

Bethel University

Spark

All Electronic Theses and Dissertations

2019

Supporting ELL Secondary Students at International Schools in Asia

Richard Earl Poulin III
Bethel University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://spark.bethel.edu/etd>



Part of the [Education Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Poulin III, R. E. (2019). *Supporting ELL Secondary Students at International Schools in Asia* [Master's thesis, Bethel University]. Spark Repository. <https://spark.bethel.edu/etd/521>

This Master's thesis is brought to you for free and open access by Spark. It has been accepted for inclusion in All Electronic Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Spark.

SUPPORTING ELL SECONDARY STUDENTS AT INTERNATIONAL SCHOOLS
IN ASIA

A MASTER'S THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY
OF BETHEL UNIVERSITY

BY
RICHARD E. POULIN III

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS

APRIL 2019

BETHEL UNIVERSITY

SUPPORTING ELL SECONDARY STUDENTS AT INTERNATIONAL SCHOOLS
IN ASIA

Richard E. Poulin III

April 24, 2019

APPROVED

Advisor's Name: _____

Advisor's Signature: _____

Program Director's Signature: _____

Abstract

This literature review explores how to adequately support newly admitted secondary school English Language Learners (ELLs) attending an international school in Asia. Research suggests that learning English as a teen is more difficult and growth is slower when students are not immersed in English at a younger age. In many situations, students must be able to succeed within a classroom where the primary language of instruction is English while residing in a country where English is not the official language. Also, students must be able to collaborate with other students in the class who are native English speakers, fully bilingual, or attended international school since primary school. In many international schools, English support programs are modeled after American public schools where ELLs represent a small percentage of the classroom. ELL students were once the minority in international schools but are now becoming the majority in many international schools. As the demographics of international school shifts to include more ELL students than native English-speaking students, the most beneficial English support program and assessment strategies to serve international school population are needed to meet the needs of the students and learning environment.

Table of Contents

Signature Page.....	2
Abstract.....	3
Table of Contents.....	4
Table of Tables.....	6
Chapter I: Introduction.....	7
Chapter II: Literature Review.....	12
International Schools in Asia.....	12
Changing Demographics of International Schools in Asia.....	16
Language Acquisition.....	19
Language Development.....	19
First-language/Second-language.....	23
Conversational and Academic Language Proficiency.....	27
English Language Learners Support Programs.....	29
English Language Development.....	29
Pull-out.....	32
Push-in.....	33
Sheltered English Program.....	35
Immersion Program.....	38
Assessment of English Proficiency.....	39
Assessments.....	39
Measuring Language Proficiency.....	40
Teacher Administered Assessments.....	42

Computerized Adaptive Testing.....	44
Chapter III: Discussion and Conclusion.....	47
Summary of Literature.....	47
Professional Application.....	55
Limitations of the Research.....	58
Implications for Future Research.....	60
Conclusion.....	61
References.....	62

List of Tables

Table	Page
1 Piaget's 4 Stages of Cognitive Development.....	21
2 ACTFL Proficiency Levels.....	41

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

“Under ideal conditions, it takes the average second-language learner two years to acquire Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS)...On the other hand, Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), or the context-reduced language of academics, takes five to seven years under ideal conditions to develop to a level commensurate with that of native speakers.” —

(Roseberry-McKibbin & Brice, n.d., para. 15)

International schools in Asia are undergoing a change in the demographics of their student population (Fraser, 2018 May 23). International schools were initially created to provide western expatriate families quality education that was equivalent to their home country while working overseas (Sharma, 2016 February 24). Students would be able to seamlessly transition back to their home country and continue their educational pathway or graduate with a high school diploma that was equal to attending public school in the United States. With the passing of time, the majority of students attending international schools in Asia are now from the host country and the Asia region (Keeling, 2018 February).

There are differing opinions among experts as to what constitutes an international school. Bunnell and colleagues (2016) have conducted extensive research and review on this topic, and for the purpose of this research, their definition of an international school is used. They suggest an international school can be labeled as a Type A, Type B, or Type C (Hayden & Thompson, 2013 as cited in Bunnell, Fertig, & James, 2016). Type A schools represent the traditional international school for temporarily assigned Western families who have been contracted for a special employment opportunity overseas; this

tends to create a homogenous student population from Western nations. In the 1960s, the majority of international schools in the world were Type A (Bunnell et al., 2016). Type B schools in Asia are ideologically international schools that instituted an international curriculum with Western licensed teachers, but generally have a heterogeneous international student population comprised of various nationalities depending on their location. Type C refers to a recent emerging trend of international schools. Located in a non-English speaking country, the for-profit commercial school will adopt an array of international curriculum and approaches that are combined with the host country's curriculum to teach the children of the country. This includes bilingual-immersion curriculums. Type C is not reviewed in this study. Type A refers to the traditional international school, and Type B refers to the changing demographics in international schools. The International School Consultancy (ISC) Research (2018), a leading research provider of international school data, trends and intelligence, adds to this definition by stating that a school is international if it delivers a curriculum that is in English outside of an English-speaking country or offers an English-medium international curriculum different than the country's national curriculum.

To meet the needs of the changing student population, international schools are adopting additional English support programs and teaching strategies that go beyond the original mission of English support programs that were modeled after schools in the United States (Powell & Powell, 2016). Adopting a curriculum and English support program that is modeled after public schools in America fails to consider the difference in demographics, environment, and culture of students being supported (Hallgarten, Tabberer, & McCarthy, 2015). With a properly designed program, the diversity found in

international schools creates an ideal learning environment that is inclusive, tolerant, and nurturing for all cultures, races, and religions (Lane & Jones, 2016).

In primary school, a school may choose to not have a basic level of English proficiency as an entry requirement since sufficient years remain to develop student reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills by the time they reach secondary school (Secondary School Admission Testing Board, 2015). By secondary school, however, a basic level of English proficiency is required for newly admitted students entering, but this tends to vary between different schools. Student enrollment numbers and competition are deciding factors for private international schools when it comes to establishing levels of English proficiency levels. Establishing requirements while also ensuring target enrollment numbers are achieved is a consideration that must be balanced and can fluctuate depending on supply and demand. Some schools have lowered the English proficiency level required for school admission to meet the enrollment demands due to the change in demographics and to remain competitive with other international schools (Machin, 2017). For-profit international schools are more common in Asia than in other parts of the world (MacDonald, 2009). This competition is causing admissions offices to change entry requirements such as English proficiency to attract more students.

The change in student demographics has caused a high percentage of ELL students in the classroom. This factor, in turn, has resulted in creating stress on the English support program and teachers (Gruber, 2019 February). Some schools have tried to manage this stress by limiting the number of ELL at the lowest proficiency levels in the classroom (Bunnell, 2014). However, even with these criteria in place, ELL students at moderate or high levels of proficiency will still comprise a higher percentage of the

classroom than the average of 9.5% in United States public schools (National Center of Education Statistics, 2018).

The English support programs for international schools must provide tailored language acquisition support instructions for the influx of nonnative English-speaking students from the Asia region who are seeking an international education that is more advantageous than their countries public education and to enhance their child's chances of obtaining admission to a reputable higher education institution, most likely in a Western country (ISC Research, 2018a). In addition, teachers must have differentiation and ELL support strategies to provide adequate lessons for all students. Effective differentiation requires extra time and effort that is essential to support all learners. Tomlinson and Eidson (2003) wrote about the importance of planning to make differentiation effective and proactive. If teachers possess experience with teaching ELL students and have a confident set of language acquisition support strategies, they may still face difficulties due to the higher percentage of ELL students in the classroom that are mixed with native-English speaking or bilingual students. The varying levels of English within a classroom will affect the pace and depth of the content delivered (Tomlinson, 1999). If a teacher is not able to effectively offer differentiated instruction, native English speakers and ELL students will both be affected negatively in growth.

International schools have a unique school environment that is very diverse in culture and language abilities (Bunnell, 2019). Classrooms are comprised of international students from around the world. Even students from similar countries will share differences. The class will then be comprised of a mixture of native English speakers, bilingual students, and students still developing English proficiency. Although

English is the language of instruction, students will still speak freely with each other in their first-language with friends that share the same language. On playgrounds, cafeteria, hallways, and even in the classroom, students will generally revert to their native language when in the company of other students that share a common first-language.

It is also important to consider the community and lives of the students after they leave school to return home. Students attending an international school in their home country will have the ability to speak their native language after school. For students from other countries, they will use English at school, their native language at home, and possibly the host-country language while in the community (Dearden, 2014). This is not a fully immersive English environment. Exposure to English is limited to instructional contact hours at school.

There is a need for an English support program that is designed for these students' specific needs. As the number of ELLs increases, the type of support necessary for these students to be successful in the mainstream program also increases so that there is no strain on the teachers or English support system (Bates, 2011). For this reason, the following central question will guide the review of literature in Chapter II: What is the best way to adequately support newly admitted secondary school English Language Learners attending an international school?

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

“The process of students learning a second-language happens in stages just as it does when learning the first-language. Students move through five predictable stages: Preproduction, Early Production, Speech Emergence, Intermediate Fluency, and Advanced Fluency. How quickly students progress through the stages depends on many factors, including level of formal education, family background, and length of time spent in the country.” (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p.138).

International Schools in Asia

International schools in Asia were once private institutions for foreigners within a host country. Local families often have their children attend international schools to provide a better educational experience than found in the public education system of their home country. International schools also provide a smoother transition to international higher education and universities in Western countries. There are more than 9,000 international schools around the world, educating 4.78 million students (Bunnell, 2019). The highest and fastest growth has been in Asia with more than 5,000 schools alone, and depending on the definition of international school used, the increase could be as high as 255% since 2000 (ISC Research, 2018a).

Thérèse Maurette created the foundation of an international curriculum in 1948. Later, a group of teachers from the International School of Geneva developed the international curriculum further. Today, more than 6,000 schools worldwide have adopted the International Baccalaureate (IB) curriculum (International Baccalaureate Organization, 2017). The IB curriculum is a continuum consisting of four programs that are united by the IB's philosophy and approaches to learning and teaching.

Prior to the rise in popularity of the IB program, schools in Asia that wanted to offer a curriculum to expats and their citizens who were exploring an alternative from their national curriculum were left with two popular choices (Morrison, 2019). Students could attend an international school that implemented a United States or United Kingdom-centric curriculum. This would be more than sufficient if families were only planning on staying a short time in their host country before returning to the United States or the United Kingdom. For those that would be moving to another country or staying in Asia, it did not serve the needs of the student. International Baccalaureate Organization (IBO) solved this problem by developing a flexible framework that provided a roadmap on how to develop internationally minded students, while also celebrating the local host country's culture (International Baccalaureate Organization, 2015). Students graduating from an international school that uses a United States, United Kingdom, or IB curriculum, receive a diploma that is recognized by a majority of universities worldwide and they are often better prepared for higher education (ISC Research, 2018b).

