Emergent Bilingual Learner Education – Literature Review

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Contents

Introduction

English has never been the only language spoken in this country. Students come to school ready to learn. Having a native language other than English does not hinder a students' ability to learn. But over the years, educators did not always embrace this fact and students were either punished for speaking other languages in school or were denied the excellent education all students deserve.

The basic premise that guarantees the right to equality and equity in education originates in the U.S. Constitution, federal and state legislation, and court rulings (EEOA of 1974; *Lau vs. Nichols* of 1974; *U.S. vs. Texas* of 1970). The key is that every public school student should have access to education in a language they understand.

In 1974 when the U.S. Supreme Court ruled in *Lau v. Nichols* that failing to provide specialized instruction to emergent bilingual students constituted a violation of law. IDRA founder, Dr. José Cárdenas testified in the case. The decision put pressure on states with large numbers of non-native English speaking students to adopt instructional practices and to provide the necessary funding.

According to data from 2019, there are nearly 5.1 million emergent bilingual students (English learners) in U.S. schools comprising about one in 10 students (Sánchez, 2017; Sugarman, 2018; Freemire, Evans & Syverson, 2020). Some states, including Texas, identify more than 19% of their public school students as emergent bilingual students (Kennedy, 2019). Nearly 3.8 million of these students speak Spanish. Other common languages include Chinese, Vietnamese and Arabic (Sánchez, 2017).

Most emergent bilingual learners were born in the United States and are U.S. citizens. California has the highest percentage of emergent bilingual learners (29%), followed by Texas (18%), Florida (5%), and New York (4%). In 2015, two-thirds of emergent bilingual learners were in grades K-5, with the remaining third in grades 6-12. Many students are classified as emergent bilingual learners when they enter elementary school but gain enough proficiency in English by the upper grades to be reclassified as proficient (Bialik, Scheller & Walker, 2018).

Bilingual Education Federal and State Policies

The *Every Student Succeeds Act* (ESSA) requires that all schools begin reporting emergent bilingual students progress on both English proficiency and core tested subjects, substantially increasing the funding targeted toward serving this group. No new federal policies have prioritized teacher training for emergent bilingual education, either pre- or-in-service (Quintero & Hansen, 2017).
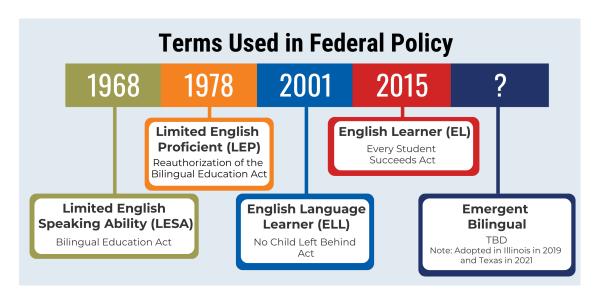
Generally, states have wide latitude about the types of programs they allow or require. In 2018, nine states had policies that explicitly required schools to offer bilingual education wherever feasible where there is parent support (Sugarman, 2018). In contrast, Arizona law forbids bilingual education, with some exceptions, and favors the English-only immersion. Some states specifically stipulate the number of minutes of instruction emergent bilingual students must receive on a daily or weekly basis and the qualifications that teachers need to deliver bilingual instruction (Sugarman, 2018).

State policies on teacher training for general education and bilingual education teachers are highly variable. Many states do not require bilingual education or general classroom teachers to have an ESL or bilingual teacher, an instructor for Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), or a teacher with a structured English immersion certificate or endorsement (Quintero & Hansen, 2017).

In 2017, only 20 states explicitly required teachers to have a bilingual certification. Additionally, Florida and Colorado, two states with more than 10% of students classified as emergent bilingual, did not explicitly require any type of bilingual education certification for teachers. Over 30 states do not require any type of training for general classroom teachers to serve emergent bilingual students beyond what is mandatory under federal law (Quintero & Hansen, 2017).

Emergent Bilingual Terminology Shift

States vary in the terminology they use to classify students whose first language is other than English. Two states use *emergent bilingual*. Most state policies refer to students with a home language other than English as *English learners* or *English language learners*, while nine use some form of *limited English proficient* (LEP). Terminology is defined by a state-created definition, or states use the federal definition: "English language learner [is] a national-origin-minority student who is limited-English-proficient. This term is often preferred over limited-English-proficient (LEP) as it highlights accomplishments rather than deficits" (OCR, 2020).

