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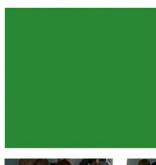
Bi/Multilingual Programs

Evidence-based Practices for
Implementation, Monitoring,
and Evaluation

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Paulina Yourupi-Sandy &
Joyminda George

The Federated States of Micronesia National Department of Education (FSM NDOE) requested support from the Region 18 Comprehensive Center (R18CC) to build National and State-level knowledge of effective practices in bilingual and multilingual education. This scan offers an overview of evidence-based practices for implementing and evaluating the effectiveness of bilingual and multilingual education programs. The scan assumes that bilingual/multilingual education programs are based on the goals of two-way and immersion programs that may also accommodate heritage learning. It first begins with a brief overview of definitions of major terms utilized through the document, and then moves to discuss the following components of program implementation: (1) Program Planning and Implementation; (2) Educator Quality and Pedagogic Practice; (3) Engaging Families and Communities; (4) Assessment, Accountability, and Evaluation.

DEFINITIONS

Bilingual Education

The classic definition of bilingual education is as follows: "Bilingual education is instruction in two languages and the use of those two languages as mediums of instruction for any part, or all, of the school curriculum" (Andersson, Boyer, & Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 1970). This definition is important, according to Stephen May, because it eliminates programs that enroll bilingual students but do not offer bilingual instruction along with programs where a second language is the sole subject. In defining bilingual education, one can look to what bilingual education is *not*, which includes English as a Second Language (ESL) programs. A bilingual program must provide both content and delivery in two languages.

Dual Language Learner (DLL)

For the purpose of this scan, a dual language learner is a student "who is acquiring two or more languages at the same time, or a child who is learning a second language while continuing to develop their first language" (NCCLR, 2018, p.3). The term "dual language learner" may also include students who are bilingual and/or English language learners.

Heritage Language Learner (HLL)

The term heritage language learner requires a slightly more in-depth definition as its meaning has evolved over time. According to Ennser-Kananen and King (2018), the term "heritage language" (HL) originated in Canada to denote any language other than English or French. Currently, the term typically refers to any language "'other than the dominant'" one (p. 1). In U.S. education settings in particular, HL learners are usually characterized by growing up in non-English speaking homes, possessing speaking and/or listening skills in their home language, and being, at least "to some degree," bilingual (p. 2). Wagner and Osborn (2010) accept Van Deusen-Scholl's (2003) broader definition of a HLL by including those "with a heritage motivation":

> Heritage learners are students who have been exposed to another language in the home and have either attained some degree of bilingual proficiency or have been raised with a strong cultural connection to a particular language through family interaction. Learners with a heritage motivation—sometimes labeled pejoratively as heritage seekers—may perceive a cultural connection that is more distant than that of, for example, first- or second-generation immigrants. (p. 38)

Multilingual Education

For the purpose of this scan, we will use the definition put forth by Olsen et al. (2020) of multilingual education as "an umbrella term for a variety of program models that aim to develop proficiency in two or more languages" (p. 118). Multilingual programs promote literacy in two or more languages with goal of multiliteracy, which is the capacity to function within multiple cultural spaces.

PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION FOR SUCCESS

The third edition of *Guiding Principles for Dual Language Education* (Howard et al., 2018) was compiled and reviewed by experts in the field (including researchers, administrators, and practitioners), is made up of evidence-based practices and research studies, and was published recently by the Center for Applied Linguistics in 2018. Given its thoroughness and grounding in evidence-based practices, it serves as a foundational source of information for this section and should be referred to for additional details regarding program planning, implementation, and evaluation.

Research has demonstrated the importance of quality dual language program planning and implementation as it is positively related to achievement for English Language Learners (Howard et al., 2018; Collier & Thomas, 2004): "...a consistent, sustained program of dual language education is crucial" (Howard et al, 2018, p. 10). This section discusses the elements that comprise successful language program planning and implementation including having a clear vision; a positive, safe environment; and strong, effective leaders. Information regarding choosing a bilingual education model is also discussed, and evidence-based suggestions are offered in the form of core considerations for model planning.