The mission of the IBO is to support, maintain, and celebrate each student's mother-tongue and cultural background. Schools that have undergone an evaluation or accreditation process demonstrated the specific expectations required of a candidate school which must be embodied by all stakeholders (International Baccalaureate Organization, 2016). A school's mission must be reflective and supportive of the IB program. IBO (2015) states that its mission is to "develop inquiring, knowledgeable and caring young people who help to create a better and more peaceful world through intercultural understanding and respect" (p. 1).

Unlike public education, private schools can be selective regarding students accepted into the school (Lane & Jones, 2016). This provides a process to assess if students would be a match for the program and would be able to succeed. Academic and English ability is evaluated if the parents can afford the application fee (Secondary School Admission Test Board, 2015). Paying an application fee does not guarantee a placement at the school. Expensive tuition also makes international schools a limited option. High-income families or families who receive employment benefits by working overseas are candidates for attending private international schools.

When international schools were initially developed, the student population was exclusively expatriate children (Keeling, 2018). As interest grew from wealthy families seeking an alternative education for their children, some governments stepped in to regulate international schools (Powell & Powell, 2016). Since international schools do not comply with the national education requirements, some governments have tried to regulate the title of international school by requiring schools to maintain a population that was a majority or exclusively comprised of international students (Bunnell et al., 2016). In these cases, being an international student was determined by having a passport from a country other than the host country, and no longer being from only a Western country. Some governments banned local students from attending international schools. International schools have been able to admit more host country students due to relaxed laws. In addition, some parents have discovered loopholes by applying for dual-passports. Regardless, international students in Asia are no longer solely children from Western countries but are more likely from the host country or other countries in the Asia region.

English support is typically a supplemental program at international schools. This requires that parents pay an attentional fee (ISC Research, 2017). English support is usually limited to English acquisition and does not include special needs. Students remain in the English support until they successfully exit the program and meet the requirements of the mainstream curriculum.

To deploy curriculums from Western countries and to support an English program in Asia, international schools have hired administrators and teachers from abroad with attractive overseas packages (Bunnell, 2019). The higher quality of teachers providing superior education is a major factor in the high interest of parents seeking to send their children to international schools (ISC Research, 2018a). Experienced teachers from the United States, Canada, England, and Australia are able to conduct classes that are similar to schools in Western nations without families having to travel. Schools that offer the American curriculum seek teachers who have experience teaching in America. Likewise, a British curriculum international school desires experienced teachers from England. Although these teachers may have some experience teaching ELLs in the classroom, most do not have experience teaching a class that is a majority of ELLs or teaching abroad (Education Commission of the States, 2014).

To obtain a work permit to teach overseas, American teachers must have an active teaching license (Bunnell, 2014). This eliminates a significant amount of teachers that are available within the host country, many of whom are expats seeking transition jobs to teaching. Because many of the teachers from Western nations are not experienced with teaching a classroom comprised of a majority of ELL students, hiring these teachers to

work in an international school environment limits the school's ability to cater instruction to meet the unique needs of international ELL students.

The original purpose of the international school has changed over time rapidly and substantially (Bunnell et al., 2016). With the increased enrollment requests from host-families and families from the Asia-region, international schools must also modify the programs designed to support their students. Hiring experienced and certified teachers from Western countries is a strong selling factor for international schools (Hallgarten et al., 2015).

Changing Demographics of International Schools in Asia

As discussed previously, international schools were initially created to provide schooling for western expat families who were overseas for a work contract. Once the contract was complete or when the student graduated, they would return to their home country. The average length of stay at an international school was three years. With the rise of host-country and regional students attending, parents plan for their child to spend their entire educational pathway or at least a time that is significantly longer than expat families (Bates, 2011). This means that the majority of students that are retained every year are ELL students (ISC Research, 2018a). These students provide a stable source of student enrollment numbers while native-English speakers will fluctuate every year depending on admissions. These non-native-English speakers have different consideration than Western expat families since they would be staying until graduation.

International schools use a range of curriculums. Families could attend the appropriate school which used the United States, British, Australian, or Canadian curriculum depending on where their child would continue school or attend university

(Bunnell, 2018). Families from the host-country or Asia region would consider where their child would possibly attend university. Some that were unsure could choose the curriculum that they thought was superior and then enroll in the school their child was accepted into. The International Baccalaureate created an inclusive curriculum that could support any nationality and supports the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) goal of education creating programs, policies, and practices that are inclusive (UNESCO, 2015). With the IB curriculum, schools no longer needed to look towards a Western country for mirroring their educational program. Instead, the framework could be molded around the needs of their community.

Families in the host country are often seeking an alternative to their country's public education system (ISC Research, 2018a). They are willing to pay the high fees of international schools so their children may have a higher quality of education. In addition to higher quality education, children will learn English. Many also want to prepare their child for future higher education overseas. Families are willing to pay the additional fees based on the assumption their child will speak English fluently, have a higher quality of education, and be able to interact with other English-speaking students. Meeting parent expectations and delivering on the promise of providing this, international schools must develop a support program that allows for the greatest success of students.

Regional nations, such as China, Korea, Japan, India, and Vietnam are now traveling internationally and working in different countries in the region. Since local public education is often not adequate or only available to citizens of the country they must attend international schools (Bates, 2011). International schools are therefore the ideal option for the new demographic. Large international companies have relocated

their business as global markets change, tariffs change, currency exchange shift and domestic opportunities open up (Bunnell, 2014). At the same time, developing companies from China, Vietnam, Malaysia, and Japan have started to branch out across Asia, many filling the void from Western companies by offering cheaper overhead.

Within the Asia region, a noticeable influx of students from China has been seen. Many Chinese families are seeking alternatives from local school systems and even international schools that are comprised of predominately Chinese students (ISC Research, 2018a). As a result of higher demands for international education in China, a mother and child can relocate to another part of Asia and spend less than tuition on a top international school in China that most likely has a waiting list. The demand for international education options outside of China will increase due to a government crackdown on international style education (Sunrise International Education, 2017).

The top five nationalities attending international school are China, Korea, Thailand, Japan, and Vietnam (ISC Research, 2018a). None of these countries official language is English. Students will only have limited English exposure before transferring into an international curriculum where the primary language of instruction is English.

As international schools adapt to meet the demands from the shifting demographics, so must the English support systems. Students who make up the new demographics have different needs and educational pathways than the traditional expat families who were once the original purpose for establishing international schools in Asia. As more families within the Asia region seek better educational opportunities through international schools, educators should consider the family background, culture, and language to design an inclusive, and supportive learning program.

Language Acquisition

Language Development

Language development is the process humans use to come to understand and communicate with one another through language (Collier, 1995a). Language development begins early in life without conscious actions on the part of the learner. Learning to understand and use language is the first step in literacy which is used later to develop reading and writing skills. After developing speaking skills, students begin to learn how to read. Eventually, they will use this honed skill to learn about the world.

Language development is a key stage in the overall development of a child. Language provides students the ability to communicate and make sense of the world. Piaget's (1936) theory of cognitive development suggests that children move through four different stages of mental development. During this process, children develop their first-language. The first-language is the medium in which they acquire knowledge and more profound intelligence. Once the foundations of language development are formed, this can be used later to develop their second-language. Understanding how children acquire their first-language will support educators in developing support for learning an additional language.

The first stage is the sensorimotor stage. Within the first 12 months, babies develop many of the foundations that underpin speech and language development. They will continue developing language skills at an amazing rate in the first three years of life. Language begins as sound, babbles, and coos. Babies will play with their sounds and mimic what they hear. They will also begin to incorporate gestures with their hands and face. Eventually, a baby is able to produce its first words.

The second stage is the preoperational stage. During this stage, children begin to use words with meaning effectively. As children start to use words more meaningfully, they will also continue to build their vocabulary and develop their schema. Children also begin to understand simple instructions. With a more extensive vocabulary, children will string words together and eventually create short sentences. As they receive rewards for being understood, they are motivated to speak and learn more.

The third stage, the concrete operational stage, is a significant turning point in the cognitive development of a child. At about seven years old, children can speak more protracted and complex sentences. It is the beginning of logical thought for children. Pronunciation also improves, and speech can happen while undertaking other tasks. Collier (1995a) suggests these are the ages where students begin to notice the subtle pronunciation distinctions and complex aspects of a language. During these schooling years, students traditionally add reading and writing to their first-language skills that will be built upon in each subsequent grade.

The final and fourth stage of Piaget's theory of cognitive development is formal operational. This stage involves an increase in logic, reasoning, and abstract ideas. Adolescents start to think abstractly and analyze hypothetical problems. Teenagers start to consider moral, philosophical, ethical, social, and political issues that require theoretical and abstract reasoning. Higher order thinking skills start to take shape during this stage and extend learning to have more depth. Students in this stage are able to logically and effectively use symbols related to abstract concepts that will be necessary for learning subjects such as algebra and science. The students first-language is used to learn new and more complex content independently.

Table 1 Piaget's 4 Stages of Cognitive Development			
Stage	Age	Characteristics	Goal
Sensorimotor	Birth to 18–24 months old	Motor activity without use of symbols. All things learned are based on experiences, or trial and error.	Object permanence
Preoperational	2 to 7 years old	Development of language, memory, and imagination. Intelligence is both egocentric and intuitive.	Symbolic thought
Concrete operational	7 to 11 years old	More logical and methodical manipulation of symbols. Less egocentric, and more aware of the outside world and events.	Operational thought
Formal operational	Adolescence to adulthood	Use of symbols to relate to abstract concepts. Able to make hypotheses and grasp abstract concepts and relationships.	Abstract concepts

According to Piaget's theory, children in each stage are only capable of specific tasks, and therefore certain concepts can only be taught once they have reached the appropriate stage of cognitive development. Each of the different developmental stages provides distinct advantages in language learning. ELLs attending international schools are learning a second language before their first language is finished developing. A study by Hartshorne (2018) found that to achieve the proficiency of a native speaker language learning prior to age ten will produce the best result. Learning a language through immersion prior to the formal operational stage increases the chances of fluency equal to a native speaker. Learning a language after ten years of age is still possible but occurs in a different process that requires additional effort on the part of the student and teacher.

