & Witt, 2000, Saunders & O'Brien, 2006), dual language programs are expected to enroll students and provide content-based instruction through the partner language for a minimum of six years. Although the ability to use a second language in social interactions may emerge much earlier, academic language proficiency is needed for learning and success in school (Hakuta, 2011). There also is some evidence that EL students may experience an initial delay in English performance, as they learn through two languages, but will catch up with (and often exceed) their peers in other programs by the end of elementary school (Lindholm-Leary & Genesee, 2014).

Students are enrolled when they enter school, either in kindergarten or Grade 1, and most schools have policies that determine which students can join the programs after this time. In two-way dual language programs, it is difficult to add new students later because they are unlikely to have the necessary language and literacy skills in both languages to keep up with instruction. Often, native English speakers are not allowed to enroll after Grade 1 or 2, unless they can demonstrate the needed language skills in the partner language. Depending on other program alternatives in the district, ELs may be included at higher grade levels, if the (one-way or two-way) dual language program is thought to be the best option for them.

To promote bilingualism, program planners pay attention to the articulation of language development objectives across grades and education levels (just as literacy and core content instruction are articulated to build knowledge). This vertical articulation specifies learning goals for each grade or level, so that language development in the second language is cumulative for all students. This is especially important when students move from elementary to secondary levels because typical language course offerings in middle and high schools are not appropriate for students who have had a dual language experience in elementary school (Wilson, 1988). Language courses in most secondary schools are intended for students without previous language study and do not accommodate the skills already developed by heritage language speakers.

In the absence of a dual language program, middle and high schools also are unlikely to offer content area courses in a language other than English, although in some cases, there are alternative programs (such as the International Baccalaureate), which can serve as a secondary follow-on to an elementary dual language program (Montone & Loeb, 2000). As the number of dual language programs grows, this issue will increasingly confront universities, which will need to refine their course offerings to provide challenging continuing language development for graduates of dual language schools. Several universities in Canada, for example, have structured programs to help graduates of French immersion (a form of one-way dual language) schools maintain and advance their language skills. At the University of Ottawa (a bilingual French/English institution), the French Immersion Studies program focuses on the needs of speakers of French as a second language and offers an array of subject matter courses taught in French (mainly in social sciences and arts), some with accompanying language development adjunct sessions; advanced French language courses; and support services such as the Immersion Mentoring Centre (Burger, Weinberg, Hall, Movassat, & Hope, 2011).

Whole-School and Strand Programs

Dual language education can be implemented as a "whole-school" program (in which all students participate) or a "strand" program (in which one or more classes at every grade level are dedicated to the dual language program, while other classes follow a different model) (Palmer, 2007). The choice between whole-school and strand programs is often a practical one. Programs often start as strand programs at a neighborhood school, depending on the number of ELs from the same language background (and native English speakers, for two-way models) who are interested in enrolling. After some years of operation and growing demand, these schools often expand the number of classes they offer at each grade level and may eventually reach whole-school status. In districts with magnet schools, a school may develop a dual language program and offer it to students districtwide. This mitigates the demographic constraints of a neighborhood school. In general, the feasibility of a whole-school model depends on the community's level of interest, student population characteristics, the availability of staff with the necessary skills, and the district's school organization model (Howard & Christian, 2002). When a program operates as a strand in a larger school, it is important to build cohesion with other programs and gather support from the broader community so that those outside the program understand its goals. It also is useful to begin the program with several classes at the kindergarten/Grade 1 level, if possible, so that normal attrition does not lead to problems with class size in the upper elementary grades (Howard & Christian, 2002).

Palmer (2010) identified a number of challenges associated with implementing strand dual language programs in her study of a multiethnic, urban elementary school in Northern California that adopted a two-way dual language program to replace its transitional bilingual program. At this school, there was only one dual language class at each grade level, which meant that the same group of students moved through the grades together, with little or no interaction with other students. Although the dual language class was diverse, the students did not have the opportunity to interact with the full range of students in the school community. Palmer's study also found that the teachers outside the dual language program were perceived as unprepared or uninterested in issues affecting ELs and lacking a commitment to help them achieve the goals of the dual language program. During library time, for example, the English-only librarian read stories aloud in English to the children in the dual language program, but did not differentiate instruction to accommodate the needs of Spanish-speaking ELs. More broadly, the dual language program struggled to achieve a balance between the partner language and English while operating within an English-dominant environment.

Prevalence of Dual Language Education Programs

Thirty-nine states and the District of Columbia reported offering dual language education programs during the 2012–13 school year, with Spanish and Chinese the most commonly reported partner languages.

In the 2012–13 Consolidated State Performance Reports (CSPRs), these states and the District of Columbia indicated that Title III-funded districts implemented at least one type of dual language program that year. In total, these programs featured more than 30 different partner languages. As shown in Exhibit 2.2, states most frequently reported dual language programs with Spanish (35

states and the District of Columbia), Chinese (14 states), Native American languages (12 states), and French (seven states and the District of Columbia) as the partner languages.

Exhibit 2.2. Number of States That Reported Offering Dual Language Education Programs in a Particular Partner Language, 2012–13

Language	Number of States
Spanish	35
Chinese	14
Native American languages	12
French	8
Vietnamese	5
Arabic	5
German	4
Japanese	3
Hmong	2
Ukrainian	2
Russian	2
Italian	2
Portuguese	2
Other languages	3
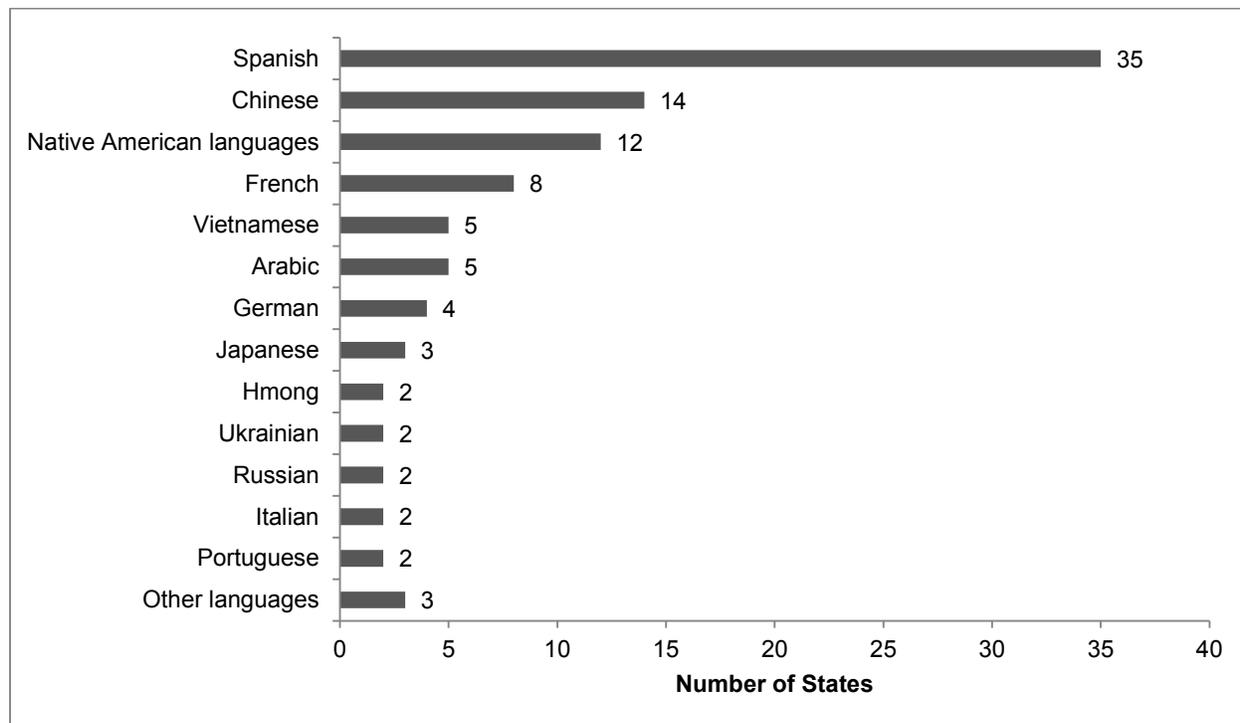
Exhibit Reads: Thirty-four states and the District of Columbia reported that their Title III-funded districts implemented at least one dual language program in Spanish in 2012–13.

Notes: Includes 44 states and the District of Columbia (five states were excluded due to missing data). For simplicity, the District of Columbia is represented in the figure as a state. States that reported offering dual language education programs in a particular language include states that reported offering any of the following types of program (as defined in the CSPR) in that language: dual language, two-way immersion, developmental bilingual, and heritage language programs.

"Chinese" includes Chinese, Cantonese, and Mandarin.

"Native American languages" includes Arapahoe, Cherokee, Crow, Hoopa, Inupiaq, Lakota, Nahuatl, Navajo, Ojibwe, Passamaquoddy, Shoshoni, Ute, and Yurok.

"Other languages" includes Armenian, Filipino, French Creole, Khmer, Korean, Polish, and Urdu (each were reported by only one state).

Source: Consolidated State Performance Reports (CSPRs), 2012–13

State Definitions of Dual Language Programs

This section examines state definitions of dual language programs, which are typically short descriptions that offer a brief overview of programs' key characteristics. Although program definitions are only one form of state guidance on dual language programs, they may serve a variety of important functions, such as providing a quick introduction for individuals previously unfamiliar with the programs, establishing a framework for distinguishing among different program types, or promoting a common vision of what these programs entail. Given these potential functions, it is useful to explore the program characteristics that states include in their program definitions.

States' definitions of dual language programs reflect multiple and inconsistent use of program terms in the field of dual language education.

One challenge in examining states' definitions of dual language programs is that states vary considerably in how they apply terminology associated with these programs. To ensure that our analysis compared state definitions of the same program type, we used our study definitions of two-way and one-way dual language programs to categorize states' program definitions using a standard set of terms. We classified state program definitions as a definition of "two-way dual language programs" if the definition indicated that the program (1) provides instruction in two languages, and (2) includes a mix of language majority and language minority students. We classified state program definitions as a definition of "one-way dual language programs that predominantly serve language minority students"[17] if the definition indicated that the program (1) provides instruction in two languages, (2) serves predominantly language minority students (i.e., students with a native language other than English), and (3) does not aim to transition ELs or former ELs to English-only classrooms.

Twenty-six states and the District of Columbia have issued program definitions that match our criteria for two-way dual language programs, and 16 states and the District of Columbia have issued definitions that match our criteria for one-way dual language programs that serve predominantly language minority students.

For example, California's English language Development (ELD) Framework includes the following definition for "dual language immersion programs (aka two-way bilingual education)" that matches our criteria for two-way dual language programs:

> Provides integrated language and academic instruction for native speakers of English and native speakers of another language with the goals of high academic achievement, first and second language proficiency, and cross-cultural understanding. In dual language immersion programs, language learning is integrated with content instruction (California Department of Education, 2014, p.1063).

California's ELD Framework also includes the following definition for "developmental bilingual education (DBE)" that matches our criteria for one-way dual language programs that serve predominantly language minority students:

> Also referred to as maintenance bilingual education and late-exit bilingual education, is an enrichment form of dual language education that uses English learners' home language and English for literacy and academic instruction throughout the elementary grade levels and, whenever possible, school as well (Ibid, p.1063).

The results of these analyses (presented in Exhibits 2.3 and 2.4 below) underscore the variation in states' use of program terminology. Many states' definitions include multiple names for each program type (reflecting the diversity of terms used in the field), while others use the same term to refer to different program types. For example, program definitions from three states use the

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[17] As noted in the definition of one-way dual language programs, the students in these programs are predominately of one language background and can be ELs or students who are English proficient and acquiring a heritage or world language. For the purpose of this report, we focus on ELs acquiring English.

term "developmental bilingual" to refer to two-way dual language programs[18] (see Exhibit 2.3), while program definitions from another 11 states use the same term to refer to one-way dual language programs that predominantly serve EL language minority students (see Exhibit 2.4).

Exhibit 2.3. Program Terms and Characteristics Featured in States' Definitions of Two-Way Dual Language Programs

State Name	Terms Used to Describe the Program	Program Has Goal of Promoting Bilingualism/ Biliteracy	Program Has Goal of Promoting Academic Achievement	Program Has Goal of Promoting Cross-Cultural Understanding	Program Lasts for Extended Period of Time (e.g., Spans Multiple Years)
Alabama	Two-way bilingual, developmental bilingual	x			
Alaska	Two-way immersion, two-way bilingual, dual language program	x			x
California	Dual language immersion, two-way bilingual education	x	x	x	
Connecticut	Dual language/two-way bilingual education program, a type of developmental bilingual education program	x			
Delaware	Two-way immersion, a type of world language immersion program	x			
District of Columbia	A type of dual language program				x
Florida	Dual language, two-way developmental bilingual education				
Idaho	Dual language/dual immersion, two-way immersion, two-way bilingual education	x	x	x	
Illinois	Two-way immersion/dual language	x			
Iowa	Bilingual dual language program, two-way, developmental	x			
Maine	Two-way bilingual education, developmental bilingual education	x			
Mississippi	Two-way bilingual education, dual immersion	x			
Missouri	Two-way developmental	x			

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[18] The definition from one additional state (Rhode Island) describes two-way dual language programs as one type of developmental bilingual program.

State Name	Terms Used to Describe the Program	Program Has Goal of Promoting Bilingualism/ Biliteracy	Program Has Goal of Promoting Academic Achievement	Program Has Goal of Promoting Cross-Cultural Understanding	Program Lasts for Extended Period of Time (e.g., Spans Multiple Years)
Montana	Two-way immersion, two-way bilingual	x			
Nevada	Two-way immersion, a type of dual language immersion program	x	x		
New Jersey	Dual-language bilingual education				
New Mexico	Dual language immersion	x	x	x	x
New York	Two-way bilingual education, two-way immersion	x	x	x	
North Carolina	Two-way immersion	x	x	x	
Oregon	Two-way bilingual, two-way immersion, a type of dual language program	x	x	x	
Rhode Island	Two-way/dual language, a type of dual language program	x	x	x	
South Dakota	Dual language	x	x	x	x
Texas	Dual language immersion/two-way, a type of dual language immersion program	x	x	x	x
Utah	Two-way immersion, two-way bilingual, a type of dual language immersion program	x		x	
Virginia	Two-way immersion, a type of dual language education		x		x
Wisconsin	Two-way immersion, a type of dual language education program	x			x
Wyoming	Two-way immersion/dual language	x			x
Total	**27 states**	**22 states**	**11 states**	**10 states**	**8 states**

Exhibit Reads: Alabama's definition of two-way dual language programs refers to these programs as "two-way bilingual" and "developmental bilingual" programs, and it indicates that these programs have the goal of promoting bilingualism and biliteracy.

Notes: Includes 26 states and the District of Columbia with definitions of a two-way dual language program. To be considered a two-way dual language program, a state's definition had to indicate that programs (1) provide instruction in two languages, and (2) include a mix of language majority and language minority students. For simplicity, the District of Columbia is represented in this table as a state.

Source: Review of SEA websites conducted in spring 2015

States' definitions of two-way dual language programs tend to emphasize the program's goals of promoting bilingualism and biliteracy, academic achievement, and cross-cultural understanding.

An analysis of state definitions of two-way dual language programs revealed that program goals are often highlighted as defining characteristics. For example, the most common program characteristic in states' definitions of two-way dual language programs—aside from instruction in two languages and inclusion of students from two language groups—is the goal of promoting bilingualism and/or biliteracy (see Exhibit 2.3). The next most frequently cited characteristics are the goals of promoting academic achievement and cross-cultural understanding, which are included in the definitions of 11 states and 10 states, respectively. Definitions from seven states and the District of Columbia note that two-way dual language programs last for an extended period of time, indicating that programs span multiple grade levels or last throughout elementary school (or, in some cases, K–12).

State definitions of one-way dual language programs that predominantly serve language minority students also tend to highlight the goal of promoting bilingualism and biliteracy, although they mention the goals of promoting academic achievement and cross-cultural understanding less frequently than definitions of two-way dual language programs.

Sixteen states and the District of Columbia provide definitions that identify their programs as one-way dual language programs predominantly serving language minority students. Of these, 10 states have definitions that mention the goal of promoting bilingualism and/or biliteracy (see Exhibit 2.4), two states mention the goal of promoting academic achievement, and two include the goal of promoting cross-cultural understanding. North Carolina's definition, for example, explains that programs are designed to help students become "bicultural in a way that honors their need to simultaneously identify and communicate with their heritage or home culture and with the mainstream culture they live and will work in" (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2015).

Definitions provided by six states and the District of Columbia indicate that one-way dual language programs for language minority students last for an extended period of time. For instance, definitions from three of these states mention that programs last throughout elementary school. Four states and the District of Columbia state that programs typically begin with instruction predominantly in the partner language, but then transition over time to incorporate a greater emphasis on instruction in English (such as with the 90:10 model).

Exhibit 2.4. Terminology and Program Characteristics Included in States' Definitions of One-Way Dual Language Programs Predominantly Serving Language Minority Students

State Name	Terms Used to Describe the Program	Program Has Goal of Promoting Bilingualism/Biliteracy	Program Lasts for Extended Period of Time (e.g., Spans Multiple Years)	Proportion of Instruction in English Increases Over Time	Program Has Goal of Promoting Academic Achievement	Program Has Goal of Promoting Cross-Cultural Under-standing
Alabama	Late-exit		x			
Alaska	Developmental bilingual, late-exit transitional, maintenance bilingual education	x		x		
California	Developmental bilingual, maintenance bilingual education, late-exit bilingual education		x			
Colorado	Late-exit, developmental bilingual education	x		x		
Connecticut	Developmental bilingual education, gradual-exit/late-exit bilingual programs	x	x	x		
District of Columbia	A type of dual language program		x	x		
Idaho	Developmental bilingual	x				
Illinois	Developmental bilingual education	x	x			
Mississippi	Maintenance bilingual education, late-exit bilingual education				x	
Missouri	Late exit, maintenance		x			
New Mexico	Maintenance bilingual	x				
North Carolina	Developmental bilingual	x				x

State Name	Terms Used to Describe the Program	Program Has Goal of Promoting Bilingualism/Biliteracy	Program Lasts for Extended Period of Time (e.g., Spans Multiple Years)	Proportion of Instruction in English Increases Over Time	Program Has Goal of Promoting Academic Achievement	Program Has Goal of Promoting Cross-Cultural Under-standing
Oregon	Maintenance bilingual education, late-exit bilingual education, developmental	x				
Rhode Island	Developmental bilingual program, a type of dual language program	x			x	x
Texas	Late-exit bilingual services					
Total	**17 states**	**10 states**	**7 states**	**5 states**	**2 states**	**2 states**

Exhibit Reads: Alabama's definition of one-way dual language programs that predominantly serve language minority students refers to these programs as "late-exit" programs, and it indicates that these programs last for an extended period of time (i.e., they span multiple years).

Notes: Includes 16 states and the District of Columbia that provided definitions of one-way dual language programs that predominantly serve language minority students. To be considered a one-way dual language program that predominantly serves language minority students, the definition needed to indicate that the program (1) provides instruction in two languages, and (2) serves predominantly language minority students (i.e., students with a native language other than English). In addition, the definition could *not* indicate that the program had the goal of transitioning ELs or former ELs to English-only classrooms. For simplicity, the District of Columbia is represented in this table as a state.

Source: Review of SEA websites conducted in spring 2015

State Guidance on Dual Language Program Features

While the analyses in the previous section examined the distinguishing characteristics that states attribute to dual language programs in their published program definitions, this section examines state guidance on specific program characteristics. These analyses drew on state program definitions, as well as any other form of state-issued guidance that provided further specification on dual language program components.

Student Composition

Approximately one in three states (16 states and the District of Columbia) have issued guidance on the ratio of English-speaking students to partner-language-speaking students participating in two-way dual language programs. Three states have set specific requirements for this ratio.

Most of the states that provide guidance in this area (14 states) indicate that two-way dual language programs either typically or ideally feature a 1:1 ratio of English-speaking students to partner-language-speaking students (see Exhibit 2.5). For example, Connecticut's definition of two-way bilingual education programs states that an ideal class consists of 50 percent native English speakers and 50 percent partner language speakers, ensuring sufficient peer modeling and support. Two states and the District of Columbia provide guidance that the ratio of students

from each language group should not exceed a specified range. For instance, information on California's SEA website asserts: "The ideal ratio of English learners to English speakers is 50:50, but to stay within the program design, the recommendation of many practitioners is that the ratio should never go below 33 percent for either language group" (California Department of Education, 2015a).

Three states—Delaware, Indiana, and Utah—require two-way dual language programs to establish a ratio of English-speaking to partner-language-speaking students that falls within a state-specified range. In Delaware, native speakers of the partner language must account for between 30 percent and 60 percent of students in two-way dual language programs, and in Indiana and Utah, a minimum of one third of students in two-way programs must come from each language group (although the state encourages programs to pursue a 1:1 ratio). As of spring 2015, in Delaware and Utah, only Spanish/English dual language programs included a sufficient number of students from each language group to qualify as two-way programs.

Exhibit 2.5. Types of Guidance That States Have Issued on the Ratio of English-Speaking Students to Partner-Language-Speaking Students in Two-Way Dual Language Programs

State Name	Indicates That Ratio Is Ideally or Typically 1:1	Recommends That Ratio Fall Within a Specified Range	Requires That Ratio Fall Within a Specified Range
Alabama	X		
California	X	One to two thirds partner-language speakers	
Colorado	X		
Connecticut	X		
Delaware			30 to 60 percent partner-language speakers
District of Columbia		One to two thirds partner-language speakers	
Illinois	X		
Indiana	X		One to two thirds partner-language speakers
Iowa	X		
New Jersey	X		
New Mexico	X		
New York	X	50–70 percent partner-language speakers	
North Carolina	X		
Oregon	X		
Texas	X		
Utah	X		One to two thirds partner-language speakers
Wisconsin	X		
Total	**15 states**	**3 states**	**3 states**

Exhibit Reads: Alabama's guidance on the ratio of English-speaking students to partner-language-speaking students participating in two-way dual language programs indicates that the ratio is ideally or typically 1:1.

Notes: Includes 16 states and the District of Columbia, which have issued guidance on the ratio of English-speaking students to partner-language-speaking students participating in two-way dual language programs.

Source: Review of SEA websites conducted in spring 2015

State guidance on the ratio of students from each language group in two-way dual language programs varies in how it defines these two language groups.

For example, guidance from seven states and the District of Columbia identifies students representing the English language group as native English speakers, while guidance from another four states specifies that students representing the English language group can include both native English speakers and non-native English speakers classified as fully English proficient. Guidance from the remaining five states refers to these students using more general terms, such as "English speakers" or "language majority students." Guidance from Texas—where the Gómez and Gómez model originated (see the text box titled "Implementing a Dual Language Approach With a Majority of Students From the Same Language Background: The Gómez and Gómez Model")—uses the term "dominant English speakers."

With regard to students representing the partner language group, guidance from six states and the District of Columbia describes these students as native speakers of the partner language, while guidance from another four states identifies these students as ELs. Guidance from the other five states uses broader terminology, such as "language minority students" or "speakers of the partner language," although the guidance from one of these states clarifies that these students are typically ELs.

Allocating Instructional Time in English and the Partner Language

Seven states have established explicit expectations regarding the amount of instructional time devoted to English and the partner language in dual language programs, with each requiring instruction in the partner language for half of the school day or more.

Overall, 16 states and the District of Columbia provide information or guidance about the allocation of instructional time to each language within dual language programs. For example, Rhode Island's Dual Language Program Standards indicate that programs should "employ a monolingual lesson delivery model (i.e., different periods of time devoted to instruction in and through each of the two languages). Sustained periods of monolingual instruction in each language help to promote adequate language development" (Rhode Island Department of Education, 2014, p. 8).

Seven states have specific guidelines regarding the amount of instruction delivered in each language. Four of these states (Delaware, Indiana, Kentucky, and Utah) have adopted the 50:50 model of language allocation, whereby programs divide daily instruction evenly between English and the partner language, as part of their statewide dual language program model. Two other states (Georgia and Texas) indicate that programs should provide instruction in the partner language for at least 50 percent—but potentially more—of the school day. The fifth state (New Mexico) has set expectations for the number of hours devoted to English and the partner language, which are tailored to each type of dual language program. For example, New Mexico's guidelines indicate that two-way dual language programs should devote a minimum of three hours per day to each language, while one-way dual language programs for ELs and former ELs (i.e., maintenance bilingual programs) must include at least one hour of partner language instruction and one hour of English language development instruction, and may include an additional hour of partner language instruction in the content areas of mathematics, social studies, science, or fine art.

Six states have issued guidance on the use of English or the partner language to teach particular content areas.

Three of these states have released general information about content areas that can be taught in the partner language (typically, math, science, social studies, and the arts), but the other three states (Delaware, Georgia, and Utah) have defined specific models that outline, by grade level, which content areas should be taught in which language. For example, Utah's instructional sequencing model[19] calls for students in Grades 1 to 3 to receive instruction in mathematics, other content areas (e.g., social studies, science, physical education, art, health, and music), and partner language literacy during the partner language half of the school day, and to spend the English portion of the day learning English language arts and receiving content area reinforcement. In Grades 4 to 5, students learn mathematics, English language arts, and social studies in English and receive mathematics reinforcement, partner language literacy instruction, and science instruction in the partner language. When students reach Grade 6, they continue to follow the same general approach, but they switch to learning science in English and social studies in the partner language.

