

**An Examination of the Benefits and Limitations of ELL Support Models in Elementary  
Schools: A Review of the Literature**

By

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A Project submitted to the School of Graduate and  
Postdoctoral Studies in partial fulfillment of the  
requirements for the degree of

**Master in Education**

Faculty of Education

Ontario Tech University

Oshawa, Ontario, Canada

August 2022

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## **Project Review Information**

Submitted by: **Grant Esler**

### **Master in Education**

An Examination of the Benefits and Limitations of ELL Support Models in Elementary Schools: A Review of the Literature
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The Project was approved on August 24, 2022 by the following review committee:

#### **Review Committee:**

Research Supervisor: Dr. Allyson Eamer

Second Reader: Dr. Lorayne Roberston

The above review committee determined that the Project is acceptable in form and content and that a satisfactory knowledge of the field was covered by the work submitted. A copy of the Certificate of Approval is available from the School of Graduate and Postdoctoral Studies.

### **Abstract**

This research paper presents a review of the literature within the discourse of English Language Learner (ELL) support at the elementary school level. The paper focuses on three models of support that are widely used in English-medium schools: pull-out support, push-in support, and co-teaching. The number of ELLs is growing in North America, and a deeper understanding of the support models, along with their benefits and limitations, will be useful as schools decide how they will support ELLs. This paper used peer-reviewed articles, dissertations, and public reports dating from 2007 onwards, and found six key themes that were relevant to the discussion of support models: instructional minutes; safe spaces and strong relationships; target language versus content instruction; support from administration; professionalization; and, collaboration. A key finding from this review is that the research base on support models is small, and would benefit from more peer-reviewed studies and a greater variety of perspectives. The research shows that as schools move towards more collaborative models of support, ESL instructors continue to strongly prefer a pull-out model of support due to the challenges of collaboration.

*Keywords:* English Language Learner (ELL); English as a Second Language (ESL) instructor; generalist; pull-out support; push-in support; co-teaching

### **Author's Declaration**

I hereby declare that this project consists of original work of which I have authored. This is a true copy of the work, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my committee.

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### **Acknowledgements**

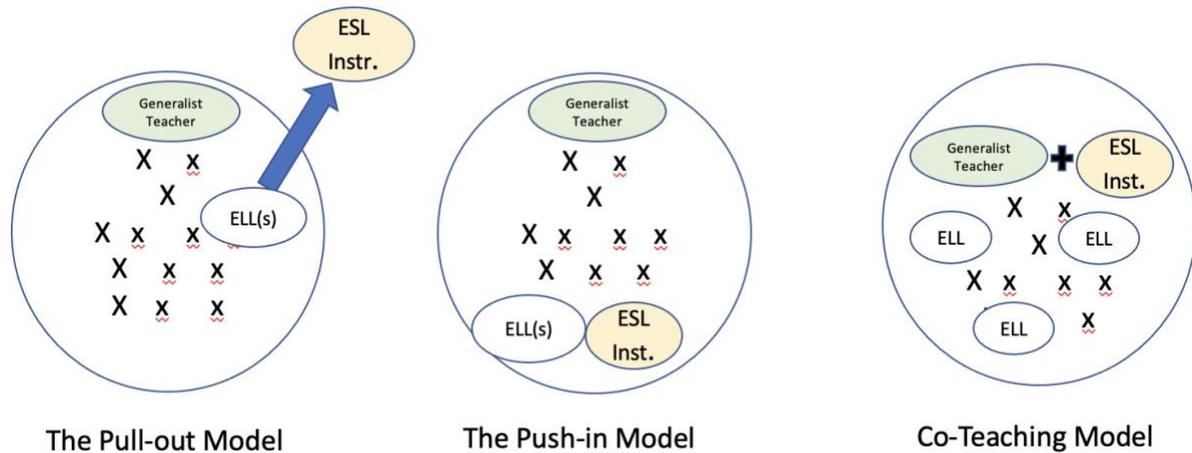
A huge thank you to my insightful advisor, Dr. Allyson Eamer, for all the assistance you have provided. You have taught me so much throughout this process. I never let you off the hook with a short meeting, yet your courtesy never wavered; I enjoyed all our discussions both related and unrelated to the topic at hand. I hope one day we meet beyond the boundaries of synchronous meeting tools. I would also like to thank Dr. Lorayne Robertson who offered to be a second reader in the middle of the summer. Thanks to all my professors at Ontario Tech for your guidance on tasks great and small. Gratitude to my sister Hilary for reading this over, also in the middle of summer. And finally, to my one-in-a-billion wife, Etta, who patiently listened to the excuse, "I have to write my paper", more times than anyone should have to bear.