Secondary school students may have an edge in acquiring a second-language faster. During a study of Catalan-Spanish bilingual learners of English, Nikolov and Djigunović (2006) showed that younger students take a longer time to acquire target language while older students were able to acquire English faster with intensive English support. This shows a successful educational pathway exists for ELL secondary students entering an English-medium international school. In addition to age, years of formal education will also affect the rate at which an ELL student acquires English. Acceptance into an international school requires students to have transcripts that document continuous successful completion and satisfactory grades of formal education. Thomas and Collier (2002) found that ELL students who received intensive and specific English support were able to gain language proficiency more quickly. Generally, it takes an ELL student three to five years to develop oral proficiency. Academic English proficiency will take longer, four to seven years.

Language is developed early in life through an instinctive process (Piaget, 1936). Language is used to interact with the world and one another. Language is also used to develop intelligence which can be used later to acquire a second-language. During each developmental stage, the ability to learn a language has advantages and disadvantages. Considering the developmental stage of a secondary student will support developing a successful English support program for ELL students entering international school. Secondary students have six or fewer years before graduation. During that time, they must develop the English necessary as quickly as possible to understand the content and meet the graduation requirements. The years remaining before graduation and the time it takes on average for a secondary student to learn English highlights the importance of

developing a comprehensive English support program that increases success in an international school (Hanover Research, 2015).

First-language/Second-language

Language acquisition is separated into two types: first-language acquisition and second-language acquisition. First-language (L1) acquisition is a universal process regardless of the language. Babies are attentive to the sounds around them and will begin to imitate them. Through imitation, they will eventually start to produce words. Second-language (L2) acquisition assumes knowledge in L1 and encompasses the process individuals experience as they learn the elements of a new language. Elements of a language include vocabulary, phonological components, grammatical structures, and writing systems. L1 will be used to acquire a second-language if the L2 is not learned in tandem at a young age (Cummins, 1992).

A child's first-language is learned during childhood. It is the language that is most used and the one in which the child is most comfortable with using. First-languages are generally maintained for life, with little overt effort from the speaker. First-language contributes to the personal and sociocultural identities of the native speaker, and they use the language to think and to interact with family and friends of their cultural or ethnic group (Cummins, 1992).

A child's second-language is a language that is not the native language. Instead, it is learned later in life. Students will use L1 to acquire L2, providing a more comprehensible and comfortable learning environment. Maintaining L1 is necessary to enhance proficiency in L2. The threshold hypothesis by Cummins (1976) states that a minimum threshold in language proficiency must be passed before a second-language

speaker can gain proficiency from the additional language. It also states that in order to gain proficiency in a second-language the learner must also have passed a certain and age-appropriate level of competence in his or her first-language. Considering how a second-language is acquired and applying it to supporting ELL students will create a more successful English support program.

The Separate Underlying Proficiency Model (SUP) model of bilingualism (Cummins, 1984) suggests that as proficiency in one language increases, proficiency in the first-language decreases proportionately. SUP states there is a direct link between the amount of exposure to English in school and the achievement in English literacy. Educators who assume this model argue for more English instruction to support L2 acquisition due to the limited amount of room for each language.

Cummins (1980) argues that in the Common Underlying Proficiency Model (CUP) there is not a finite amount of space for L1 or L2. Experience with either language can promote the development of the proficiency underlying both languages, given adequate motivation and exposure to both, either in school or the wider environment. There is instead interaction between the two languages to support learning in all domains including L2. Skills that are learned in either language can be used to support learning in either language or even acquiring a third or fourth language (Marian & Shook, 2012).

Collier (1995a) presents the Prism Mode, a multifaceted conceptual model that includes sociocultural, linguistic, academic, and cognitive process as a way of effectively developing L2. This model provides an alternative to foreign language courses since acquiring a second language through a school's curriculum cannot use the same model.

An effective English support program will incorporate the components of this language development conceptual model.

Figure 1, featured below, provides a visual representation of the model. The central component of the model is the sociocultural process which all the other components revolve around. The social and cultural process involves the everyday lives of the student including home life. Student self-esteem and anxiety are variables contained in this component. The psychological needs of a child must be met for the other elements of learning to occur. A supportive and safe learning environment that is free of prejudice and discrimination can shape a student's achievement including feelings towards learning a new language.

The components that surround the sociocultural process are language development, academic development, and cognitive development. Language development in a second language includes the cognitive and academic success that will be transferred from L1 speaking and writing skills. Academic progress consists of content knowledge from the core subjects of math, science, and social studies. Collier (1995a) suggests that it is vital to ensure a continuous and uninterrupted process of academic development. The final component, cognitive development, is often overlooked due to modifications, simplification, and adaptations of the curriculum as a way of supporting ELL students. Cognitive development includes higher order thinking skills, questioning, researching, and creating. All of the components are interdependent so all four must be nurtured successfully for a student to acquire a second language.

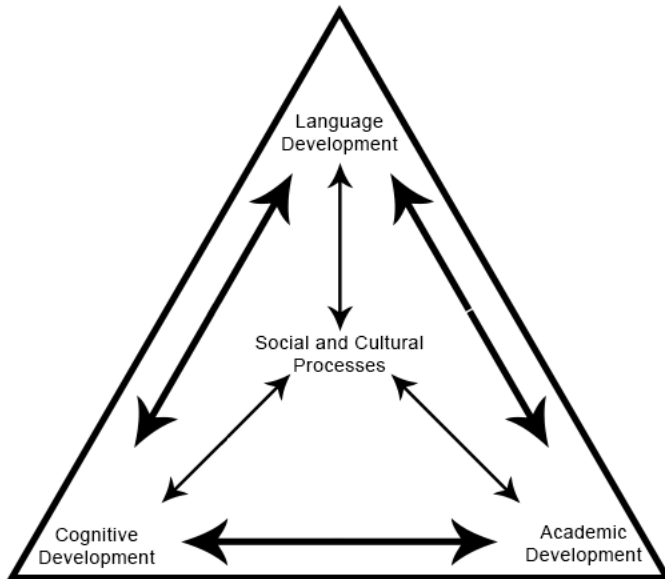


Figure 1. Prism model. Adapted from Collier, V. P. (1995a).

Reviewing how language is acquired can support determining an effective English support program. Secondary students transferring to a Type A or Type B international school will not have the opportunity to continue to enhance the L1 at school. In secondary school, students may have the option of taking their L1 as a foreign language course, but that will not support L1 academic language proficiency. Maintaining L1 is necessary to support the learning of L2 (Collier, 1995a), so it must be completed at home. There is not a finite amount of space for either language. Both will contribute to enhancing a student's intelligence. Within an international school, secondary students will require support to achieve proficiency in the language of instruction and may eventually become fully bilingual or multilingual. International schools that are accepting ELL students from around the world have a duty to develop an English support program that considers how L1 supports L2 as there is great potential for these students to have superior multi-language skills than students in the mainstream classroom if appropriately supported.

Conversational and Academic Language Proficiency

As newly admitted international students develop proficiency in English, their levels and ability will go through phases. Students in each phase are able to accomplish different tasks appropriate for different learning environments. The amount of time each student spends in each phase will vary depending on the level of support used to progress from one level to the next. ELL students will begin by developing conversational skills in the target language. Later, through support, they will achieve grade-appropriate academic proficiency. An English support program that considers the difference between social language and academic language acquisition is an important theory for international teachers to understand.

The everyday language skills required for conversational English makes up the first phase known as Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS). BICS comprises the language skills students require to participate in conversational English during social situations. These skills develop between six months to two years when learning L2. It is the first stage in learning a new language and comprises the learning of vocabulary needed to interact with other people during routine actions. ELL students use BIC skills in social areas such as the playground, cafeteria, school push, or after school activities. English occurs in a meaningful social context but is not cognitively demanding or specialized for success in an academic setting.

Academic language, or the language used in the various subject classrooms, are the language skills developed during the Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) phase. It is the formal academic language for listening, speaking, reading, and writing in a subject. CALP is essential for ELL students to succeed in school. However,

skills developed during this phase requires time and specialized support to reach this level of proficiency in each of their subject areas. This usually takes five to seven years but may take seven to ten years for ELLs to catch up to their peers if they have no support in their L1 (Collier & Thomas, 1995). As each child advances in grade level, the ideas, concepts, and language that is needed to participate increases in depth and complexity. Students in this phase are developing higher order thinking skills such as comparing, classifying, synthesizing, evaluating, and inferring while also developing academic competence in the target language.

By secondary school, students have developed complex skills in their L1. L1 can be used to support the successive acquisition of a second language. The process of becoming fluent in two languages is known as bilingualism. ELL students entering an international school program have the ability to become bilingual, a future communication skill that will place ELL students at an advantage in the increasingly interconnected world. Businesses today are offering wage premiums and enhanced employability for workers proficient in both English and another language, and this demand is likely to increase over time (Coomer, 2011). An international school will also provide students with an international worldview that will better prepare them to contribute to a more connected global community. Even if an ELL student does not become fully bilingual, research evidence shows that proficient bilinguals outperform monolinguals on school tests (Collier 1995b). While supporting English language acquisition, an English support program must also provide opportunities for these students to capitalize on becoming bilingual to enhance their future success after graduation.

English Language Learners Support Programs

English Language Development

The goal of an ELL support program is to provide students in the program with necessary English skills and content related vocabulary to be successful independent learners within the school's curriculum. An effective ELL support program provides explicit language acquisition strategies that can accommodate each student's unique needs (Hanover Research, 2015). In addition, the program aims to improve ELL students social and emotional learning by boosting confidence and providing them with a common language to interact socially with other students.

English language fluency takes time and consistent support for those identified as needing additional support to achieve growth. Collier (1987) stated that it takes between five to seven years for an ELL to achieve the equivalent English working level as a native speaker. However, for the purpose of this thesis, English proficiency only needs to progress so that the student becomes independent enough to exit the support program. Highly qualified international teachers are all trained in differentiating instructions and providing English support. Thus, the goal of English support programs is assisting students in becoming independent learners inside of an international program that is supportive of ELL students.

Cook, Boals, and Lundberg (2011) identified that ELLs grow at different rates because they begin at varying level of proficiencies. Developing a support program that provides individualized support is necessary for meeting the varying level of proficiency and progress. In addition, the mother-tongue language is crucial for both cognitive development and maintaining cultural identity. Without the support of being able to use

the mother-tongue at school, a support program must find strategies to compensate and overcome the added difficulties.