Vision

A cohesive, school-wide vision for bilingualism, biliteracy, and academic achievement grounded in enrichment models (vs. remedial) is important to success for programs serving English learners. It is important that a school has a set of goals that specifically define these expectations (Howard et al., 2018). This message is reiterated by a report created for Head Start which explains that children's language and literacy skill development are enhanced when program leaders put forth "a clear consistent, and planned approach to language and literacy learning" (NCCLR, p. 1). Furthermore, this shared vision should involve all stakeholders including administrators, teachers, and community members. Wagner and Osborn (2010) urge those who are tasked with creating policy and making program decisions that impact/involve HLL to be inclusive in their discussions and engage community

stakeholders: "An important aspect in this discussion is an awareness of the ambiguity that has always been connected to heritage language programs" (p. 43).

Environment

A positive, safe school environment that puts equity among all groups at the center has shown to be a success factor for bilingual programs. Equity not only translates to treating all with justice and fairness, it means taking into consideration what different groups might be negotiating and need to succeed from a cultural, linguistical, and socioeconomic standpoint. Furthermore, equity should be encoded in policy and practice at multiple levels – classroom, school, district – and with respect to students, families and teachers (López & Páez, 2021; Howard et al., 2018).

Obstacles to a Positive Environment

In discussing obstacles yet to be overcome by Indigenous bilingual education programs in Australia, Lo Bianco et al. (2017) point to one prime hurdle—a "monolingual construction of success" (p. 7). In devising a plan for bilingual/multilingual education, accomplishment should be weighed from a perspective that does not rank English as the higher status language. This framework—of the heritage or second (or third) language as deficient to English—devalues bilingualism and does not recognize the importance of languages as the deep cultural, social, and cognitive resource they are. In the U.S. there are well-identified "orientations of language planning," which include the following: "*language-as-problem, language-as-right, and language as resource*" (Gorter & Cenoz, 2016, p. 2). When heritage languages are seen as a problem, the solution is to ameliorate them with English instruction; unfortunately, most U.S. bilingual programs take this hierarchical approach to language learning. The "language as resource" approach has been recommended as the "least divisive and...a possible solution for an integration of bilingual education into language policy" (p. 2).

Leadership

Strong and effective leadership is essential to bilingual programs. Principals are often the main advocate for programs, with power to affect a culture of high expectations within schools; monitor and support instruction, train, retrain and evaluate staff; manage the budget, and shape how schools engage their communities. According to Collier and Thomas (2004), principals are a linchpin to successful program implementation as it is their duty to "hire qualified teachers and plan collaboratively with staff, providing for ongoing staff development and planning time" and assist in fostering community relationships. In addition, principals should be leading implementation and evaluation efforts (p. 13). However, principals may be too busy dealing with the needs of an entire school to provide the necessary instructional leadership. And relying on a single advocate is likewise risky to the survival of programs. As such, it is critical that responsibility is delegated and distributed to assist school leadership. Ideally, bilingual education programs have a team with a designated coordinator working behind them (Howard et al, 2018).

Roles of Program Leaders

Leaders of bilingual education programs serve at least three (3) major roles: (1) program advocate and liaison; (2) supervisor who oversees the development, planning, and coordination of the bilingual model; (3) facilitator of staff cohesion, collegiality, and development. Having an extensive knowledge of and commitment to the particular dual language model being implemented is crucial for carrying out these responsibilities. The NCCLR promotes strong and effective leadership for early language learner programs as leaders are tasked with: (1) spearheading planning and implementation for "a consistent, planned approach to language and literacy development for English and other languages used for instruction…"; and, (2) ensuring that professional development and mentoring are available that promote "high-quality classroom practices…including language modeling and planning" (p. 2).

Planning Bilingual Education Models

Effective programs fully plan out the model before implementing it, rather than trying out practices in a piecemeal fashion and making major changes as they go along. Conducting a comprehensive needs assessment is the first step in developing a base for informed decision making. A realistic plan can be developed once needs assessment data are analyzed. Effective programs also solicit teachers and families in the design process (Howard et al., 2018). Norris (2016), for example, advocates for needs analysis as a mechanism for empowering language programs to generate their own priorities, outcomes, and tasks based on the internal needs of program stakeholders instead of outside interpretations of program success.