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## Chapter 1: Introduction

In the 2011 Canadian census, 6.8 million Canadians identified themselves as having an immigrant mother tongue. In 2016, that number had increased by 13% to 7.7 million Canadians whose first language was neither English nor French. Of these Canadians, a substantial majority indicated that they continued to use their mother tongue at home, either fully or partially (Statistics Canada, 2017). This diversity of language speakers is sure to be reflected in the 2021 census, though the data will not be released in time for the benefit of this paper. Nonetheless, the numbers point to a linguistically diverse country that is growing more diverse each year. This diversity is also reflected in the makeup of Canadian schools, where students with many different mother tongues come together to learn. As many of these students do not speak English at home, they are classified as *English Language Learners (ELLs)* in the school system, and qualify for language support in their schools. The focus of this paper will be on schools where English is the language of instruction. This paper seeks to examine the different models of support that are offered to ELLs by an *English as a Second Language instructor* (referred to in this paper as the *ESL instructor*) at the elementary grade levels. The three models that will be examined are pull-out support, push-in support, and co-teaching. Pull-out support takes place when the ELL is taken out of the classroom to a separate learning area by the ESL instructor for a short period (generally a single class period) during the school day (Billak, 2015). In the push-in model, ESL instructors go into the classroom to work with the ELLs and support them as they learn the curriculum content. The co-teaching model is closely related to push-in support, but stresses strong collaboration between the ESL instructor and the generalist teacher; in addition, a tenet of the co-teaching model is that both teachers will teach to all students in the room, rather than the ESL instructor only working with ELLs. Figure 1 below provides a visual illustration of the three models.

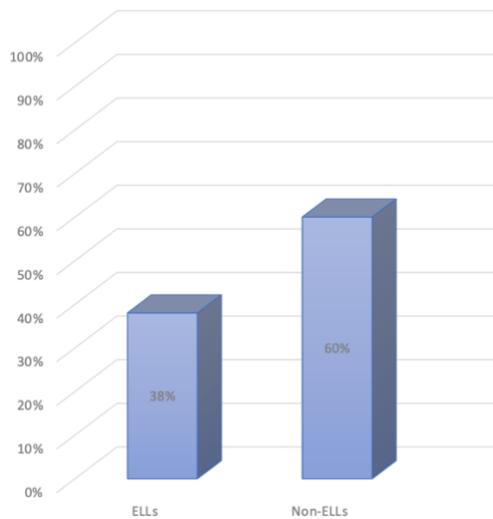
**Figure 1***Three Models of ELL Support*

In each model, an English language instructor provides support to ELLs with the aim of improving students' language ability so that they can thrive in the school environment and beyond.

Worryingly, research has shown that ELLs tend to have lower success rates than non-ELLs as they progress through the school system (Goldenberg, 2020). Much of this research has been completed in the United States, and it shows a substantial achievement gap, along with high dropout rates, for ELLs. Although there is less research on the achievement of ELLs in Canada, recent data also points to troubling trends. A report that examined the Education Quality and Accountability Office's (EQAO) Ontario Secondary School Literacy Test (OSSLT) assessment, a standardized literacy test given annually to Grade 10 students in Ontario, found that, in 2019, 38% of ELLs passed the test compared to 60% of non-ELLs (see Figure 2 below, which I have created using data from the International Dyslexia Association Ontario [IDA], 2021).