Terms Used in Federal Policy

1968	1978	2001	2015	?

Limited English Proficient (LEP)
Reauthorization of the Bilingual Education Act

English Learner (EL)
Every Student Succeeds Act

Limited English Speaking Ability (LESA)
Bilingual Education Act

English Language Learner (ELL)
No Child Left Behind Act

Emergent Bilingual
TBD
Note: Adopted in Illinois in 2019 and Texas in 2021

Terms can affect how educators and others understand students and their potential. They can cause people to give English more legitimacy and power than a student's first language. Additionally, because of the language used to define students, many may see them as a needy, expensive to educate, monolithic group, rather than a diverse group of students who represent a necessary resource and asset.

Coined and popularized by Dr. Ofelia García in 2008, the term of *emergent bilingual* learner focuses on the unique potential for bilingualism possessed by students who are learning English in school. This terminology takes an asset-based view of the capabilities of emergent bilingual students, who are simultaneously acquiring a new set of linguistic capabilities in school and building on the valuable knowledge of their first language.

IDRA successfully advocated that the state of Texas emergent bilingual. State law made the change effective September 1, 2021 (García, 2021).

Emergent Bilingual Student Program Funding

An amendment to the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act* (ESEA) of 1965 provided the first funding at the federal funding for bilingual programs. The amendment, the *Bilingual Education Act*, awarded funds to schools through a competitive grant process. This led to significant variation in funding amounts since they were based on what each school requested and the type of program it was using. (Robledo Montecel & Cortez, 2008)

Over time, particularly following the *Lau* ruling and subsequent guidance from the Office for Civil Rights with assistance from IDRA (referred to as the *Lau* Remedies), states began to establish requirements for bilingual instructional programs and funding.

Funding for specialized emergent bilingual student instruction comes almost entirely from local and state sources primarily using one of three funding models (Freemire, Evans & Syverson, 2020).

- **Formula funding** includes emergent bilingual programing in the state's primary funding formula. For example, in the District of Columbia, schools receive a weight of 0.49 for emergent bilingual education. In Texas, the funding weight remains one of the lowest at 0.10, or 10% additional funding above base level, for most students, and 0.15 for those enrolled in dual language programs, which is only 20% of emergent bilingual students.
- **Categorical funding** allocates funds through mechanisms outside of the primary funding formula. For example, Utah uses a block grant program.
- **Reimbursement funding** use district-submitted expenditure reports base reimbursements for a portion of their spending. In Illinois, policymakers set aside funding for districts that offer bilingual program, and districts must apply for reimbursement.

Most states fund bilingual education through the state funding formula or the categorical method. About half of the states providing these services provide a flat weight for each identified student, regardless of their level of language proficiency or the type of service being offered.

An alternative approach is a multiple-weight system to allocate funding based on the amount of time that students have been classified as emergent bilingual students or on the concentration of emergent bilingual students in a single district.

Historically Poor Quality of Instruction

Regardless of where they attend school, most emergent bilingual students struggle due to little or no access to quality instruction that is tailored to their needs (Sánchez, 2017). Schools and policymakers tend to expect emergent bilingual students to transition to all-English instruction too quickly, to the point that they remain stuck in academically segregated programs where they fall behind in content subjects.

NPR reports that only 63% of emergent bilingual students graduate from high school, compared to the nationwide graduation rate of 82%. Of the students who do graduate, only 1.4% take the SAT and ACT (Sánchez, 2017). In recent years, studies have emerged documenting that emergent bilingual status is associated with lower test scores, graduation and college attendance (Umansky & Dumont, 2019).

Data on the achievement gap between current and non-emergent bilingual students in fourth-grade reading and eighth-grade math is about 40 percentage points. Emergent bilingual students are less likely to be enrolled in advanced courses than general education students, and only 59% of emergent bilingual students graduate from high school within four years (Quintero & Hansen, 2017).

Only 2% of emergent bilingual students are placed in gifted and talented programs, compared to 7.3% of non-emergent bilingual students. According to the National Association for Gifted Children, gifted emergent bilingual students likely know much of the expected content on the first day of school, but most are overlooked as gifted (Sánchez, 2017).