The Importance of Needs Assessment

Needs assessment not only assists in the planning stages of language program development, however. Probing stakeholder needs can also enhance existing programs by revealing holes in program delivery and uncovering any modifications required to better meet the needs of clients. In recent years, program monitoring is also playing a more formative part in language program implementation when internal stakeholders are included in the monitoring process. Norris points to examples from the field, namely one for a state-funded heritage language program in Australia where the collaborative involvement of "stakeholders, evaluators, and funders" served as the foundation for facilitating "the improvement of programs above and beyond monitoring expectations" (p. 175). In fact, internally-driven evaluation with a focus on program improvement practice has become a trend in language programs in recent years. This type of evaluation is often participatory in nature and involves qualitative-heavy methods.

Questions for Language Program Planning

To provide clarity in program planning and meeting student/community needs, Olsen et al. (2020) offer a set of research-grounded questions that every dual language administrator (and teacher, for that matter) should be able to answer regarding their program. These questions are:

(1) What are the goals of our DL program?

(2) Which model are we implementing, and what is the allocation per grade level?

(3) In what ways (if at all is curriculum content divided into different languages?

(4) What curriculum are we using in each language and content area?

(5) Who is our program designed to serve? And who actually are our students (by language proficiency, language group, language history, typology)?

(6) What student populations are served in our classrooms?

(7) How are we assessing program effectiveness? How are we monitoring student progress toward biliteracy? (p. 127)

Core Considerations for Model Planning

Mapping the instructional model for bilingual education programs means making planning decisions around several core elements including program duration, language allocation, literary instruction, and student demographics. These elements of model planning will be discussed briefly in this section, which concludes with a succinct table that includes examples of bilingual program models.

Program Duration

Research has shown that for immersion models, student outcomes are higher when they participate in programs for at least 6 years. This is the mean time it takes to achieve native-like proficiency and grade-level achievement (Howard et al., 2018; Lindolm, 1990 in Howard & Christian, 2002; Collier & Thomas, 2004).

Language Allocation

When choosing a dual language model, the ratio of English use to the use of the partner language for instruction must be considered within the context of the goals of the program. While the research on what ratios produce what outcomes is limited, it can be suggested based on what is known that greater amounts of instruction through English are not necessarily associated with higher levels of proficiency in English or higher reading or math achievement in English. Also, studies of bilingual and immersion students show a minimum of 50% partner language instruction is necessary to promote high levels of partner language proficiency among native English speakers and to promote academic achievement among students who speak the partner language at home. And while little is known about the effects of alternating the language of instruction between days, extensive research on language uptake shows that distributed practice over time is more effective than massed practice for long-term memory. This suggests teaching in both languages everyday would be more beneficial (Howard et al., 2018). Based on their research, Collier & Thomas (2004) recommend "use of the non-English language at least 50 percent of the instructional time and as much as 90 percent in the early grades" (p. 13).

Literary Instruction

The order in which students develop literacy is another consideration for bilingual education programs – whether they are taught in their native language first or taught in both languages simultaneously. This point is more a consideration for programs that implement a 50:50 model than it is for programs that choose, say, a 90:10 model. As partner languages are less socially prestigious within English-dominant societies, it is important to counteract this dynamic by focusing on the partner language in the early stages of a bilingual education program. Research demonstrates that students who receive significant native language literacy instruction eventually score considerably higher on English literacy tests than those who receive this instruction mostly or wholly in English. Research also shows that teaching literacy through the partner language does not place them at risk for becoming biliterate. Moreover, students are most likely to read for pleasure in the native/partner language in their early years. Once they become literate in English (around the second grade), they are more likely to read for pleasure in English, primarily because of the lack of available literature in the partner language. This sets up students to potentially only read in English for pleasure in the higher grades. Whatever the model, it is important that schools formally develop policies on when languages are introduced (Baker, 2006).

Student Demographics

Classroom composition is an important consideration for maintaining equity within bilingual education programs. The most desirable ratio is a 50:50 split of native and partner language speakers. Research suggests that classrooms should be comprised of no more than two-thirds of speakers of either language (Howard et al., 2018).