**Figure 2**

*Comparison of Pass Rate of ELLs versus Non-ELLs on the 2019 OSSLT Assessment*



Although this paper focusses on research from the K-6 grade levels, the data from high school is very useful in thinking about how supports in early school years can enable ELLs to stay in the system and flourish as they move through their educational journey. The relationship is clearly worth considering, as success at younger ages does not always translate into later academic success. Goldenberg (2020) notes the major jump in literacy expectations that occurs around grades 3 and 4 in which students are expected to read much longer, decontextualized texts, and write with an increased command of syntax, grammar, and vocabulary.

To a gain a better understanding of how to support ELLs so that they are prepared for their journey in schools, this paper aims to explore the following research question:

*What are the advantages and limitations of the support models that are currently being used to provide English language instruction to ELLs?*

This paper uses the wider context of North America, as much of the research on the three models has come out of the United States. The Canadian context will have specific relevance, as it is the goal of the paper to analyze the literature with an eye to understanding which model could be most effective for ELLs in Canadian schools.

A recent report underscores the need for more attention to be given to the ways in which ELLs are supported in schools (Donhoo, 2020). Funded by the Ontario Ministry of Education, Donhoo's (2020) report, *What are we Learning about Supporting English Language Learners in Ontario*, analyzes whether a 2007 policy and procedures document, *ELL Policies and Procedures*, has been effectively implemented. Donhoo found that, 13 years after the original policy, 82% of Ontario School Board Improvement Plans made no mention of English Language Learners. Over those 13 years, the number of ELLs in the province was increasing across all grade levels (IDA, 2021), making the omission of ELLs from board plans even more jarring.

With a growing number of ELLs in districts across Canada and the U.S, and signs indicating a lack of success in schools (Goldenberg, 2020; International Dyslexia Association, 2021), it is clear that effective support is needed. In the North American context, that support takes place under the overarching model of *mainstreaming*. The next section gives a brief history of mainstreaming, and how the support models examined in this paper (pull-out, push-in, and co-teaching) are implemented under the umbrella of mainstreaming.

### **1.1 Mainstreaming**

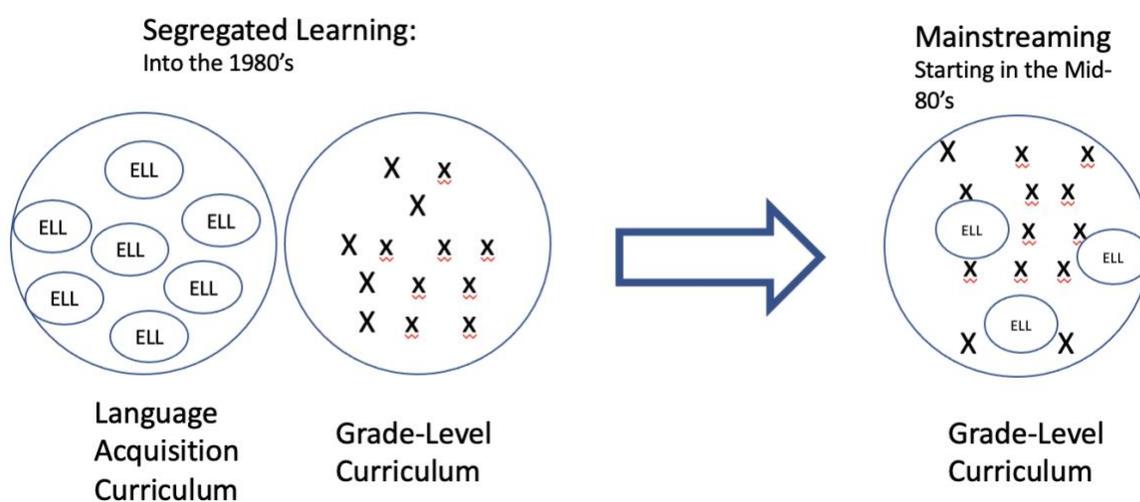
It is useful to give a brief background on the concept of 'mainstreaming' to situate the current discussion of support models. The work of Constant Leung (2016) gives a detailed history of mainstreaming and will be cited throughout this section; although Leung wrote about mainstreaming in the context of England, the move to mainstreaming in North America occurred for the same reasons and within the same time frame.