Providing quality education to emergent bilingual students is further complicated by teacher shortages. Emergent bilingual students are often concentrated in low-performing schools with untrained teachers who are not prepared to adequately handle bilingual instruction. In 2016, 32 states reported bilingual education teacher shortages (Sánchez, 2017). State and federal policies and teacher preparation programs have not sufficiently prioritized training teachers for this growing student population (Quintero & Hansen, 2017).

A 2014 report from the National Council on Teacher Quality showed only 24% of teacher preparation programs trained prospective general elementary teachers to support emergent bilingual students who were not making progress in early reading. A study from 2016 on practices in teacher preparation programs in six states with large Spanish-speaking populations showed an uneven level of teacher preparation for serving emergent bilingual students (Quintero & Hansen, 2017).

Historically Poor Quality of Instruction

Additionally, the growth of immigrant communities outside of cities and locales with traditionally higher emergent bilingual student populations has spread out the number of emergent bilingual students across the nation. More than half of all emergent bilingual students in public schools are outside of city centers. This trend indicates that most teachers, regardless of where they teach, will have a good chance of encountering emergent bilingual students during their careers. There is a need for specialists as well as a larger pool of teachers who are fully prepared to support emergent bilingual students in the classroom (Quintero & Hansen, 2017).

Another facet that hurts emergent bilingual student outcomes involves teacher expectations and perceptions. A large body of research has documented how teacher perceptions impact student achievement and how educators tend to have lower expectations of underserved student groups, such as Black students and Latino students (Umansky & Dumont, 2019). Research on student classification and teacher expectations found that many educators have lower academic expectations of their emergent bilingual students. The effects were modest in kindergarten but grew as students progressed up grades (Umansky & Dumont, 2019).

Bilingual Education Approaches

Historically, many U.S. schools separated emergent bilingual students from native English speakers and placed them in sheltered classrooms that prioritized English instruction, often at the expense of other academic content (Quintero & Hansen, 2017). In recent decades, providing students with language support while in general education classrooms has become more commonplace.

Moreover, research shows that placing emergent bilingual students with their native-speaking peers promotes English development and can help emergent bilingual students transition from sheltered to mainstream classrooms sooner (Quintero & Hansen, 2017).

According to a 32-year, large scale, longitudinal research by Collier & Thomas (2017), English-only and transitional bilingual programs of short duration only close about half of the achievement gap between emergent bilingual students and native English speakers, while high quality long-term bilingual programs close all of the gap after five to six years of schooling through two languages.

There are six main types of bilingual and English as a second language (ESL) programs offered. Each offers various levels of language and academic subject instruction. Bilingual programs, particularly dual language programs, are considered the most effective, and ESL programs are considered the least effective for students' language learning.

ESL Education Programs

ESL instruction was developed as an alternative to the "sink or swim" method of second language acquisition and stresses simplified speech and visual or physical cues, memorization and drills. It is often called "sheltered instruction" and may include several language groups in the same classroom.

The goal is to have students learn English as quickly as possible, and little attention is paid to the student's native language (Sánchez, 2017; Sugarman, 2018). ESL models do not generally require that the teacher speaks the student's native language (Chang, 2019).

Texas is one of just four states that requires state-funded pre-K to provide bilingual education for English learners. Alaska, New York, and Illinois have similar state requirements (Latham Sikes & Kring Villanueva, 2021).

Bilingual Education Approaches

ESL services are offered through two major program types: content-based and pull out. In **content-based ESL programs**, students are serviced through English-only instruction, with a designated full-time ESL certified teacher. Content-based ESL instruction integrates language instruction with all content areas.

In **pull-out ESL programs**, emergent bilingual students receive English-only instruction, exclusively for English language arts, and no other content areas by an ESL certified teacher. Students in the program are removed or "pulled out" of mainstream instructional environments to receive ESL services.

For both, ESL content-based and pull-out, once a student enters the program, they remain for a minimum of two to five years before being eligible to exit if they are placed in ESL during or after first grade.

Bilingual Education Programs

Bilingual education aims to increase English proficiency in students while providing instruction in their native language recognizing that students' academic skills and knowledge transfer between languages (Rosales, 2018).