Table 1. Examples of bilingual education program models

Program Name & Type	Grades	Location	Languages	Central Goal
Ojibwe Schools (Indigenous Immersion)	K-4	Minnesota, Wisconsin	Ojibwe, English	Indigenous Language Revitalization
Oyster-Adams Bilingual Elementary School (Two-way Immersion)	K-12	Washington D.C.	Spanish, English	Additive Immersion
Hawaiian Language Immersion Program (Total Bilingual Immersion)	K-12	Hawai'i	Hawaiian, English	Heritage Immersion; Indigenous Language Revitalization
Kohanga Reo (Total Immersion)	K-12	New Zealand	Maori Language	Heritage Immersion; Indigenous Language Revitalization

EDUCATOR QUALITY AND PEDAGOGIC PRACTICES

Research in education has proven that teacher quality is one of the most important factors that influence student achievement for all students, including English language learners (Lemberger & Reyes-Carrasquillo, 2011). According to Howard et al. (2018) teacher effectiveness for English learners does not differ widely from teacher effectiveness for native English speakers; however, when the individual language needs of the student are taken into account, instruction has been proven to be more effective. An article which explores recent research on supporting early language learners concluded that teacher quality is critical for bilingual education: "If a setting can offer a high-quality teacher, then the research evidence suggests that at the least, students won't be harmed in terms of learning English, and they may be able to retain their native language skills" (Barrow & Pithers-Markman, 2016, p. 177). As the importance of teacher quality and effective pedagogic practices has been established, this section will now briefly outline current research on those approaches, including classroom-level student learning assessment.

Language Teacher Quality

This section outlines findings related to teacher quality, including certifications, training background, and demographics. These qualifications and attributes should be considered when reviewing and hiring bilingual/multilingual educators.

Certification Tests. Almost every state mandates some type of certification test for teachers. Results of studies that explore if teacher quality exhibited through certification tests correlates with student achievement have been inconclusive with the exception of a small correlation between certification tests and secondary-level math scores. Furthermore, the research shows that exams do not predict teacher effectiveness. Given this, a portion of researchers have argued for "multiple measures to better capture intangible teaching attributes not measurable by certification tests" (Lemberger & Reyes-Carrasquillo, 2011, p. 60).

Other Findings. Other findings regarding teacher quality include a possible positive influence on student achievement based on **years of teaching** over four years; additionally, "**racial/ethnic congruence** among teachers and students" has demonstrated "potential for higher achievement, especially in minority schools" (cited in Lemberger & Reyes-Carrasquillo, 2011, p. 60).

A study of **teacher education programs** and how their requirements impact the achievement of fourth grade Hispanic English language learners reading outcomes found that educator programs that required courses in **English language development and assessment** were correlated with better reading scores. Furthermore, states that mandate a **specialist certification** as well as require **all teachers** to receive some preparation in effectively teaching ELLs typically demonstrated higher levels of achievement than states that did not (Lopez et al., 2013).

Pedagogic Practice

At the classroom level, the literature cites several goals of pedagogic practice that should be considered when developing bilingual education programs. Research-based conclusions by Olsen et al. (2020) confirm the following bilingual pedagogic practices relevant to bilingual language instruction and assessment:

(1) Establish clear language allocation and strategic separation of the languages;
(2) Actively affirm the status of the LOTE, equalize the status of cultures, and build sociocultural competence;
(3) Provide all students with strategically coordinated and aligned literacy instruction in both languages—authentic to each language;
(4) Build cross-language connections, transfer, and metalinguistic understanding;
(5) Promote opportunities for language choice, support bilingual identities, and activate bilingualism;
(6) Integrate content with language and literacy development using content as a bridge across languages; and,
(7) Assess in both languages to inform instruction.

Further details will now be provided regarding language separation and status, reciprocal learning, cooperative/interactive learning, individuated teaching techniques, and learning assessment.