A language support program must maintain a continuous cognitive challenge for growth to occur in L2 while also reinforcing concepts learned in L1. International teachers must adapt instruction during various planning stages. English support programs have unique planning requirements which may include a collaborative effort for other stakeholders. Planning will require a specific focus on supporting students to meet the standards of the academic curriculum without lowering the standards for ELL students. For this to transpire, instruction needs to include research-based English language acquisition approaches and a personalized learning experience. The program will also need to promote independence, interdependence among peers, and a strong relationship between teachers and students (Brookfield, 2015).

Planning includes supporting peer learning and constructing meaningful activities for students to collaborate on solving problems. Peer involvement personalizes the learning experience and creates more engaged learners (Topping, 2009). The demographics of the English support environment influences the success of students. Students are able to act as teachers to support learning from each other. Through friendships, ELL students are able to find joy in learning while they will develop their English skills. Through peer learning, students are provided with an optimal environment to share experiences, express ideas, and connect with their peers.

Various types of English support models are available for an international school to adopt. Each offers educators and students unique scenarios for learning. An effective English support program benefits all subgroups, provides a safe learning environment,

establishes trust, allows for small grouping, incorporates project-based activities, promotes student ownership, and applies personalized and specialized English support program (Hanover Research, 2015). The appropriate English support program selected by an international school must support secondary ELL students acquiring English and necessary academic standards to graduate successfully with their peers. Evaluating characteristics of rate of acquisition, L1 support, teacher planning requirements, and peer-learning opportunities will distinguish the English support program that is most successful for international schools.

Several English support programs are available for schools to assist ELLs. Hill and Miller (2013) describe nine categories of research-based proven support strategies. Not all these support programs are available at international schools, and the three most common are push-in support, pull-out support, and stand-alone ELL auxiliary programs. Research on ELL support programs is inconsistent (Hanover Research, 2015).

Identifying which method of support worked best for a school was explored by Platt and colleagues (2003) to help schools in Florida cope with the change in demographics. Moufhamian, Rivera, and Francis (2009) list these three types of support as English-only models in *Instructional Models and Strategies for Teaching English Language Learners*. The three types are grouped into structured immersion and sheltered instruction. Push-in and pull-out are considered a structured immersion program whereas a stand-alone auxiliary program is listed as a sheltered instruction program. Providing a support program that segregates ELLs at international schools by withdrawing them from the regular program so they can attend a separate English-intensive class was highlighted as a way of achieving the responsibilities of a secondary school's English support

program (Shoebottom, 2009). Supporting a student's native language or providing bilingual instruction, although also an equally proven successful program, cannot be applied at most international schools because as Stepanek and Raphael (2010, p. 2) points out, "schools that serve students from many different language backgrounds, it may not even be an option."

Pull-out

The pull-out method consists of a specialized teacher pulling students out of their mainstream education classes to work directly with the specialist one-on-one or in a small-group setting with other ELL students (Hanover Research, 2015). With this method, the student will stop receiving support once they develop a proficient level of English and are able to be independent in the mainstream.

During the pull-out session ELL students leave their general subject which is usually English class. The duration of the session varies and will generally last the entire time of the general class. ELL specialist will create pull-out sessions that are grouped by language ability levels and ages. This program model is ideal for beginning ELLs who need to develop BICS English skills. This program removes students from the immersion experience and can lead to stigmatizing ELLs (Hanover Research, 2015). If an ELL department is at a high capacity students at a lower level of proficiency will receive more support.

Since students are pulled out the mainstream class, ELL specialists must work with teachers. The two teachers work collaboratively to ensure that the individual needs of students are met to support their success in the mainstream classroom while also improving English acquisition. The goal of the pull-out support program is for ELL

students to acquire the skills and knowledge to be successful at their grade level (Hanover Research, 2015).

The pull-out model can create a beneficial learning environment for ELL students. The ELL specialist can provide attentive and individualized English support in a small group or one-on-one session. Specialists create enhanced support by grouping ELL students based on age and English level of proficiency. As a result, students feel less stress by being grouped with similar peers. The low-risk setting allows the specialist to assess student progress to create a successful learning journey for each ELL student (Hanover Research, 2015).

There is difficulty in coordinating and planning a pull-out English support program. Teachers and class times vary in a secondary school which makes it difficult to coordinate times. International schools that have adopted a rotating schedule will have a greater challenge in planning. This model has seen success with beginning ELL students to develop BICS, but ELL specialists are not able to provide the depth of content to nurture CALP. Research by Hanover Research (2015) suggests that international schools that adopt a pull-out English support program will face challenges in achieving beneficial group settings and helping students achieve proficiency in content area learning.

Push-in

A push-in English support program is an inclusive model. The specialist may work with students individually at their seats or as a group inside the same classroom as their mainstream peers. The ELL specialist may assist ELL students as a tutor with the same content that the rest of the class is doing. They can also provide a modified lesson or assignment that focuses more on English acquisition. While the classroom teacher

instructs the whole class, the ELL specialists can use supportive ELL approaches to aid comprehension of the mainstream content or supplement the lessons with gestures, visuals, or manipulatives (Hanover Research, 2015).

With an additional teacher in the room, the head teacher is able to continue lessons as usual. Although an ELL specialist is only expected to work with ELL students, there are opportunities for co-teaching. Co-teaching allows more frequent small group and one-to-one learning, and stronger modeling during lessons. If the teacher and specialist agree to conduct co-planning and co-teaching, they can encourage each other to share ideas to provide the most creative lesson possible (Hanover Research, 2015).

Despite good intentions, special groups can cause problems in terms of a student's self-confidence. A potential problem with lower language proficiency grouping is that students may see the grouping as an inferior versus superior group. A labeling epidemic is explained by William Ayers (1993) in his book *To Teach: The Journey of a Teacher*. He discusses how students are perceived by their peers will affect their attitudes towards learning, leading to a slowing of growth.

A push-in support program involves an English language specialist visiting various classrooms to provide individual or small group support. The school must dedicate a substantial amount of funding for employing several specialized English language support teachers who have experience with ELL secondary students. Even with an adequate number of specialists, support time may be limited in the length of sessions or the number of sessions available. This model also interrupts immersion. For a push-in support program to be successful, Hanover Research (2015) suggests the teacher and

specialist must collaborate and plan. This adds to the planning and meeting times of the mainstream teacher which can affect the quality of instruction.

Sheltered English Program

A sheltered English support program involves a small group of ELLs in a separate class to receive specialized content designed especially for ELL from a certified specialist homeroom teacher (Hanover Research, 2015). Teachers use a modified English program to adjust to the needs of the students' language ability. Students may exit when they are able to join the mainstream program. This provides a segregated learning experience where students can focus on the core academic curriculum within a specialized learning environment.

Within a sheltered English program, individualized lessons and differentiated instruction provide a supportive environment to learn. The goal of a sheltered English program is to embed English development into academic content so that students simultaneously develop academic content and English proficiency (Hanover Research, 2015). This provides teachers a better opportunity for formative assessments to learn how students are progressing with both content and language. With a classroom that is less varied in English levels, observing students can be more focused on the general needs of the class. The program is able to support the needs of ELL students to meet the rigorous demand of academic standards while also improving English proficiency.

Since a sheltered program allows for easy grouping of ELLs, international schools only need to allocate resources to hire enough teachers for a specific number of classes. Class sizes should remain smaller than a mainstream class, but more students can be supported at once within a sheltered program since the program is structured for more

students at once whereas pull-out and push-in models are designed for one-on-one or small groups.

Sheltered immersion provides a chance to build friendships and relationships with their peers as well. Students learn best from their friends (Boud, 2001). Being grouped with other students who are strong in a specific intelligence will inspire them. In addition, the student who is stronger in the skill will develop the ability to teach and present. Peer involvement personalizes the learning experience and creates more engaged learners (Topping, 2009). Students assume the role of a tutor to support peers and stimulate natural language acquisition, an important factor according to research that creates high student achievement (Brookfield, 1987).

Sheltered instruction creates a classroom environment that is reflective of the students. The environment is seen as the “third teacher.” The environment must be challenging, relevant, differentiated and collaborative. In addition to promoting inquiry, it is also a window into who the teacher is. Ayers (1993) described how individuals fill their homes with reflections of their values, and teachers should ensure there is a space that they can call their home. This combination allows classes to work in open spaces for higher collaboration with other students and classes, but also allowing classrooms to choose when to be closed.

During the collaborative student interactions within a sheltered program, students will feel comfortable and safe to make substantive decisions together to complete interdependent work. This allows for peer learning, an interaction that allows the best type of learning (Boud, 2001). Within a sheltered English program, students have a safe environment designed for them, tailored instruction to meet their specific needs, and

among a group of peers with an adequate amount of stress that allows for optimal learning. Specialized teachers have more options for differentiation beyond grouping by language ability and can provide more personalization. Students receive content to meet their ability with teaching strategies for ELL students.

A sheltered English program also allows for active parent-school partnerships. Since the classroom shares the unique goal of English language acquisition, the teacher is able to provide consistent newsletter and advice during normal planning hours thereby extending the amount of support ELL students receive. Active parent partnerships support curriculum extension at home so that students can receive L1 support at home (Lindholm, 1990).

Not all international schools have developed a bilingual program, and it would still not satisfy the L1 development of all ELLs since students are admitted from all over the world. Sheltered English teachers can still allow students to develop their L1 through translanguaging strategies, a process that allows ELL students to utilize their L1 as an integrated communication system (García & Li, 2018). Although English is the language of instruction, students are able to and encouraged to switch between languages freely.

International schools may have trouble implementing or transitioning to a sheltered English program. If a school already has an ELL specialist, their roles cannot be removed, and they cannot be assigned to become sheltered English program instructors. There may be a higher upfront cost in creating a sheltered English program even though it is cheaper than a pull-out or push-in model. The ELL specialist that leads a class in a sheltered English program will need to be able to teach additional subjects including science, history, and mathematics (Hanover Research, 2015).

Immersion Program

Immersion classes only use English, and there is no explicit English language support. The teacher is responsible for supporting the specific needs of ELL students in the classroom. The teacher can provide differentiation, but English skills are designed to be acquired through the content. This requires teachers to be knowledgeable about ELLs and specialized teaching strategies.

The American Institute for Research conducted a cognitive research study in 2016 that showed students are able to learn better through practical experiences and when given opportunities to solve real-life problems, as opposed to traditional didactic teaching models. Instead of focusing on grammar, students lead their own learning to make sense of the world. Through their interactions and carefully scaffolded lessons, ELL students will develop their English proficiency as a native student will. Wood and colleagues (1976, p. 90) describes scaffolding as a procedure "that enables a child or novice to solve a task or achieve a goal that would be beyond his unassisted efforts." Scaffolding consists of a teacher developing lessons where the students are provided challenging content that creates enough stress to motivate students but not too much where students become frustrated to the point where they are not receptive to learning. Support can then be lessened as students become more independent (Hanover Research, 2015).