Most bilingual programs in the United States are Spanish-focused due to a large number of emergent bilingual students who primarily speak Spanish. The teacher must be bilingual, and all subjects are taught in Spanish, with a focus on attaining English proficiency in reading and writing to help students become fluent in both languages (Sánchez, 2017).

Four major types of bilingual education include: bilingual education transitional early exit, late exit, dual language one-way, and dual language two-way.

Bilingual education transitional early exit programs serve emergent bilingual students in both English and their home language. The goal of English language acquisition is to prepare students for English-only instruction within two to five years of enrollment. In **bilingual education transitional late exit programs,** students are serviced similar to the early exit program, but it offers a later exit timeframe of six to seven years after enrollment.

Dual language one-way immersion programs focus on emergent bilingual students attaining biliteracy, meaning that the students receive functional literacy and fluency in oral and written form in both English and the home language over a six- to seven-year time frame before entering an English-only instructional environment. In one variant – foreign language immersion – participating students are native English speakers learning a new language.

Bilingual Education Approaches

Dual language two-way immersion programs serve two groups: emergent bilingual students and native English-speaking students with the goal of attaining biliteracy over a six- to seven-year timeframe.

In a **developmental or maintenance** bilingual education two-way program, students share a common first language. And in a **heritage language immersion program**, English is the dominant language for the students, but they have family or community members who speak the other language(s).

The most common dual language two-way immersion program enrollment of non-emergent bilingual students should be limited to no more than 50% of the total program enrollment since the program is enrichment for them (in Texas, the limit is 40%).

Dual language and dual immersion programs differ in context, implementation and structure, but they share three common goals: bilingualism and biliteracy, academic achievement in both languages, and understanding and appreciating multiple languages and cultures (Watzinger-Tharp, 2020). Dual language programs generally have instruction split into two sections, with one part of the school day in English, and the other part in the other home language.
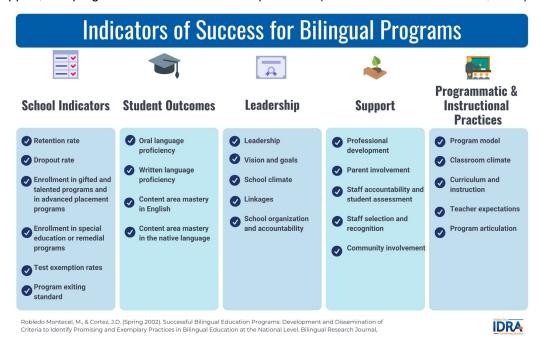
For this type of education to work properly, the teachers must be fluent in both languages. Dual language programs also can operate in general education classrooms, to enable English-proficient students to receive instruction in their emergent bilingual peers' native language as well (Sugarman, 2018; Chang, 2019).

Best Practices for Instruction and Program Design

The research shows that dual language programs promote bilingualism in students. Bilingualism is associated with higher levels of cognitive advantage. Additionally, proficiency in a student's native language is associated with greater success with English literacy skills (Kennedy, 2019). Primary language instruction is also associated with better emotional outcomes for students, fewer behavior problems, and higher rates of college attendance (Rosales, 2018; Kennedy, 2019).

Effective dual language programs are carefully structured and designed to ensure that student needs are met and oriented toward bilingualism, biliteracy, high academic achievement, and sociocultural competency. Strong leaders demonstrate an unwavering commitment to the program and provide coordinated and comprehensive support at all levels of the organization (Kennedy, 2019).

IDRA studied 10 bilingual education programs across the country with high academic success of their students. Researching these programs, IDRA identified 25 common characteristics and criteria that contribute to the success of students served by bilingual education programs. The characteristics are clustered into five areas: school indicators, student outcomes, leadership, support, and programmatic and instructional practices. (Robledo Montecel & Cortez, 2002)

Indicators of Success for Bilingual Programs

School Indicators	Student Outcomes	Leadership	Support	Programmatic & Instructional Practices
Retention rate	Oral language proficiency	Leadership	Professional development	Program model
Dropout rate	Written language proficiency	Vision and goals	Parent involvement	Classroom climate
Enrollment in gifted and talented programs and in advanced placement programs	Content area mastery in English	School climate	Staff accountability and student assessment	Curriculum and instruction
Enrollment in special education or remedial programs	Content area mastery in the native language	Linkages	Staff selection and recognition	Teacher expectations
Test exemption rates		School organization and accountability	Community involvement	Program articulation
Program exiting standard				