Program Length and Secondary-Level Pathways

Nine states have provided information or guidance on the duration of dual language programs; in each case, this guidance recommends or expects that programs continue into middle and high school.

Four of these states explain that although dual language programs typically last throughout elementary school (i.e., about six years), they should (where possible) extend to middle and high school grades. The other five states (Delaware, Georgia, Hawaii, North Carolina, and Utah) indicate that dual language programs are expected or designed to run from kindergarten through Grade 12. For example, guidance from Utah explains that dual language programs begin in kindergarten or Grade 1, continue incrementally throughout the elementary grades, and then extend through the middle and high school grades. Furthermore, a "Frequently Asked Questions" page on Utah's dual language website informs parents: "In order to fully benefit from the dual language immersion program, we expect that students will commit to the program through high school."

Four states have articulated specific pathways for providing dual language education at the secondary level.

North Carolina, for example, has developed pathways for heritage language learners at the secondary level to develop their heritage language proficiency. These students begin by taking a series of two courses designed to build literacy skills for native speakers of a world language,

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[19] Delaware follows a model very similar to Utah's model. Georgia's model also is similar: In kindergarten through Grade 3, the partner language is used to teach literacy and most content areas (mathematics, science, and social studies) while English is used to teach English language arts and specials (e.g., art, music, physical education) and to provide content area reinforcement. In Grade 4 and Grade 5, conceptual instruction in mathematics and social science is provided in English while practical-application instruction in these content areas is provided in the partner language.

and then progress to more advanced courses in that language (e.g., Mandarin Chinese IV, Advanced Placement [AP] Spanish) alongside non-native-speaking students who have been studying the language for four to five years.

Delaware, Georgia, and Utah have established pathways for extending dual language programs from the beginning of elementary school through the end of high school. According to Utah's secondary pathway (which goes into effect in the 2015–16 school year), when students from K–6 dual language programs reach middle school, the focus of the dual language program shifts from developing a foundation of content area language and vocabulary to deepening cognition skills and cultural competencies. To that end, students in Grades 7 and 8 enroll in honors-level dual language courses, and also may choose to enroll in a dual language immersion culture and media course. Dual language students in Grade 8 have the additional option of completing a capstone project. When dual language students enter Grade 9, they take the AP language and culture course, which is intended to help prepare them for university upper division language study. In Grades 10 and 12, students advance to upper division university courses, where the focus is on applying language to global career opportunities and building global competency. Students in Grades 10 to 12 also may choose to start learning a new world language at this point.

Delaware also outlines a secondary pathway in which dual language students enroll in honors-level language classes and engage in project-based learning tasks during middle school (Grades 6–8), take the AP language and culture course in Grade 9, and take university-level language courses in Grades 10 to 12. Delaware students also have the option of starting a third language in middle school and taking an AP course for that language by the end of high school. In Georgia, students take a content course in the partner language as well as a second course in advanced language study when they reach middle school; they are then expected to enroll in AP language coursework and complete the AP exam in Grade 9 or Grade 10. In Grade 10 through Grade 12, students may take university-level coursework through blending learning with Georgia universities and/or starting an additional language.

Teacher Staffing

Four states require or recommend that dual language programs use separate teachers to provide instruction in English and the partner language.

Eight states provide guidance on staffing dual language programs.[20] Delaware and Utah require dual language programs to employ a two-teacher staffing model, in which one teacher provides instruction only in English and another teacher provides instruction only in the partner language. These teachers are expected to collaborate regularly to coordinate curriculum and instruction for their students. The remaining six states have issued guidance that indicates that dual language programs can be implemented using this team-teaching approach or a single-teacher staffing model, in which one teacher provides instruction in both English and the partner language. However, guidance from two of these states recommends that dual language programs use the two-teacher approach. For example, California encourages programs to use the two-teacher

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[20] This analysis refers to state guidance on the structure of dual language program staffing. Guidance and requirements for teacher qualifications and professional development are discussed in Chapter V.

approach, particularly in kindergarten through Grade 2, so that students can identify with a model English speaker and a model partner language speaker.

Parental Involvement

Two of the six case-study states have issued guidance for parents on supporting their children in dual language programs, and one case study state has provided guidance for districts and schools on involving parents in dual language programs.

Delaware and Utah have both developed recommendations for parents on supporting their child's learning in the context of dual language education. For example, Delaware's world language immersion website advises parents of students in dual language programs to:

> Commit to long-term participation in the immersion program so that your child can develop advanced-level language skills. Develop an understanding of immersion education. Encourage the use of the immersion language outside of school. Encourage community support. Enjoy the challenges and celebrate the results (Delaware Department of Education, n.d.).

Parent guidance released by Utah indicates that parents are encouraged to familiarize themselves with the partner language and to volunteer in dual language classrooms, although it cautions parents that only the partner language is spoken in partner language classrooms. Utah's guidance also explains how English-speaking parents can help with homework in the partner language: "Only tasks that the student could complete independently will be assigned as homework in the target language. This is best practice for all homework assignments regardless of the language. Parents are still encouraged to read daily in English to their student" (Utah State Office of Education, n.d.a).

North Carolina's website does not feature recommendations for parents about their involvement in dual language programs, but it does refer to research that provides guidance to districts and schools about how they can foster parent and family engagement in dual language programs. For example, drawing on research conducted on dual language programs, a document on North Carolina's website notes:

> The bilingual/bicultural context of a well-implemented dual language/immersion program nurtures everyone. The school may provide cross-cultural events for families, including exchanges of skills and shared language learning experiences. Parent meetings focus on the needs of their multilingual/multicultural community (Collier &Thomas, 2012, p. 3, as cited in North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2014).

In the remaining three case-study states, state policy and guidance documents do not mention parental involvement strategies specifically related to dual language programs, but they do outline expectations and procedures for monitoring state and federal parental involvement requirements related to EL services.

For example, Illinois requires districts to create Bilingual Parent Advisory Committees (BPACs) to help guide local decisions related to EL services, and the state assesses districts' implementation of parental involvement strategies through its Bilingual Education Program

Delivery Report (PDR) system and state monitoring process. This system collects information from districts on (1) whether the district has established a BPAC and the types of members who serve on the committee; (2) the level of family involvement (i.e., whether families receive information, provide feedback and recommendation only, or are involved in decision making) in the planning, operations, and evaluation of EL programs; (3) the types of training the district provides to parents and families of ELs; and (4) the types of resources the district supplies to parents (e.g., documents translated into parents' native language, native language translators, parent workshops, transportation assistance, referrals to community organizations).

New Mexico also requires districts to establish a parent advisory committee that is representative of the language and culture of students served in the district, and to engage parents in the development, implementation, and evaluation of bilingual multicultural education programs (which include dual language programs). When districts and schools apply to the state for funding for such programs, they must provide a list of activities that they will use to strengthen community and parent participation. Massachusetts monitors districts' implementation of federal EL parent involvement requirements through its Coordinated Program Review System for English Learner Education. The evaluation tool for this monitoring provides the following guidance:

> Parent involvement may be through the development of a parent advisory council on English language education, through membership on a school-based council, or through other means determined by the district. The district should provide multiple opportunities and a variety of methods for parent-teacher communication (Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, n.d., p. 21).

Chapter Summary

Dual language education programs provide academic content and language instruction in two languages to promote bilingualism and biliteracy, mastery of academic content, and cross-cultural awareness. Particular features of dual language programs—such as the ratio of English-speaking students to partner-language-speaking students, the allocation of instructional time and academic content to each language of instruction, program length, and the number of teachers employed—vary within and across states. However, common approaches do exist, such as the 90:10 and 50:50 models for allocating instructional time.

This analysis of state policies and guidance for dual language programs suggests that states are largely leaving program design decisions to district and school stakeholders, although some states are providing information and guidelines about program components to help inform local decision making. However, a few states—in particular, Delaware, New Mexico, North Carolina, and Utah—have articulated specific state models or expectations for the design of dual language programs.

III. Student Eligibility for and Placement Into Dual Language Programs

This chapter explores state-level policies and practices that help determine who participates in dual language programs. It begins by examining states' criteria for identifying students as either English learners (ELs) or English proficient students when they first enter the school system, as well as states' criteria for reclassifying students as English proficient once they acquire proficiency in English. This chapter then highlights state policies and guidance related to students' eligibility for and placement in dual language programs. It concludes with a discussion of states' efforts to support student recruitment and retention.

Key Findings

- All states with publicly available information about their EL identification procedures (46 states and the District of Columbia) require districts to administer a home language survey followed by an English language proficiency (ELP) assessment to identify students as ELs.

- Among states with publicly available information about their EL reclassification procedures, 20 states and the District of Columbia require that EL reclassification decisions be based solely on students' performance on the state ELP assessment, while the remaining 20 states require or allow districts to consider additional criteria when making such decisions.

- Five states have established policies or guidance related to students' eligibility for or placement into dual language programs: two states require that dual language programs be open to students with varying backgrounds and ability levels, three states provide information on enrolling students after Grades 1 or 2, and two states require that parents submit annual written consent.

- State efforts to help recruit and retain students in dual language programs include providing outreach materials and support (six states), offering a state Seal of Biliteracy to recognize high school graduates who attain proficiency in two languages (11 states and the District of Columbia), and creating opportunities for students to earn university course credit in high school (two states).

Identifying Students as English Learners or English Proficient Students

Federal civil rights policies do not specify particular procedures for identifying students for participation in dual language programs. To the extent that the focus of this report is on ELs, we first describe the federal requirements for identifying ELs for special programming. Federal civil rights laws mandate that states and/or districts have in place procedures for "accurately identifying EL students in a timely, valid, and reliable manner so that they can be provided the opportunity to participate meaningfully and equally in the district's educational programs" (U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights [OCR}, 2015, p. 11). The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) requires that within 30 days of the start of the school year, language minority students be assessed to determine levels of English language proficiency. The procedures used to classify students as ELs have important consequences in terms of students' access to specialized programs and services as well as their inclusion in the EL subgroup for Title I and Title III accountability. With regard to dual language programs, the outcome of state and district EL identification procedures can determine whether or not a student is eligible to

participate in one-way dual language programs designed specifically for ELs. Two-way dual language programs may rely on the results of EL identification procedures to achieve an appropriate balance of English- and partner-language-speaking students.

Multiple studies have documented how the specific criteria used to identify students as ELs vary across states and, in some cases, across districts within the same state (Tanenbaum et al., 2012; Regan & Lesaux, 2006; August & Hakuta, 1997). One implication of this variation is that a student identified as an EL in one jurisdiction could potentially be considered English proficient in another jurisdiction due to differences in the identification criteria applied. In this section, we examine the tools and criteria that states use to determine which students are classified as ELs and which students are classified as English proficient upon entry into the school system.

> **All 46 states and the District of Columbia with publicly available information about their EL identification procedures require or recommend that districts administer a home language survey to identify students with a language background other than English.**

As a first step in the process for identifying ELs, states require districts to administer a home language survey when students first enroll in order to collect information about their exposure to and use of a language other than English in their homes. Home language surveys often feature questions about the language parents use in the home, the language students speak at home, the language students first learned to speak, and the language students speak most frequently (Tanenbaum et al., 2012; U.S. Department of Education, OCR, 2015). If the home language survey indicates that a student has a background in a language other than English, the student must undergo additional assessment to determine his or her level of English proficiency.

> **Most states (36 and the District of Columbia) require that districts use a state-selected ELP assessment for identifying students as ELs; another seven states require that districts choose an ELP assessment from a state-approved list.**

To determine a potential EL student's level of English proficiency, districts must administer a valid and reliable English language proficiency (ELP) assessment that measures the student's proficiency in all four language domains (listening, speaking, reading, and writing).[21] According to states' published EL identification guidelines, the majority of states mandate which assessment districts use for this purpose (see Exhibit 3.1). For example, 28 states and the District of Columbia (all of them belonging to the World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment, or WIDA, Consortium) require that districts use a consortium-developed screening test (either the WIDA ACCESS Placement Test [W-APT] or the Measure of Developing English Language [MODEL]) for EL identification. Another eight states require that districts use a specific state-developed or state-adopted ELP assessment, such as the Arizona English Language Learner Assessment (AZELLA) placement test or the New York State Identification Test for English

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[21] This screening assessment plays an important role in the EL identification process. Its purpose differs from state ELP tests administered annually for accountability purposes. Although both screening assessments and state ELP tests measure students' English proficiency, the results of the screening assessment are primarily used to ensure that students are appropriately identified as ELs and to guide EL students' placement into EL services offered in a district or school.

Language Learners (NYSITELL). The remaining 10 states allow districts to select the ELP assessment they use for EL identification purposes, but most of those states (seven) limit this selection to a state-approved list.

Exhibit 3.1. State Policies on English Language Proficiency Assessments for EL Identification

- Districts must use a WIDA Consortium assessment
- Districts must use a specific state-developed or selected (non-WIDA) assessment
- Districts must use an assessment from a state-approved list
- Districts select their own assessment
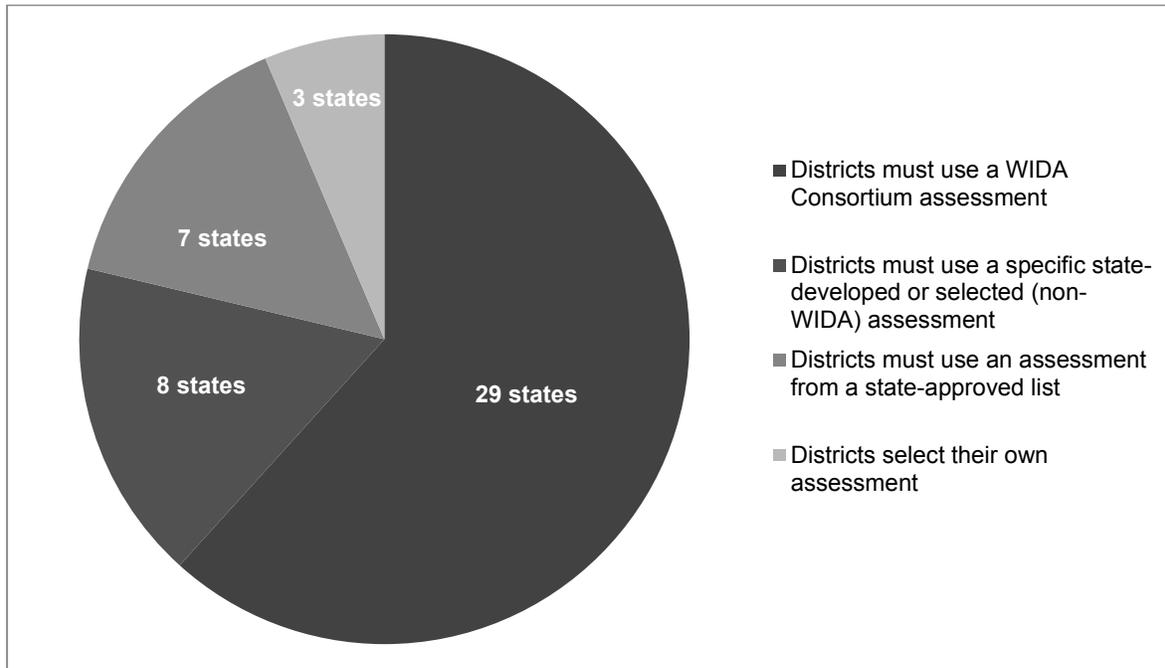
Exhibit Reads: Twenty-eight states and the District of Columbia require that districts use a WIDA Consortium ELP screening assessment to identify students as ELs.

Notes: Includes 46 states and the District of Columbia. For simplicity, the District of Columbia is represented in the figure as a state. The WIDA Consortium's ELP assessments for EL identification include the WIDA-ACCESS Placement Test (W-APT) and the Measure of Developing English Language (MODEL).

Source: Review of SEA websites conducted in spring 2015

States vary in the proficiency cut points they use to determine whether a student becomes identified as an EL.

Even though more than half of the states use the same WIDA ELP screener assessments to measure students' English proficiency during the EL identification process, these states differ in the thresholds they have set for determining which students become classified as ELs and which students become classified as English proficient. For example, among the 16 states and District of Columbia for which we were able to locate W-APT performance cut scores, six states and the District of Columbia consider students to be proficient in English if they receive an overall composite score of 5.0 or higher on the W-APT; students scoring below that cut point are identified as ELs. However, four other states allow students to be considered proficient in English based on a lower composite score; the proficiency cut points for these states range from 4.0 to 4.6. In the remaining six states, students must receive an overall composite score of 5.0 and also achieve a specified level of performance in one or more of the individual language domains for them to be considered proficient in English.

EL identification guidelines from 10 states indicate that the state requires or permits districts to consider factors in addition to the home language survey and ELP assessment in the EL identification process.

For example, guidelines from four of these states indicate that EL identification and program placement decisions should be based on a body of evidence that can include such factors as content assessment scores, teacher referrals, interviews with family members, and prior academic records. States also may develop specialized forms or tools to support the consideration of other factors during the EL identification and placement process. For example, Alaska has developed a form for recording information about students' background in English and their home language (see text box, "Language Observation Checklist").

Language Observation Checklist

Districts in Alaska can use the state's optional Language Observation Checklist Form B to help schools collect information about students' background in English and their home language. This form, to be completed by a school staff member who is proficient in the student's home language or a parent or other speaker of the home language, asks about the student's use of English and non-English language and the student's literacy in the home language. The form asks whether the student is a non-reader, developing reader, or fluent reader, and whether he or she is a non-writer, developing writer, or fluent writer in the home language. This checklist is not a formal language proficiency assessment, but the state's EL manual indicates that it can be a useful tool to use for students enrolled in dual language or other bilingual programs (Alaska Department of Education and Early Development, 2014).

Four states require or encourage districts to assess students' native language proficiency as part of their EL identification and placement process.

For instance, guidance from Connecticut on EL identification indicates that districts can use native language proficiency assessment results in conjunction with the home language survey and ELP assessment to help determine the student's dominant language. According to state guidelines, a native language proficiency assessment might be administered to "make a final determination of the student's dominant language" when a parent indicates on the home language survey that a student has a solely English-speaking background but then the student has trouble speaking English in class. Then, the district would need to evaluate whether the student is an EL based on (1) a proficiency interview, (2) scores on standardized ELP assessments, and (3) content assessment scores and/or the student's academic history.

Nevada, Texas, and Rhode Island encourage districts to assess students who come from homes where a language other than English is spoken in their primary language for program placement decisions. Nevada requires districts to assess students who are identified as ELs and placed in bilingual programs within 60 days of student enrollment to measure each student's ability "to comprehend, speak, read and write his or her primary language" (Nevada Administrative Code 388.630). Texas has compiled a list of state-approved Spanish language proficiency assessments that can be used in the EL identification and placement process. Guidance from Rhode Island recommends that districts assess students' native language proficiency to look for indications of limited or interrupted formal schooling.

Reclassifying Students as English Proficient

A student's status as an EL is intended to be temporary. Once ELs become proficient in English, they exit EL status and typically stop receiving EL-specific services. However, for two years after reclassification, they continue to be monitored for Title I and Title III accountability.

Prior research has highlighted the complexities that states and districts face in designing criteria for reclassifying students as English proficient (Tanenbaum et al., 2012; Ragan & Lesaux, 2006). For instance, they must balance educators' desires to mainstream students and show progress in reclassification rates with the commitment to ensuring that EL students in fact have the requisite proficiency to be successful in a general education setting. States and districts also have to balance consistency in reclassification procedures across jurisdictions with the desire to allow districts to incorporate multiple and sometimes more subjective measures into the decision-making process. A single objective criterion is much easier to understand and communicate— and also more likely to be applied consistently. However, a single criterion may insufficiently represent a student's performance across domains and contexts. Some states emphasize consistency in their policies while others place greater emphasis on collecting data from multiple sources and using these data to inform reclassification decisions (Tanenbaum et al., 2012; Ragan & Lesaux, 2006).

As with EL identification procedures, the specific criteria used to make EL reclassification decisions can vary widely, both within and across states. In this section, we briefly examine that variation, drawing on publicly available guidance on EL exit procedures collected from the websites of 40 states and the District of Columbia.

> **Among states with publicly available information about their EL reclassification procedures, 20 states and the District of Columbia require that EL reclassification decisions be based solely on students' performance on the state ELP assessment, while the remaining 20 states require or allow districts to consider additional criteria when making such decisions.**

All 40 states and the District of Columbia with guidance about EL reclassification posted on their SEA website require that districts use students' performance on the state ELP assessment as a primary criterion for making decisions about exiting students from EL status. (See Chapter IV for additional discussion of states' ELP assessments.) For half of those states and the District of Columbia, the ELP assessment score is the sole criterion used for determining whether students had acquired sufficient proficiency in English to exit EL status. The other 20 states require or recommend that districts weigh multiple factors when making EL exit decisions, such as students' performance on state or locally administered content assessments, recommendations from a teacher or EL support committee, or portfolios of student work (see Exhibit 3.2).

Exhibit 3.2. Types of Criteria Featured in States' Guidance on EL Exit Decisions
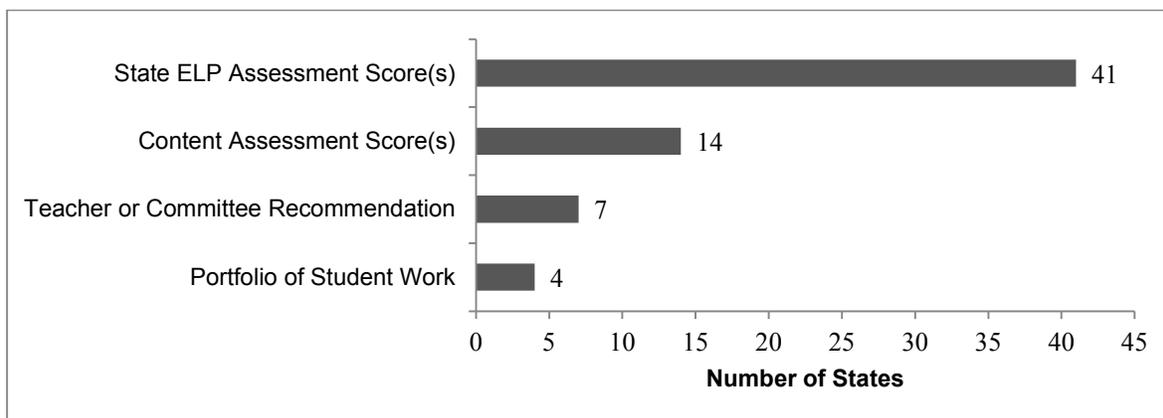

Exhibit Reads: Forty states and the District of Columbia require or recommend that districts use scores on the state ELP assessment as a criterion for exiting students from EL status.

Notes: Includes 40 states and the District of Columbia. For simplicity, the District of Columbia is represented in the figure as a state.

Source: Review of SEA websites conducted in spring 2015

Although students typically remain in dual language programs after they exit EL status, their change in status can have implications for program evaluation efforts and funding.

Dual language programs differ from other types of language instructional education programs for ELs in that students continue to participate in the program even after they become reclassified as English proficient. State officials from all six case study states confirmed that once students in dual language programs are reclassified as English proficient, they remain in the program and begin a two-year monitoring period.[22] However, students' change in EL status may nonetheless have important implications for dual language programs. For example, students who exit EL status are no longer required (under federal law) to participate in the state's annual ELP assessment. In addition, many state and district data systems lack the capacity to track former ELs once their two-year monitoring period has ended, and this limitation may hinder the state or district's ability to assess former ELs' long-term growth as part of program evaluation efforts (Tanenbaum et al., 2012).

Students' change in EL status also can affect the amount of funding available to support dual language programs. (See Chapter VI for a discussion of the funding that can be used to support dual language programs.) State funding streams for EL programs often allocate money based on the number of ELs served. Thus, as ELs in dual language programs become proficient in English and exit EL status, the programs no longer qualify to receive funding to support those students. However, dual language programs bear added costs in serving these students (as well as other students in these programs) relative to serving students in general education classrooms because

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[22] Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) requires that Title III-funded districts monitor former ELs' academic outcomes for two years after the students exit EL status, and report former ELs' progress to the states during this time period (Title III Subpart 2, Section 3121(a)(4)).

of expenses associated with such things as specialized instructional materials or teacher professional development (Lara-Alecio et al., 2005).[23]

State Policies on Student Placement in Dual Language Programs

Although states often play a significant role in shaping EL identification and reclassification procedures, they tend to allow more local discretion and flexibility in decisions regarding ELs' placement into particular types of instructional programs (Tanenbaum et al., 2012). The results of our state education agency (SEA) website review suggest that this is the case for dual language programs as well: our website searches uncovered relatively few state-level policies concerning students' eligibility for or placement into dual language programs. In total, we located policies or guidance in this area for five states.