Until the late 1970's, ELLs were taught in a segregated model in which ELL education took place in separate classrooms, or even in separate schools than their peers. ELLs learned a curriculum that was dedicated to language acquisition; this curriculum differed substantially from the age-level curriculum of their peers who were native English speakers. In the 1980's, a new model, 'mainstreaming', came to be widely adopted (Leung, 2016). In this model, ELLs joined

their age cohort and learned the grade-level curriculum; the idea was that having ELLs in the 'main' classroom would be both socially beneficial (no longer segregated and isolated) and pedagogically beneficial (learning content surrounded by peers who could provide communicative opportunities). Figure 3 below gives a visual representation of the difference between segregated and mainstreamed class:

**Figure 3**

*ELL Learning Models: Segregated vs Mainstreaming*



Leung (2016) noted that the work of Krashen (1982) and Cummins (1984) supported the move to a mainstreaming model. Krashen's (1982) belief that comprehensible input was integral for language development meant that ELLs would make proficiency gains when they were able to interact meaningfully with their peers at language levels that were comprehensible but challenging. Cummins' (1984) argument that Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) took from five to seven years to acquire meant that students needed to be learning academic content alongside their first language peers for an extended period of time, and they needed teachers who could scaffold instruction so that they could succeed academically. Leung (2016) noted that these two researchers were vital in the development of mainstreaming because they showed that a first language (L1) and second language (L2) were acquired through similar

processes, making it a logical leap to place ELLs into the regular stream. Mainstreaming became widely adopted, and continues to be the dominant model decades later (Leung, 2016).

From a language learning standpoint, the key idea behind mainstreaming is that ELLs will acquire language by being surrounded by it: language learning is “deeply and invisibly enmeshed in classroom communication” (Leung, p.164). This content-based acquisition of English is based on the same principles as French Immersion classes in Ontario schools. However, in contrast to segregated models, a dedicated curriculum would not be required for ELLs; instead, they would learn the core curriculum, teachers would adapt as needed, and content and language would be learned simultaneously.

The dominance of the mainstreaming model is reflected in curriculum resource guides such as Ontario’s *Supporting English Language Learners: A Practical Guide for Ontario Educators Grades 1 to 8*, written in 2008 and still in use today. The guide explains that all teachers are expected to be language teachers; that the grade level curriculum should be taught; and that assessments should remain the same but can be adapted as needed. While advice is given for some language adaptations in the guide, the direct instruction of language is not mentioned. It is under the umbrella of mainstreaming that ELLs are supported by the various models that are discussed in this paper. Whether a school board uses pull-out support, push-in support, or co-teaching support, that support takes place for ‘mainstreamed’ students.

## **1.2 Positionality Statement**

My interest in this area of education comes from a background at the elementary school level along with experience teaching English for Academic Purposes and Communications to adults in both Canada and abroad. I also had the opportunity to work with elementary school students in the Japanese public school system for four years and this contributed to my interest in the present topic of study. As an elementary school teacher, I often had ELLs in my classroom, and I was very interested in their educational journeys. As a teacher in the province

of Prince Edward Island, I took for granted that the only method of support for ELLs was the pull-out model, in which students were taken out of the class at different times of the day in order to work on their English language skills with a specialist educator. It did not cross my mind that there were other ways of supporting ELLs. After leaving the elementary system, I began to teach English language to adults for several years, but I always remained curious about the research on ELL instruction. When I returned to school to complete my Master of Education degree, I took courses that connected to my interests in both post-secondary education and elementary education.