ELL students from kindergarten through third grade who received English immersion produced dramatic positive results in English proficiency, but after fourth grade, ELL students' performance fell below the 50th percentile (Thomas & Collier, 1997). English immersion did not produce similar results due to the rigorous academic demands of the curriculum. Native English speakers are able to continue to make

average gains while ELL students are not able to make the same gains. Immersion programs create an achievement gap between native-English and second language speakers after the fourth grade.

Assessment of English Proficiency

Assessments

Wiggins and McTighe (2005) suggest in *Understanding by Design* that assessments are a collection of evidence that can show that students have achieved the desired results (2005). Assessments provide a partial picture of a student's learning at the time of assessment. Understanding what the final expectations are first and then selecting the assessment that will accurately measure the results or achievement. By beginning with the target English language proficiency benchmarks, assessments that best measure how a student can demonstrate their understanding will be the ideal method of assessing ELL proficiency level.

Traditional assessments provide a limited number of answer choices. This is generally not well designed with inherent flaws for regular education students, but are rarely designed for ELLs. Assessments explicitly designed for ELLs, still have guessing error factors but they tend to provide more valid and reliable assessment information. Traditional assessments also cause high levels of anxiety for students who are not confident with a language (Lenski, 2007). Paper tests lack real-world connection which adds to the stress. This is a greater issue for a student who is challenged at each question they must read and then read from a list of possible answers. With this approach, one domain of language is assessed only to have a student have high stress and possibly quit

before completing the test. ELL support teachers consider these factors in selecting the appropriate assessment.

An ELL support program must also be conducive to learning. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943) shows, students must feel safe and loved before they will be in an emotional state to be receptive to learning. Without a support program, students will be exposed to a high amount of stress and will not be within their Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1978). The Zone of Proximal Development is described as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86).

English support must provide a scaffolded approach at learning that allows students to understand the content and the language of instruction while considering the area at which they are ready to learn (Hanover Research, 2015). Assessments must provide valid and reliable results. For this to occur, assessments must not cause unnecessary anxiety as it will affect the data collected. Each test that is administered must be conducted in the same manner so that the data is equal for each student taking the test, regardless of the teacher, environment, or delivery method. The data can then be used to monitor growth to determine the most successful English support program.

Measuring Language Proficiency

There are many ways to understand and to measure proficiency in English. The ultimate goal of acquiring a second language is to be equal to a native speaker (Collier, 1995a). Being proficient in a language is the ability to use that language naturally for

real-world purposes. Measuring language proficiency can be measured in multiple ways. In addition, each of the domains of English must be assessed separately.

Proficiency guidelines describe characteristics of proficiency in four different domains: speaking, writing, reading, and listening. ELL students need to construct meaning from oral and written language as well as to express complex ideas and information (Collier, 1995a). To achieve this goal, students must process and produce proficient English within all four domains to be successful in an academic environment. ELL students may show strengths in one domain and weakness in another. Each domain is equally important, and the development of one domain promotes learning in another.

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (2012) created guidelines that divide the stages of language proficiency into four main levels (Distinguished, Superior, Advanced, Intermediate, and Novice). The first three levels are each subdivided into three sublevels (Low, Mid, and High). Descriptions for each domain list what individuals can do with language in real-world situations during a natural and non-rehearsed context. Proficiency levels can be applied to each domain or as an overall average of all four domains. Determining a student's English level of proficiency is an average of all four domains.

Table 2 <i>ACTFL Proficiency Levels</i>	
ACTFL Level	Language Function
Distinguished	Can reflect on a wide range of global issues and highly abstract concepts, use persuasive hypothetical discourse, and tailor language to a variety of audiences.
Superior	Can support opinion, hypothesize, discuss topics concretely and abstractly, and handle a linguistically unfamiliar situation.

Advanced High	Can narrate and describe in all major time frames and handle a situation with a complication.
Advanced Mid	
Advanced Low	
Intermediate High	Can create with language, ask and answer simple questions on familiar topics, and handle a simple situation or transaction.
Intermediate Mid	
Intermediate Low	
Novice High	Can communicate with formulaic and rote utterances, lists, and phrases.
Novice Mid	
Novice Low	

Transitioning from one phase to the next phase is the process of becoming more proficient in English (Collier, 1987). The rate each student transitions varies and every student will undergo the process differently. The transition will depend on several factors which include the language being studied, first-language, exposure, and support contact time. The rate of movement is not consistent and may take longer to transition from one stage than another. The rate of movement from one phase to the next phases is the measurement of growth. Growth data can provide approximate data to create a framework for English support.

Teacher Administered Assessments

The World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA) International School Consortium, a member network of more than 400 accredited international schools, adopted research-based standards and assessments to measure English language proficiency (WIDA Consortium, 2007). This extension from the American model that began as a result of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2012 aims to create inclusive programs and focuses on what multilingual students can do. Similar to the AFCL guidelines, proficiency is aligned with specific standards at each grade level with “can do” statements for each of the five phases: Entering, Emerging, Developing, Expanding,

and Bridging. The sixth stage is when a student has mastered all of the “can do” descriptors in the fifth phase of bridging.

WIDA offers an assessment for ELL students in primary and secondary school. The assessment can be administered at any time to predict a student's language proficiency. Students demonstrate their proficiency in each of the four domains of English through a separate test administered in a face-to-face interview or on paper. The Speaking test is individually administered while the Reading, Writing and Listening tests can be administered individually or in small groups with the WIDA MODEL (Measure of Developing English Language) Paper assessment. The total time of testing is approximately 100 minutes.

By the end of the tests, the assessments can provide data about what students have mastered and where students are ready to learn. This data is also used to determine the language proficiency level of a student. The language proficiency level is used to determine if a student is ready to exit an English support program or what additional support they require.

To conduct a WIDA MODEL assessment, the proctor must complete training. Even with training and guidelines, there may be differences in how the test is administered or interpreted. A face-to-face interview may cause anxiety for the student which results in poor performance. There may be issues with the reliability of a face-to-face assessment. As with any assessment, it only provides a snapshot of the child's ability at the time of testing. Multiple snapshots are required to create a complete picture of a student's language proficiency (Chappuis, 2005).

The rate at which a student moves from one phase to the next demonstrates growth in language proficiency. Also, the amount of time an ELL takes to exit an English support program as a proficient user can demonstrate effectiveness. These two data points can be used to describe the effectiveness of each type of English support program.

Computerized Adaptive Testing

Computerized adaptive testing (CAT) can adapt to the student's ability as they answer questions correctly or incorrectly. CAT provides many benefits including a 50%-90% reduction in test length, increased student engagement and motivation, and better scoring (Weiss, 2011). With the test's ability to adapt to each test taker, no student is faced with questions too difficult or too easy. This provides increased motivation and reduces test fatigue which will be beneficial for ELL students. Accurate scoring is provided immediately on a private basis for each student. This allows ELLs to receive timely and specific feedback, one of the most powerful influences on student learning and success (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Northwest Evaluation Association's Measures of Academic Progress (MAP) adaptive assessment provides a solution that meets the needs of accurately assessing ELLs (NWEA, 2018). The assessment is personalized by adapting to the level of each student, aligned to English standards, supports accommodations, and provides detailed data on each child. When done at the beginning and the end of a learning timeframe, it can also provide growth data. It can provide a valid and reliable way of testing ELL students to determine their academic growth and the success of their support program.

MAP testing is only able to assess math, reading language usage, and science. Although it will provide a reading level, it does not assess the four domains of English. Instead, the data can be used to determine a student CALP and grade-level readiness. This data is valuable for secondary students who need to meet graduation requirements. ELL students who are to meet the grade-level requirements can demonstrate which English support program offers the most comprehensive results.

Results of the MAP assessments from the beginning and end of the academic year by students in each English support group can be compared to determine each student's academic growth. An average of all the students from each group can be made to determine which group provides the best results in a valid and reliable setting that is easily repeated and administered.

Aptis, a computer-based assessment developed by the British Council, is an accurate and efficient assessment tool to assess a student's English proficiency in all four domains (British Council, 2018). The online assessment has multiple choice and open-ended questions that must be typed or spoken. This requires a human to assess a portion of the test. There are multiple versions of Aptis, including a version designed for secondary-aged students. Questions are designed to reflect everyday activities or BICS. This allows the test to focus on English ability and not content knowledge like the subject tests of MAP.

Computer-based assessments (CBAs) are limited to objective questions. This provides options for students to guess or use test taking strategies such as the process of elimination to determine which choice is correct. CBAs also tend to test the knowledge of a student and not language proficiency. Finally, students may not have computer skills

to complete the test efficiently or experience test fatigues. MAP and APTIS provide two different testing experiences in a computer-based assessment to help minimize these traditionally associated computer-based testing disadvantages.

A triangulated approach to assessments includes multiple data points to make an overall assessment of a student. Triangulation is made up of combined assessments over time from teacher observations, teacher administered assessments, and computerized testing. Including MAP and APTIS in the triangulation will provide data about a student's progress in BICS, CALP, and language proficiency in a valid and reliable manner. ELL students can be assessed at once in large groups at various times of the year to produce data that determines the effectiveness of each type of English support program deployed (Hanover Research, 2015).

CHAPTER III: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Summary

The demographics of international schools in Asia has changed due to globalization and increases in the income rates of families (Hallgarten et al., 2015). Growth in Asian economies has also significantly impacted international schools in Asia and resulted in the highest growth in recent decades (ISC Research, 2018). This has led to an increased demand for international schools since families want to provide the best education possible, expose their child to English, and increase their child's chance of attending a reputable university in the West. Originally established to provide a comparable education for expatriate families serving a short contract, international schools in Asia are now seeing higher enrollment by students from the host country or neighboring countries in the Asia region (ISC Research, 2018). International schools on average are filled with 80% local children and 20% foreigners; a complete reversal of when international schools were first established (Brummitt & Keeling, 2013). This changing population requires international schools to adapt and change the English support programs to address the new needs of students joining the school.

Various models of English support programs are available, and schools are struggling to identify the most effective educational practices to reach the greatest success for all learners (Collier, 1995a). Based on the review of literature, a sheltered English program offers the most significant benefits and success for secondary school ELL students entering an international school. According to Hanover Research (2015), sheltered English support programs is the popular model to support ELLs since it can be incorporated into many school environments. The goals of a sheltered English program

are to immerse ELLs into an academic English learning environment that applies effective ELL strategies for all core subject areas, including math, science, and social studies. Specific support strategies can be embedded into accommodations, planning, and assessments for a class without additional planning. Furthermore, differentiation can still occur, but be more specific since all of the students are at a similar low level of English proficiency. Upon exit from the sheltered English program, students will become independent users of academic language and be able to engage with grade-level content while becoming proficient English users among native English speaking peers.