> **Two states (Delaware and Utah) have established open enrollment policies to ensure that students with diverse backgrounds and ability levels are able to participate in dual language programs.**

Delaware and Utah have two-way dual language programs and one-way dual language programs where the learners are predominantly native English speakers acquiring a world language. Both states have issued guidelines indicating that state-funded dual language programs must be open to students "of varying backgrounds and abilities" (Delaware Department of Education, n.d.). In Utah, dual language programs must provide assurances that they will adhere to this open enrollment policy, and the state's rubric for monitoring program fidelity ensures that dual language programs have not imposed any prerequisite screening requirements for student enrollment. In addition, an interviewed state official from Utah explained that the state provides districts with technical assistance on ensuring that dual language program enrollment reflects the school's population as a whole. Because dual language programs are in high demand in Utah, districts implement a lottery system when parents' requests exceed the number of available program openings.

> **Three states have released information on enrolling students in dual language programs after Grade 1 or 2.**

Because dual language programs typically begin when students enter kindergarten or Grade 1, students who join the program in subsequent grade levels may struggle if they lack sufficient English or partner language skills to keep up with instruction. Three states have issued guidance related to this issue. For example, information on California's SEA website indicates that two-way dual language programs typically do not accept new English-only speakers after Grade 1 and do not accept new ELs after Grade 2; however, students who are bilingual and biliterate can enter these programs at any time. Similarly, in Utah, students who wish to enroll in a dual language program after Grade 2 must demonstrate their ability in the partner language through a partner language proficiency assessment. Furthermore, Kentucky required schools applying for the state's 2014 dual language program planning/implementation grants to submit to the state a plan for addressing students who enter the program after Grade 1.

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[23] See Chapter 6 for a more detailed discussion of costs and funding for dual language programs.

Two states (Arizona and California) require that parents of ELs submit annual written consent for their child's placement in a dual language program.

As with other types of bilingual programs in the state, Arizona and California mandate that parents of ELs sign annual waivers consenting to their child's placement in a dual language program. In Arizona, procedures for acquiring parents' informed consent call for the parent or legal guardian to "personally visit the school to apply for the waiver, be provided a full description of the educational materials to be used in different program choices, and be made aware of other educational opportunities available for child" (Arizona Department of Education, 2014, p. 6). In California, ELs under the age of 10 in their initial school year in the state must be placed in an English language classroom for 30 calendar days prior to enrolling in a dual language program.

Recruiting and Retaining Students in Dual Language Programs

To ensure their sustainability, dual language programs must be able to attract and retain sufficient numbers of students. Yet, despite the promise of these programs, parents may be hesitant to enroll their child without a clear understanding of the program's key features and benefits. Additionally, because the timeline for learning English may differ in dual language programs because students are learning through two languages (Lindholm-Leary & Genesee, 2014), parents unaware of this difference may grow concerned about initial delays in English performance and remove their child from the program (Lee & Jeong, 2013). Thus, accurately communicating with parents about how dual language programs operate and what they should expect for their child can be essential for recruiting and retaining students (Alanís & Rodriguez, 2008).

In this section, we explore state efforts to facilitate student recruitment and retention through outreach activities and incentives for student participation.

Outreach Activities

Four states have created websites that promote dual language programs in the state.

The four states include Delaware, Georgia, North Carolina, and Utah. Delaware, Georgia, and Utah have predominately one-way dual language programs where the learners are mostly English proficient students learning a world language. Each of these websites describes key benefits associated with dual language programs, provides contact information for schools currently implementing dual language programs, and offers links to relevant online resources. Georgia's website, for example, highlights various news articles that showcase dual language programs operating in the state. Utah's website features a host of resources that explain the state's dual language program model, and includes photos and videos that show parents what dual language classrooms look like.

> **Officials from four of the six case study states indicated that the state has provided outreach materials and/or technical assistance to support districts in recruiting and retaining students.**

Delaware, for example, has developed parent outreach documents and slide presentations in both English and Spanish that provide an overview of the key features and benefits of dual language programs. District staff can use the PowerPoint presentations to conduct outreach meetings for parents and also can invite SEA staff to come to the district to give presentations. Illinois provides technical assistance to districts on student recruitment and retention through an intermediary organization, the Illinois Resource Center. Additionally, a state official from New Mexico indicated that the state is working to improve its technical assistance on student recruitment and retention and is developing methods to ensure that parents are better informed about program options.

Incentives for Students

> **As of spring 2015, 11 states and the District of Columbia have adopted policies to recognize students who acquire proficiency in two languages with a specialized seal or endorsement on their high school diploma; another 15 states are currently considering such policies.**

In 2011, California became the first state in the nation to enact legislation establishing a state Seal of Biliteracy, a gold insignia awarded to high school graduates on their diploma or transcript who attain a high level of proficiency in English and at least one other language. Since then, other states have adopted similar policies in an effort to encourage students to study languages and to honor those who become bilingual and biliterate. A state's Seal of Biliteracy[24,25] also serves as a credential that employers and college admissions offices can use to identify individuals with high-level language skills. For instance, an interviewed state official from New Mexico indicated that the state is collaborating with the state's higher education department and institutions of higher education on how to use its new Seal of Biliteracy to identify and recruit future bilingual teachers. Other important objectives in adopting state Seal of Biliteracy policies include recognizing the value of language diversity, strengthening intergroup relationships and honoring the multiple cultures and languages within a community, and establishing criteria to certify attainment of biliteracy skills. (Exhibit 3.3 shows the states that offer or are considering offering a Seal of Biliteracy.)

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[24] North Carolina offers a "global languages endorsement," which is similar to a Seal of Biliteracy.
[25] For more information regarding states that offer a seal of biliteracy, see http://sealofbiliteracy.org.

Exhibit 3.3. States That Offered or Were Considering Offering a State Seal of Biliteracy in Spring 2015
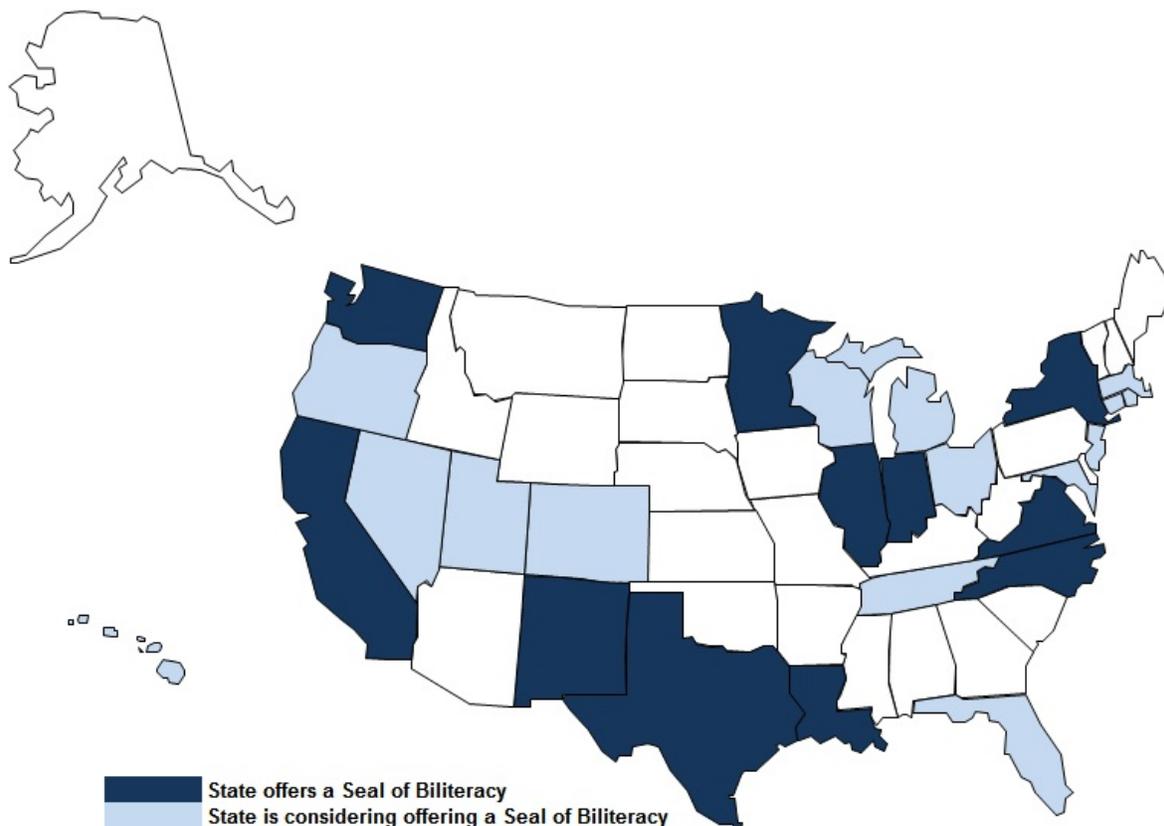
Exhibit Reads: In spring, 2015, dark-colored states offered a state Seal of Biliteracy, and light-colored states were considering offering a state Seal of Biliteracy.

Notes: Includes 50 states

Source: Review of SEA websites; http://sealofbiliteracy.org/

To receive a state Seal of Biliteracy, students must satisfy state- or district-established criteria for demonstrating proficiency in two languages. For example, in California, students are eligible to receive the State Seal of Biliteracy if they (1) complete English language arts course requirements for graduation with an overall grade point average of 2.0 or above in those courses, (2) score proficient or above on the state English language arts assessment administered in Grade 11,[26] and (3) demonstrate proficiency in one or more languages in addition to English. Students can demonstrate proficiency in languages other than English in one of four ways: (a) earning a passing score on the world language Advanced Placement (AP) examination or International Baccalaureate examination; (b) successfully completing a four-year high school course of study in a world language, with a grade point average of 3.0 or above in the course; (c) scoring proficient or above on a district language examination that assesses speaking, reading, and writing in a language other than English; or (d) scoring 600 or higher on the Scholastic Assessment Test II Foreign Language Examination. Students who have a primary language other

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[26] As California transitions to new Common Core-aligned assessments, the state has set interim criteria for fulfilling the second requirement. These criteria include passing, at the "proficient" level, a locally determined assessment in English language arts (ELA) administered at Grade 11, or using an existing score at the "proficient" level on the California ELA Standards Test given in Grade 10.

than English in any of Grades 9–12 must satisfy an additional criterion: attaining the early advanced proficiency level on the state ELP assessment, the California English Language Development Test (CELDT). According to information on the California Department of Education's website, 24,513 students from the graduating class of 2014 earned the state's Seal of Biliteracy (California Department of Education, 2015b).

> **Two of the six case study states have developed opportunities for students in dual language programs to earn university-level language credit.**

As noted in Chapter II, Utah and Delaware have developed secondary course-taking pathways to allow students in dual language programs to take the AP course in the partner language by Grade 9 and then proceed to take university-level courses in Grades 10 through 12. Through collaboration with a consortium of seven universities in the state, Utah has arranged for students in Grades 10–12 to take a sequence of three university-level "bridge courses," which are taught by university faculty and facilitated by a qualified high school language teacher. Students can receive up to nine credits of upper division university course work for completing these courses, which would allow them to enter college only two or three courses shy of earning a minor in their language of study. Similarly, Delaware is currently working with its university partners to establish a dual enrollment policy that will allow students in dual language programs to earn college course credit for university-level courses taken in Grades 10 through 12.

Chapter Summary

The EL identification process marks an important first step in determining students' eligibility for and placement into dual language programs. The results of this process can determine whether a student is eligible to participate in one-way dual language programs designed specifically for ELs. The results also can inform how two-way dual language programs position students within their two groups of predominantly English-speaking and predominantly partner-language-speaking students. Although states' procedures for identifying students as ELs typically begin with a home language survey followed by an ELP assessment, states vary in the ELP assessments and cut scores that they use. In addition, some states give districts more discretion in the EL identification process by allowing them to select the assessment used or consider additional factors when making EL identification and placement decisions.

Very few states appear to have established specific policies or eligibility criteria regarding EL or English proficient students' placement into dual language programs. However, a handful of states have issued policies or guidelines about allowing students with varying backgrounds and ability levels access to dual language programs or ensuring students who enter the program one or two grades later than typical have the language skills they need to be successful. Arizona and California require districts to confirm that parents of ELs have provided informed consent for their child to be placed in a dual language program.

To support districts in recruiting and retaining students in dual language programs, several states have provided materials or technical assistance to facilitate parent outreach efforts. States also have created incentives that can make dual language programs more enticing for students. For example, states are increasingly adopting policies to officially recognize students who attain proficiency in two languages by the time they graduate high school by awarding them a Seal of Biliteracy that can serve as a credential for college admissions and future employment opportunities.

IV. Standards, Assessments, and Program Evaluation Practices

This chapter examines the standards and assessments that states have in place to guide instruction and measure student progress toward acquiring proficiency in English and a partner language, as well as learning academic content. The presence of standards and assessments in both English and the partner language underscores the importance of learning both languages and emphasizes the goal of additive bilingualism in dual language programs (Howard et al., 2007; Hernandez, 2015).

Key Findings

- As of spring 2015, most states use English language proficiency (ELP) standards developed by one of two multistate consortia: the World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA) English Language Development Standards (36 states and the District of Columbia) or the English Language Proficiency Assessment for the 21st Century (ELPA21) English Language Proficiency Standards (nine states). Seven states use their own state-developed ELP standards. As of spring 2015, 34 states and the District of Columbia use the WIDA ACCESS for ELLs® ELP assessment, three states use the English Language Development Assessment (ELDA), and the remaining 13 states use a state-specific ELP assessment.

- Fifteen states and the District of Columbia define expectations for students' annual progress on the state ELP assessment as an increase in their overall score by a specified number of points. Twenty-nine states and the District of Columbia define their expectations for attaining proficiency in English in terms of an overall composite score on the state ELP assessment, and 15 states require specific domain scores in addition to an overall composite score.

- Forty-two states and the District of Columbia have adopted world language proficiency standards, and at least three of these states have used these standards to set grade-level partner language proficiency expectations for students in dual language programs.

- Five states require dual language programs to regularly assess students' partner language skills; 11 states recommend particular assessments or provide assessment resources to help programs monitor students' partner language development.

- As of spring 2015, five states have posted information on their websites about statewide partner language arts standards.

- In 2012–13, 10 states reported allowing English learners (ELs) to take at least one Title I content assessment in a language other than English for Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) accountability purposes. In spring 2015, officials from two of the six case study states mentioned challenges associated with using content assessment data for ELs tested in English in ESEA accountability or educator evaluation systems, particularly relating to concerns that the scores may underestimate student learning.

- Two of the six case study states (Utah and Delaware) have engaged in program evaluation efforts specific to the states' dual language programs. Another two case study states (New Mexico and Illinois) prepare annual state reports on state-funded bilingual education programs (which include dual language programs) but do not specifically examine dual language programs.

English Language Proficiency Standards and Assessments

For dual language programs that serve ELs, instruction must support ELs' development and attainment of English proficiency. To guide such instruction, Title III of the ESEA requires states to implement ELP standards aligned to content standards, and to use valid and reliable ELP assessments that measure the language skills students need for English proficiency. To ensure that ELP standards and assessments support students in developing the English skills they need to engage meaningfully with academic content, ELP standards and assessment systems developed in response to Title III feature a strong emphasis on academic language. With regard to academic language, Bailey (2007) defines being "academically proficient" as "knowing and being able to use general and content-specific vocabulary, specialized or complex grammatical structures, and multifarious language functions and discourse structures—all for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge and skills, interacting about a topic, or imparting information to others" (pp. 10–11).

English Proficiency Standards

Title III specifies that states must establish ELP standards (ESEA 3113(b)(2)) that are derived from the domains of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Title III further requires that states' ELP standards align with the state's academic content and performance standards.[27] As states have transitioned to college- and career-ready content standards, such as the Common Core, they have had to ensure that they have ELP standards in place that correspond to the language demands inherent in those content standards.

> **As of spring 2015, most states use ELP standards developed by one of two multistate consortia: the WIDA English Language Development Standards (36 states and the District of Columbia) or the ELPA21 English Language Proficiency Standards (nine states). The remaining seven states use their own state-developed ELP standards.**

Exhibit 4.1 presents a full list of states' ELP standards. The World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA) Consortium, established in 2003, released an amplification of its 2007 ELP standards in 2012. As part of that amplification process, the consortium took steps to ensure that the standards addressed the language demands presented by the Common Core, Next Generation Science Standards, and other college- and career-ready content standards. For instance, WIDA's English Language Development Standards Framework explicitly references specific state content standards, with each sample topic or context for language use given in the ELP standards (WIDA, 2012). The more recently established English Language Proficiency Assessment for the 21st Century (ELPA21) consortium similarly developed its ELP standards to address the language demands that students need to successfully meet college- and career-ready standards in English language arts, mathematics, and science.

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[27] Although the Title III law uses the term "aligned" to describe the relationship between states' ELP and content standards, the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) has recommended using the term "correspond" to refer to relationships between standards because "align" and "linkages" are technical terms that often refer to the relationship between standards and assessments (CCSSO, 2012).

Seven states—Arizona, California, Connecticut, Louisiana, New York, Ohio, and Texas—use their own state-developed ELP standards. For example, New York has developed a new set of ELP standards as part of a statewide Bilingual Common Core Initiative launched in 2012. In collaboration with a national advisory group of EL experts, the state created New Language Arts Progressions to help teachers provide instruction that makes the state's Common Core content standards accessible to students with various English proficiency and literacy levels. The New Language Arts Progressions identify the main academic and linguistic demands of each Common Core standard, by grade level, and provide examples of linguistic demands used in content-specific contexts, along with examples of strategies that teachers can use to develop the language skills needed to meet those demands.

> **Sixteen states have posted on their websites monitoring protocols or rubrics that are used to assess districts' implementation of ELP standards.**

States' procedures for monitoring implementation of ELP standards tend to involve assessing districts' use of ELP standards through a structured protocol, which is used during periodic monitoring visits. For instance, Colorado has developed an English Learner Walk Through and Program Review Tool, which includes elements to evaluate (1) whether the district uses a standards-based approach (i.e., follows the state's academic content and ELP standards) focused on what students should know and be able to demonstrate; (2) whether the district curriculum is aligned with the state's academic content and ELP standards and assessment frameworks; and (3) whether districts and schools monitor implementation of the curriculum to ensure that ELs have equitable access to a rigorous academic program. State education agency (SEA) monitoring staff rate whether they observe "little or no evidence," "some evidence," or "substantial evidence" that these elements are in place, justifying their ratings with supporting evidence and observational notes. In addition to monitoring review tools, we found information indicating that three states monitor programs' implementation of ELP standards by reviewing plans that districts submit detailing their services for ELs.

English Language Proficiency Assessments

As noted earlier, Title I and Title III require states to implement an annual ELP test that assesses ELs' English skills in the four domains of reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Title III also requires that states hold Title III-funded districts accountable for achieving Annual Measurable Achievement Objectives (AMAOs), which include performance goals for the number/percentage of ELs making progress in learning English and attaining proficiency in English. In setting those goals, states must define expectations for the amount of progress ELs should demonstrate on the ELP assessment from one year to the next, as well as the cut score(s) ELs must achieve on the ELP assessment to be considered proficient in English.

> **As of spring 2015, 34 states and the District of Columbia use the WIDA ACCESS for ELLs® ELP assessment, three states use the English Language Development Assessment (ELDA), and the remaining 13 states use a state-specific ELP assessment.**

Exhibit 4.1 displays each state's choice of ELP assessment. The 2014–15 school year marked a period of transition for the nine states belonging to the ELPA21 consortium as they prepared for

the ELPA21 assessment to be field-tested during the 2015–16 school year. In addition, Idaho and Florida were preparing to transition from their state-developed ELP assessments to the WIDA ACCESS for ELLs assessment in 2015–16, having recently adopted the WIDA English Language Development (ELD) Standards.

Exhibit 4.1. State English Language Arts Standards, English Language Proficiency Standards, and English Language Proficiency Assessments, as of Spring 2015

State	English Language Arts (ELA) Content Standards	English Language Development/ Proficiency (ELD/ELP) Standards	English Language Proficiency Assessment
Alabama	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Alaska	Alaska ELA Standards	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Arizona	Common Core	Arizona ELP Standards	Arizona ELL Assessment (AZELLA)
Arkansas	Common Core	ELPA21 ELP Standards	English Language Development Assessment (ELDA)
California	Common Core	California ELD Standards	California ELD Test (CELDT)
Colorado	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Connecticut	Common Core	Connecticut ELL Framework	LAS Links
Delaware	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
District of Columbia	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Florida	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	Comprehensive ELL Assessment (CELLA)
Georgia	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Hawaii	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Idaho	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	Idaho English Language Assessment (IELA)
Illinois	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Indiana	Indiana Academic Standards	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Iowa	Common Core	ELPA21 ELP Standards	Iowa English Language Development Assessment (I-ELDA)
Kansas	Common Core	ELPA21 ELP Standards	KELPA
Kentucky	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Louisiana	Common Core	ELPA21 ELP Standards	English Language Development Assessment (ELDA)
Maine	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Maryland	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Massachusetts	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Michigan	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Minnesota	Minnesota K-12 Academic Standards	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Mississippi	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Missouri	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Montana	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs

State	English Language Arts (ELA) Content Standards	English Language Development/ Proficiency (ELD/ELP) Standards	English Language Proficiency Assessment
Nebraska	Nebraska College- and Career-Ready Standards	ELPA21 ELP Standards	ELDA
Nevada	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
New Hampshire	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
New Jersey	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
New Mexico	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
New York	Common Core	New York New Language Arts Progressions	New York State English as a Second Language Achievement Test (NYSELAT)
North Carolina	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
North Dakota	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Ohio	Common Core	ELPA21 ELP Standards	Ohio Test of ELP
Oklahoma	Oklahoma Academic Standards	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Oregon	Common Core	ELPA21 ELP Standards	Oregon English Language Proficiency Assessment
Pennsylvania	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Rhode Island	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
South Carolina	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
South Dakota	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Tennessee	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Texas	Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS)	Texas ELP Standards	Texas ELP Assessment System (TELPAS)
Utah	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Vermont	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Virginia	Virginia Standards of Learning	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Washington	Common Core	ELPA21 ELP Standards	Washington Language Proficiency Test (WLPT)
West Virginia	Common Core	ELPA21 ELP Standards	West Virginia Test of English Language Learning (WESTELL)
Wisconsin	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs
Wyoming	Common Core	WIDA ELD Standards	WIDA ACCESS for ELLs

Notes: At the time of our data collection in spring 2015, Florida and Idaho had adopted the WIDA ELD Standards and planned to begin implementing the WIDA ACCESS for ELLs assessment in 2015−16.

Source: Review of SEA websites conducted in spring 2015

Most states (15 states and the District of Columbia) define expectations for students' progress in learning English as an increase in their overall score on the state ELP assessment by a specified number of points.

Of the 33 states with publicly available information on their AMAO definitions for making progress in learning English, 15 states and the District of Columbia identify a specific number of

points that ELs need to gain from one year to the next. The point values vary considerable across states. For example, among states that use the WIDA ACCESS for ELLs assessment, states' annual growth expectations range from 0.2 points to 1 point, and two of these states set different expectations for students depending on the amount of time they have spent participating in language instructional educational programs.

Another 14 states define their annual growth expectations in terms of moving from one English proficiency level or performance band to the next on the state ELP assessment. For instance, Georgia has established a series of nine sequential performance bands based on the WIDA ACCESS for ELLs' 1.0–6.0 composite score range (i.e., 1.0–2.2, 2.3–3.3, 3.4–3.9, 4.0–4.3, 4.4–4.6, 4.7–4.9, 5.0–5.2, 5.3–5.5, and 5.6 +). ELs are expected to move from one performance band to a higher performance band over the course of the year.

> **Most states (29 states and the District of Columbia) define their expectations for attaining proficiency in English in terms of an overall composite score on the state ELP assessment; 15 states require specific domain scores in addition to an overall composite score.**

Of the 33 states and District of Columbia with publicly available information on their AMAO definitions for attaining proficiency in English, 29 states and the District of Columbia require ELs to achieve a minimum overall composite score on the state ELP assessment to qualify as having attained English proficiency. These minimum scores vary, often reflecting differences in the scoring scales of different ELP assessments. However, among WIDA states that use the same ACCESS for ELLs assessment, the minimum scores range from 4.2 to 5.0.

Fifteen of these states use a "conjunctive minimum" approach[28] to measure students' attainment of English proficiency. Under this approach, students must achieve a specific overall composite score combined with minimum scores in particular domains (e.g., listening, speaking, reading, writing). For example, Vermont requires students to achieve an overall composite proficiency level of 5.0 or higher on the ACCESS for ELLs, plus a minimum proficiency level of 4.0 on both the reading and writing domains, in order to attain English proficiency. Vermont's AMAO guidance explains that it adopted this approach "in order to ensure that a high score in one language domain does not have a compensatory effect on lower scores in another language domain, resulting in a false impression of 'proficiency'" (Vermont Department of Education, 2010).