As the studies for my Master's degree took place in Ontario, where I grew up and completed my own public schooling, I was interested to learn that the Ontario education system uses the traditional pull-out support for ELLs, but also uses push-in support, and in fact has done so for a long time. This piqued my interest in wanting to read about the different models of ELL support. While doing this reading, I came across a third model, co-teaching, that has been gaining prominence, particularly in the United States. I decided it would be a valuable learning opportunity to read the research on each model and compare their various strengths and weaknesses. I had increased motivation to learn about this area, as I will be moving back to PEI after completing my degree and felt that learning about this topic would provide a solid foundation if I were to pursue future work in this area. I feel that one benefit of not currently being an ESL instructor in the public system is that I am not attached to a particular model. I feel this has supported my ability to remain as impartial as possible while researching the strengths of each model, and to objectively assess which model, according to the research, is the most realistic for school boards given the demands on teachers' time and the availability of resources.

### **1.3 Key Terms**

The key terms identified here are important for understanding the discussion of support models. A definition of each term is provided, along with the reasoning for this usage choice.

**English Language Learner (ELL).** English Language Learners are students “whose first language is a language other than English, or is a variety of English that is significantly different from the variety used for instruction” (Government of Ontario, 2008, p.5). These students qualify for additional support to become proficient English speakers. ELL has been the accepted terminology for some time, but recently MLL (Multi-lingual Learner) and Emergent Bilingual have been offered to emphasize the assets (such as acquired skills and cultural experience/knowledge) that these students bring to a school environment. This paper will use ELL to remain consistent with the literature under discussion, almost all of which employs the term ELL to identify learners.

**ESL Instructor.** This paper uses the term ESL instructor or ESL teacher to refer to the specialist instructor who supports ELLs, either in a pull-out, push-in, or co-teaching model. Typically, an ESL instructor has taken additional or specialized courses in the area of teaching English in the K-12 system. This position is also referred to as an ESOLT or ELL teacher, but this paper will use ESL teacher because it is the most commonly used term in the research, and it is the term used in Canadian curriculum documents. In addition, the term is visually distinct from the acronym ELL which will be used throughout the paper.

**Generalist.** The generalist teacher is the teacher who teaches the curriculum content at the K-6 level. The generalist’s role in assessment can vary depending on the policy of the district. In some situations, the generalist is responsible for assessment of ELLs in all subjects and receives input from the ESL teacher in assessing English language proficiency. In other situations, the generalist assesses all subject areas with the exception of English, which is assessed by the ESL teacher. In the research literature, the generalist is also referred to as classroom teacher or content teacher.

**Pull-out Support.** Pull-out refers to the support model in which ELLs are removed from the classroom for short periods of time (usually for the duration of a class period) multiple times throughout the week to receive language/content support from an ESL teacher (Billak, 2015). In

spite of a lack of specific direction in the number of designated minutes in Ministry or State policy documents, the number of designated minutes typically correlates to the ELL's proficiency level. In the early stages of language instruction, ELLs receive the greatest level of support; ELLs at higher proficiency levels receive less pull-out support. Pull-out has also been used to describe programs that are distinct from mainstreaming where students are pulled out for the entirety of the teaching day (i.e., segregated programming). This paper will use pull-out almost exclusively in the first sense; where it does not, it will explicitly note the secondary usage.

**Push-in Support.** The push-in support model occurs when an ESL teacher joins the ELL or a group of ELLs in their regular classroom. The push-in model requires increased collaboration between the generalist and ESL instructor. The focus of the ESL teacher is working with the ELL(s) on the assigned curriculum tasks. The ESL teacher sits with the ELL(s) and usually stays for the duration of one classroom period (Billak, 2015).

**Co-teaching Support.** The co-teaching model is a form of push-in instruction. Like the push-in model, the ESL teacher joins the regular classroom to support the ELLs with curriculum content. However, the co-teaching model has an increased focus on collaboration between the generalist instructor and the ESL teacher (Bauler & Kang, 2020). In addition, under the co-teaching framework, the ESL instructor is expected to support all of the students in the classroom, and the generalist is expected to support the ELL(s) along with other students. This differs from push-in, where the ESL teacher only works with the ELL(s) and the generalist teaches to the rest of the class. Some research does use the terms push-in and co-teaching interchangeably, but most make a distinction between the two models (Bauler & Kang, 2020; Neumann, 2021). As the author, I take the position that the increased focus on collaboration in the co-teaching model justifies its examination as a separate model.