A sheltered English program provides a highly qualified teacher that is specialized in delivering subject content and English language acquisition strategies. The quality of teaching and instruction for each English support program is a crucial factor for determining which program offers more opportunities for faster and more comprehensive growth. Research conducted has shown that effective teachers are the most important factor contributing to student achievement and students with effective teachers significantly outperformed comparable students (Rice, 2003). Dedicated educators that are experienced with teaching ELLs and apply effective learning strategies during subject content will create the most academic success. Not all teachers are equipped with the necessary skills to teach English language and language acquisition skills for ELL students (Education Commission of the States, 2014).

With ELL push-in and pull-out English support programs, teachers must collaborate with the English support teacher. More time must be dedicated within the work day for planning. This places a burden on teachers in the mainstream and affects the overall dynamic of the class. By creating a sheltered English program, specialist

teachers are dedicated to supporting a medium-size cohort of ELL students. This allows mainstream teachers to focus their teaching during regular working hours with a full class of students (Hanover Research, 2015).

Students in the mainstream classroom must be able to collaborate with peers within their classes that include native English speakers, fully bilingual, or attendees of international schools since primary school. English support programs at international schools in Asia were modeled after American public schools where ELLs represent a small percentage of students in the classroom (Powell & Powell, 2016). ELL students were once the minority in international school classrooms as well but are now becoming the majority (ISC Research, 2018a). As the demographics of international school shifts to include more ELL students than native English-speaking students, a sheltered English program creates an environment where students can participate in peer-learning.

In addition to language needs, the new population of students has a different educational pathway. International schools in Asia originally provided educational services for students that spent a few years before transitioning back to their home country. Some students would also spend their last few years of education before returning to attend university in their home country. New students from the host country and the Asia region are now spending longer times at the school and with graduation plans that vary (Bunnell, 2019).

The International Baccalaureate (IB) curriculum that is being adopted by more and more international schools modifies the curriculum to support the diverse needs of the student population (IBO, 2017). However, highly qualified teachers from the U.S., Canada, England, and Australia are still sought-after due to teacher qualifications being a

primary concern of parents (Hallgarten et al., 2015). By recruiting overseas, international schools have teachers who are unfamiliar with the international setting and high ELL student populations. Many of these teachers have minimal experience with ELL students. A sheltered English program provides a supportive learning environment by qualified teachers and allows the mainstream classroom teachers not to become stressed with additional planning (Hanover Research, 2015). ELL students will be able to join in once their English proficiency is high enough.

Language is developed early in life through an unconscious process that allows us to interact with the world and each other (Piaget, 1936). Our first language is also used to develop our intelligence which can be used later to acquire a second-language (Cummins, 1992). During each developmental stage, our ability to learn a language has unique considerations (Piaget, 1936). Based on the developmental stage of a secondary student, a sheltered English support program will support developing English proficiency in the most effective manner. Secondary students have six or fewer years before graduation to acquire their academic language which requires immediate and intensive support. This will allow students to develop the English necessary as quickly as possible to understand the content and meet the graduation requirements (Hanover Research, 2015).

Acquiring a second language requires a different process than acquiring a first language. Language 1 (L1) academic skills, literacy skills, concepts, and content knowledge will transfer to learning Language 2 (L2) (Cummins, 1992). International secondary students transferring to an international school in Asia will not have the opportunity to continue to enhance the L1. Maintaining L1 is necessary to support the

learning of L2 (Collier, 1995a). Although there is not a finite amount of space for either language, both will contribute to enhancing a student's intelligence. Within an international school, secondary students will require support to achieve proficiency in the language of instruction and may eventually become bilingual or multilingual.

International schools that are accepting ELL students from around the world will benefit from a sheltered English support program that provides a learning environment that allows students to develop both L1 and L2. By acquiring two languages, ELL students have the opportunity to become bilingual, a skill that supports improved academic achievement and future advantages in the global economy.

First and second language development is a lifelong process that occurs in stages (Collier, 1995a). Students learning English will progress through two phases: developing conversational skills and then developing academic language. As they become more proficient, students will be able to transfer to the second phase so that they can participate in an academic setting. The language and vocabulary necessary during the second phase are more complex, and the language required is dependent on the subjects. During secondary school, students are developing higher order thinking and new subject content. A sheltered English program allows ELL students to complete these two tasks while learning English, the language of instruction. This English support program nurtures the transition from one phase to the next.

Within a sheltered English program, individualized lessons and differentiated instructions provide a supportive environment to learn. Hansen-Thomas (2008) highlights the objective of a sheltered English program as being "designed to provide second language learners with the same high-quality, academically challenging content

that native English speakers receive” (p. 166). It also provides a better opportunity for formative assessments which enables teachers to learn how students are progressing.

With a classroom that is less varied in English levels, observing students can be more focused on the general needs of the class. The program is able to support the needs of ELL students to meet the rigorous demand of academic standards while also improving English proficiency.

A sheltered program allows for flexible grouping of ELLs which allows a cost-effective method for international schools to allocate resources to hire enough teachers for a specific number of classes. Class size can still remain smaller than a mainstream class, but more ELL students can be supported at once within a sheltered program.

Within this homogenous grouping, students can build friendships and relationships that support peer learning. Specialized teachers have more options for differentiation beyond grouping by language ability and can provide more personalization. Students receive instruction and content to meet their ability with teaching strategies for ELL students (Hanover Research, 2015).

The sheltered English program has a learning environment that is reflective of the students. The environment can be challenging, relevant, differentiated and collaborative for ELL students. The classroom can support deeper learning with ELL students contributing to the environment with their learning artifacts combined with supportive resources provided by the teacher. This combination allows for a learning environment that is catered to the needs of ELL secondary students. Students will feel comfortable and safe to substantive decisions together to complete interdependent work during the collaborative student interactions within a sheltered program. The safe environment is

designed for them, with tailored instruction to meet their specific needs, and among a group of peers with an adequate amount of stress that allows for optimal learning (Hanover Research, 2015).

A sheltered English program also allows for active parent-school partnerships. Since the classroom shares the unique goal of English language acquisition, the teacher is able to provide consistent newsletter and advice during normal planning hours. This allows the teacher to extend the amount of support ELL students receive. Sheltered English programs promote active parent partnerships that focus on English language acquisition without adding additional planning time (Lindholm, 1990).

Triangulated assessments can confirm the benefits of a sheltered English program. These assessments can also be used to determine student's growth and ability to exit the English support program to join the mainstream as an independent learner. Triangulated assessment uses multiple data points from various sources to build a complete picture of a student's language proficiency (Lenski, 2007). An overall proficiency score is used to determine if a student is eligible to exit the program. However, assessments of reading, writing, listening, and speaking individual domains of English can be used to personalize learning for each student in a sheltered English program (Hanover Research, 2015).

Results of the Measurement of Academic Progress (MAP) computer-adaptive assessments can be administered at the beginning and end of the academic year by students in each English support group and these can be compared to determine each student's academic growth. It provides a comprehensive assessment for a large group and can be easily compared to students in the mainstream (NWEA, 2018). APTIS, a computer-based assessment that is graded by humans, is an accurate and efficient

assessment tool that assesses a student's English proficiency in all four domains with open-ended conversational questions. Questions are designed to reflect everyday activities or BICS. This allows the test to focus on English ability and not content knowledge like the subject tests of MAP (British Council, 2018). A combination of the two assessments provides a fast and reliable method to assess a large number of students. A triangulated approach also includes teacher observations and summative assessments. Assessments will be used to monitor the success of the program, monitor student growth, compare the ability to students in the mainstream for exiting students, and to support personalized learning in the sheltered English program (Hanover Research, 2015).

Developing proficiency in a language goes beyond learning the grammar of the language. For a student to be successful in an international school, they must first learn to be socially functional in a new culture and country (Collier, 1995a). A sheltered English program provides an environment where students feel encouraged to take risks and ask questions while gaining insight into the cultures in order to develop intercultural communication skills with similar peers. A sheltered English program provides a controlled environment with better scaffolding compared to other English support programs. ELL students will not become overwhelmed and stressed with the amount of change and learning required to be socially and academically able to participate in the classroom. As they develop English, they are also developing abilities to critically analyze and appreciate ideas, artistic works, and other cultural productions in and through the language they are studying (Hanover Research, 2018).

Research suggests that sheltered immersion is effective at developing students' English proficiency from the CALP phases to the BICS phases. Students receive

academic content in context while developing English authentically by a specialized teacher that applies the most effective teaching strategies. Sheltered English instruction promotes activity-based learning where students engage in collaboration and critical thinking skills in a scaffolded approach that new students require. Effective collaboration among students is critical for language acquisition (Collier, 1995a). This English support program does not cause a burden on mainstream teachers, outsource content instruction to English support specialists or interrupt lessons. Conducting triangulated assessment while ELL students are in the sheltered English program will monitor growth and determine the appropriate time a student may exit the program and join the mainstream classroom. The sheltered English program supports Collier (1995a) conceptual model by providing ELL students with a socioculturally supportive learning environment that is supportive of L1 while providing access to academic and cognitive development. It is a learning environment that allows ELL students to simultaneously learn English while also learning grade-appropriate content to become proficient English users who meet the requirements of graduation and to develop bilingual abilities.

Professional Application

International schools in Asia that are seeing higher enrollment numbers from within the country and the region would benefit by creating a sheltered English program. Teachers hired from overseas will not be faced with a high majority of ELL students that are also trying to adapt to the change in culture. Instead, specialist teachers can focus on providing intensive English support for core subjects for a class of ELL students.

Secondary school ELL students have a limited time to develop English, the target language of instruction, to meet the graduation requirements. A sheltered English

program provides a safe and supportive learning environment where students are able to learn from their peers and a specialized English language acquisition teacher that also supports learning subject content.

Early exposure to English immersion will lead to the best academic outcome (Hanover Research, 2015). It is important to note, however, that ELLs attending a sheltered English program do not close the achievement gap after reclassification and placement into the mainstream. They must receive consistent, intensive English instruction to increase proficiency levels to ensure their academic success after exiting the program.

Other international schools around the world may find a sheltered English program a better English language support program. International schools that have a similar demographic of high ELLs and teachers with limited ELL experience will have similar needs.