Language Separation and Status. Research has demonstrated that bilingual education and the use of a heritage language learner's "home language" assists in young learners literacy development in English (Olsen et al., 2020). Bounding setting can be achieved by allocating different subjects, teachers, time slots, place and curriculum material type. Teachers can practice "**translanguaging**" or switching between the two languages concurrently for a justifiable purpose (Baker, 2006). Translanguaging means varying the language of input and output throughout a lesson. Shohamy (2011) encourages the use of multilingual activities that integrate translanguaging to support students' multilingualism

and the idea that "'mixing languages is a legitimate act that does not result in penalties but rather is an effective means of expressing and communicating ideas that cannot be transmitted in one language'" (p. 13, cited in Gorter & Cenoz, 2016). Translanguaging should be monitored, however, as to not spark the usage of English as the dominant language (Gorter & Cenoz, 2016) as, again, both language should have "equal status" and be utilized in instruction (Baker, 2006). Translanguaging is currently being used successfully in bilingual classrooms in the US for pedagogical purposes. For example, García and Li (2014) describe a "math class where students read in English but also translate what they read into Spanish and identify new words using their metalinguistic skills" (cited in Gorter & Cenoz, p. 10).

Oftentimes in multilingual contexts, language education policies that push for the separation of languages, do not always play out so cleanly in pedagogical practice. For example, Chinese schools in the U.K. studied by Wei and Wu (2009) demonstrated how teachers and students alike often used both Chinese and English in the classroom, in spite of a "One Language at a Time" policy (cited in Gorter & Cenoz, 2016). In this same study, they make the powerful assertion that "'code switching is the most distinctive behavior of the bilingual speaker'" (p. 193 cited in Gorter & Cenoz, 2016). An example of where a bilingual education policy is bolstering pedagogical practice is in Basque Country (an autonomous part of Northern Spain) where restoration and revival of the local language has been a goal. Language policy has pushed for equal status of Basque and Spanish, and Basque is currently the "language of instruction for Basque L1 and Spanish L1 speakers and an increasing number of speakers of other languages are being taught through the medium of Basque" with English being taught as a third language (Gorter & Cortez, 2016, p. 5). Despite Spanish being the most frequently used language in most settings, Basque has equal status and can be used as a vehicle for instruction at all levels of education.

Reciprocal Learning. Bilingual education programs should take a **student-centered** approach and make reciprocal interaction the heart of pedagogy over teacher-centered knowledge transmission (Baker, 2006). Scholar Ofelia García is a proponent of this idea that pedagogy should begin with the student and not the models. The "features" of bilingual education should be pliable, "conforming to the existing practices in the community, rather than have the children and communities conform to pre-established notions of what constitutes two or more languages" (cited in Kleyn & Seltzer, 2019, p. 149).

Cooperative and Interactive Learning. Students should be given opportunity to collaborate on common tasks and share work experiences. Cooperative learning strategies are important to ethnically and linguistically diverse classrooms; they have been shown to improve student achievement and promote positive attitudes towards each other. However, it is important to note that language transfer is not always a result of cooperative learning strategies in and of themselves, and it is therefore important to pay attention to task type. The transfer of linguistic knowledge occurs when

cooperative learning strategies focus on a language task that facilitates students sharing of language knowledge (Baker, 2006; Collier & Thomas, 2004)

Project-based learning, especially when technology is integrated, has been proven an effective pedagogical tool in teaching language learners. In fact, the entire July 2018 issue of *Educational Technology & Society* focused on contextual-game based language learning. Foulger & Jimenez-Silva's (2004) one-year qualitative case study of fourteen K-8 classroom teachers demonstrated that teachers of English Language Learners (ELLs) perceive a benefit for their students in employing technology to improve writing skills. The study explored the framework of Hadaway, Vardell, and Young's seven teacher practices, which are: "time and opportunity to write, a reason for writing, a genuine audience, access to role models, a safe environment, useful feedback, and a sense of community" (p. 109). The authors found that the framework is enhanced by the inclusion of technology, and incorporating student uses of technology into the seven educator practices "would be even more beneficial to the development of ELLs' writing skills" (p. 109).

For examples of project-based language learning (PBLL) activities, the National Foreign Language Resource Center (NFLRC) at UH-Mānoa's PBLL project showcases a collection of PBBL student projects which provide not only thorough task/activity information and timelines, but also outcomes and assessment details and tools. NFLRC's PBBL project is rooted in expert-created PBL principles in combination with "world language pedagogy, students, and research."[1] The project seeks to provide language learners with a practical and significant learning experience that culminates in the creation of a shared artifact.