Partner Language Proficiency Standards and Assessments

Although not required under federal law, states may choose to adopt or recommend language proficiency standards and assessments to guide and monitor students' acquisition of languages other than English. This applies to English speakers' second language in two-way dual language programs, as well as ELs' native language in two-way and one-way dual language programs. For example, states may establish generic world language proficiency standards that outline the content and skills teachers should cover during world language instruction and/or define language proficiency levels that delineate students' progress in learning world languages. States

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[28] For more information about this approach, see Cook, Linquanti, Chinen, and Jung (2012).

also might create language-specific proficiency standards analogous to their English proficiency standards, which teachers can use to plan and deliver instruction in a particular language, such as Spanish. Furthermore, states may develop policies or guidance for assessing students' proficiency levels in world languages.

Most states (42 states and the District of Columbia) have adopted world language proficiency standards; at least three of these states have used these standards to set grade-level partner language proficiency expectations for students in dual language programs.

A 2011 study by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) found through a survey of state officials and reviews of SEA websites that 42 states had adopted world or foreign language proficiency standards, and that in more than 40 states, these standards reflect the National Standards for Foreign Language Learning, which have most recently been updated as the *Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century* in 2006 and the *World-Readiness Standards for Learning Languages* in 2015 (Phillips & Abbott, 2011; National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project, 2006; National Standards Collaborative Board, 2015).

Our spring 2015 review of SEA websites located information from 14 states and the District of Columbia about states' world language proficiency standards. In each case, these state standards were based on the National Standards for Foreign Language Learning, as well as the ACTFL proficiency guidelines, which the ACTFL developed to be used in conjunction with the national standards (ACTFL, 2012). The ACTFL proficiency guidelines describe the listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills that students possess across a range of particular language proficiency levels (e.g., Novice, Intermediate, Advanced, Superior, Distinguished) and sub-levels (e.g., Novice Low, Novice Mid, Novice High).

Three of the 14 states with world language standards posted on their websites (North Carolina, Ohio, and Utah) have used the ACTFL proficiency scales to set grade-level or grade-span language proficiency targets specific to Grades K/1–12 dual language programs. For example, Utah has established language proficiency targets for individual grade levels from Grade 1 through Grade 12 for the partner languages used in its dual language programs. North Carolina and Ohio have developed language proficiency expectations that identify the skill levels that students in K–12 dual language programs should reach in interpretive listening, interpretive reading, interpersonal person-to-person, presentational speaking, and presentational writing by the end of Grade 2, Grade 5, Grade 8, and Grade 12. The states differentiate these expectations depending on whether the dual language program uses an alphabetic partner language (e.g., Spanish, French, Cherokee) or a logographic partner language (e.g., Mandarin Chinese, Japanese).

Illinois uses Spanish Language Development Standards developed by WIDA to guide Spanish language instruction and assessment for students in dual language and other bilingual education programs.

With funding from a 2009 U.S. Department of Education Enhanced Assessment Grant, the Illinois Department of Education collaborated with the WIDA Consortium to develop a framework for Spanish language development standards, which serves as a resource for planning

and delivering language instruction and assessments for students in dual language and other bilingual programs who are learning academic content in Spanish. The standards framework is similar to the one employed in WIDA's ELD Standards but is tailored to be authentic to the Spanish language and the demands of developing Spanish language skills within a U.S. educational context.

The framework emphasizes features and examples of Spanish academic language, and it references specific connections to state content standards, including the Common Core State Standards and Next Generation Science Standards. Moreover, the introduction to WIDA's framework explains that because students transfer knowledge and skills between Spanish and English, teachers in Spanish dual language or bilingual programs can use the framework in conjunction with the WIDA ELD Standards to gain a clearer understanding of students' language skills. Moreover, by using both, teachers may be able to tailor instruction to promote transfer from one language to another and identify areas where additional support is necessary because of differences between the languages (WIDA, 2013).

In addition to Illinois, New Mexico has established a task force to review Spanish language development standards frameworks for potential future implementation, according to an interviewed New Mexico education official.

> **Five states require dual language programs to regularly assess students' partner language skills; 11 states recommend particular assessments or provide assessment resources to help programs monitor students' partner language development.**

Among the 16 states with information about partner language proficiency assessment policies on their SEA website, we found evidence that five states (Delaware, Kentucky, New Mexico, Oregon, and Utah) require state-funded dual language programs to assess students' progress in developing partner language proficiency at least annually. For example, Oregon requires that all state-funded dual language programs administer the Stanford University Foreign Language Oral Skills Evaluation Matrix (FLOSEM) for oral language development in both languages and that all state-funded Spanish programs administer Riverside Publishing's Logramos (Third Edition) assessment to students in Grades 3–5.

New Mexico districts must annually measure the partner language development of students in state-funded bilingual multicultural programs (including dual language programs) until they are proficient in the partner language. For Spanish, districts may choose from the Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey, the Language Assessment Scales (LAS), or the Individualized Proficiency Test (IPT). For Native American languages, students from local tribal communities are tested for proficiency through formative and summative assessments approved by the local tribe. Currently, there are state-funded bilingual multicultural education programs in the following tribal languages: Jicarilla Apache, Keres, Navajo (Diné), Tewa, Tiwa, and Zuni.

In Utah, dual language program students in Grades 3–8 are tested annually using the ACTFL Assessment of Performance Toward Proficiency in Languages (AAPPL) in the partner language, and parents receive an annual student proficiency report created by the Utah State Office of Education, which details their child's progress in learning the partner language. Students in

Grade 9 take the Advanced Placement (AP) assessment in the partner language, and the state is currently working with the University of Utah to determine which assessments students will take in Grades 10 through 12. According to an interviewed state official, the state is considering the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) assessment, OPI Computer Test (OPIc), and the Writing Proficiency Test (WPT) for these three grade levels.[29] In addition, Utah students in Grades 9–12 can enter performance-based assessment examples in the partner language in Linguafolio—an online portfolio assessment tool.

The remaining 11 states with information on their websites about the state's partner language proficiency assessment policies do not explicitly require districts or dual language programs to implement a particular assessment, but they do recommend or provide access to partner language assessment tools. For example, North Carolina has developed prototypical performance assessments (which can be used as formative or summative assessments) based on the state's world language proficiency standards, using the ACTFL proficiency scales. Districts may use these assessments or vendor-produced assessments, or may create their own assessments, to measure students' proficiency in the partner language. Illinois, through its collaboration with WIDA, has made the WIDA Prueba Óptima del Desarrollo del Español Realizado (PODER) Spanish language development assessment available for students in kindergarten through Grade 2, and WIDA is currently developing new assessments for additional grade levels. Although Illinois does not require the PODER assessment, it recommends that districts use it to monitor students' Spanish language development over time.

Academic Content Standards and Assessments

A core principle underlying Title I of the ESEA is that all students—including ELs—have access to the same grade-level academic content, and that schools, districts, and states are held accountable for ensuring that all students are successful in learning that content. Conforming to this principle, dual language programs follow the same academic content standards as other instructional programs and must support students in demonstrating proficiency in those standards on the state's annual content assessments.

Content Standards

> **Dual language programs follow the same academic content standards as other instructional programs.**

States use a variety of methods to ensure that dual language programs follow the state's academic content standards. Eight states have provided guidance on their SEA websites indicating that content instruction in dual language programs must align with the state content standards in reading/language arts, mathematics, and other content areas (i.e., dual language programs must support students in learning the same grade-level skills as students in other academic settings). Moreover, we located information for 15 states about state practices to monitor whether dual language programs—and other programs that serve ELs—are implementing the state content standards.

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[29] See http://www.languagetesting.com/general-test-descriptions for additional information about these ACTFL assessments.

Nine states have posted tools on their websites, such as monitoring protocols and/or observation checklists, to monitor language instruction educational programs' implementation of the state content standards, and at least five of these states use these tools to conduct on-site monitoring visits.

Typically, this monitoring occurs as part of a state process to ensure that districts are complying with requirements tied to state and/or federal funding programs for language instruction educational programs (LIEPs), such as Title III. In Illinois, for example, SEA staff visit districts that receive state funding for LIEPs on a five-year cycle (50–60 districts per year) to review their implementation of state and federal requirements for those programs, including whether the programs' content area curricula align with the Common Core State Standards.[30] Illinois also examines programs' alignment with state standards when SEA staff review districts' applications for state LIEP funding, and gives districts an optional District Self-Assessment Checklist and formative assessments to monitor their schools and prepare for state monitoring visits. In addition to providing monitoring tools and site visits, states also evaluate programs' alignment with state content standards by examining student test results on content area assessments. Officials from four of the six case study states described how their state examines the extent to which districts and schools are meeting state expectations for student performance on state content area assessments in order to determine whether programs are appropriately covering the state content standards.

Five states have posted information on their websites about statewide partner language arts standards.

Information on Wisconsin's website indicates that the state's Spanish language arts standards are designed for use with native-Spanish-speaking students and should be used to inform curriculum development and lesson planning in Spanish bilingual programs, particularly those with a focus on developing the native language in addition to English. Illinois uses the WIDA Consortium's Spanish Language Arts Standards, which were under revision in spring 2015, according to an interviewed state official. A 2012 presentation created by the Illinois Resource Center—an organization that provides technical assistance for the Illinois State Board of Education— explains that having statewide Spanish language arts standards "recognizes Spanish language arts as a valued content area, facilitates programmatic cohesion, sets uniform instructional and assessment targets and benchmarks, encourages collaboration of teachers, [and] promotes articulation between grade levels" (Hilliard, 2012, p. 7).

Texas also has developed Spanish language arts and reading standards, and it created these standards to be authentic to the Spanish language rather than a Spanish translation of the state's English language arts standards. Texas' standards documents describe the need for this authenticity, noting how linguistic differences between the Spanish and English languages have important implications for the sequencing of language arts and literacy skill development (Texas Education Agency, 2010). The California Department of Education has worked in partnership with the San Diego County Office of Education and the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) to develop Spanish language arts (SLA)/literacy standards based on the Common Core

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[30] Illinois also assesses districts' implementation of state content standards through separate Title I monitoring visits.

ELA/Literacy Standards. The developers of these standards sought to mirror the structure, expectations, and level of rigor of the Common Core ELA/Literacy Standards but included "linguistic augmentation" in the SLA/literacy standards "to address points of learning, skills and concepts that are specific to Spanish language and literacy, as well as transferable language learnings between English and Spanish as provided in educational settings where students are instructed in both languages" (CCSSO, 2012, p. ii).

New York has recently replaced its Native Language Arts Learning Standards with new standards known as Home Language Arts Progressions, as part of the state's Bilingual Common Core Initiative. The standards follow the same format as the state's New Language Arts Progressions (described above) and include examples of linguistic demands in content-specific contexts in the top five languages in the state (Spanish, Chinese, Arabic, Bengali, and Haitian Creole).

In addition to these five states, an interviewed state official from New Mexico indicated that the state has established a task force to review Spanish language arts standards for future implementation.

Texas and California have developed Spanish language versions of state standards for content areas other than reading/language arts.

Texas has translated its content standards—the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) standards— in mathematics, science, and social studies into Spanish for Grades K–6. In addition, the California Department of Education's partnership with the San Diego County Office of Education and the CCSSO has generated a Spanish language translation of the Common Core State Standards for mathematics for Grades K–8, and they are currently translating the mathematics standards for Grades 9–12. The resulting standards documents follow the same outline as the original English version of the mathematics standards and display the English and Spanish translation of the standards side by side.

Officials from five of the six case study states indicated that dual language programs, particularly those with a partner language other than Spanish, face challenges locating instructional materials aligned with the state content standards.

These concerns echo challenges highlighted in recent case study research on dual language programs. For example, a report examining a K–8 Hawaiian dual language program noted how a lack of translated or original curricular materials in the Hawaiian language prompted the district to develop its own materials at the local level (Pacific Policy Research Center, 2010). Similarly, a study of a Korean dual language program in California described how the program relied on its Korean language teachers to translate the English language arts curriculum into Korean to guide instruction in Korean language arts (although linguistic differences between the two languages complicated this translation process). Parents of the Korean students in the program also reportedly noted that many of the Korean books in the library were outdated and used old Korean orthographic conventions that were no longer used in modern Korean schools (Lee & Jeong, 2013).

Several states have taken steps to assist dual language programs in acquiring or developing instructional materials for teaching state content standards in the partner language. For example, a 2014 policy document from Kentucky indicates that the state is working with other states that are striving to develop dual language programs—including Delaware, Georgia, Ohio, South

Carolina, and Utah—to offer a curriculum and assessment template for participating schools. In addition, Illinois has developed partnerships with Spain to facilitate the exchange of instructional materials in Spanish and also is working with China to help Chinese dual language programs implement the "Confucius Classroom" model. Wisconsin's SEA website features sample tools to help dual language programs develop lesson plans for teaching state content standards in Spanish.

Assessing Content Learning

To determine how well ELs and other students are meeting state content and performance standards, Title I of the ESEA requires states to administer annual content assessments aligned with the state's standards in reading/language arts and mathematics in Grades 3–8 and at least one high school grade. Additionally, states must administer annual science assessments aligned with state science standards for each of the following grade spans: Grades 3–5, Grades 6–9, and Grades 10–12. States also must hold districts and schools accountable for ensuring that all students and designated student subgroups, such as ELs, participate in these assessments[31] and meet annual state-defined performance goals.

For ELs who are still acquiring English, various factors—such as the student's level of English proficiency, as well as the linguistic complexity and cultural differences embodied in assessment items—may hinder ELs' ability to demonstrate their knowledge on state content assessments administered in English (Abedi & Linquanti, 2012; Alvarez et al., 2014; Willner, Rivera, & Acosta, 2008; Brisk & Proctor, 2012). Title I requires states to make every effort to develop content assessments in students' native language, although students must be assessed on the reading/language arts test in English after three years or, in individual cases, after five years (ESEA 1111(b)(6)).[32] For ELs in dual language programs, taking state content assessments in the partner language may be particularly beneficial for content areas that are taught in the partner language because, in such cases, students are likely more familiar with important content area-specific academic vocabulary in the partner language than in English (Abedi & Linquanti, 2012; August & Shanahan, 2006). However, not all states offer content assessments in languages other than English.

The language of assessment in dual language programs is a complicated issue. In general, assessments in content areas would be in the language of instruction, and second language learners of that language might have access to some additional support, or accommodations, during the assessment. In dual language programs, however, there are two languages of instruction, and all students are learning some content through a second language. Ideally, assessments would align with the goal of bilingualism and full mastery of two languages for content learning. This aim is achievable at the local level, where various forms of formative and summative assessments help to monitor student progress (see Alvarez et al. [2014] for a discussion of formative assessments for ELs). However, at the large-scale standardized assessment level, this is a much more difficult

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[31] States have flexibility to exclude newly arrived ELs who have attended U.S. schools for less than 12 months from one administration of the state English language arts assessment. These students must, however, participate in the state mathematics assessment with appropriate accommodations.

[32] After three years, states may allow ELs to take the reading/language arts content assessment in their native language on a case-by-case basis for up to two additional years. There is no limitation on the number of years that ELs can be tested in their native language for math or science.

proposal, given the resources needed to produce valid and reliable content area assessments in many languages. As a result, other options are generally pursued by states, with some opportunities for testing in Spanish as well as English, but relatively few in other languages.

In 2012–13, 10 states reported allowing ELs to take at least one Title I content assessment in a language other than English for ESEA accountability purposes.

Most of these states (nine out of 10) reported allowing Spanish-speaking ELs to take the state mathematics assessment in their native language, and half of these states reported allowing Spanish-speaking ELs to take the state reading/language arts assessment (five states) or state science assessment (five states) in their native language (see Exhibit 4.2). In addition to offering state content assessments in Spanish, Michigan indicated that it also allows ELs to take mathematics and science assessments in Arabic, and New York indicated that it allows ELs to take the mathematics assessment in Haitian-Creole, Russian, Chinese, or Korean.

Guidance located on SEA websites indicates that even when states offer a content assessment in a language other than English, this option may only be available to ELs in certain grade levels. For example, Colorado offers Lectura and Escritura (Spanish language reading and writing assessments) to eligible third- and fourth-grade students. Similarly, Texas offers Spanish language versions of the State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR®) tests in Grades 3–5. In Massachusetts, the state's mathematics assessment is available in Spanish for ELs in Grades 9 and 10.

Exhibit 4.2. Number of States That Reported Offering Title I Content Assessments in Spanish, 2012–13
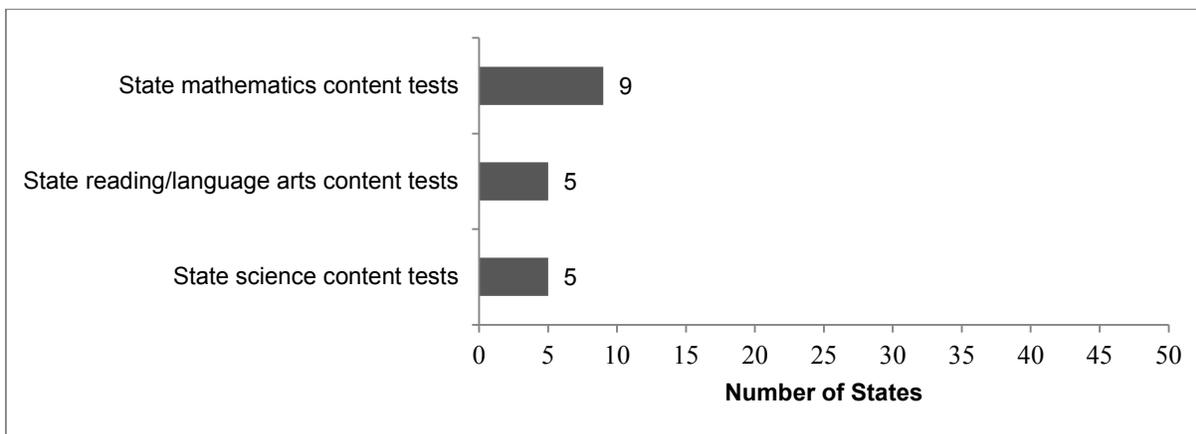
Exhibit Reads: Nine states reported offering the state mathematics content tests used for ESEA accountability determinations in Spanish in 2012–13.
Notes: Includes 50 states and the District of Columbia. For simplicity, the District of Columbia is represented in the figure as a state.
Source: Consolidated State Performance Reports (CSPRs), 2012–13

As states begin to implement new content assessments aligned with college- and career-ready standards, they have an opportunity to offer assessments in languages other than English. For example, both the Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers (PARCC)

and Smarter Balanced have developed Spanish versions of their mathematics assessments, which states have the option of using if desired.[33] Moreover, in 2014–15, Hawaii piloted a new Hawaiian language version of its state content assessments for use with third- and fourth-grade students in the state's Hawaiian dual language programs. (See text box, "Assessing Students in Hawaiian to Support Native Language Development.")

Assessing Students in Hawaiian to Support Native Language Development

Since 1987, the Hawaii Department of Education has implemented a K–12 dual language program known as Ka Papahana Kaiapuni Hawaii, which aims to help the Hawaiian community revive and maintain its native language and culture. Currently operating in 20 schools, the program emphasizes instruction in the Hawaiian language in the early grades and does not introduce English instruction until Grade 5, with the goal of helping students become bilingual in high school.

Given the program's strong emphasis on the Hawaiian language prior to Grade 5, the Hawaii Department of Education partnered with the University of Hawaii–Manoa to develop Hawaiian language arts and mathematics assessments in Hawaiian that are aligned with the state's Common Core standards. To support a 2014–15 pilot test of these assessments among third- and fourth-grade students in the Hawaiian dual language program, the state applied for and received a one-year waiver from the U.S. Department of Education, allowing those students to take the pilot test in lieu of the statewide Smarter Balanced content assessments in reading/language arts and mathematics that year (Delisle, 2015).

For ELs who take Title I content assessments in English, states and districts must provide appropriate assessment accommodations to ensure the validity and reliability of the assessment (Abedi, 2004; Francis & Rivera, 2007). Accommodations for ELs on such assessments may involve changes to testing procedures, such as granting students extra time or reading test directions or questions aloud; changes to testing materials, such as administering a modified English version of the assessment or allowing use of the native language, English, pictures, or bilingual glossaries; and/or changes to testing conditions, such as conducting the test in a small-group setting or familiar environment with other ELs (Abedi & Ewers, 2013; Willner, Rivera, & Acosta, 2008). Abedi and Ewers (2013) argue that five key issues must be considered when selecting appropriate accommodations for ELs: the accommodations' (1) effectiveness in making the assessment more accessible to the recipient; (2) validity in measuring the assessment's focal constructs (i.e., the accommodations do not provide an unfair advantage to the recipient); (3) differential impact on students with different background characteristics (i.e., one size may not fit all); (4) relevance for the recipient; and (5) feasibility of being implemented in the assessment setting.

ESEA Accountability Requirements

As noted earlier, Title I and Title III of the ESEA feature provisions that hold states, districts, and schools accountable for ensuring that ELs meet annual state performance goals on academic content assessments. In addition, under ESEA Flexibility, states are implementing principal and

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[33] According to their websites, PARCC offers both an online and paper version of its mathematics assessment in Spanish, and Smarter Balanced offers a mathematics assessment that features stacked translations in Spanish (i.e., a Spanish translation is presented directly above each item in English).

teacher evaluation and support systems that use student growth on state content assessments as a significant factor in measuring principal and teacher effectiveness.

> **Officials from two of the six case study states mentioned challenges associated with using content assessment data for ELs tested in English in ESEA accountability or educator evaluation systems, particularly relating to concerns that the scores may underestimate student learning.**

For example, an official from Massachusetts explained that when ELs in dual language or other bilingual programs are assessed in English while they are still developing proficiency in English, their scores may be depressed, and student assessment outcomes on state tests may not reflect positively on meeting state grade-level learning goals. As a result, dual language programs may not be perceived as being successful, and current state-level accountability requirements create a disincentive for districts to implement them. A state official from New Mexico discussed similar concerns expressed by educators within dual language programs with respect to the state's new evaluation system. For example, some educators have posited that if ELs in dual language programs are being taught using a 90:10 model (with most of their instruction in the partner language) and are then tested in English, interpretations of teacher effectiveness based on student achievement growth may not provide a complete assessment of their effectiveness. To address this, the New Mexico SEA is currently working on incorporating information on how to evaluate teachers of culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students and ELs into the state teacher evaluation framework.

Research findings also have indicated that Title I and Title III requirements that schools demonstrate that ELs make adequate progress and meet the same content standards required of native English-speaking students have caused some communities to rethink implementation of dual language programs and consider implementing an English-only approach (Wright & Choi, 2006; Gandara & Rumberger, 2009; Warhol & Mayer, 2012; Lindholm-Leary, 2012; Menken & Solorza, 2012). Further illustrating this point, Lindholm-Leary (2012) found that when ELs score below the levels of their monolingual peers on standardized tests in English during the early years of dual language programs, administrators may feel pressure to add more instruction in English (which negatively affects fidelity of implementation of the program model) or eliminate dual language programs altogether. To address this challenge, one recommendation is for dual language programs to use multiple assessment measures in both languages that are aligned with and include dual language programs' vision and goals and measure students' ongoing progress toward meeting bilingualism and biliteracy benchmarks.

Program Evaluation Practices

Although all states use content assessment and ELP proficiency data to evaluate whether schools and/or districts with dual language programs are meeting the state's performance goals under Title I and Title III, states also may choose to conduct more targeted evaluations to assess the implementation and outcomes of dual language programs. Information collected from our state interviews and website searches for the six case study states showed that four of the six case study states were planning or had implemented program evaluation efforts related to dual language or bilingual education programs (as of spring 2015).

Two of the six case study states (Delaware and Utah) have engaged in program evaluation efforts specific to the state's dual language programs.

A state official from Utah explained that the state submits an annual report to the state legislature on the progress and cost effectiveness of the state's dual language program initiative. The report presents analyses of dual language program students' partner language proficiency, as well as their performance on state content assessments. For example, Utah's analyses of 2011–12 student performance data found that the state's third-grade students in dual language programs[34] tended to outperform peers who were not in dual language programs in terms of the percentage of students on reading level, the percentage of students scoring proficient in English language arts, the percentage of students scoring proficient in mathematics, and the percentage of students who are not chronically absent (Utah State Office of Education, 2013). The Utah official also noted that the state's cost analyses have shown that the dual language initiative is a cost-effective program in the state, currently costing approximately $100 annually per participating student.

A state official from Delaware mentioned that the state has used an external evaluator in previous years to conduct a primarily qualitative evaluation of its dual language programs, but is now in the process of contracting with the Center for Applied Linguistics to conduct an external quantitative evaluation. Additionally, the state compares disaggregated state assessment data on students in dual language programs with students not in dual language programs.

Another two case study states (New Mexico and Illinois) prepare annual state reports on state-funded bilingual education programs (which include dual language programs), but do not specifically examine dual language programs.

New Mexico submits an annual report to its state legislature that presents various data on state-funded bilingual multicultural education programs (BMEPs). For example, the report features analyses of the percentage of students in BMEPs who attain proficiency in Spanish or Native American partner languages, the schools implementing BMEPs that earned an A or B grade according to the state accountability system, and the percentage of American Indian and Hispanic students scoring proficient or above on state content assessments, disaggregated by students' EL status and BMEP participation. New Mexico's report also includes expenditure data, including the amount of expenditures that BMEPs incurred in particular areas (e.g., direct instruction, instructional support, administration). According to an interviewed New Mexico official, one challenge in conducting evaluations of dual language programs in the state is that districts and BMEPs use different assessments to measure students' partner language proficiency outcomes. This lack of a uniform assessment is one reason why the state has established a task force working on adopting a set of standards and rethinking Spanish language assessment options for BMEPs (moving toward a common language assessment).