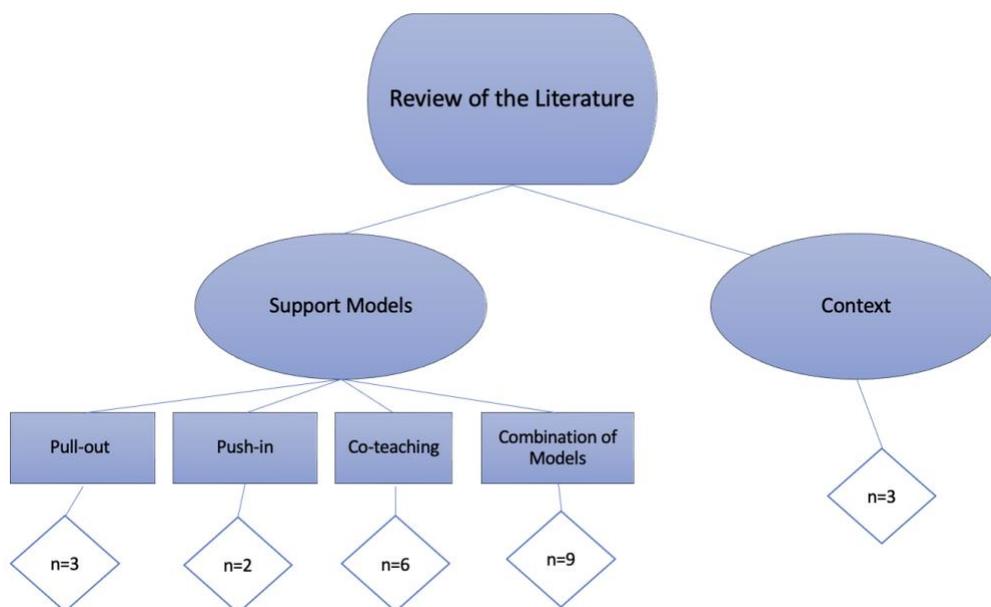
## Chapter 2: Method

Sources for this paper were selected from a variety of peer-reviewed articles, dissertations, literature syntheses, curriculum guides, and reports from governments and education associations. The initial search utilized a variety of databases available on the Ontario Tech University library website. Education Source, ProQuest, and ERIC (Educational Resources Informational Center) via ProQuest were the three primary databases used to find peer-reviewed literature. These searches employed key terms such as 'ELL support elementary', 'ESL support models', 'push-in ELL support', 'pull-out ELL support', 'co-teaching ELL', and 'collaborative ESL instruction'. In addition, Google Scholar was also used for peer-reviewed articles. Articles that focussed on high school ELL students were not included in the review. In order to find relevant dissertations, the library database Dissertations and Theses was utilized along with Google Scholar, which provided access to Capstone projects in addition to dissertations. These theses proved to be valuable sources of information in an area where current peer-reviewed literature was limited. After finding notable initial studies, the reference sections were examined to find additional resources. This method yielded several studies that fit the inclusion criteria. Finally, this paper also used peer-reviewed literature syntheses to find additional information on best practices for teaching ELL.

Using these search methods, 23 articles were found that dated from the years 2007 to 2021. These studies employed qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-method methodologies, but few were longitudinal studies. Appendix A provides a detailed table of all the articles that were found using the search methods listed above, along with notes about each article. Figure 4 below shows the number of articles found that pertain to the various support models, along with the articles that provided context for the topic.

**Figure 4**

*Research Articles Used in the Review of the Literature by Topic and Number*



In addition, the Ontario curriculum guide for supporting ELLs was closely examined to understand the Ministry of Education's guidance on best practices for ELL instruction, and whether the Ministry endorsed a particular support model. Current government and education association reports were utilized, as these provided bigger picture information on the state of ELL education and provided some quantitative data concerning the success of ELLs in specific contexts. Finally, this paper attempted to explore Ontario standardized test data from the Education Quality and Accountability Office (EQAO) but access to files on ELL results was denied as these were only viewable by boards and schools (see Section 4.1 for discussion). This paper was not intended to be a systematic literature review, but rather a comprehensive review of the literature pertaining to support models for ELLs.