Over the last ten years, I have worked at four different international schools in four different countries in Asia. Each applied the IB curriculum framework through different approaches. The first international school used the United States Common Core English language acquisition standards with push-in and pull-out support English support programs. The second international school used a full-immersion in-house developed curriculum with no English support programs. The third international school used a bilingual immersion program that, depending on a student's WIDA phase, applied the United States American Education Reaches Out (AERO) or the California English Language Development (CA ELD) Standards with limited push-in support for specific students. The fourth and current school uses a combination of Western curriculums with

pull-out, push-in, and a newly implemented sheltered English program. All four schools have had a significant change in demographics of student population despite the difference in approaches, community, and location.

Changing demographics caused revisions in admission processes, marketing, and school environment at each of the international schools. However, support systems remained the same and were a template based on the United States English support programs. To remain competitive, international schools changed admission policies to accommodate the increase of ELL students. This included English requirements to enter the school and the amount of ELL students allowed in each classroom. As the increase occurred, homeroom teachers and English support specialists have experienced pressure accommodating ELL students.

My entire teaching career has been devoted to working at international schools in Asia, supporting ELL students. The frustrations on the part of highly qualified and experienced teachers from the West was explicitly noticeable to me. They felt unprepared and overwhelmed in delivering quality instruction in classrooms with a high percentage of ELL students. One teacher attempted to refer 20 of her 24 students to English support. English support teachers felt a similar experience since their small groups became significantly more substantial. All educators are expected to make the same academic progress despite greater challenges placed on them.

Pull-out and push-in English support programs have remained a consistent approach in supporting ELL students. However, during data-driven dialogues at my current international school, our team noticed students did not make the necessary English growth necessary by the start of high school. Since ELL students entered their

secondary education at various times, they were not provided sufficient time to make the English proficiency growth and possessed insufficient academic language necessary to meet the IB diploma and graduation requirements.

Developing English proficiency is a necessary instructional consideration that needs to be embedded in international schools in Asia. ELLs must learn English while also learning new challenging content. This difficult process becomes more difficult when students do not have an opportunity to continue to improve their first-language. A need for intensive English support that is developed for the international community is necessary. A newly instituted sheltered English program at my current school, which is still being enhanced, has already demonstrated that it is a more effective support program for newly admitted ELL secondary students to acquire English and content knowledge within the necessary timeframe. As the program is improved, the results are expected to improve as well. International schools must meet the challenges and needs of the new demographic so that all students have a complete educational pathway that leads to successful graduation and being fully prepared for adult life.

Limitations of the Research

More research needs to be conducted to provide information about the effectiveness of each type of English support program. English language proficiency growth should be compared over time as the student grows during the program and after they transition into the mainstream. The length of a complete study should, therefore, be about five years.

This research focuses on Type A and Type B international schools but does not see it as two distinct groups. Instead, it is a changing process due to demographic shifts in

student enrolment. Type C is a relatively new style of international school that includes bilingual curriculums. Type C international schools are not included in this review, and additional research would need to be conducted to see if a sheltered English program would be beneficial for that setting. Type C international schools have a range of curriculum styles and approaches to learning that make it difficult to establish the school as a legitimate international school (Scott, 2014) and was removed from this study for that reason.

Similar research should also be conducted at various international schools in the Asia region to determine if the sheltered English program is effective in all countries. Although international schools in Asia face similar challenges due to changing demographics, they also have unique communities. The effectiveness of the sheltered English program can then be compared to other English support programs.

Each international school is different and can vary greatly. An international school's curriculum may dictate a preferred support program. This study only looks at international schools using the IB curriculum. The demographics will also be different at each school. Some international schools will have a larger population of native English students than others which would provide more opportunity for students to use English naturally. Therefore, the most effective support system may be for different schools.

Measurement of academic growth is difficult to assess. Depending on a school's curriculum, success may be determined differently. Additional measurements would be beneficial in providing a recommendation of support programs that meet the needs of various types of programs. Second-language academic growth may occur at varying rates if an ELL does not have support for their native language. A host country's

students will not have this trouble, but ELL students from another country in Asia will have limited support in their native language.

Research of bilingual immersion programs has shown the greatest student performance, and students typically score higher in all subject areas after several years in the program (Collier, 1995a). This review does not include a bilingual curriculum although international schools have adopted and merged it with US, UK, and IB curriculums. Bilingual immersion schools are popular among the Type C schools (Scott, 2014). Bilingual programs support L1 and L2 language proficiency and academic content knowledge in both languages. Bilingual immersion was the only program that assists students to fully reach the 50th percentile or higher in both L1 and L2 in all subjects (Hanover Research, 2015).

Implications for Future Research

More research needs to be conducted to provide information about bilingual and multi-lingual students learning English. Some of the ELL students in international school settings can understand additional languages. Although these students show strong language and international mindedness skills that are desired in the international school curriculum, they are included in the ELL English support programs. Understanding this demographic subset would provide additional insight into developing effective language support programs and language policies in school.

Teachers should not assume that ELL students who have a high proficiency in one domain will have similar academic language proficiency. If teachers do not consider the second-language development factors, students may be mislabeled as exhibiting special educational needs or behavioral problems. The non-native speakers who have

successfully exited from ELL support programs are still in the process of developing academic English that is equivalent to native English speakers.

Conclusion

As the community within an international school in Asia includes more ELL students the English support program structure will need to meet their needs in the most effective manner possible instead of relying on models developed for the United States. Learning English takes time, and secondary students will need to complete this challenging task while meeting the standards of the curriculum to graduate. Based on the review of literature and research, a sheltered English immersion program offers the greatest opportunity to improve English proficiency while learning necessary content that is equivalent to students in the mainstream classrooms. This English support program houses the students in a safe environment with a community of learners who have a similar objective. While a certified ELL teacher is able to deliver differentiated and personalized content through the latest English language acquisition approaches, peers are able to work collaboratively and to support each other's learning. With the success of an effective ELL support program, ELL students have the ability to transfer from needing support to becoming leaders that are bilingual speakers, a sought-after communication skill for the globally connected world that values international mindedness.

References

- American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages. (2012). *ACTFL proficiency guidelines 2012*. Retrieved from http://www.actfl.org/sites/default/files/pdfs/public/ACTFLProficiencyGuidelines2012_FINAL.pdf
- Ayers, W. (1993). *To teach: The journey of a teacher*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Baker, D. L., Burns, D., Kame'enui, E. J., Smolkowski, K., & Baker, S. K. (2016). Does supplemental instruction support the transition from Spanish to English reading instruction for first-grade English learners at risk of reading difficulties? *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 39(4), 226-239. doi:10.1177/0731948715616757
- Bates, R. (2011). *Schooling internationally: Globalisation, internationalisation, and the future of international schools*. London: Routledge.
- Bethel University. (2008). *Graduate education Master's thesis/project handbook*. Retrieved from <https://www.bethel.edu/academic-affairs/caps-sem-gs-academic-affairs/grad-ed-thesis-handbook.pdf>
- Boud, D. (2001). Introduction: Making the move to peer learning. In D. Boud, R. Cohen & J. Sampson (Eds.), *Peer Learning In Higher Education: Learning From And With Each Other* (pp. 1- 17). London: Kogan Page.
- British Council. (2018). *APTIS candidate guide*. Retrieved from https://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/aptis_candidate_guide-web.pdf
- Brookfield, S. (2015). *Becoming a critically reflective teacher*. Somerset: John Wiley & Sons, Incorporated.

- Brookfield, S. (1987). *Developing critical thinkers*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Brummitt, N., & Keeling, A. (2013). Charting the growth of international schools. *International Education and Schools: Moving Beyond the First 40 Years*. Bloomsbury Academic, London, 25-36.
- Bunnell, T. (2014). *The Changing Landscape of International Schooling: Implications for Theory and Practice*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Bunnell, T. (2018). Social media comment on leaders in international schools: The causes of negative comments and the implications for leadership practices. *Peabody Journal of Education*. 93(5), 551-564. doi:10.1080/14767724.2015.1068163
- Bunnell, T. (2019). *International schooling and education in the 'new era': Emerging issues*. University of Bath, UK: Emerald Publishing Limited.
- Bunnell, T., Fertig, M., & James, C. (2016). *What is 'international' about international schools? An institutional legitimacy perspective*. doi:10.13140/RG.2.1.3819.6884.
- Chamot, A. U. (1995). Implementing the cognitive academic language learning approach: CALLA in Arlington, Virginia. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 19(3-4), 379-394. doi:10.1080/15235882.1995.10162680
- Chappuis, J. (2015). *Seven strategies of assessment for learning*. Boston: Pearson.
- Coffey, A. (2013). Relationships: The key to successful transition from primary to secondary school? *Improving Schools*, 16(3), 261-271. doi:10.1177/1365480213505181
- Collier, V. P. (1987) How long? A synthesis of research on academic achievement in a second language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23(3), 509. doi:10.2307/3586923

- Collier, V. P. (1995a). *Acquiring a second language for school*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition. [Electronic version: <http://www.ncela.gwu.edu>].
- Collier, V. P. (1995b). *Promoting academic success for ESL students: Understanding second language acquisition for school*. Woodside, NY: Bastos Educational Publications.
- Cook, H. G., Boals, T., & Lundberg, T. (2011). Academic achievement for English learners: What can we reasonably expect? *Phi Delta Kappan*, 93(3), 66–69. doi:10.1177/0031721711109300316
- Coomer, N. M. (2011). Returns to bilingualism in the nursing labor market—Demand or ability? *The Journal of Socio-Economics*, 40(3), 274-284.
- Council of Chief State School Officers (2012). *Framework for English language proficiency development standards corresponding to the Common Core State Standards and the Next Generation Science Standards*. Washington, DC: CCSSO.
- Cummins, J. (1976). The Influence of Bilingualism on Cognitive Growth: A Synthesis of Research Findings and Explanatory Hypotheses. *Working Papers on Bilingualism*. 9, 1-43.
- Cummins, J. (1980). Psychological assessment of immigrant children: Logic or intuition? *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 1, 97-111.
- Cummins, J. (1984). *Bilingualism and special education: Issues in assessment and pedagogy*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