Individuated teaching techniques. Teachers should employ techniques that respond to different learning styles (Baker, 2006). Doing so will helps students with diverse proficiency levels to orient their learning more effectively to the curriculum. Barrow and Pithers-Markman (2016) recommend the use of small group tasks that allow for young English language learners "to respond to questions and receive more individualized instruction" (p. 176). Morrier et al. (2007) emphasize the importance of teachers' understanding of their students cultural backgrounds and how this plays out in pedagogic practice: "Quality teachers take the time and effort to differentiate instruction on several variables related to the child, with one of those variables being the child's culture" (p. 33).

Student Assessment. A takeaway from the current literature is that assessment should be conducted in both languages (Olsen et al., 2020). To take a holistic, multilingual approach to language education, assessment must not be conducted solely through the dominant language (Gorter & Cenoz, 2016). Research has demonstrated that when bilingual math students are given instructions in both languages, they earn higher scores. Another study that took place in Basque Country showed how the

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[1] http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/projects/view/2014A/

use of "mother tongue" assessment in various subject areas led to higher scores for students than for students given exams in the language of instruction (Shohamy, 2011; Basque Institute for Research and Evaluation in Education, 2012, cited in Gorter & Cenoz).

Gorter and Cenoz (2016) also recommend employing a **multilingualism approach to scoring** where children are either scored in groups based on their home language, or, as in the case of writing, each language is scored separately using a different rubric. For the second option, once the student is scored in each language, a bilingualism or multilingualism "index" can be created by totaling the scores for all languages assessed.

Lastly, a **translanguaging approach to assessment** goes slightly further by allowing students to cross languages in assessment tests, and/or permit teachers to design assessments that "match actual language practices" (Gorter & Cenoz, 2016, p. 13). The use of translanguaging in assessments help to legitimize metalinguistic practices. An example is found in Escamilla et al.'s (2013) "'Literacy Squared Writing Rubric,'"[2] which is a bilingual scoring mechanism to assess writing in both English and Spanish (cited in Gorter & Cenoz).

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[2] This and many other studies and resources related to bilingual teaching and assessment can be found on the "Literacy Squared" website: https://literacysquared.org/index.php/resources-materials/publications/

ENGAGING FAMILIES AND COMMUNITIES

Engaging dual language families and communities in the life of bilingual education programs is important for buy-in, sustainability, and student success. Several core considerations are offered by the literature on how schools and programs can inform, support, and include dual language families/communities in positive and productive ways.

Staffing. Addressing equity and the bilingual/bicultural needs of families means hiring bilingual staff (e.g. office administrators, teachers, parent liaisons) to interpret and translate school information for dual language families; and offering staff professional development workshops on equity and culturally important topics.

Communication and Relationships. Finding ways to communicate meaningfully and respectfully with dual language families is important to the overall success of bilingual programs. When possible: (a) offer bi/multilingual newsletters and phone lines to families; (b) schedule meetings with dual language families in locations within their communities (e.g. work of home settings); (c) provide social networking opportunities for families with similar linguistic backgrounds so they can share information and build community; (d) create opportunities for dual language families to interact in informal settings to distribute/disburse power (e.g., cooking a meal together); (e) provide dual language families with transportation and childcare resources so they can attend school events; (f) develop a two-way system for ongoing communication to track their children's progress and wellbeing and intentionally discuss developmental related goals; and (g) consider multiple formats for meeting with families, including group meetings with other dual language families, in addition to the traditional one-on-one setting.

Family and Community Engagement. Community and identity are core components of any effort towards (Hornberger, 2005). In most cases, an additive (enhancement or heritage) bilingual program will consider community and identity a priority in program and curriculum planning. In fact, two-way immersion programs can be a direct product of community and parents organizing around and

reacting to questions of identity (May & Hill, 2005; PPRC, 2010). As such, providing opportunities for dual language families and community members to participate in the planning and oversight of their children's bilingual education can be considered paramount for buy-in and program success. When possible, invite them to participate in joint goal setting and decision making events, to join program boards so they may share ideas on how to support dual language families, participate in curriculum planning, volunteer in the classroom as role models, and to become parent liaisons. Going further, community resources can be harnessed in developing language curriculum materials, which may be particularly important for Indigenous bilingual/immersion programs where language revitalization is a core goal. Community and family members, and especially elders, can contribute to the development of hands-on, environmental, and thematic-based curriculum in which academic and traditional subjects are taught through the native/partner language (Hermes, 2007).