Robledo Montecel, M., & Cortez, J.D. (Spring 2002). Successful Bilingual Education Programs: Development and Dissemination of Criteria to Identify Promising and Exemplary Practices in Bilingual Education at the National Level. Bilingual Research Journal,

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Best Practices for Instruction and Program Design

As with all students, schools must create an environment for emergent bilingual students that is characterized by acceptance, valuing, respect, support, safety and security. Imparting a valuing perspective (Montemayor, 2007) begins at the school board level (policies) and filters throughout the entire learning environment (actions, practices and opportunities to learn). A valuing perspective cannot be a choice left to individual teacher's or principal's inclination or preference.

Components of successful emergent bilingual education include the following.

Rigorous Curriculum: Dual language programs should include high academic rigor and expectations for all students (Kennedy, 2019). This is arguably the best indicator for measuring the presence of inequality and inequity in educational services. Even when enrolling in the default graduation plan, emergent bilingual students may be tracked to a less rigorous curriculum that appears to meet the default plan requirements but fails to prepare students for college. The instructional program in any school must be designed and evaluated based on the goal that there be high comparable achievement and performance among emergent bilingual and native English speaking students (Villarreal, 2009a).

Investment: One of the best predictors of success in a school district is action by the school board supporting a quality program for emergent bilingual student with an expectation that administrator and teachers will take action to ensure their success (Villarreal, 2009a). School district and school level staff, parents representing the diversity of the student body, and members of the greater community all have a stake in the success of emergent bilingual students. Programs should not be treated as "one size fits all." Program design should reflect local, contextual factors (Kennedy, 2019).

Family engagement: Schools must not only inform parents and caregivers about its services for emergent bilingual students, but schools should also ensure families participate in the design, implementation and evaluation of the program (Villarreal, 2009b). Families must be re-assured in a language they understand that educational excellence will not be compromised for their children, that the school will intensely monitor of student progress, and that teachers will adjust instruction as needed to ensure that their students are held to high academic standards. Engaging families of emergent bilingual students in the school's site-based committee or other committees establishes a structure with opportunities for input into the school's decision-making process (Villarreal, 2009b).

Early Childhood Education: The most effective bilingual education programs take place at the early grade levels, when students are acquiring the building blocks for lifelong learning and language skills. Texas is one of just four states that requires state-funded pre-K to provide

bilingual education for English learners. Alaska, New York, and Illinois have similar state requirements. (Latham Sikes & Kring Villanueva, 2021)

Properly Planned Language Allocation: This is a key factor for planning and implementing effective dual language programs. Language allocation programs should systematically assign instruction in each language and across content areas to promote equity between both languages used in the program in the interest of meeting student goals. The grade-level curriculum should be provided with equal rigor in both languages (Kennedy, 2019).

Translanguaging: Translanguaguing is an asset-based pedagogy that encourages teachers to create opportunities to "effectively leverage students' bilingualism for learning, [because] they can level the playing field and advance social justice" (García & Lin, 2017). Translanguaging pedagogy can be used for leveraging students' language assets because it represents "a way of thinking about and acting on the language practices of bilingual people" (García & Lin, 2017). Translanguaging as a pedagogy invites students to value what they bring to the classroom and to proudly continue using their complete linguistical repertoires inside and outside of school. An example of translanguaging includes any activity that empowers learners to choose which language they use, for example with note taking (e.g., making their own notes from a text, graphic organizer, or practical work), in their first language, English or a mixture.

Program Duration: Effective programs begin in kindergarten or pre-kindergarten, if applicable. A minimum program duration of six years is recommended based on the data to ensure that emergent bilingual students have sufficient time to gain proficiency in both languages. Though students would undoubtedly benefit from continuing to hone bilingual and biliteracy skills through middle and high school, programs at the secondary level are more complex and pose unique staffing and scheduling challenges (Sugarman, 2018; Kennedy, 2019). However, with strong community support, a school district in south Texas, Pharr-San Juan-Alamo ISD, structured itself for students to be able to graduate fully biliterate (Montemayor & Salazar Gonzalez, 2022).