Illinois also must prepare an annual statistical report on EL and bilingual education for its state legislature and, although the report's analyses of student outcomes (i.e., ELP and state content assessment outcomes) currently focus on all ELs in the state, the SEA is discussing

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[34] Most of the dual language programs in Utah (91 out of 118 in 2014–15) are one-way programs that predominantly serve native English speakers. However, Utah also has 27 two-way dual language programs that serve both native English speakers and language minority students, including ELs.

disaggregating EL performance data by program type in the future, according to an interviewed state official. This official further noted that the state is considering longitudinal analyses of student outcomes by program type.

Chapter Summary

To guide instruction and evaluate student progress in developing English proficiency, all states have established ELP standards and assessments under Title III, and have continued to refine these systems to ensure that they reflect the academic language skills that students need to master state content standards in English language arts, mathematics, and other content areas. Many states also have implemented standards that can be used to support students' acquisition of a partner language, and several states provide guidance or recommendations on assessing student proficiency in the partner language, although few states have set explicit requirements for such assessments.

Most states are now implementing the Common Core State Standards in English language arts and mathematics, but officials in all six case study states noted challenges associated with finding instructional materials in the partner language that align with these standards. Two of the case study states also mentioned concerns about the validity of performance results for ELs who take content assessments administered in English, particularly when these results are used to make high-stakes decisions relating to state accountability and as part of educator evaluation systems. A minority of states allow ELs to take at least one of the state content assessments in their native language.

Few states currently conduct program evaluations specifically for dual language education programs. In most cases, the dual language programs are folded into general evaluations of bilingual education or other programs for ELs in the state or district (CCSSO, 2008). However, as the number of dual language programs grows, attention to program evaluation in states will likely grow as well.

V.   Teacher Qualifications and Professional Development

This chapter explores state-level policies and practices regarding the qualifications of teachers who serve students in dual language programs, as well as the professional development offered to teachers in these programs. In some cases, where policies and practices for bilingual education apply to teachers in dual language programs, the scope of the discussion will extend to bilingual education. The chapter begins by examining state teacher certification or licensure requirements for teachers in bilingual education (including specific language fluency assessments) and then focuses on the requirements that some states have specifically for teachers in dual language programs. The discussion then moves on to the guidance states have issued to districts on qualities to look for when hiring teachers for these programs. It then highlights how a shortage of qualified teachers is affecting implementation of dual language programs and outlines case study states' efforts to build the supply of teachers. The chapter concludes with a discussion of states' approaches to providing professional development opportunities for teachers and principals in schools and districts with dual language programs.

Key Findings

- According to data collected by the National Comprehensive Center on Teacher Quality (NCCTQ) in 2009–10, all states and the District of Columbia offered an English as a second language (ESL) teaching certificate.

- Twenty-five states and the District of Columbia have established certification requirements that allow teachers to earn a teaching certificate in bilingual education. At least seven of these states require teachers in dual language programs to earn a bilingual education certificate. One state (Utah) has developed credentials specifically for teachers in dual language programs, and North Carolina is currently developing such credentials.

- All 50 states and the District of Columbia require teachers who provide instruction in English in any type of program to demonstrate their English fluency. Thirty-six states and the District of Columbia require teachers to demonstrate fluency through the university certification or licensure process, and 25 states require teachers to pass a specific English language fluency assessment.

- Thirty-nine states have established requirements for teachers who provide instruction in a language other than English to English learners (ELs) to demonstrate fluency in this language: 19 states require teachers to demonstrate fluency through a university certification or licensure process, and 16 of those states require teachers to pass a specific language assessment as part of that process.

- Teachers in dual language programs need specific characteristics to teach effectively. Eight states issue guidance to districts on qualities to look for when hiring teachers for dual language programs.

- Interview respondents from all six case study states identified the shortage of qualified teachers as a challenge to implementing dual language programs in the state.

- Five case study states have taken steps to build the supply of teachers qualified to teach in dual language programs. The most prevalent actions are establishing alternative certification pathways to allow teachers to become certified to teach in dual language programs (four states) and forming partnerships with other countries to assist with building the supply of teachers.

- Among the 11 states with available information on the professional development offered or recommended to dual language teachers, two states indicated that this professional development is required.

- Among the 11 states with available information on the professional development offered or recommended to dual language program teachers, nine states provide workshops or conferences that cover dual language education topics. Six states sponsor, require, or encourage teachers to attend summer institutes specifically designed for dual language program teachers.

Qualifications of Dual Language Program Teachers

As general education practitioners, teachers in dual language education are expected to possess the credentials and core competencies needed by all teachers for their grade level and/or subject matter focus (knowledge of content, pedagogical practice, educational technology, and assessment, among other topics, as well as all the required certifications). To be effective in the dual language setting, however, they need additional knowledge, skills, and attitudes, some of which may be demonstrated through certifications or endorsements for teaching ELs or using the partner language as a medium of instruction, such as bilingual/ESL teacher requirements. A major component of these teacher qualifications is a high level of proficiency in the languages in which they teach (Lindholm-Leary, 2007), given that dual language education incorporates instruction in and through English and a partner language. Furthermore, because all students in dual language classrooms learn content through their second language (ELs learning English and English speakers learning the partner language), it is important for teachers to understand sheltered instruction and second language development. Finally, given the rigorous standards related to text analysis and production in the Common Core State Standards and Next Generation Science Standards, teachers need to know how to support second language learners as they encounter such texts, particularly in the language of the content areas (mathematics, science, social studies, and so on) (Council of Great City Schools, 2008; Brisk & Proctor, 2012).

The research on effective teachers of ELs (as second language learners) is relevant to dual language education, and a review of the research base revealed consensus that important teacher skills and knowledge include understanding second language acquisition and how a student's first language interacts with learning a second language, knowledge of the cultural backgrounds of the students, the ability to use specific strategies when teaching the subject matter so that students learning through their second language can access that content, and skills in differentiating instruction according to the language level and background knowledge of individual students (August, Spencer, Fenner, & Kozik, 2012). Skills in differentiating instruction are particularly important in two-way dual language classrooms because teachers may work with mixed groups of proficient speakers and novices in the language of instruction. The proficient speakers need to be challenged so that their native language development progresses, and the novice speakers need to be accommodated to facilitate both language and content learning (Lindholm-Leary, 2007). Positive attitudes toward bilingualism and culturally diverse groups also are essential in order to create an environment conducive to productive interactions and language learning (Brisk & Proctor, 2012). Effective teachers hold high expectations for students, are receptive to suggestions, and are committed to culturally relevant pedagogy (Alanís & Rodriguez, 2008).

States play an important role in establishing teacher certification and other qualification requirements to help districts ensure that dual language teachers have the necessary expertise and appropriate teaching certificates or credentials. From a federal policy standpoint, Title I and Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) require states to set minimum requirements for teacher qualifications. Under Title I, the highly qualified teacher requirements for teachers who provide academic content instruction include possession of a bachelor's degree, full/continuing state certification (or licensure), and demonstrated subject-matter competence in the areas taught. In addition, Title III (Title III, Part A, Section 3116(c)) requires teachers who teach in EL programs

funded under Title III to be fluent[35] (including written and oral communication skills) in English and any other language in which they provide instruction.

In 2009–10, all states and the District of Columbia offered an English as a second language (ESL) teaching certificate, and 25 states and the District of Columbia offered a teaching certificate in bilingual education.

According to data collected by the National Comprehensive Center on Teacher Quality (NCCTQ) in 2009–10, all states and the District of Columbia offered an ESL teaching certificate, and 25 states and the District of Columbia had established certification requirements for a teaching certificate in bilingual education (NCCTQ, 2009) (see Exhibit 5.1). Our review of state education agency (SEA) websites in spring 2015 indicated that New Mexico's bilingual certification requirements, for example, include 24 to 36 hours in bilingual education and a passing grade in the Spanish Language Proficiency Exam (Prueba). (Bilingual education addresses English language development, instructional methodology, community/family involvement, and assessment.) Ohio's requirements include competence in English; the target language; cultural diversity; the historical, philosophical, legal, and theoretical underpinnings of bilingual education; second language acquisition; instructional methodology; linguistics; and assessment.

One state has developed credentials specifically for teachers in dual language programs, and another state is currently developing credentials. Seven states require dual language program teachers to hold a bilingual certificate or endorsement.

A review of the SEA website indicated that Utah has developed credentials specifically for teachers in dual language programs, and the state official from North Carolina indicated that North Carolina is currently developing these credentials.[36] Utah has partnered with universities in the state to develop world language and dual language immersion (DLI) endorsements in the language of instruction, which teachers must acquire in addition to their state teaching certificate to teach in both one-way and two-way dual language programs. Certification for dual language immersion is provided in three ways in Utah: (1) completion of an approved DLI program; (2) an ESL endorsement, a state-approved "foundations of dual language immersion" course, advanced-mid or higher oral proficiency rating on the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) scale, and one year of teaching in a dual language program; or (3) a state-approved foundations of dual language immersion course, advanced-mid or higher oral proficiency rating on the ACTFL scale, one year of teaching in a dual language program, and three other courses (content-based curriculum instruction and assessment, second language literacy, and methods of second language acquisition).

Among states with information available on their websites, seven states (California, Colorado, Delaware, Illinois, Michigan, New Mexico, and Texas) require dual language program teachers to hold a bilingual certificate or endorsement. In New Mexico, for example, teachers who teach

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[35] For the purposes of this study, we are using the term "proficiency" for students and the term "fluency" for teachers, although they have the same meaning.

[36] Rhode Island offers teaching certificates in "bilingual and dual language education."

in any of the bilingual program models (including dual language programs) must have a bilingual endorsement for their target language or be licensed through a Native Language and Culture Certificate (for Native American languages), in addition to possessing a New Mexico teaching license for their level of instruction (e.g., elementary education). In Delaware's dual language programs, the partner-language teacher must hold a Delaware teacher's license, an elementary education certificate, and either a K–12 world languages certificate or K–12 bilingual certificate.

Exhibit 5.1. States That Offered Teaching Certificates in English as a Second Language (ESL) and Bilingual Education, 2009–10

State Name	English as a Second Language	Bilingual Education	State Name	English as a Second Language	Bilingual Education
Alabama	x		Montana	x	
Alaska	x	x	Nebraska	x	
Arizona	x	x	Nevada	x	x
Arkansas	x		New Hampshire	x	x
California	x	x	New Jersey	x	x
Colorado	x	x	New Mexico	x	x
Connecticut	x	x	New York	x	x
Delaware	x	x	North Carolina	x	
District of Columbia	x		North Dakota	—	—
Florida	x	x	Ohio	x	x
Georgia	x		Oklahoma	x	
Hawaii	x		Oregon	x	
Idaho	x	x	Pennsylvania	x	
Illinois	x	x	Rhode Island	x	x
Indiana	x	x	South Carolina	x	
Iowa	x		South Dakota	x	
Kansas	x		Tennessee	x	
Kentucky	x		Texas	x	x
Louisiana	x	x	Utah	x	
Maine	x		Vermont	x	x
Maryland	x		Virginia	x	
Massachusetts	x	x	Washington	x	x
Michigan	x	x	West Virginia	x	
Minnesota	x	x	Wisconsin	x	x
Mississippi	x		Wyoming	x	x
Missouri	x		**Total**	**50**	**26**

Exhibit Reads: In 2009–10, Alabama offered a teaching certificate in English as a second language but does not offer a teaching certificate in bilingual education.

Notes: Includes 49 states and the District of Columbia. Data were not available for North Dakota.

Source: National Comprehensive Center on Teacher Quality, 2009

Most states (36 and the District of Columbia) require teachers who provide instruction in English to ELs to demonstrate their fluency in English through the university certification or licensure process. Twenty-five states require teachers to pass a specific English language fluency assessment.

According to data collected in 2009–10 as part of the National Evaluation of Title III implementation (Tanenbaum et al., 2012), all 50 states and the District of Columbia require teachers who provide instruction in English in Title III-funded language instruction educational programs (LIEPs) to demonstrate their English fluency. These data indicate that the majority of states (36 states and the District of Columbia) require teachers to demonstrate their fluency in English as part of the university certification or licensure process, and 25 of those states require teachers to pass a specific assessment as part of that process. Another two states require a specific assessment, but do not require university certification or licensure. Twelve states rely on local assurances from school districts that teachers are fluent in English.

A review of SEA websites indicated that in Rhode Island, for example, teachers must achieve a passing score of 64 on the Versant Pro Speaking and Writing English assessments. In Illinois, teachers must demonstrate adequate speaking, reading, and writing skills (including grammar) in English. This requirement may be fulfilled in one of the following ways: (1) The applicant presents evidence that he/she graduated from an institution of higher education in which the medium of instruction is English; or (2) the applicant successfully completes the English Language Proficiency Test.

Massachusetts is one of 12 states that rely on local assurances from Title III districts to ensure that teachers are fluent in English. The SEA website indicates that school district superintendents are required to submit annual written assurance to the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education that teachers of English language classrooms (as defined in M.G.L. c. 71A) are literate and fluent in English.

Nineteen states require teachers who provide instruction in a language other than English to demonstrate their fluency in that language through a specific language fluency assessment.

The National Evaluation of Title III implementation found that, as of the 2009–10 school year, only 39 states had established requirements for teachers in Title III-funded LIEPs who provide instruction in a language other than English to demonstrate their fluency in that language. Nineteen states require teachers to demonstrate their fluency in such languages through a university certification or licensure process, and 16 of those states require teachers to pass a specific language assessment as part of that process. For example, a review of SEA websites indicated that, in New Jersey, teachers who provide instruction in a language other than English in Title III-funded LIEPs are required to pass oral and written language proficiency tests (Oral Proficiency Interview [OPI] and Writing Proficiency Test [WPT]) in the relevant language(s). Both tests must be passed with at least a score of "Advanced Low." In Rhode Island, such teachers are required to score at different levels, depending on the language: a passing score of 146 on the ETS English to Speakers of Other Languages test; a passing score of 162 on the French World Language test; a passing score of 163 on the German World Language test; a passing score of 168 on the Spanish World Language test; and, for all other languages, a passing

score of "Advanced Low" on the OPI. The National Evaluation of Title III implementation found that three states require a specific assessment outside of the university certification or licensure process. A review of the states' websites indicated that Georgia, for example, administers a specific assessment designated at the state level, while in North Dakota, fluency in a native language is determined by local native tribes.

Another 12 states rely solely on assurances from local districts. A review of SEA websites indicated that in Alaska, for example, districts that receive Title III-A funds must determine that teachers are fluent and in possession of both written and oral communication skills in English and any other language used for instruction (and they must report the process/criteria for determining this in the Plan of Service for Limited English Proficient [LEP] students). The District of Columbia uses monitoring tool checks to make sure that the district has determined teacher fluency in the language other than English.

> **In addition to establishing formal teacher qualification requirements, eight states have issued guidance to districts on qualities to look for when hiring teachers for dual language programs.**

Eight states have provided specific guidance on their websites about the qualities that teachers should have to teach students in these programs. A search of these SEA websites revealed a range of guidance, from minimal guidance on what constitutes a high-quality teacher to the Five Discriminating Characteristics of Effective DLI Teachers (see Exhibit 5.2) that Utah provides to district administrators and school leaders. New York indicates that dual language teachers need to provide quality instruction in both languages in all content areas for an effective two-way dual language program and that teachers must use a variety of teaching approaches to address first and second language development. Teachers should have the skills to incorporate learning strategies and be effective in mastering content through purposeful language learning.

Rhode Island maintains that, like all teachers, teachers in dual language programs should possess high levels of knowledge relating to the subject matter, curriculum and technology, instructional strategies, and assessment. This SEA indicates that, for effective dual language programs, dual language teachers also should have a high level of knowledge in their content area(s), as well as native-like academic language proficiency in the partner language and/or English, depending on the model used. Louisiana has provided guidance on what to look for in an exemplary world language classroom, which can be applied to hiring teachers for one-way dual language programs where students are acquiring a world language. For example, questioning candidates about the strategies they use in their classrooms can help to identify teachers who use promising practices, such as conveying meaning through visuals, objects, and gestures; adopting a situational approach to teaching (the teacher gives the student a reason for learning); presenting several activities in one lesson; and using little or no English.

Exhibit 5.2. What to Look for When Hiring Dual Language Immersion Teachers: Five Discriminating Characteristics of Effective DLI Teachers

Characteristic	Evidence	Criteria of Evidence
Language proficiency	OPI Oral proficiency	• Advanced mid-target language • Proficient in English
Coachable disposition	Demo lesson Reference checks Interviews	• Give a coaching tip during the demo lesson and observe how well the candidate is able to incorporate the suggestion • Genuine and specific accounts of how the teacher benefitted from coaching are evident during the interviews and reference checks
Collaborative disposition	Reference checks Interviews	• Genuine and specific accounts of how the teacher has been collaborative in previous settings are evident during interviews and from references
Strong pedagogy	Demo lesson	• What strategies does the teacher use to make the content comprehensible to the students? • Does the teacher incorporate activities where the students have to interact with each other? • How is the teacher collecting evidence that the students understand?
Classroom management	Demo lesson	• How many times does the teacher have to refocus students during the lesson? • How does the teacher handle the off-task students? • How many students are on/off task?

Source: Utah Dual Language Immersion, DLI Advisory Council, March 23, 2015, Utah State Office of Education. What to Look for When Hiring DLI Teachers. http://utahdli.org/images/March%2023%202015%20DLI%20Advisory.pdf

Building the Supply of Qualified Teachers

Hiring qualified and skilled teachers with appropriate levels of language proficiency is essential to the effectiveness of any dual language program. However, the rising number of programs around the country and a scarcity of teachers with the necessary language skills has led to a shortage of qualified dual language teachers (similar to the problem faced by all forms of bilingual education) (Liebtag & Haugen, 2015). Dual language teacher shortages also impact dual language programs serving Native American students because the majority of teachers are second language learners (Hermes 2004; Slaughter, 1997).

> **Interview respondents from all six case study states identified shortages of qualified teachers as a barrier to implementing dual language programs in the state.**

These responses echo reports that identify locating sufficient teachers with the requisite expertise as one of the most common barriers to implementing dual language programs. The U.S. Department of Education notes that bilingual education is a "high-need field," and federal reports on teacher preparation under Title II of the Higher Education Act (cited by Liebtag & Haugen, 2015) found that 32 states and the District of Columbia need more bilingual teachers. (The specific needs of dual language education are not tracked nationally, but bilingual education requirements are similar.) A report issued by the U. S. Department of Education's Office of Postsecondary Education (2015) indicates that 16 states identified bilingual or dual language education as a teacher shortage area for the 2015–16 school year.

A variety of strategies can be employed to increase the supply of qualified teachers for dual language education, many of which parallel those used in other forms of bilingual education. The beginning of the supply chain lies in pre-service teacher preparation programs, but, as noted by the Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition in a review of resources on language immersion (cited by Liebtag & Haugen, 2015), the field is not a priority in university-level teacher education and remains relatively small. Often, districts rely on in-service professional development to build the specialized skills needed for dual language instruction. For example, districts may recruit personnel who already possess partner language proficiency (internationally or domestically) and offer them training to gain the necessary pedagogical skills and/or fulfill credential requirements. In some cases, alternative certification routes may be established, particularly to allow partner language speakers to join a program (Casey, Dunlap, Brister, Davidson, & Starrett, 2013).

Officials from five of the six case study states noted that they had taken steps to help build the supply of teachers qualified to teach in dual language programs.

Of these five case study states, four have established alternative certification pathways to allow teachers to become certified to teach in dual language programs (see Exhibit 5.3). For example, a state official from North Carolina indicated that the SEA has a "lateral entry" alternative certification route, in which teacher candidates must have a B.A. degree and at least a 2.5 GPA from their university to receive a provisional teaching license, which enables them to teach while they work on meeting the remainder of the certification requirements. Additionally, a candidate with an existing North Carolina teaching license (for example, in general elementary education or secondary education) can take a Praxis II examination or the ACTFL OPI and WPT assessment in a target language and, with passing scores, add a world languages K–12 endorsement in that language.

Four of the case study states have established partnerships with other countries to assist with building the supply of teachers. For example, the state official from Utah indicated that Utah has created a special international guest teacher license, which provides teachers from abroad with a J-1 visa to temporarily teach in Utah (for up to three years). This has been offered to recruit teachers from China, Taiwan, Spain, Mexico, France, Brazil, and soon Germany. The program also provides housing for the first week of the teacher's stay until he or she has obtained permanent housing. Professional development on the Utah dual language immersion model and cultural training also are offered to these teachers from abroad. A search of the SEA website indicated that the Illinois State Board of Education (ISBE) has partnered with Spain's Ministry of Education and Culture and Mexico's Office of the Secretary of Public Education to administer an exchange visitor program. ISBE offers school districts the opportunity to recruit highly qualified teachers from Spain to teach in dual language, bilingual education, and Spanish as a world language programs. English-speaking teachers from Spain with appropriate licenses and an international visiting teacher license come to the United States to teach for a few years and then return to Spain.

Three case study states indicated that they have job fairs or postings for dual language teachers. For example, the state official from Utah indicated that there are university-level job fairs throughout the state, and a review of Illinois' website indicated that there is a statewide job fair for ESL, bilingual, and dual language teachers; aides; and administrators at the Illinois Resource

Center. The state official from North Carolina reported that jobs are posted statewide on the state's website.

Three case study states are engaging in partnerships with teacher preparation programs to enhance the supply of qualified teachers. A state official from Delaware indicated that the SEA has collaborated with the University of Delaware to develop a "4 + 1" program and cohort model, in which graduates obtain both an elementary education certificate and a Spanish certificate within five years. Additionally, the state of Delaware advised La Salle University as it developed a four-year dual major program, in which graduates obtain an elementary education certificate and a Spanish certificate in four years.

Three case study states also are providing financial incentives for teachers to add certification. In Illinois, for example, the state official indicated that in order to increase the number of available teachers, the SEA reimburses tuition for early childhood teachers to add on a bilingual endorsement. The state official from Utah indicated that although the state is not currently providing incentives, some districts may provide incentives and some individual universities may provide tuition assistance to teacher candidates working on dual language immersion endorsement.

Exhibit 5.3. Strategies Used by Case Study States to Build the Supply of Teachers Qualified to Teach in Dual Language Programs
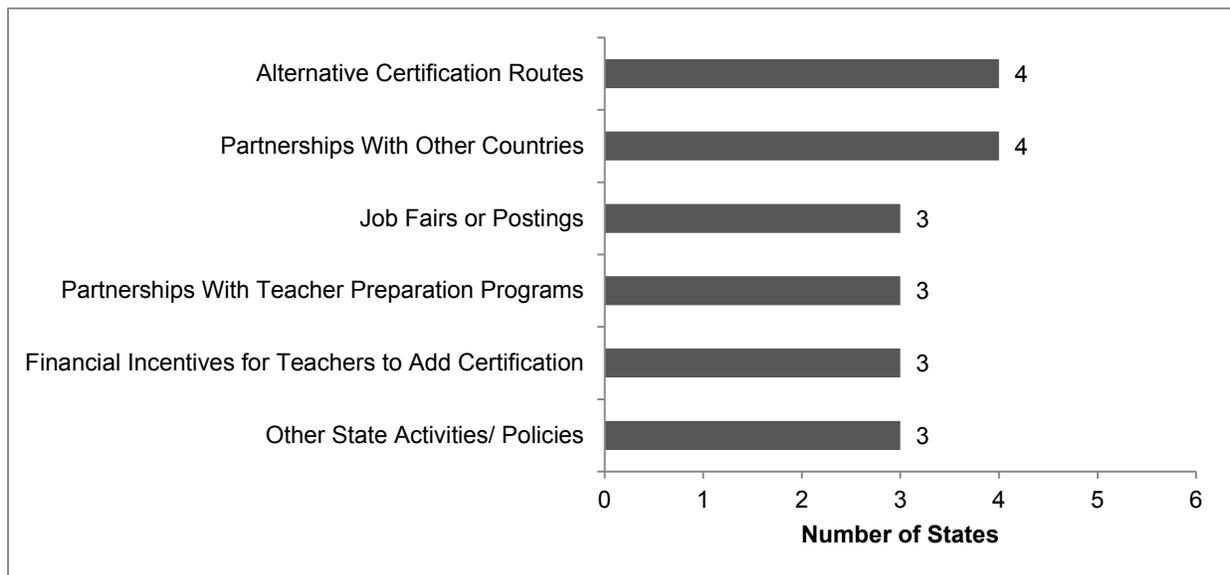
Exhibit Reads: Four of the case study states have established alternative certification routes to help increase the supply of teachers qualified to teach in dual language programs.
Notes: Includes six case study states
Source: Review of SEA websites and state interviews conducted in spring 2015

Professional Development for Teachers in Dual Language Programs

Professional development for practicing teachers is an essential vehicle for improving their capacity to meet the goals of any instructional program. It can address any existing gaps in teachers' knowledge and keeps them abreast of any new developments in the field. In-service

training is particularly important for dual language education, given the scarcity of pre-service teacher preparation programs that focus on this approach. According to Lindholm-Leary (2007), professional development in dual language education should align with the objectives of the instructional program, providing specific training in aspects of pedagogy, curriculum, and assessment, including ways of delivering instruction to help students increase their proficiency in the languages of instruction. Others have stressed the usefulness of professional development that extends teachers' knowledge of the language of instruction, particularly for partner-language teachers (Fortune, Tedick, & Walker, 2008). Furthermore, because dual language program teachers must often create curriculum and materials locally to address instructional objectives, and monitor student learning on an ongoing basis, professional development in curriculum writing and assessment, particularly formative assessment, is often desirable (Alvarez et al., 2014; Fortune, Tedick, & Walker, 2008). In areas where the Common Core State Standards are being implemented, professional development is helpful to address the rigorous standards for academic discourse and analysis of advanced texts in both English and the partner language, as well as to meet other academic demands (Santos, Darling-Hammond, & Cheuk, 2012). This may be particularly important for teachers who provide instruction in the partner language, given that many bilingual individuals have not had opportunities for advanced academic discourse in that language (Santos, Darling-Hammond, & Cheuk, 2012).