Supporting Home-based Learning. When possible, emphasize that to families that they are primary educators of their children and support them to read and apply concepts learned in school to their home environments. For instance, families can encourage their children to learn concepts in their home language and then translate them into English. Programs can provide bilingual books and provide home visitors to guide families in literacy-building activities.

ASSESSMENT, ACCOUNTABILITY & EVALUATION

Regular and systemic program evaluation is an important driver of success for bilingual education programs, much like any other. The following section briefly lays out core dimensions/standards areas for program assessment; leading indicators that may help programs with outcomes and target setting; and evaluation models, methods, and tools that bi/multilingual programs may wish to consider when making decisions about the kinds of data they want to collect and what those data can potential convey about program implementation.

Core dimensions of program assessment. The Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) maps out essential areas of evaluation for which framing questions and methods can be tailored to the meet the individual circumstances of programs. These components emphasize a coordinated approach to implementing programs for dual language learners that ensure culturally and linguistically responsive practices. They include: (1) program design and implementation; (2) assessment practices; (3) curriculum; (4) instruction; (5) staffing and professional development; (6) school culture and goals; and (7) program effectiveness (academic, linguistic, and affective). An example from Head Start also lays out 10 dimensions of dual language program assessment, four of which address management systems and 6 which address program service areas. The management systems areas of assessment include: (1) communication; (2) human resources; (3) training and professional development; and (4) program planning and service system design. The program service dimensions include: (6) teaching and learning environment; (7) curricula; (8) child screening and assessments; (4) health program services; (9) family and community engagement program services; and (10) transition services.

Outcomes and Leading Indicators. Baker (2006) shares some high level outcomes and leading indicators that bi/multilingual education programs are likely to see if they are effective in their goals and implementation. There are as follows:

1. Strong forms of bilingual education not only produce bilingualism and biliteracy, but also heighten academic achievement across the curriculum.

2. Immersion, developmental maintenance and dual language bilingual education programs typically increase achievement; they do not lower academic performance.
3. Strong bilingual education programs reduce repetition and drop-out rates.
4. When biliteracy is encouraged in minority language students, specific skills and strategies learned in the first language will transfer to the second language (Baker in Pacific Policy Research Center, 2017).

Motecel & Cortex (2001) also offer indicators of bilingual program success at the school, classroom, and student levels:

School Indicators	Retention rate; dropout rate; enrollment in gifted and talented/advanced placement programs; enrolment in SPED and remedial programs; test exemption rates; program exiting standard; oral language proficiency
Student Outcomes	Reading and writing proficiency; content area master in English; Content area mastery in native language; leadership; vision and goals
Leadership (school-level)	School climate; linkages; school organization and accountability; professional development
Support (school level)	Parent involvement; teacher accountability and student assessment; staff selection and recognition; community involvement; appropriate program models; positive classroom climate
Program + Instructional Practices (classroom level):	Academically challenging curriculum and instruction; high teacher expectations; program articulation

Equity and Student Outcomes. Kennedy's review of literature on bilingual program model implementation found that successful models ensure that academic outcomes associated with both languages (English and partner) are measured in addition to sociocultural competence outcomes, and that these outcomes are tracked longitudinally across time. Furthermore, the process shall be "inclusive and equity-focused, with participation of diverse stakeholders and disaggregation of student outcome data by subpopulations such English learners, former English learners, and English proficient students (in two-way programs) to ensure equitable outcomes" (Kennedy, 2019). The following are some examples of standards/areas for program evaluation practiced and/or recommended by leading institutions and experts.