- Cummins, J. (1992). Bilingual Education and English Immersion: The Ramírez Report in Theoretical Perspective. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 16(1-2), 91-104.
doi:10.1080/15235882.1992.10162630
- Davison, C. (2006). Collaboration between ESL and content teachers: How do we know when we are doing it right? *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 9(4), 454-475. doi:10.2167/beb339.0
- Dearden, J. (2014). *English as a medium of instruction - a growing global phenomenon*. British Council. Retrieved from <https://ora.ox.ac.uk/objects/pubs:605215>
- Debbagh, M., & Jones, W. (2015). Using the TPACK framework to examine technology integration in English language teaching. Paper presented at the *Proceedings of Society for Information Technology & Teacher Education International Conference 2015*, 3121-3126. Retrieved from <https://www.learntechlib.org/p/150436>
- DelliCarpini, M., & Guler, N. (2013). Success with ELLs: Assessing ELL Students in Mainstream Classes: A New Dilemma for the Teachers. *The English Journal*, 102(3), 126-129. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23365388>
- Echevarria, J., Short, D., & Powers, K. (2006). School reform and standards-based education: A model for English-language learners. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 99(4), 195-211. doi:10.3200/JOER.99.4.195-211
- Education Commission of the States. (2014, November). *What ELL training, if any, is required of general classroom teachers?*. Retrieved from <http://ecs.force.com/mbdata/mbquestNB2?rep=ELL1415>

- Fraser, S. (2018 May 23). *The development of international schools in South East Asia*. Retrieved from <https://www.iscresearch.com/blog/default-post-blank-page/~board/news-from-the-ground/post/the-development-of-international-schools-in-south-east-asia>
- García, O. and Wei, L. (2018). *Translanguaging*. In *The Encyclopaedia of Applied Linguistics*, C. A. Chapelle (Ed.). doi:10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal1488
- Goldenberg, C. (2013). Unlocking the research on English learners: What we know--and don't yet know--about Effective Instruction. *American Educator*, 37(2), 4-11.
- Gruber, A. (2019, February). The changing face of admissions. *International School Leader Magazine*, 8-10. Retrieved from <https://www.flipsnack.com/islmagazine/isl-magazine-february-2019.html>
- Hallgarten, J., Tabberer, R., & McCarthy, K. (2015). *3rd culture schools: International schools as creative catalysts for a new global education system*. RSA and ECIS.
- Hanover Research. (2015). *Best practices in inclusive instruction for ELLs*. Retrieved from <https://www.gssaweb.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/04/Best-Practices-in-Inclusive-Instruction-for-ELLS-1.pdf>
- Hansen-Thomas, H. (2008). Sheltered Instruction: Best Practices for ELLs in the Mainstream. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, 44(4), 165-169. doi:10.1080/00228958.2008.10516517
- Hartshorne, J. K. (2018, March 13). Data: A Critical Period for Second Language Acquisition: Evidence from 2/3 Million English Speakers. Retrieved from osf.io/pyb8s

- Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, 77(1), 81-112. doi:10.3102/003465430298487
- International Baccalaureate Organization. (2015). *Education For A Better World*. Retrieved from <https://www.ibo.org/globalassets/digital-toolkit/brochures/corporate-brochure-en.pdf>
- International Baccalaureate Organization. (2016). *Guide To School Authorization: Middle Years Programme*. Retrieved from <https://www.ibo.org/globalassets/publications/become-an-ib-school/myp-guide-to-authorization-en.pdf>
- International Baccalaureate Organization. (2017). *2016-2017 Annual Review*. Retrieved from <https://www.ibo.org/contentassets/9faa0cd4d3eb4c4ab5f239f7342d4547/annual-review-2016-2017-en.pdf>
- ISC Research. (2017). *Inclusion in international schools global survey 2017*.
- ISC Research. (2018a). *The Global Report*.
- ISC Research. (2018a). *ISC Higher Education Report*.
- Kaushanskaya M, Marian V. (2009). The bilingual advantage in novel word learning. *Psychonomic Bulletin and Review*. 16(4), 705–710.
- Keeling, A. (2018, February) Investment in international schools: an expanding market. *Education Investor Global*, 20-21. Retrieved from https://www.iscresearch.com/uploaded/images/Publicity/EIFeb18_Investment_in_international_schools_an_expanding_market.pdf

- Krashen, S. D., & Terrell, T. D. (1983). *The natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*. New York: Pergamon Press.
- Lane, J., & Jones, D. (2016). Inclusion in international schools: Theoretical principles, ethical practices, and consequentialist theories. *Psychology Research*, 6(5), 287-300. doi:10.17265/2159-5542/2016.05.004
- Lenski, S., Ehlers-Zavala, F., Daniel, M., & Xiaoqin, S. (2006). Assessing English-language learners in mainstream classrooms. *Reading Teacher*, 60(1), 24-34. doi:10.1598/RT.60.1.3
- Lindholm, K. (1990). Bilingual Immersion Education: Criteria for Program Development. In A. Padilla, H. Fairchild & C. Valadez (Eds.), *Bilingual Education: Issues and strategies* (pp. 91-105). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED329635.pdf>
- MacDonald, J. (2009). Balancing priorities and measuring success: A triple bottom line framework for international school leaders. *Journal of Research in International Education*, 8(1), 81–98. doi:10.1177/1475240908100682
- Machin, D. (2017). The Great Asian International school gold rush: An economic analysis. *Journal of Research in International Education*, 16(2), 131–146. doi:10.1177/1475240917722276
- Marian V., & Shook A. (2012). The cognitive benefits of being bilingual. *Cerebrum*, 13, 1–12. Retrieved from <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3583091/>
- Marsh, H., Hau, K., & Kong, C. (2000). Late immersion and language of instruction in Hong Kong high schools: Achievement growth in language and nonlanguage

- subjects. *Harvard Educational Review*, 70(3), 302-347.
doi:10.17763/haer.70.3.gm047588386655k5
- Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, 50(4), 370-396. doi:10.1037/h0054346
- Meisel, J. M., Clahsen, H., & Pienemann, M. (1981). On determining developmental stages in natural second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 3(2), 109-135. doi:10.1017/S0272263100004137
- Moughamian, A. C., Rivera, M. O., & Francis, D. J. (2009). *Instructional models and strategies for teaching English language learners*. Portsmouth, NH: RMC Research Corporation, Center on Instruction. Retrieved from
- National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education. (2018). English language learners in public schools. *The Condition of Education*. Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_cgf.asp
- Nikolov, M., & Djigunović, J. (2006). Recent research on age, second language acquisition, and early foreign language learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 26, 234-260. doi:10.1017/S0267190506000122
- NWEA. (2018). Using MAP growth data to inform instruction [PDF file]. Retrieved from <http://info.nwea.org/using-map-growth-data-to-inform-instruction-ebook.html>
- Ofelia, G., & Li, W. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Platt, E., Harper, C., & Mendoza, M. B. (2003). Dueling philosophies: Inclusion or separation for Florida's English language learners? *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(1), 105-133. doi:10.2307/3588467

- Podolsky, A., Kini, T., Bishop, J., & Darling-Hammond, L. (2016). *Solving the teacher shortage: How to attract and retain excellent educators*. Palo Alto, CA: Learning Policy Institute. Retrieved from https://learningpolicyinstitute.org/sites/default/files/product-files/Solving_Teacher_Shortage_Attract_Retain_Educators_REPORT.pdf
- Powell, W., & Powell, O. (2016). The next frontier of inclusion: Re-defining international education one school at a time. *The Journal Of The Association For The Advancement Of International Education*, 43(122), 9-12. Retrieved from https://resources.finalseite.net/images/v1552333734/aaie/aikwe0affzjvyjxopdc/Fall_2016_InterED-_Optimized_Sized.pdf
- Ramirez, A. G., & Stromquist, N. P. (1979). ESL methodology and student language learning in bilingual elementary schools. *TESOL Quarterly*, 13(2), 145-158. doi:10.2307/3586206
- Reeves, J. R. (2006). Secondary teacher attitudes toward including English-language learners in mainstream classrooms. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 99(3), 131-143. doi:10.3200/JOER.99.3.131-143
- Roseberry-McKibbin, C., & Brice, A. (n.d.). Acquiring English as a second language: What's normal, what's not. *American Speech-Language-Hearing Association*. Retrieved from <https://www.asha.org/public/speech/development/easl/>
- Sarason, S. B. (1990). The Predictable Failure of Educational Reform: Can We Change Course before It's Too Late? *The Jossey-Bass Education Series and the Jossey-Bass Social and Behavioral Science Series*.

- Scott, W. (2014). *Institutions and organisations: Ideas, Interests and Identities*. London: Sage.
- Secondary School Admission Testing Board, (2015). *International School Admission Industry*. Princeton, NJ.
- Sharma, Y. (2016, February 24). *Asia drives demand for international schools*. Retrieved from <https://www.bbc.com/news/business-35533953>
- Shoebottom, P. (2009). Academic success for non-native English speakers in English-medium international schools: The role of the secondary ESL department. Retrieved from <http://esl.fis.edu/teachers/support/naldic.pdf>
- Stepanek, J. & Raphael, J. (2010). Creating schools that support success for English language learners. *Lessons Learned*, 1(2), 1-4. Retrieved from <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED519412.pdf>
- Sunrise International Education. (2017). *Trends in Chinese international education: What to expect in 2018* [White paper]. Retrieved from http://www.bartoncarlyle.com/images/resources/Sunrise_-_International_School_White_Paper.pdf
- Thomas, W., & Collier, V. (1997). *School effectiveness for language minority students*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition.
- Thomas, W., & Collier, V. (2002). A national study of school effectiveness for language minority students' long-term academic achievement. Santa Cruz, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence, University of California-Santa Cruz.

- Tomlinson, C. (1999). *The differentiated classroom: Responding to the needs of all learners*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Tomlinson, C., & Eidson, C. (2003). *Differentiation in practice: A resource guide for differentiating curriculum, grades 9-12*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Topping, K. (2009). *Peer assessment, theory into practice*. 48(1), 20-27.
doi:10.1080/00405840802577569
- United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. (2017). A guide for ensuring inclusion and equity in education. Retrieved from
<https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000248254>
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Weiss, D. J. (2011). Better data from better measurements using computerized adaptive testing. *Journal of Methods and Measurement in the Social Sciences*, 6(1).
doi:10.2458/azu_jmmss.v2i1.12351
- WIDA Consortium. (2007). *WIDA English language proficiency standards and resource guide: Prekindergarten-grade 12*. Retrieved from
<https://www.wida.us/standards/eld>
- Wiggins, G. P., & McTighe, J. (2005). *Understanding by design*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Wood, D., Bruner, J., & Ross, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem solving. *Journal of Child Psychology and Child Psychiatry*, 17, 89–100. Wood Communications

Group. (2014). *Business and education in Wisconsin: New expectations, needs, and visions are reshaping a vital, historic relationship*. Madison, WI: Author.