Given the objectives of dual language education, professional development that was not specifically designed for this context but was designed to help teachers shelter content taught in English to ELs (Hart & Lee, 2003; August & Calderón, 2006) might be helpful in these programs. Teachers in dual language programs, where bilingualism is a key goal, can modify sheltered instruction techniques to be more effective for students in this context (Howard, Sugarman, & Coburn, 2006). For example, when setting language objectives for lessons, teachers can take both languages into consideration to promote cross-linguistic connections and build on knowledge gained in one language (such as the concept of nouns) to help learning in the other (Howard, Sugarman, & Coburn, 2006).

Several research studies have highlighted specific areas of professional development that are necessary for program staff working with dual language learners. For example, one report argued that teachers need to be better trained to work with and enhance language and literacy among dual language learners in order to support students in becoming multilingual—a central goal of dual language education that may not be adequately addressed in pre-service teacher preparation (McCabe, et al., 2013). Another report cited "a continuing need" for teachers in a Hawaiian language immersion program "to receive in-service training in effective teaching methods and new curriculum," and "in assessing student achievement… in second language settings" (Pacific Policy Research Center, 2010, p. 11). In a study of a Korean-English two-way dual language program, Lee and Jeong (2013) found that teachers would have benefited from more training on bilingual language development and second language acquisition. This training was reported as necessary not only for teachers' effective implementation of the dual language program in the classroom, but also to enable teachers to help parents of children in the program understand these processes and have reasonable expectations about students' bilingual development (Lee & Jeong, 2013). Providing ongoing, high-quality professional development for dual language program staff is thus considered an important tool for meeting the specific challenges of program implementation (Warhol & Mayer, 2012; Lee & Jeong, 2013; McCabe et al., 2013).

Two states (Kentucky and Utah) require dual language teachers to participate in professional development on dual language education.

A review of SEA websites and interviews with state officials also indicated that teacher professional development is encouraged to effectively implement dual language programs. Among the 11 states with available information on the professional development offered or recommended to teachers in dual language programs, two states indicated that this professional development is required. Utah holds mandatory training for first- and second-year teachers through a week-long Annual Utah Dual Immersion Institute (AUDII) in August. Kentucky requires teachers of dual language programs to attend the summer institutes in Utah, as well as the Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA) Immersion Conference and/or the ACTFL Convention.

States were most likely to offer professional development to dual language teachers through workshops or conferences (nine states) or summer institutes (six states).

Among the 11 states with information on professional development, nine states provide workshops or conferences that cover dual language education topics (see Exhibit 5.3). A review of SEA websites indicates that in Illinois, for example, the Illinois Resource Center and the Illinois Association for Multilingual Multicultural Education have convened the annual Statewide Conference for Teachers Serving Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Students, in cooperation with ISBE, for the past 35 years. The Illinois SEA also sponsors two-day workshops: Introduction to Biliteracy and the Bridge; Biliteracy and the Bridge (Grades 6–12); and Biliteracy and the Bridge (Grades K–5). A state official from Delaware stated that the SEA offers four full-day professional development opportunities quarterly for all immersion teachers in the state (currently 31 teachers; projected to be 48 teachers next year), as well as two full days of professional development for English teachers in dual language programs. In addition, all K–12 world languages teachers are encouraged to participate in the Delaware Statewide World Language Three-Year Professional Learning Plan, which incorporates summer institutes, professional learning communities, face-to face professional development, and online and hybrid courses and workshops. Teachers are provided stipends and recertification credit as incentives.

Six states sponsor, require, or encourage teachers to attend summer institutes specifically designed for dual language program teachers (see Exhibit 5.4). A review of SEA websites indicated that Georgia convenes the Georgia Dual Language Immersion Institute (GADII) in July and encourages new and experienced dual language immersion teachers in the state to learn best practices from experienced immersion teachers, with the intention that the teachers will implement the strategies the following school year. In Illinois, the Illinois Resource Center convenes its five-day Teaching for Biliteracy Summer Institute, which focuses on biliteracy in Spanish and English. Illinois also has partnered with Literacy Squared to provide professional development focused on biliteracy for districts with bilingual and dual language programs.

Exhibit 5.4. Number of States That Provide Professional Development for Dual Language Program Teachers in Particular Formats
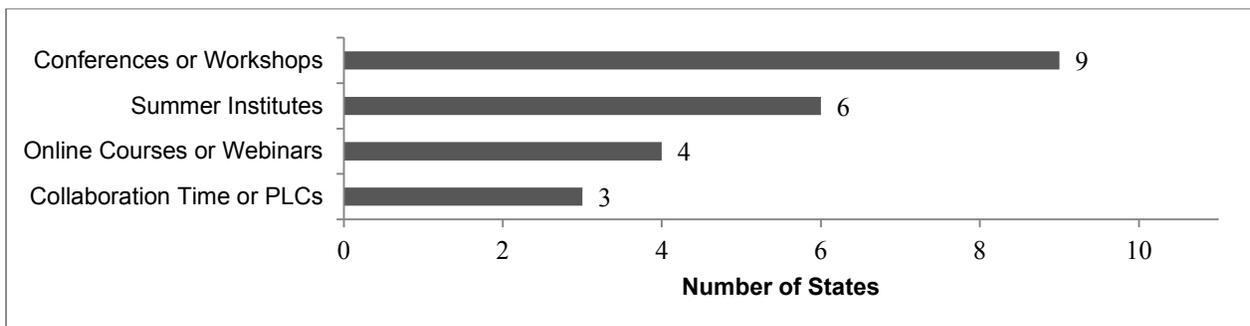
Exhibit Reads: Nine states use conferences or workshops to provide professional development to dual language program teachers.
Notes: Includes 11 states.
Source: Review of SEA websites and case study state interviews conducted in spring 2015

At least six states provide professional development and/or tools to school leaders to develop their expertise in (and commitment to) supporting teachers implementing dual language programs.

A review of SEA websites indicated that Delaware, Georgia, Illinois, and Utah provide professional development on dual language education to school leaders. In Delaware, principals of immersion programs receive four half-days of professional development each year, and two and a half additional days of professional development are provided for principals of new immersion programs. In Utah, school principals and dual language immersion district administrators are required to attend the AUDII new administrators' strand once and the Dual Language Immersion Advisory Council's semi-annual meetings (in September and March). Georgia also encourages new and experienced administrators to attend the GADII summer institute (discussed above).

Some states provide classroom observation tools to school leaders to help them support teachers. For instance, North Carolina has developed a teacher feedback tool drawing on the work of the Teacher Effectiveness for Language Learning (TELL) initiative for world language programs, which school administrators can use to record commendations and recommendations related to 20 different indicators that are tied to specific teaching standards within the state's teacher evaluation system. New Mexico has enhanced the observation tool for its teacher evaluation system. The New Mexico 2013–14 annual report on bilingual multicultural education programs (BMEPs) notes that the state's Bilingual Multicultural Education Bureau "encourages reflective instructional practices and tools—such as the NMTEACH Classroom Observation Protocol—to support rigorous, culturally and linguistically responsive teaching and learning in BMEPs" (New Mexico Public Education Department, 2014, p. 29). According to an interviewed state official, the enhanced classroom observation protocol explicitly mentions use of the state's English language development (ELD) standards, culturally and linguistically responsive teaching practices, and sheltered instruction practices.[37]

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[37] Additional information about the state's classroom observation tool is available at
http://ped.state.nm.us/ped/NMTeach_Toolbox.html

Chapter Summary

States and districts face challenges finding qualified teachers because of the rising number of dual language programs and the lack of teachers with the required expertise.

Teaching in dual language programs requires a unique set of skills. In addition to the credentials and core competencies needed by all teachers, dual language teachers need additional knowledge and skills. Qualifications include a high level of proficiency in the both English and the partner language, for teachers teaching in that language; an understanding of students' cultural backgrounds and second language development; and an ability to shelter content delivered in students' second language.

Some states are establishing teacher certification and other qualification requirements to help districts ensure that dual language teachers have the necessary expertise and appropriate teaching certificates and credentials. Some states also have a requirement that teachers pass assessments that measure their English and/or partner language fluency.

Because dual language teacher shortages are a barrier to implementing dual language programs, states are taking steps to increase the supply of teachers. The most common actions implemented by case study states to build the supply of teachers include establishing alternative certificate pathways to allow teachers to become certified to teach in dual language programs and establishing partnerships with other countries to recruit highly qualified teachers. Other actions include job fairs or postings for dual language teachers, partnerships with teacher preparation programs, and providing financial incentives for teachers to add certification.

Professional development for practicing teachers is an important vehicle for improving their capacity. States are most likely to offer professional development to dual language teachers through workshops, conferences, or summer institutes. Three states require dual language teachers to participate in these professional development opportunities. Some states also provide professional development and/or tools to school leaders to develop their expertise in supporting teachers who are implementing dual language programs.

VI.   State Support for Dual Language and Bilingual Programming

In this chapter, we examine state policies and actions to support dual language or bilingual programming. Specifically, we highlight state policy contexts that endorse or restrict the use of dual language or bilingual education programs. We then investigate sources of funding for dual language programs and the associated challenges. Finally, we discuss technical assistance and networking opportunities that our six case study states have provided to help districts and schools implement dual language programs.

> **Key Findings**
>
> - Seven states have broadcast specific goals or value statements supporting dual language programs or bilingual education more generally.
>
> - Five states have laws that require districts to offer bilingual education programs when they serve a minimum number of English learners (ELs) with the same language background. In contrast, four states have laws constraining the use of bilingual education, typically by requiring parents to sign consent forms or waivers.
>
> - Between 2013–14 and 2015–16, six states have offered funding specifically to support the development and implementation of dual language programs, and three states have offered funding for bilingual education programs that can be used to support dual language programs.
>
> - As of 2014–15, most states (46) provide additional funding to districts and schools to support ELs, which also can be used to pay for dual language programming. However, dual language programs that serve English proficient students (e.g., native English speakers and/or former ELs) may need to identify other sources of funding for costs associated with those students.
>
> - Officials from the six case study states reported challenges related to limited funding for dual language programs (four states), limited state education agency (SEA) capacity to support dual language programs (four states), insufficient local support for dual language programs (three states), and high demand for dual language programs (one state).
>
> - Officials from five of the six case study states reported providing technical assistance to support districts and schools in implementing dual language programs, and officials from four case study states described creating networking opportunities for teachers and administrators to collaborate on dual language programming.

The development, implementation, and sustainability of dual language programs depend heavily on the policy environment in which they function—at the local district level (Dorner, 2010) and at the state level (where the range of allowable program types, support mechanisms, and funding is generally defined for schools and districts in the state). A supportive context leads to funding, but also technical assistance, teacher training, materials, and intellectual leadership, all of which contribute to program success for students (Lindholm-Leary, 2007). State and federal laws, regulations, and judicial decisions determine the "implementation spaces" in which district educators may work to design programs to meet the needs of students in their communities (Johnson, 2010). Given the intersection of dual language education with bilingual and second language education, there are a variety of policy influences that may come into play, including general language policy, language education policies, and EL education policies. When states

encourage dual language education, through policies and action, local schools and districts have a much stronger basis on which to build their programs (Menken & Garcia, 2010).

State Policies Toward Bilingual Programming

The history of policies toward the use of languages other than English as a medium of instruction is one of controversy and intense debate. As discussed in Chapter I, forms of bilingual education have existed in this country since its founding. A variety of social and political forces led to concerns about these practices, and bilingual programming became a topic of debate in many states, particularly in response to increasing linguistic diversity in schools. States varied in their response to the needs of ELs, with some enacting policies that required bilingual education and others opting for specially-designed English language programs as needed (Combs et al., 2005; Crawford, 2004; Gandara & Rumberger, 2009). As dual language education approaches were proposed for adoption, state policies related to bilingual education became an important part of the policy context in which they needed to operate. In some states, new policies were enacted, or existing policies modified, to address dual language education specifically.

Seven states have broadcast specific goals or value statements supporting dual language programs or bilingual education more generally.

Our review of state websites in spring 2015 uncovered seven states (Delaware, Georgia, New Mexico, North Carolina, Rhode Island, Utah, and Washington) that had issued explicit goals or value statements promoting the use of dual language or bilingual education programs. For example, Article 12, Section 8 of the Constitution of New Mexico recognizes the value of bilingualism as an educational tool. The state of Washington's SEA website explicitly indicates that the state values bilingual education and describes a commitment to developing language proficiency in an environment where language and cultural assets are recognized as valuable resources for learning.

In Rhode Island, dual language instruction is included as part of the state's strategic plan, which includes specific goals for the percentage of ELs enrolled in dual language programs and the percentage of students who will graduate with Seals of Biliteracy. In North Carolina, the state's *Preparing Students for the World: Final Report of the State Board of Education's Task Force on Global Education Report* includes support for "leading-edge language instruction," including a plan for statewide access to dual language programs beginning in elementary school and continuing through high school.

Utah, Delaware, and Georgia have established special dual language initiatives. In Utah, this initiative emerged when key state leaders—including the governor, state superintendents, and state senators—established legislation and issued goals for developing dual language programs throughout the state. (See text box, "Scaling Up Statewide: Dual Language Education in Utah.") Delaware's dual language initiative includes goals such as maximizing students' proficiency in a world language in order to develop advanced-level language skills in secondary school; providing a rich academic environment in both English and dual language classrooms; developing students' abilities to work successfully in multiple cultural settings; and offering a rich, culturally diverse experience for the entire school community. (See text box, "Expanding Dual Language in Delaware.")

Georgia also has undertaken its Dual Language Immersion Program Initiative. In 2012, the state superintendent proposed that Georgia would have at least 20 dual language immersion programs by the end of the 2019–20 school year. The goal of the initiative is to create a K–12 language instruction roadmap for Georgia that will address the need for language skills in business, government, and education.

Scaling Up Statewide: Dual Language Education in Utah

Although Utah has a long history of dual language programs beginning in 1979, the environment changed in 2008 when Utah passed Senate Bill 41, "The International Education Initiative—Critical Languages Programs," which created funding for schools in the state to begin dual language programs in Chinese, French, and Spanish. Portuguese was added in the 2012–13 school year, and German was added the following year. The Senate Bill was the result of the efforts of then State Governor Jon Huntsman Jr., State Senator Howard Stephenson, World Language Specialist Gregg Reports, and then Deputy Superintendent for the Utah State Office of Education Larry Shumway. The bill stated that the dual language programs would offer 50 percent of instruction in English and 50 percent in the partner language, beginning in kindergarten or Grade 1, with the intention of adding one grade each year.

In 2009, the Utah Language Roadmap for the 21st Century was created as a collaborative effort by public education, higher education, and the business community in Utah. This language education plan for the state was supported and promoted by state leaders, including the state governor, the state superintendent of education, and the president/CEO of the World Trade Center Utah. These entities aimed to address the need for language skills in business, government, and education. The roadmap included a vision for a K–16 articulation for language study, in which Utah students would enroll in a dual language program as kindergarteners and continue with a vertically articulated progression of language study through the university level to prepare them to enter the global economy.

In 2010, current Utah Governor Gary Herbert and State Superintendent of Public Instruction Dr. Larry Shumway issued a challenge to Utah educators to implement 100 dual language programs throughout the state by 2015, with a goal of enrolling 30,000 students. Reflecting the early success of the programs and public demand, Governor Herbert and State Superintendent Shumway moved the target completion date to 2014, with a continuing goal of mainstreaming dual language programs throughout the Utah public school system. As of fall 2014, 25,000 students were enrolled in dual language programs at 118 schools in 22 districts in Utah. The dual language programs in Utah include both one-way dual language programs that serve one group (consisting predominantly of native English speakers with limited to no proficiency in the second language) and two-way dual language programs (which serve English speakers and speakers of a second language). In 2014–15, Utah had 91 one-way programs for predominantly English speakers (i.e., world language immersion programs) and 27 two-way dual language programs (all of which had Spanish as the partner language).

To date, seven universities in Utah have partnered with the Utah State Office of Education to identify and train future dual language program teachers: Brigham Young University, Dixie State University, Southern Utah University, the University of Utah, Utah State University, Utah Valley University, and Weber State University. At each university, the colleges of education and the humanities have come together to offer the world language and dual language immersion (DLI) endorsements to future dual language program teachers.

Expanding Dual Language in Delaware

Delaware Governor Jack Markell, who is an advocate of world languages other than English, sponsored the World Language Expansion Initiative in 2011. The initiative supports and funds the development of dual language programs, with the intention of equipping students across the state with advanced-level language skills to compete in the multilingual global economy. The 10-year initiative currently includes dual language programs that serve 10,000 students across Delaware. Four Delaware Department of Education staff members support the development of these programs, and field agents support dual language program teachers at a ratio of one field agent per 15 teachers.

The state's World Language Immersion Program curriculum model engages students, beginning in kindergarten, in two different languages throughout their K–12 learning experience: English and either Mandarin Chinese or Spanish. Delaware offers both one-way dual language programs (which include predominantly native English speakers) and two-way dual language programs (which include two language groups, for a balance of native English and native Spanish speakers). In 2014–15, Delaware had four two-way dual language programs and 11 one-way dual language programs. Students benefit from the instruction of two highly qualified teachers, one of whom teaches them for half the day in English, while the other teaches them for half the day in the partner language. In the classroom, the partner language teacher speaks only in that language and communicates using a wide range of strategies to engage students, including pictures, songs, games, body language, expressions, pantomime, drama, and so on. Students also are encouraged to speak only in the partner language during that portion of the day.

Delaware World Language Immersion Programs are open to all Delaware students of varying backgrounds and abilities. All school districts in Delaware with dual language programs have identified a K–12 pathway for students to continuously build toward an advanced level of language proficiency. According to the Delaware Department of Education, enrolling in this program places students on a pathway to read, write, speak, and listen in the partner language at "high intermediate" proficiency levels by Grade 9. By continuing to study the same language in high school, they can achieve advanced language proficiency skills and possibly earn credit toward a language minor at Delaware colleges and universities.

> **Five states have laws that require districts to offer bilingual education programs when they serve a minimum number of ELs with the same language background.**

Connecticut, Illinois, New Jersey, New York, and Texas mandate that districts with 20 or more ELs in the same grade level from the same language background provide bilingual education programs. In New York and Texas, districts are able to select from different types of bilingual programs, including dual language programs. In Connecticut, Illinois, and New Jersey, districts are required to provide a transitional bilingual program, but schools can choose to implement dual language programs to meet this requirement. Connecticut's state law considers the requirement to provide bilingual instruction to have been met if a two-way dual language program is implemented; however, other types of dual language and bilingual education programs are subject to a state mandate that ELs must be exited from bilingual programs within three years. ELs who have not met the EL redesignation criteria by that time must transition to receiving Language Transition Support Services (LTSS). A state policy document indicates that, as a result of this mandate, one-way dual language programs for predominantly language minority students (i.e., developmental bilingual programs) may not be a feasible model in the state.

Four states have laws constraining the use of bilingual education programs, often by requiring parents to provide written consent for their child to participate in such programs.

Arizona, California, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire have explicit laws that limit the conditions under which students can be placed in bilingual education programs. In Arizona, students may only participate in a bilingual education program if prior, written, informed consent is documented annually by the child's parents or legal guardian. Informed consent requires the parent or legal guardian to personally visit the school to apply for the waiver. At the school, the parent or guardian must be provided a full description of the educational materials that are used in various program options and must be made aware of other educational opportunities available to the child. Individual schools in which 20 students or more in a given grade level receive a waiver are required to offer a bilingual class; in all other cases, such students must be permitted to transfer to a public school in which such a class is offered.

Parents of ELs in California must sign yearly waivers of consent prior to placement of their child in a two-way immersion program. Massachusetts law limits bilingual education programs in a similar manner but has created an exception for two-way dual language and world language programs. Nevertheless, an interviewed state official from Massachusetts indicated that the state has diminished capacity and infrastructure to support its dual language programs as a result of the overall restriction. For example, prior to the state law limiting bilingual education, Massachusetts had established numerous state certifications for bilingual teachers, which are no longer in use. New Hampshire state law requires English-only instruction for all students, although bilingual programs are permitted with prior approval from the state board and local school district.

State officials in three of the six case study states mentioned challenges garnering local support for dual language programming; in contrast, state officials in Utah noted challenges associated with high demand for dual language programming at the local level.

Interviewed state officials from Illinois, New Mexico, and Massachusetts described state and local challenges in obtaining local support for dual language programs. An official from Illinois noted that districts have local autonomy over the selection of instructional programs. Although the SEA recognizes the value of (and recommends implementation of) the dual language model for serving ELs, the SEA cannot mandate implementation of this type of program in its districts, which have the prerogative to choose from a variety of SEA-approved models for serving ELs. Additionally, some districts lack buy-in and support for dual language programs from upper level administrators who make decisions about program model implementation. To meet this challenge, a working group has been formed at the state level. New Mexico reported that, in some parts of the state, there seems to still be a lack of support from some local education agency (LEA)-level administrators for bilingual multicultural education programs (which include dual language programs), and Massachusetts reported a lack of support and belief in the dual language program philosophy.

In contrast, high demand for dual language programs in Utah has led to some scale-up challenges. A state official from Utah explained that dual language programs are in demand and,

as a result, there is a need to create more programs. At present, when demand is greater than the number of spaces available at an existing dual language program school, the LEA conducts a lottery allocating admittance to the school.

Funding for Dual Language Programs

Lara-Alecio, Galloway, and Mahadevan (2005) analyzed surveys from 48 school districts in Texas that were implementing dual language programs and compared implementation costs between dual language programs and the more traditional transitional bilingual programs. One additional cost for dual language programs—which made these programs more expensive than traditional transitional bilingual programs—was the need for more extensive staff development to ensure that the programs were implemented with fidelity to the program model across grade levels (Lara-Alecio, Galloway, & Mahadevan, 2005). Textbooks, assessments, and other materials in the partner language also were reported to add costs (both start-up and ongoing) to dual language programs (Lara-Alecio, Galloway, & Mahadevan, 2005).

> **Six states have recently offered funding opportunities specifically for dual language programs.**

Our review of SEA websites in spring 2015 found information from six states—Delaware, Georgia, Indiana, Kentucky, Oregon, and Utah—that indicated that these states offer funds specifically to support the development of dual language programs. In these states, the funds tend to be administered through the world languages office (rather than a state EL/bilingual education or Title III office), and they tend to be used for one-way foreign language programs (for predominantly English speakers) and two-way dual language programs.

For example, the major source of funding for Utah's dual language programs is state funding (Utah Administrative Code R277-488-5, USOE Responsibilities and Funds), enacted by state legislation (S.B. 41) in 2008. State funding provides for the addition of new dual language programs in approximately 20 to 25 schools per year. Districts apply to request program funding and receive a base of $10,000 (plus additional funding for some critical languages) and, if necessary, additional funding for cost-sharing staff in particular instances where it is necessary and would be cost effective. Districts that apply and agree to the state's implementation fidelity assurances are eligible to receive funding as long as the total for the districts requesting funding does not exceed the total annual allocation from the legislature. In addition, the SEA funds professional development that is required for state-funded dual language programs, as well as curriculum development projects. According to an interviewed Utah official, the appropriation for dual language programs for the 2014–15 school year was $2.3 million. The state secured additional funding through the U.S. Department of Defense totaling $500,000.

The dual language programs that Delaware districts are implementing are funded and administered through the state's World Languages Immersion Program. The program provides seed money specifically to launch dual language programs. Interested districts may apply for funding, which includes $10,000 for grade-level start-up (including all core and resource materials) and an additional $10,000, which can be used for teacher recruitment and retention. The goal is to provide funding for five programs per year, for four years. Additional funding is provided for middle and high school programming and professional learning opportunities for

teachers. Funding also is allocated for state purchase of core instructional materials in the immersion language, consultants to help guide program development, and language assessments. Some districts use state funding received through the governor's initiative to recruit and retain highly qualified teachers.

In Georgia, six new dual immersion elementary schools were awarded start-up grants to support the purchase of materials and professional development in the 2013–14 school year. These elementary schools receive grants of $15,000 each (for start-up and training costs) to implement dual-immersion instruction in languages deemed vital to the economic development of the state and region.