Program Scope: Dual language programs often start in secluded classrooms within a school, but there are more positive outcomes associated with programs that expand to include the entire school, including better staff cohesion and a positive school climate (Kennedy, 2019).

Sheltered Instruction: Research on successful dual language programs encourages the use of sheltering techniques, such as incorporating language objectives and visuals into daily instruction, connecting to students' lived experiences, pre-teaching vocabulary, and providing scaffolds to ensure comprehension of input (Kennedy, 2019).

Authentic Literacy: A primary goal of dual language programs is to develop literacy in both languages, especially because proficiency in students' primary language is associated with strong literacy development in English. The transfer of language and literacy skills across the two program languages is essential in the development of the student's bilingualism and biliteracy (Kennedy, 2019). There is not one single correct way to promote biliteracy because it depends largely on the features of the student's primary language. High-quality dual language instruction for more advanced bilingual programs should incorporate opportunities for students to notice, compare, contrast, analyze and hypothesize features of the two program languages (Kennedy, 2019).

Substantive Conversations: Substantive conversation provides learning opportunities for students to interact with the content and with each other through authentic dialogue guided by an essential question or learning outcome. These exchanges require students to generate genuine discourse in a coherent manner to promote an improved collective understanding of the content. Substantive conversation is not lecture-heavy instruction making students be mere recipients of information that is copied into a notebook. It is not providing a worksheet with lists of questions on a worksheet, especially when limited to close-ended questions with one word responses. Substantive conversations create opportunities for students to practice and build on listening and speaking skills using academic language tied to language learning standards. (Johnson, 2016)

Student Grouping: Bilingual students and general education students can benefit from partnering and learning both languages in a dual language program (Kennedy, 2019). Students working together can help each other with vocabulary and contextual understanding (Rosales, 2018). Balancing structured and unstructured group work activities is associated with the most promising outcomes. Pairing and grouping both types of students must be done under supervision from teachers and staff to ensure that the emergent bilingual students are not treated as disadvantaged (Kennedy, 2019).

Program Monitoring: In addition to each state's accountability systems, schools and school districts planned and systematically carry out monitoring of student outcomes and program implementation integrity. It should look at how the program design is adhering to quality standards; how the instructional program is running, how emergent bilingual students are progressing and achieving academic outcomes, and how the school district and campus are being accountable to community and parents. (Villarreal, 2009b)

School districts should document bilingual program implementation in line with the program model being used. This can include instructional observation of bilingual education teachers and

content or grade level teachers using a program model rubric. Documentation should also include methods used to identify and place emergent bilingual students. Data collection should document student progress in proficiency in both languages within the domains of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Teacher Preparation & Recruitment

Research supports the fact that teachers who are properly trained and prepared to work with emergent bilingual students can effectively support their academic development (Quintero & Hansen, 2017). A study focused on teacher quality in the Miami area found that, while having a good general teacher is better than an underprepared teacher with bilingual education specialization, having bilingual-certified teachers is predictive of improving emergent bilingual student achievement among all teachers (Quintero & Hansen, 2017).

Recruiting and retaining properly educated and certified dual language instructors remains a major challenge for bilingual education (Kennedy, 2019). Though there has been an increase in demands for high-quality bilingual education across the nation, there is no federal guidance on the best way to train and retain these instructors, leaving a patchwork network of guidelines that varies from state to state (Kennedy, 2019). Generally, training bilingual education-ready teachers has not been a priority for many preparation programs (Quintero & Hansen, 2017).

Unfortunately, states facing significant shortages in bilingual educators often resort to relaxing preparation and qualifications requirements to the detriment of student learning.

Teaching quality is clearly associated with positive student outcomes. Effective dual language instructors need to have a high level of content area knowledge, pedagogical expertise, effective classroom management, proficiency in differentiated instruction, and a deep understanding of sound academic practices (Kennedy, 2019). Additionally, they need to be proficient in the student's primary language, understand and apply linguistics and second language acquisition theory, understand the students' culture, use culturally responsive pedagogy, employ an asset-based perspective toward students, effectively communicate with parents and guardians, and hone the ability to design and deliver rigorous bilingual education programs (Kennedy, 2019).