Evaluation Frameworks

Empowerment Evaluation. Language programs will continue to be held accountable by external forces during this age of accountability. However, according to Norris (2016), current trends are moving toward internal evaluation that empower stakeholders to have a voice in the improvement of their programs and utilize results to improve programs. Wiley and García (2016) emphasize the role of agency in language program planning and policy. Even when policies are imposed from a national or state-level, principals, teachers, and "the students themselves help to determine the effectiveness of policies in practice" (p. 48). Furthermore, parents and other community stakeholders also have a hand in language use and practice and can influence language policy implementation "from the bottom up." Hornberger (2009) asserted that "multilingual education activates voices for reclaiming the local" (p. 206) and when the planning and evaluation of language programs is inclusive, this empowerment is realized. Of note, Howard et al. (2018) offer a template for self-evaluation data and scoring that can be implemented by programs seeking to pinpoint strengths and needs for improvement.

Transformative Evaluation. In order to counteract the power balance in traditional evaluation, stakeholder involvement has become a key aspect of evaluation processes. Furthermore, when a social justice framework is incorporated into evaluation, it is deemed *transformative evaluation*. While it is unclear if transformative evaluation will become a common practice, Norris (2016) argues that "there are many opportunities for good to be done through transformative evaluation in application to the situations of language teachers, language learners, and language minority populations worldwide" (p. 180). There are emerging examples of transformative evaluation being used in language education programs in Colorado public schools, in U.S. post-secondary foreign language programs, and in teacher preparation programs for deaf students (House, 2004; Mertens et al., 2010; & Zannirato, 2014 cited in Norris, 2016).

Logic Models. The very nature of language education coupled with a lack of a comprehensive theory of second language development has historically not lent itself well to experimental evaluation methods. Over 70 years ago, Ralph Tyler, a chief advocate of rational design in education, lamented:

> *The kinds of students to be taught, the ends to be attained, the psychological nature*
> *of language learning, the conditions under which effective learning takes place, the*
> *requisites of effective organization of learning experiences were either unstated or were*
> *largely expressed in unique terms making comparison impossible.* (cited in Norris, 2016, p. 177)

Given this deficiency in models that fully capture the "detailed causal, interactive, and moderating relationships among the variety of factors" (Norris, 2016, p. 177), program **logic models** constructed by researchers alongside practitioners may provide a useful evaluation tool for uncovering implementation success and outcomes achievement. One example of a detailed logic model

employed by a language program is found in Canada's Language Instruction for Newcomers to Canada (LINC) program[3]. Their model encompasses program activities and outcomes for each area of the program and serves as a framework for program evaluation: "the model provided a comprehensive basis for initial monitoring of all of the different dimensions of the program to ensure accountability and highlight directions for improvement" (Norris, 2016, p. 178).

Methods/Tools. Before deciding on data collection tools, language program administrators/evaluators should come to a conclusion regarding the purpose of the program evaluation. Davis (2011) offers a "use oriented process" for deciding on methods; the following questions should be considered to find clarity in the evaluation process: (1) *why decision-makers are investigating programs*; (2) *what they want to do with evaluation information*; and, (3) *what specific aspects of the program decision-makers want to know about* (p. 3). Once a purpose has been established, research questions can be created and data collection tools identified and created.

Surveys are an oft-used instrument in program evaluation as they are generally convenient and inexpensive. Surveys help to gather the following kinds of data: *demographics, behaviors, attitudes, feelings, knowledge, abilities, priorities, identification of problems,* and *identification of solutions* (Davis, 2011, p. 7). Surveys, however, may miss the mark on providing the rich data of interviews, and this should be considered in instrument selection. To ensure a more accurate and useful survey design, as with a needs assessment, multiple stakeholders should be involved in survey creation: "Stakeholder participation increases evaluation ownership and understanding, leading in turn to an increase in the likelihood of use" (p. 11).[4]

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[3] The LINC Logic model can be found here (Exhibit 1.1): https://www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees-citizenship/corporate/reports-statistics/evaluations/language-instruction-newcomers-canada/intro.html
[4] The entire guide, *Using Surveys for Understanding and Improving Foreign Language Programs* (Davis, 2011) can be found here: https://scholarspace.manoa.hawaii.edu/bitstream/handle/10125/14549/NW61-Davis.pdf?sequence=10

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