Dual Language Immersion Pilot Program grants have been made available in Indiana for the 2015–16 school year. School corporations or charter schools may receive assistance to establish a new dual language immersion pilot program in up to two eligible grades (for example, kindergarten in Year 1 and Grade 1 in Year 2), or to introduce a new language in a school corporation or charter school within an existing dual language program in up to two eligible grade levels. Individual schools are to receive no more than $100,000 per year. Schools may reapply for grant funding of no more than $100,000 in Year 2 to fund the continuation of the pilot program for the subsequent grade level for the following school year.

Kentucky made World Language Immersion Planning/Implementation Grants available in 2014 to elementary schools. According to the state's Request for Proposal (RFP) for these grants, the state was to award a $10,000 planning grant to up to two schools for one year. Schools that received a planning grant in 2013–14 would then be eligible to apply for a one-year, $31,050 implementation grant the following year to put their plans into action, provided that the Arts & World Languages Elementary School Grant continued to receive legislative funding. The state's RFP further noted that a $31,050 implementation grant was to be awarded to up two schools for one year. Any elementary school was eligible to submit a proposal. Elementary schools with existing world language programs were considered better positioned to plan for and implement a language immersion program, but this was not a requirement. Schools with high populations of students whose heritage or home language reflected a world language to be taught in the immersion program were to be given strong consideration.

In Oregon, the Dual Language/Two-Way Bilingual Grant is available to assist districts, charter schools, or consortia with the design, implementation, and improvement of dual language/two-way bilingual programs across the state. Based on the availability of state resources, the three-year grant program was to begin August 29, 2013, and end July 15, 2016. Grantees were to assert their intent to continue these programs once the grant funding was expended and had to secure from their district board chair, superintendent, and building principal assurances that the dual-language bilingual program would continue after the grant period ended.

Connecticut, Michigan, and New Mexico specifically fund bilingual education programs, including dual language programs.

In Connecticut, state funding supports bilingual programs required under the state's bilingual education statute. Annually, the board of education for each local and regional school district that is required to provide a program of bilingual education (pursuant to section 10-17f) applies to the

State Board of Education and receives a grant. The grant amount is based on the proportion of eligible students in the state who are served in that district. In Michigan, the state provides formula-based funding for evidence-based bilingual programs—including dual language programs as well as transitional bilingual programs—through its State Section 41 Bilingual Education Grant. The minimum per pupil allocation for the 2014–15 school year was $149.

In New Mexico, state bilingual-multicultural education program (BMEP) funding exists to support implementation of five bilingual models: two-way dual language, maintenance, enrichment, heritage, and transitional. (See text box, "Promoting Bilingualism and Biliteracy in New Mexico.") Funding is discretionary and based on the number of students participating in the programs. Priority is given to K–3 students wishing to participate. The total BMEP funds allocated to districts and charters in 2013–14 was $36.5 million.

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Promoting Bilingualism and Biliteracy in New Mexico

In 1973, New Mexico passed the Bilingual Multicultural Education Act of 1973, becoming the first state in the United States to implement such a law. The law was expanded in 2004 (known as the Bilingual Multicultural Education Act of 2004), and the state of New Mexico now provides funds to school districts and charter schools to implement bilingual multicultural education programs (BMEPs) for all students, including ELs. The New Mexico Public Education Department's Bilingual Multicultural Education Bureau (BMEB) oversees and has set the following goals for the BMEPs: (1) for all students to become bilingual and biliterate in two languages—English and a second language, including Spanish, a Native American language, or another language (usually a student's home or cultural language); and (2) for all students to meet state academic content standards and benchmarks in all subject areas. Consequently, New Mexico is known as an "English-Plus" state, both in policy and in practice.

As of December 2014, approximately two thirds of the 89 school districts in New Mexico were implementing BMEPs and serving 58,074 students, representing 17 percent of the entire student population in public schools participating in the programs. More than 500 schools in over 60 percent of all school districts in New Mexico provide Spanish or Native American language BMEPs. Hispanic or Latino students represent the largest ethnic group participating in BMEPs (45,287 students or 78 percent of all BMEP students) and Native American students represent 15 percent of students in BMEPs.

In addition to ELs, BMEPs include students who are fluent English proficient/primary home language other than English (FEP/PHLOTE) students and native English speakers (non-PHLOTE). BMEPs consist of the following five models: [38]

Dual Language Programs

- Dual Language: designed to develop bilingualism and biliteracy in English and another language for both English-speaking students and students with a home language other than English

- Maintenance: designed to develop and maintain proficiency and literacy in the student's home language and English

- Enrichment: designed to further develop the home language of fully English proficient students and teach the cultures in New Mexico

- Indigenous Language Revitalization (or Heritage): designed to support and revitalize a student's native language and culture through oral and/or written language instruction with tribal approval

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[38] The terms used to refer to the five invidual program models described here are the state's own; they do not reflect the terminology suggested by this study.

In 2014–15, most states (46) provided additional funding for ELs, which could be used to support dual language programs that serve ELs.

In 2014–15, according to data collected by the Education Commission of the States (ECS), 46 states[39] had mechanisms to channel additional funds to districts and/or schools that serve ELs through formula funding (34 states), categorical funding (nine states), or reimbursement (three states) (Millard, 2015). For example, available data show that North Carolina allocates per-student funding based on EL student enrollment, and that funding is distributed through the state's primary funding formula. The SEA provides 60–70 percent of LEA costs, including almost all teacher positions. Although there is no specific funding dedicated to dual language programs, SEA and LEA funding can be used for dual language programs. State funds provided for teachers can be used to hire bilingual teachers for dual language programs.

Funding for EL services is determined by formula in Massachusetts. The state does not provide funding specifically for dual language programs, but state funding for EL services can be used for dual language programs. Texas' state formula funding for ELs, called the Bilingual Education Allotment, is provided for each student in average daily attendance in a bilingual education or special language program; a district is entitled to an annual allotment equal to the adjusted basic allotment multiplied by 0.1.

For two-way dual language programs and one-way dual language programs that serve English proficient students, an important consideration (and potential challenge when using state EL funding for dual language programming) is that funding might be limited to support for EL students only, meaning that the program would need to identify other sources of funding for costs associated with English proficient students. A study of dual language program costs in Texas—where state EL funding can only be used for EL students—found that Spanish dual language programs incurred additional curriculum and assessment costs for native English speakers. On average, these costs ranged from a total of about $5,000 per program in small dual language programs to more than $17,000 in large dual language programs (Lara-Alecio, Galloway, & Mahadevan, 2005).

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[39] The ECS study did not include data on the District of Columbia.

Eligible districts and schools also might leverage federal Title III and/or Title I funds to support dual language programs.

Districts or consortia of districts that serve a sufficient number of ELs to qualify for federal Title III funds might choose to use such funds to pay for supplementary services and materials for ELs in dual language programs. Indeed, a nationally representative survey of Title III-funded districts conducted in 2009–10 found that 29 percent of such districts were implementing two-way dual language programs and that at least 44 percent were implementing other types of language instruction educational programs that incorporated native language instruction (Tanenbaum et al., 2012).[40] However, like many state EL funding streams, Title III funds can only be used to support EL students. Thus, Title III districts need to draw on other funds for services and materials provided to English proficient students (e.g., native English speakers and former ELs) in dual language programs.

Federal Title I, Part A, funds may constitute another useful funding source for dual language programs in schools and districts that serve large populations of students from low-income backgrounds. ELs are often concentrated in high-poverty schools, and many qualify for Title I support. For example, according to states' Consolidated State Performance Reports, 75 percent of the nation's ELs[41] were served under Title I, Part A, in 2012–13. North Carolina has issued guidance on using Title I, Part A, funds for schoolwide programs to support the implementation of dual language programs. This guidance outlines how the state's dual language programs address many Title I schoolwide components, including effective and innovative instructional strategies, professional development, parental involvement, and comprehensive needs assessment (North Carolina Department of Public Instruction, 2014).

Officials from four of the six case study states identified challenges associated with funding for dual language programs.

Representatives from Illinois, Massachusetts, New Mexico, and North Carolina reported challenges associated with insufficient funding for dual language programs. The New Mexico spokesperson also noted a lack of comprehensive understanding at the local level with regard to appropriate uses of state bilingual education funding. The Illinois representative voiced the difficulties inherent in fully funding dual language programs that include non-ELs, given that non-ELs do not receive the alternative language program funding received by ELs.

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[40] For example, 44 percent of surveyed Title III districts reported providing instruction in ELs' native language arts, and another 44 percent reported providing content area instruction (mathematics, science, social studies) involving significant (at least 25 percent) use of ELs' native language (Tanenbaum et al., 2012).

[41] Includes ELs in the 50 states and the District of Columbia.

State Technical Assistance and Support for Dual Language Programming

Officials from five of the six case study states reported that their state provides technical assistance to support districts and schools in implementing dual language programs.

The states chiefly deliver technical support by providing information to leaders and teachers who work in dual language schools. This is done in a number of ways. The New Mexico SEA organizes meetings in which LEA leadership may learn from partner organizations (who lend their expertise on program implementation) and sponsors quarterly technical assistance meetings with LEA bilingual administrators. The state also procures professional development for districts serving ELs and/or implementing BMEPs (e.g., World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment [WIDA] training on English language development (ELD) standards and differentiation, data analysis, family engagement for ELs, and WIDA's Spanish language development [SLD] standards), and hosts a state-wide culturally and linguistically responsive instruction conference.

The Illinois SEA has an annual contract with the Illinois Resource Center (IRC) to assist in providing technical assistance to state programs for ELs, including dual language programs. The IRC has worked directly with districts to help schools develop and implement dual language programs. The North Carolina SEA sponsors a Dual Language Educators Listserv (for both teachers and administrators), which provides a vehicle for disseminating information and resources related to dual language programs. North Carolina also is planning to establish a dual language advisory group and is developing a dual language program implementation guide for publication in 2015–16.

Utah provides presentations at Dual Immersion Advisory Council semi-annual meetings, which are attended by representatives from all schools implementing dual language programs. The state has posted various videos on the SEA website and state dual language initiative websites. It also has provided tools to dual language schools, such as a program component checklist and teacher interview questions.

Some case study states also described having state-level staff dedicated to supporting dual language programs. In Delaware, there are currently four SEA staff members supporting the development of dual language programs, as well as field agents supporting immersion teachers at a ratio of one field agent per 15 immersion teachers.

Four of the six case study states provide networking opportunities to facilitate collaboration among administrators and/or teachers in the state who are implementing dual language programs.

The four states that provide networking opportunities mainly do so by connecting dual language staff with one another at annual conferences and/or establishing a listserv. The Illinois SEA provides sessions on dual language programs at its annual required meeting in September, at which dual language staff can meet. North Carolina's Dual Language Educators Listserv for teachers and administrators is open to all educators to facilitate networking and resource sharing.

In Delaware, all principals of dual language programs meet four times per year as part of the state's Immersion Principal and Administrator Council (IPAC). Similarly, the Dual Language Immersion Advisory Council in Utah—an organization that consists of principals and administrators from every school and district involved in the state's dual language program initiative—provides opportunities for adminstrators to network during semi-annual meetings and trainings.

Officials in four of the six case study states described state capacity issues that limited the SEA's ability to support implementation of dual language programs.

Illinois and Massachusetts reported the need for additional state-level expertise and personnel, while North Carolina and New Mexico reported the need for additional state-level personnel. New Mexico, for example, stated that the SEA has only five staff members to provide assistance to more than 500 programs in the state. The state official from Illinois explained that the state contracts with external consultants and organizations to help improve its capacity to support dual language and bilingual education in the state.

Chapter Summary

Recognizing the benefits that dual language programs can yield in promoting bilingualism and academic achievement, some states are taking steps to actively support and expand dual language opportunities for students in the state. Several states have goals and initiatives that promote dual language programs or bilingual education programs more broadly. In many of these states, high-level state leaders—including governors, state legislators, and/or state superintendents of education—have been involved in establishing dual language education as a statewide priority. In addition, a number of these states have offered grant opportunities to encourage the expansion of dual language programs by offsetting some of the start-up costs associated with these programs. Some states also are supporting dual language programs by providing technical assistance and/or networking opportunities to facilitate the exchange of information and instructional resources among local practitioners.

However, states themselves face challenges that may hamper their ability to support dual language program development and implementation. Limitations in funding, SEA capacity (e.g., number of staff members and expertise), and political support can constrain states' ability to foster the development and sustainability of these programs. To address such limitations, some states are leveraging external resources. For example, Illinois contracts with external consultants and organizations to improve its capacity to provide technical assistance. Utah has received U.S. Department of Defense grants to provide additional funding that supports dual language education initiatives.

Conclusion

Benefits to Students and Society

There are, without doubt, many benefits—for students and society—that come from having command of more than one language, and from the interaction between cultures that language learning brings. Developing proficiency in more than one language enhances career opportunities, promotes cross-cultural understanding, and improves communication skills (Tochon, 2009; Rumbaut, 2014). Students benefit cognitively as well; numerous studies have shown the cognitive benefits associated with bilingualism (Esposito & Baker-Ward, 2013; Ball, 2010; Espinosa, 2013; Sandhofer & Uchikoshi, 2013; Barac et al., 2014).

Research also shows that English learners (ELs) benefit from continuing to learn in their native language (Ball, 2010; Lindholm-Leary & Genesee, 2014). Oral proficiency and literacy in a student's first language, for example, can facilitate English literacy development (August & Shanahan, 2006). Moreover, ELs are less likely to fall behind in core subject areas if they are able to continue learning grade-level content in their home language while acquiring proficiency in English (Lindholm-Leary & Genesee, 2014).

 In our country, we have a valuable yet untapped resource within the estimated 4.6 million students who come to school already speaking a variety of home languages, most commonly Spanish, Vietnamese, Chinese, Arabic, or Hmong. These languages are significant not only to our economic competitiveness, but also to our nation's security (Duncan & Gil, 2014).

Terminology

Examining states' dual language programming and policies is challenging because states vary considerably in how they name their programs. Inconsistent naming of programs not only poses challenges for this study, but also creates a great deal of confusion in the field. One contribution this report makes is to suggest some standard terminology. We suggest that the field use the term "dual language" to refer to programs in which instruction is provided in two languages, with the goal of promoting proficiency in both. We suggest that the term "two-way" should be used to describe dual language programs in which roughly equal numbers of students from two language groups (e.g., English speakers and partner language speakers) participate, with the goal of both groups learning both languages. We suggest that the term "one-way" should be used for programs in which predominantly one language group (e.g., language minority students, native English speakers, heritage language learners) participates, with the goal of learning two languages. In the case of native English speakers, the second language is a world language. In the case of heritage language learners, the second language is a heritage or Native American language. The use of standard terminology would allow better aggregation of data and experience across states and programs so that researchers and educators could more easily examine how dual language programs work and how they could be improved.

Program Development and Sustainability Challenges

Districts and schools may face a variety of challenges when developing and implementing dual language programs. Teaching in dual language programs requires a unique set of skills. Teachers must not only serve as competent language models, but also must know how to teach language while teaching content. One of the greatest challenges faced by states and districts is finding qualified teachers to teach in dual language programs.

Moreover, dual language programs can incur additional costs relative to other instructional programs, particularly during the start-up phase. Textbooks and other materials in the partner language were reported to add costs to dual language program, as did the need for specialized professional development to ensure fidelity to the program model (Lara-Alecio et al., 2005). Additionally, although state EL/bilingual funding and federal Title III funds can be used to support services and materials for ELs, these funds are not designated for English proficient students. Funding can therefore be adversely affected when two- or one-way programs include large numbers of ELs, and EL funding is no longer available when their English proficiency status changes from limited to proficient.

Acquiring instructional materials in the partner language is often a challenge as well, even when funding is available. For example, officials from five of the six case study states indicated that dual language programs, particularly those with a partner language other than Spanish, find it difficult to locate instructional materials aligned with the state content standards.

There also are concerns related to accountability. The Elementary and Secondary Education Act accountability system requires students to master content delivered in English. In two-way dual language programs, both ELs and English proficient students acquire two languages concurrently, and it may take these students longer to reach benchmarks in English than students instructed in English only. However, current accountability systems predicated on mastery in one language or another do not take this into account.

Addressing the Challenges: State Support for Dual Language Programs

To help address some of the challenges faced by districts and schools as they implement dual language programs, some states are providing support for dual language programs and are doing so in a number of ways. For example, several states are taking steps to increase the supply of teachers and provide professional development to teachers of dual language programs. These states are establishing alternative certification pathways to teach in dual language programs, as well as partnerships with other countries to help recruit highly qualified teachers (even if they are hired temporarily).

To support districts in recruiting and retaining students in dual language programs, some states have provided materials or technical assistance to facilitate parent outreach efforts. States also are creating incentives that can make dual language programs more enticing for students. For example, states are increasingly adopting policies to officially recognize students who attain proficiency in two languages by the time they graduate from high school by awarding them a Seal of Biliteracy, which can serve as a credential for college admission and future employment opportunities.

Furthermore, a few states have announced goals, statements, and initiatives that value the development of dual language programs. A number of these states are offering start-up grant opportunities in an effort to expand the number of dual language programs. Some states are supporting dual language programs by providing technical assistance and/or networking opportunities that may help to facilitate the exchange of information and resources among local practitioners. However, state education agencies may face capacity challenges due to limited state-level expertise and a lack of staff to provide technical support.

The Need for Further Research

As more and more states begin to implement and support these programs, there will be an increased need for information to ensure their success. One recommendation for the future is to survey all the states (once the various program types are accurately named and described) to determine, among other things, the actual number and types of programs in existence, and to collect demographic information about the populations enrolled in these schools. Potential research questions might explore student learning trajectories in dual language programs and how individual, contextual, and programmatic factors influence these trajectories. Specific research questions include the following:[42]

- How do student-level factors (such as level of first-language literacy skills and knowledge, level and quality of prior schooling, age, and time since arrival in the United States) influence learning in these programs?

- How does context (home and community language use) influence outcomes?

- Should EL and English proficient students learn together in literacy classes from the beginning, or should each group be separated for a portion of time to acquire a more solid foundation in their native language and more oral language development in their second language before plunging into English instruction with native speakers of the partner language? Would these needs vary based on student-level factors?

- What features of the program model (e.g., student ratios of English speakers to partner language speakers in two-way programs, number of instructional hours allotted to each language, proportion of school staff and leadership that is bilingual, use of target languages within and across content areas) influence successful acquisition of language and content?

- What programs currently exist in which students are excelling, and what factors contribute to this success?

- How do short-term hiring practices (e.g., of international teachers who must depart the country after their temporary visas expire) affect program success?

- How do successful dual language programs equalize the status between languages to ensure the successful development of both?

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[42] See Tedick and Bjorklund (2014) and Parkes and Ruth (2009) for additional discussion on important research agendas related to dual language programs.

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Willner, L. S., Rivera, C., & Acosta, B. D. (2008). *Descriptive study of state assessment policies for accommodating English language learners*. Washington, DC: The George Washington University Center for Equity and Excellence in Education.

Wilson, J. A. (1988). *Foreign language program articulation: Building bridges from elementary to secondary school*. ERIC Digest. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics. Retrieved from http://www.ericdigests.org/pre-929/bridges.htm

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Wu, J. (2005). A view from the classroom. *Educational Leadership*, *62*(4), 40–44.

Yang Su, E. (2012). *Dual-language lessons growing in popularity*. Emeryville, CA: California Watch.

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Appendix A. Index of Studies With a Primary Focus on Dual Language Policies and Programming

Citation	Publication Type	Topic	Study Characteristics
Alanís, I., and Rodríguez, M. (2008). Sustaining a dual language immersion program: Features of success. *Journal of Latinos and Education*, *7*(4), 305–319.	Journal article	Presents the need for pedagogical equity, qualified bilingual teachers, and engaged parents in bilingual elementary education.	Case study of one administrator and 10 dual language teachers at a dual language, urban, inner-city elementary school in south central Texas, which served 321 students. Eighty-five percent of students were classified as economically disadvantaged, 87.8 percent were Mexican American, and 29.4 percent spoke Spanish as a home language. The study included an analysis of observation, interview, and student assessment data.
Block, N. (2011). The impact of two-way dual-immersion programs on initially English-dominant Latino students' attitudes. *The Journal of the National Association for Bilingual Education, 34*(2), 125–141.	Journal article	Examines English-dominant Latino students' attitudes toward Spanish and Spanish-dominant individuals after participating in a dual language program.	Case study of 40 initially English-dominant students in four 90:10 Spanish two-way dual-immersion programs and 62 of their peers in mainstream English programs from two different school districts in Los Angeles County. The study included an analysis of students' responses to questionnaires.
Cheung, A. C., & Slavin, R. E. (2012). Effective reading programs for Spanish-dominant English language learners (ELLs) in the elementary grades: A synthesis of research. *Review of Educational Research*, *82*(4), 351–395.	Journal article	Examines the role of language of instruction, as well as the quality of instruction, in reading programs for Spanish-dominant ELs. Overall, evidence favors the use of bilingual approaches. Finds that quality of instruction is at least as important as language of instruction alone in reading programs for ELs.	Research synthesis on English reading outcomes for all types of programs for Spanish-dominant ELs in elementary schools. Some of the programs include two-way bilingual programs.
Christian, D. (1996). Two-way immersion education: Students learning through two languages. *The Modern Language Journal, 80*, 66-76.	Journal article	Summarizes the state of two-way immersion programs during the early 1990s. Highlights similarities and differences in programmatic features, implementation, instruction, and outcomes.	Data collected between 1991 and 1994 from 169 schools with two-way immersion programs.
Christian, D. (2011). Dual language education. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning, volume II* (pp. 3–20). New York, NY: Routledge.	Book chapter	Summarizes dual language models, including developmental bilingual, two-way immersion, heritage language immersion, and foreign language immersion.	Provides a rationale for dual language instruction, summarizes research on dual language program models, and details directions for future development.

Citation	Publication Type	Topic	Study Characteristics
Combs, M., Evans, C., Fletcher, T., Parra, E., & Jiménez, A. (2005). Bilingualism for the children: Implementing a dual-language program in an English-only state. *Educational Policy*, *19*(5), 701–728.	Journal article	Examines the effects of the Structured English Immersion law in Arizona	Case study of 36 teachers, administrators, and other school staff and 27 students and parents at an elementary school in Loma Vista School District in Arizona with 730 students. Ninety-two percent of students were Mexican American, 94 percent were eligible for free or reduced-price lunch, 70 percent were English language learners, and 6 percent were homeless. The study included an analysis of teacher, administrator, staff, student, and parent semi-structured interview data.
Council of Great City Schools. (2008). *Raising the achievement of English language learners in the Seattle Public Schools.*	Technical report	Reviews policies and practices in Seattle Public Schools, identifies the need for clearly defined goals for addressing the instructional needs of ELs, and provides recommendations to improve services, including expanding a network of dual language programs across the district.	Report on the Seattle Public School District's programs to teach students who are learning English as a second language. A Council of Great City Schools Strategic Support Team observed 14 schools and 100 classrooms and conducted interviews with central office administrators, school staff, teachers, parents, and others. The report included a summary of an analysis of school observations and interviews and proposed strategies for improvement.
de Jong, E. (2004). L2 proficiency development in a two-way and a developmental bilingual program. *NABE Journal of Research and Practice*, *2*(1), 77–108.	Journal article	Examines the English oral and literacy development of U.S.-born ELs in two-way immersion (TWI) or developmental bilingual (DBE) programs since kindergarten. Finds that students in TWI settings appeared to have greater access to literature-rich English environments and better literacy outcomes than those in developmental programs.	Longitudinal, quantitative case study of students in three cohorts (Grades K–3, K–4, or K–5) in two programs (two-way immersion or developmental bilingual) in a medium-sized school district with approximately 8,000 students in the northeastern United States. The study included an analysis of students' test results to examine English oral and literacy development of U.S.-born ELs who had attended these programs since kindergarten.
de Jong, E. J. (2014). Program design and two-way immersion programs. *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education*, *2*(2), 241–256.	Journal article	Examines extant research to understand how effective two-way immersion programs are for different populations of students and what role the school context plays in program effectiveness.	Reviews existing literature on two-way immersion programs.