With schools facing teacher shortages in specific areas, including bilingual/ESL education, IDRA created a model for reaching potential teachers and preparing them to work in high-need schools. The results of IDRA's 15 years of teacher preparation through six multi-year Transition to Teaching grants, funded by the U.S. Department of Education, were significant. IDRA's projects in Texas recruited over 800 recent graduates and mid-career professionals who had been working in fields other than teaching. These new teachers participated in intense professional development while in a first-year paid teaching internship. They committed to working in high-need school districts for a set number of years. Key strategies IDRA demonstrated as effective were (Robledo Montecel, 2018):

- **Recruitment and Selection:** Participants were actively recruited and carefully selected

among professionals of color who want to make a difference, and among recent graduates committed to work in diverse classrooms.

- **Preparation and Certification:** Participants were prepared through regular coursework at partnering colleges and universities and through individualized training via online and on-site professional development, so they could excel in diverse classrooms and obtain their certification.
- **Placement and Retention:** Participants were placed in classrooms, initially as interns and eventually as teachers of record where IDRA provided personalized support through on-site asset-based mentoring.

The literature cites additional strategies for effective recruitment, education and retention for bilingual teachers as well as several that mirror IDRA's program design as follows.

Use widespread recruitment efforts: Recruiting from a wider variety of teaching candidates is vital to finding educators who can effectively serve emergent bilingual students. This could include recruiting teachers directly from countries where the student's first language is spoken (Kennedy, 2019). In Texas, for example, bilingual teachers have come from Mexico and Spain. There are issues with this approach, especially long-term teacher retention. A more appropriate solution is to recruit from communities or areas that speak the dual language program's languages (Kennedy, 2019). Recruitment can also be aided by stipends and sign-on bonuses to make the field of bilingual teaching more attractive to these potential educators (Kennedy, 2019).

Other means for recruitment include partnering with professional organizations, regional education service centers, high school summer academies, college nights, and collaborative programs with school districts and community colleges. States can support these efforts by providing specific recruitment guidance, technical support, and financial assistance to school districts, based on recruitment and retention best practices. (Piñón, 2022)

Create student-to-classroom teacher pathways: Students who are bilingual should be encouraged in high school programs to become bilingual teachers. States can support this pathway by launching or increasing financial support for grow-your-own programs. With this program school districts intentionally build strong, stable, and diverse teacher pathways from within their own communities based on school district specific teacher workforce needs. The grant is intended to address teacher shortages in hard-to-staff areas, close demographic gaps between students and teachers, and build interest in the teaching profession among high school students. (Piñón, 2022)

Forge strong partnerships: Partnerships between state education agencies, colleges and universities, alternative certification programs, and school districts is another key strategy to

boost the recruitment of diverse dual language teachers (Kennedy, 2019). Collaborations between school districts and colleges, especially with Hispanic Serving Institutions (HSIs) that serve larger numbers of students who may already be bilingual. Such collaborations encourage widespread and targeted placement of bilingual education preservice teachers (Piñón, 2022).

Prepare future educators: Preservice teacher programs should offer a required course (or overlay option) that will prepare all teacher candidates to work with emergent bilingual learners. For example, Texas Christian University College of Education saw the need for bilingual, ESL and special education teachers and required all preservice teacher candidates to be certified in bilingual or ESL education and special education in addition to their content certifications. (Piñón, 2022)

Professional development: A feature of effective professional development is that it is aligned with what teachers need to ensure that the program's goals are met. Professional development content should support teachers in their ability to promote bilingualism and biliteracy, academic achievement in both languages, culturally responsive teaching and socio-cultural competence (Kennedy, 2019).

Educators themselves should have high levels of proficiency in reading and writing skills in the partner language. Effective professional development for these educators focuses on developing, refining and deepening academic proficiency. Given that dual language teachers are usually expected to create curricula and assessments for their students, they also benefit from professional development in curriculum writing and formative and summative assessments for bilingual learners (Kennedy, 2019).

Partnering new teachers with experienced educators increases capacity in terms of supporting new educators and helping senior staff gain leadership experience (Kennedy, 2019).

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