Citation	Publication Type	Topic	Study Characteristics
de Jong, E. J., & Bearse, C. I. (2014). Dual language programs as a strand within a secondary school: Dilemmas of school organization and the TWI mission. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 17*(1), 15–31.	Journal article	Examines how the organizational context of a middle school impacts a dual language program. Finds that it was challenging to give equal weight to both languages within a middle school structure	Survey data from 172 6-12th grade students, focus group data from 24 students, and interview data from 9 two-way immersion teachers.
de Jong, E., & Howard, E. (2009). Integration in two-way immersion education: Equalising linguistic benefits for all students. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 12*(1), 81-99.	Journal article	Examines integration, language status, and the differential outcomes for students in two-way immersion programs by language status. Calls for a deeper examination of the ways in which integration may constrain and/or enrich students' outcomes in two-way programs.	Reviews existing literature on two-way immersion programs.
Dorner, L. (2010). Contested communities in a debate over dual-language education: The import of "public" values on public policies. *Educational Policy, 25*(4), 577–613.	Journal article	Examines how public debate can shape school district policy and concludes that language policy implementation is a value-laden process in which public deliberation reflects dominant cultural "discourses," which can shape what a policy ultimately becomes.	Three-year ethnographic project in a Chicago-area school district. The study included an analysis of semi-structured interviews with various stakeholders, field work at policy and planning meetings, participant observations with six Mexican immigrant families, e-mail messages posted on a public school listserv, public comments recorded in school board meeting minutes, and articles on bilingual education from two local newspapers.
Espinosa, L. (2013). *Early education for dual language learners: Promoting school readiness and early school success*. Washington, DC: Migration Policy Institute. Retrieved from http://fcd-us.org/resources/early-education-dual-language-learners-promoting-school-readiness-and-early-school-success	Technical report	Examines early care and education approaches that have been shown to support higher levels of language and literacy development and achievement for young dual language learners (DLLs), namely the use of both languages, use of learning strategies, and promoting home language maintenance.	Report synthesizes research on the features of early childhood education that most effectively support dual language learners and provides policy recommendations.

Citation	Publication Type	Topic	Study Characteristics
Esposito, A., & Baker-Ward, L. (2013). Dual-language education for low-income children: Preliminary evidence of benefits for executive function. *Bilingual Research Journal*, *36*(3), 295–310.	Journal article	Shows the benefits of bilingual exposure across different ethnicities in the context of elementary school programs.	Case study of 120 ethnically diverse students in kindergarten and Grades 2 and 4 from both dual language education programs and traditional all-English programs in high-poverty elementary schools in a rural county in eastern North Carolina. A quasi-experimental design was used to analyze the performance of students in the dual language program compared with students in a traditional all-English program on executive function (EF) tasks.
Gómez, D. S. (2013). *Bridging the opportunity gap through dual language education*. Unpublished manuscript, California State University, Stanislaus. Retrieved from http://scholarworks.csustan.edu/bitstream/handle/011235813/658/GomezD%20Summer%202013.pdf?sequence=1	Doctoral Dissertation	Identifies contributing factors that led to high academic achievement for all learners, including ELs, as perceived by the students, parents, and teachers, and how these factors helped to bridge the "opportunity gap."	This qualitative dissertation study analyzed data from students, teachers, and parents from a small school in Hollister, California. The study included an analysis of interviews with teachers, a focus group interview with seven students, and 15 questionnaires completed by parents.
Gómez, L., Freeman, D., & Freeman, Y. (2005). Dual language education: A promising 50-50 model. *Bilingual Research Journal*, *29*(1), 145–164.	Journal article	Presents a dual language education model that can be used in schools where the student population is predominantly of one language background.	Description of the Gómez and Gómez dual language program model and case study of more than 240 students from five schools in two school districts in Texas. Ninety-nine percent of the students were Hispanic (all Mexican American), 91 percent were from economically disadvantaged families, and 35 percent were limited English proficient. The study included analyses of student assessment data.
Hermes, M. (2004). Starting an indigenous immersion school: The gut-wrenching start-up years. In F. Ibáñez-Carrasco & E. Meiners (Eds.). *Public acts: Disruptive readings on making curriculum public*. New York, NY: RoutledgeFalmer.	Book chapter	Describes the formation of an Ojibwe language immersion school in Wisconsin.	Description of challenges and successes in the school's early years, including very few speakers of the language and lack of a written curriculum. Author details her personal struggles in working with the program.
Hernandez, A. (2015). Language status in two-way bilingual immersion. *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Education*, *3*(1), 102–126.	Journal article	Examines peer interactions in two 90/10 two-way immersion schools. Finds that emphasis on standardized assessments promotes English as a higher status language during classroom interactions.	Qualitative data included lesson observations, interviews, focus groups, and teachers' reflections. Study participants included nine Grade 1–6 teachers and their students.

Citation	Publication Type	Topic	Study Characteristics
Howard, E., & Christian, D. (2002). *Two-way immersion 101: Designing and implementing a two-way immersion program at the elementary level*. Education Practice Report #9. Santa Cruz, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence. Retrieved from http://mas-link.net/Additional/Bilingual/PAC%20PDFs/%282%29EPR9.pdf	Technical report	Provides an overview of important considerations for planning successful elementary-level two-way immersion programs.	Recommendations are based upon 15 years of research by the Center for Applied Linguistics on two-way immersion programs.
Howard, E. R., Sugarman, J., Christian, D., Lindholm-Leary, K. J., & Rogers, D. (2007). *Guiding principles for dual language education.* Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics. Retrieved from http://www.cal.org/twi/guidingprinciples.htm	Technical report	Provides guiding principles for dual language programs and a tool for planning, self-reflection, and growth based on principles established by the Dual Language Program Standards, developed in New Mexico.	Review of research focusing on the characteristics of dual language programs that are considered effective in promoting language proficiency and achievement among ELs, as well as research-based guiding principles for dual language programs. Sources include articles published in peer-reviewed journals, research-based reviews of the literature, studies written in published chapters and books, and reports prepared for the U.S. Department of Education.
Howard, E., Sugarman, J., & Coburn, C. (2006). *Adapting the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) for two-way immersion education: An introduction to the TWIOP.* Washington DC: Center for Applied Linguistics. Retrieved from http://www.cal.org/twi/TWIOP.pdf	Technical report	Presents the two-way immersion observation protocol (TWIOP), a modification of the sheltered instruction observation protocol (SIOP) for dual language instruction.	Builds off of the SIOP model to present modifications to account for learning two languages and content simultaneously. In addition, TWIOP also includes specific cultural objectives that are not part of SIOP.

Citation	Publication Type	Topic	Study Characteristics
Johnson, D. (2010). Implementational and ideological spaces in bilingual education language policy. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *13*(1), 61–79.	Journal article	Examines language policy and practice for bilingual learners in the Philadelphia School District and focuses on how top-down language policies are implemented at the local level.	Three-year ethnographic study of language policy and bilingual program (including dual language program) development in the School District of Philadelphia (SDP), Pennsylvania. Ethnographic data were collected from bilingual education teachers and administrators in a variety of different contexts, including observation and field note collection. For the purpose of triangulation, multiple formal and informal interviews also were held with key teachers and administrators. Ethnographic data were then contextualized by comparing "top-down" policy texts, including (1) the former Title VII of the ESEA and the current Title III of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act; (2) political discourse on Title III and the NCLB; and (3) interviews with administrators of the U.S. and Pennsylvania Departments of Education.
Johnson, D. (2009). The relationship between applied linguistic research and language policy for bilingual education. *Applied Linguistics*, *31*, 72–93.	Journal article	Focuses on how beliefs about applied linguistics research influence the interpretation and appropriation of federal language policy in one U.S. school district.	Study is part of a three-year, multi-sited ethnography of bilingual education language policy, which examined language policy creation, interpretation, and appropriation for bilingual learners in the Philadelphia School District. Ethnographic data, including participant observation and field-note collection, were collected from a series of action-oriented research projects on language policy and bilingual program development with bilingual education teachers, administrators, and outside researchers.
Lara-Alecio, R., Galloway, M., Mahadevan, L., Mason, B., Irby, B. J., Brown, G., et al. (2005). Texas dual language program cost analysis. *The TABE Journal*, *8*, 64–86.	Journal article	Analyzes costs in dual language programs and provides recommendations based on these analyses.	Descriptive study that analyzed 83 cost surveys received from bilingual education directors and dual language coordinators from 48 Texas school districts.
Lee, J. S., & Jeong, E. (2013). Korean–English dual language immersion: Perspectives of students, parents and teachers. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, *26*(1), 89–107.	Technical report	Examines the experiences of Korean-American students, parents, and teachers in a newly instituted 50/50 Korean–English dual language immersion program.	One-year case study of six first-grade students and their parents and two Korean dual language teachers in a newly established Korean 50/50 dual language immersion program in an elementary school in Southern California. The study included an analysis of semi-structured interviews, school observations, home observations, and field notes.

Citation	Publication Type	Topic	Study Characteristics
Lindholm-Leary, K. J. (2003). Dual language achievement, proficiency, and attitudes among current high school graduates of two-way programs. *NABE Journal*, *26*, 20–25.	Journal article	Examines the influence and impacts of participation in two-way bilingual elementary school programs on current high school students. Highlights students' perceived levels of bilingualism and positive attitudes about being bilingual.	Analysis of survey data from 142 students who attended dual language programs beginning in kindergarten or first grade.
Lindholm-Leary, K. (2012). Success and challenges In dual language education. *Theory Into Practice*, *51*(4), 256–262.	Journal article	Discusses dual language program challenges focusing on program design, accountability, curriculum, and instruction related to biliteracy and bilingual language development.	Summary and analysis of research from more than 30 articles focusing on successes and challenges of dual language education.
Lindholm-Leary, K., & Block, N. (2010). Achievement in predominantly low SES/Hispanic dual language schools. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *13*(1), 43–60.	Journal article	Examines how Hispanic students in dual language programs in segregated or predominantly Hispanic/low socio-economic status schools are performing on standardized tests compared to other schools and statewide in California.	Case study of 659 Hispanic students from four schools in three school districts in two distinct geographic areas in California. The study included an analysis of student assessment data.
Lindholm-Leary, K. (2011). Student outcomes in Chinese two-way immersion programs: Language proficiency, academic achievement, and student attitudes. In D. J. Tedick, D. Christian, & T. W. Fortune (Eds.), *Immersion education: Practices, policies, possibilities* (pp. 81–103). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters, Ltd.	Book chapter	Demonstrates that students participating in two Chinese two-way immersion programs in California made progress in learning both languages, performed at or above grade level in English, performed comparably and often superior to their peers who were not in such programs, and reported having an interest in and knowledge about Chinese culture.	Analyses of language proficiency, academic achievement, and student attitudinal data for 320 fourth- through eighth-grade students who were enrolled in Chinese two-way immersion programs.

Citation	Publication Type	Topic	Study Characteristics
Lindholm-Leary, K., & Genesee, F. (2014). Student outcomes in one-way, two-way, and indigenous language immersion education. *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education*, *2*(2), 165–180.	Journal article	Examines outcomes for native majority and minority language speakers in indigenous language programs. Finds that students in these programs consistently demonstrate achievement at or above the levels of peer groups in monolingual programs.	Reviews international research on language competence and math achievement in one- and two-way indigenous language immersion programs.
Lindhom-Leary, K. J., Hardman, L., & Meyer, P. (2007). Sharing success. *Language Magazine*, *6*(5), 20–23.	Journal article	Describes key features of two-way bilingual immersion programs in a California elementary and middle school.	Descriptive case studies of two Spanish two-way immersion programs operating in a California school district.
Lindholm-Leary, K. J., & Hernandez, A. (2011). Achievement and language proficiency of Latino students in dual language programmes: Native English speakers, fluent English/previous ELLs, and current ELLs. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 32*(6), 531–545.	Journal article	Demonstrates that Latino students who attend dual language programs achieve at higher levels than their Latino peers in English-only programs, and former ELs in dual language programs close the achievement gap with English speakers in mainstream programs.	Analyses of language proficiency and achievement data for 732 fourth- through eighth-grade Latino students with varying levels of English proficiency who were all enrolled in dual language programs.
Lindholm-Leary, K. J., & Howard, E. R. (2008). Language development and academic achievement in two-way immersion programs. In T. W. Fortune & D. J. Tedick (Eds.), *Pathways to multilingualism: Evolving perspectives on immersion education* (pp. 177–200). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.	Book chapter	Summarizes research on language, literacy, and math outcomes for children in two-way immersion programs. Highlights that two-way immersion students, regardless of language background, perform at or above the levels of their peers in monolingual programs.	Reviews existing research on the outcomes associated with two-way immersion programs for native English- and Spanish-speaking children.

Citation	Publication Type	Topic	Study Characteristics
Lopez, F. (2010). Identity and motivation among Hispanic English language learners in disparate educational contexts. *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, *18*(16), n16.	Journal article	Examines the degree to which the perception of scholastic competence and the perception of educational opportunity, motivation, and acculturative stress accurately predict student group membership for ELs in two districts in Texas and Arizona with disparate language acquisition methods: bilingual education (BE) and structured English immersion (SEI).	Case study of 288 Hispanic ELs in elementary school, ages 9–11, in two demographically comparable districts—one with bilingual and dual language programs in Texas, and the other with SEI programs in Arizona. The study, using McCaslin's (2009) co-regulation of emergent identity model as a theoretical framework, included an analysis of results from student instruments (e.g., The Self-Perception Profile for Children) and questionnaires.
Lopez Estrada, V., Gómez, L., & Ruiz-Escalante, J. (2009). Let's make dual language the norm. *Educational Leadership*, *66*(7), 54–58.	Journal article	Provides a description of literature on the effectiveness of dual language programs, with a focus on supporting bilingualism, biliteracy, and academic achievement for ELs and native English speakers alike.	Description of research countering misconceptions about ELs. Includes recommendations for implementation of dual language programs, with a focus on the Gómez and Gómez dual language program model.
Marian, V., Shook, A., & Schroeder, S. R. (2013). Bilingual two-way immersion programs benefit academic achievement. *Bilingual Research Journal, 36*, 167–186.	Journal article	Demonstrates that both language minority and language majority children in two-way immersion programs outperform their peers in transitional or monolingual programs in reading and math.	Examines reading and math performance data from 2,009 third-, fourth-, and fifth-grade students in the Chicago area. Students were enrolled in two-way immersion, transitional (mainstream + ESL), or mainstream classes.
Montague, N. S. (2005). Essential beginnings for dual language programs. *The TABE Journal*, *8*, 18–25.	Journal article	Provides an overview of designing and implementing dual language education and two-way immersion programs, and provides guidance on developing and maintaining strong and effective dual language programs.	A synthesis of research on best practices for developing and implementing dual language education programs effectively, including selecting a model, cultural aspects, phasing in the program, quality materials, long-term commitment, administrative support, and vertical articulation to the secondary level.

Citation	Publication Type	Topic	Study Characteristics
Montone, C. L., & Loeb, M. I. (2000). *Implementing two-way immersion programs in secondary schools.* Santa Cruz, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence.	Technical report	Provides an overview of the challenges in instituting a secondary two-way immersion program.	Telephone interviews with project coordinators from seven two-way immersion programs serve as the basis for data collection.
Pacific Policy Research Center. (2010). *Successful bilingual and immersion education models/programs.* Honolulu, HI: Kamehameha Schools, Research and Evaluation Division.	Technical report	Describes successful bilingual and immersion language programs, with an emphasis on heritage language programs and regional differences.	Paper describes case studies of four bilingual and dual language programs: (1) Oyster-Adams Bilingual Elementary School, Washington, DC; (2) Hawaiian Language Immersion Program (state program); (3) Maori heritage language programs in New Zealand; and (4) Quechua Heritage bilingual immersion programs in Peru. An analysis is provided, based on a collection of information and literature on each program, and on descriptive information on bilingual and immersion program characteristics and models.
Paciotto, C., & Delany-Barmann, G. (2011). Planning micro-level language education reform in new diaspora sites: Two-way immersion education in the rural Midwest. *Language Policy*, *10*(3), 221–243.	Journal article	Shows the top-down policy-making effects in a rural school district and the juxtaposition between policies and teachers' professional experiences and educational approaches.	Case study of 17 two-way immersion (TWI) teachers, two Title I reading instructors, five mainstream teachers, six administrators, 25 Spanish-speaking Latino parents, and five White parents from a rural district in Illinois. The study used an ethnographic approach and a personal narrative analysis framework to analyze and interpret interview data.
Palmer, D. (2010). Race, power, and equity in a multiethnic urban elementary school with a dual-language 'strand' program. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly*, *41*(1), 94–114.	Journal article	Discusses a dual language "strand" (school within a school) program that attracts middle-class White students to a predominately Black and Latino community.	Case study of a principal, former principal, two resource teachers, two Grade 2 TWI teachers, one Grade 3 teacher, one instructor in a schoolwide science magnet program, and parents of four Spanish-speaking and three English-speaking students in the "strand" TWI program at a multiethnic, urban elementary school with approximately 350 students in northern California. The study included an analysis of ethnographic observation and interview data collected over the course of one year.
Palmer, D. (2007). A dual immersion strand programme in California: Carrying out the promise of dual language education in an English-dominant context. *The International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *10*(6), 752–768.	Journal article	Examines discourses related to language, race, and power in order to construct a biliterate, bilingual, equitable academic program for Latino language minority students.	Case study of a principal, former principal, two resource teachers, two Grade 2 TWI teachers, one Grade 3 teacher, one instructor in a schoolwide science magnet program, and parents of four Spanish-speaking and three English-speaking students in the "strand" TWI program at a multiethnic, urban elementary school with approximately 350 students in northern California. The study included an analysis of ethnographic observation and interview data collected over the course of one year.

Citation	Publication Type	Topic	Study Characteristics
Parkes, J., & Ruth, T. (2011). How satisfied are parents of students in dual language education programs? 'Me parece maravillosa la gran oportunidad que le están dando a estos niños.' *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *14*(6), 701–718.	Journal article	Discusses parents' satisfaction with their child's academic skills in dual language programs, as well as program characteristics.	Case study of 724 parents of students at eight dual language schools in one large district in the southwestern United States. The percentage of ELs at each school ranged from 25 percent to 80 percent, and the percentage of students who were eligible for free and reduced-price lunch ranged from 60 percent to 100 percent. The study included an analysis of surveys given to parents of students in dual language programs.
Rodríguez, M., & Alanís, I. (2011). Negotiating linguistic and cultural identity: One borderlander's leadership initiative. *International Journal of Leadership in Education*, *14*(1), 103–117.	Journal article	Focuses on components of effective educational leadership in the principal's role in meeting academic needs and accepting and integrating all linguistic and cultural groups in high-poverty and high-language minority populations.	Case study of two administrators and 10 dual language teachers at a dual language urban elementary school in south central Texas with 321 students from prekindergarten to Grade 5. Eighty-five percent of students were classified as economically disadvantaged, 87.8 percent were Mexican American, and 29.4 percent spoke Spanish as a home language. The study included an analysis of semi-structured interviews, school documents (e.g., school improvement plans), and student assessment data.
Rosado, L. A. (2005). The state of Texas: Breaking new ground in dual language instruction. *The TABE Journal*, *8*(1), 7–17.	Journal article	Examines the growth, characteristics, and history of two-way immersion programs in the United States, and includes an analysis of current initiatives in Texas to support their implementation.	Synthesis of research on the history and components of two-way immersion programs in the United States and in Texas, focusing on the need for qualified dual language teachers.
Scanlan, M., & Palmer, D. (2009). Race, power, and (in) equity within two-way immersion settings. *The Urban Review*, *41*(5), 391–415.	Journal article	Investigates issues of diversity in two-way immersion programs. Notes that a two-way program model alone is insufficient to promote diversity; rather, concerted efforts must be made by staff to assure that diverse populations are adequately served.	Cross-case comparison of interview, observation, and archival data from two schools with dual language programs.
Slaughter, H. (1997). Indigenous language immersion in Hawai'i: A case study of Kula Kaiapuni Hawai'i. In R. Johnson & M. Swain (Eds.), *Immersion education: International perspectives*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.	Book chapter	Describes the history of an initiative to promote native language instruction in Hawai'i through the Hawaiian Language Immersion program.	Case study of the legislative, historical, and cultural factors that influenced the creation of the first immersion preschool programs and continue to impact the sustainability of programs today.

Citation	Publication Type	Topic	Study Characteristics
Tedick, D. J., & Bjorklund, S. (Eds.). (2014). Language immersion education: A research agenda for 2015 and beyond. *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education*, 2, 2.	Special journal issue	Establishing a research agenda.	This collection of articles lays out an agenda for research on language immersion.
Torres-Guzmán, M., Kleyn, T., Morales-Rodríguez, S., & Han, A. (2005). Self-designated dual-language programs: Is there a gap between labeling and implementation? *Bilingual Research Journal*, *29*(2), 453–474.	Journal article	Investigates the difference between the dual language program labels and fidelity of program implementation.	Case study of all prekindergarten to Grade 8 teachers in 56 elementary and four middle schools with dual language programs in New York City (85 percent return rate on surveys). The study included a content analysis of survey responses, classroom visits, and observation notes.
Umansky, I., & Reardon, S. F. (2014). Reclassification patterns among Latino English learner students in bilingual, dual immersion, and English immersion classrooms. *American Educational Research Journal*, *51(5)*, 1–34.	Journal article	Examines reclassification among Latino ELs in a variety of instructional environments and concludes that students who are enrolled in two-way dual language programs have higher overall reclassification, English proficiency, and academic passage by the completion of high school than students in English-only programs.	Case study of 5,423 EL Latino students, as well as teachers and administrators, from a large, diverse, urban school district in California. The study included discrete time event history analysis of longitudinal student reclassification data (which followed nine cohorts of students for up to 12 years) and an analysis of teacher and administrator interview data.
Valentino, R. A., & Reardon, S. F. (2015). *Effectiveness of four instructional programs designed to serve English learners: Variation by ethnicity and initial English proficiency.* Retrieved from http://cepa.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/Valentino_Reardon_EL Programs_14_0326_2.pdf	Technical report	Investigates the differences in academic achievement trajectories from elementary through middle school in English immersion, transitional bilingual, developmental bilingual, and dual immersion programs.	Case study of 13,750 students from a large school district. The study included an analysis of longitudinal student-level assessment data from elementary through middle school.

Citation	Publication Type	Topic	Study Characteristics
Warhol, L., & Mayer, A. (2012). Misinterpreting school reform: The dissolution of a dual-immersion bilingual program in an urban New England elementary school. *Bilingual Research Journal*, *35*(2), 145–163.	Journal article	Discusses Connecticut's bilingual education policies, the language education policies of the school, and how these policies are interpreted and enacted by teachers.	Case study of school staff, students, and community and district representatives of a large, urban, K–6 elementary school in Connecticut, with more than 800 students and a large Hispanic/Latino population. One hundred percent of students receive free or reduced-price lunch. The study draws from an ethnographic case study, using Yanow's (2000) framework of interpretative policy analysis and qualitative research methods to analyze interviews, surveys, policy documents, and observations.
Wu, J. (2005). A view from the classroom. *Educational Leadership*, *62*(4), 40–44.	Journal article	Discusses the difference between English-only instruction and dual language education, and highlights the advantages of dual language programs.	Description of a teacher's experience teaching ELs in different program models. Summarizes the benefits of dual language programs for student achievement outcomes.

Notes: This appendix includes studies that predominantly focus on dual language programs. The terms used in this appendix reflect the terms used in the studies cited.

Appendix B. Overview of Extant Data Sources Relevant to the Guiding Questions

Data Source	Most Recent Years Available	Overview of Data Source as It Pertains to Task 20	Data Elements That Answer the Guiding Questions
Colorín Colorado	Variable	This database offers a compilation of state-level resources and links to states' websites on EL policy. It will serve as a starting point for the website searches.	
Education Commission of the States (ECS) Policy Database	2014	ECS hosts the ELL/bilingual database. In its current form, it is a listing of legislation and statewide policies for ELs, organized by date, which provides information about state-level data on legislation, rules/regulations, and executive orders related to EL and bilingual education, including whether states have signed legislation to officially designate English as the language of instruction. In its new form, the database provides data in 15 categories and is responsive to several of the guiding questions.	Program types authorized by states (Q1b) Type of funding and per-pupil spending (Q1c) Measures for reclassification (Q2c) Teacher certification requirements (Q4a)
Consolidated State Performance Reports (CSPRs)	2012–13	Mandated annual reporting tool to collect K–12 education performance data for all 50 states, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, and the Bureau of Indian Affairs. Part I provides data on the five Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) goals, and Part II provides data on state activities and ESEA program outcomes used to assess program performance, monitor program requirements, and fulfill other reporting requirements. Elements that could be useful for background information include: • Proportion of limited English proficient (LEP) students scoring proficient on English language proficiency (ELP) assessments • Proportion of LEP students meeting annual measureable achievement objectives • LEP student participation in state assessments, disaggregated by race/ethnicity and LEP status	Academic content standards (Q3e) Whether schools in the state offer particular instructional programs, including dual language, two-way immersion, transitional bilingual, or developmental bilingual (Q1a) Whether the state offers native language assessments in reading/language arts, mathematics, or science, and in which native languages the state offers such assessments (Q3c) Variables related to teacher professional development for LEP students (Q4c)
Civil Rights Data Collection (CRDC)	2011–12	The CRDC database is searchable and provides information on eligibility for and enrollment in LEP services by state, district, and school. It does not give any information on program type.	

Appendix C. Sample Data Capture Matrix for State Policy Scan

State Name	Teacher Qualification Requirements					Method Through Which State Determines Teacher Proficiency in English (description)
	Bilingual Certification	Proficiency in English	Proficiency in Partner Language	Subject Matter Competency	Other (description)	
Totals	Yes = 4	Yes = 2	Yes = 4	Yes = 6	Other = 6	
Illinois				X	[text response]	Assessment
New Jersey	X			X	[text response]	Certification process
New Mexico	X	X	X	X	[text response]	Certification process
North Carolina	X		X	X	[text response]	Assessment
Texas	X	X	X	X	[text response]	Certification process
Utah			X	x	[text response]	Certification process

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