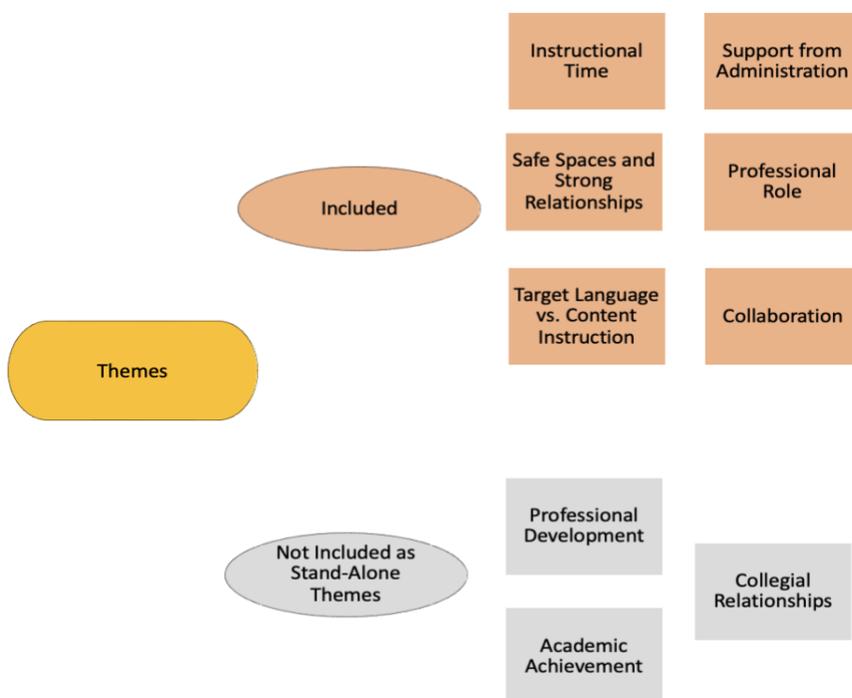
### **Chapter 3: Literature Review**

After a comprehensive review of the sources listed above (see Figure 4), a number of themes became evident in the literature on support models. The analysis of these themes

provides an effective way to present the findings from research. The following chapter will give a review of the literature by examining six themes that permeated the discourse about support models: (1) instructional time (2) safe spaces and strong relationships (3) targeted language versus content learning (4) support from administration (5) professionalization and (6) collaboration. Initially, nine themes emerged from my comprehensive review of the literature; however, after careful consideration and analysis of the literature, I determined that two of the themes had a strong degree of crossover with other themes, and two themes did not have enough of a research base to examine in detail. I decided that a discussion of professional development (PD) could take place in the section on collaboration; similarly, the importance of collegial relationships could be discussed under the theme of collaboration. It was decided that the theme of academic achievement within support models did not have enough of a research base to warrant its own section, as the literature on pull-out support did not include many studies that examined student achievement. Studies that did examine achievement have been included within sections on collaboration and target language vs content instruction. Figure 5 below provides an illustration of the themes that were included as stand-alone, and those that were subsumed under the stand-alone themes.

**Figure 5**

*Final Selection of Themes for Inclusion in Report*



This section will now explore the research related to the six themes identified above.

### 3.1 Instructional Time

One barrier to implementation that affects all support methods (push-in, pull-out, co-teaching) is ‘time-on-task’ with the students. In most school boards, students are given a specific allotment of support minutes; these minutes are dependent on students’ proficiency levels and access to support staff (Penke, 2011). It is very difficult to find specific allotments of minutes in the literature or, for that matter, in district policy guidelines. Penke (2011), writing in an American context, noted that students in her study received 60-360 minutes per week, but did not provide the criteria that determined the specific number of minutes a student would qualify for within that range. It is surprising that the number of allotted minutes is rarely mentioned in the research, as this is a key element of support in any model.

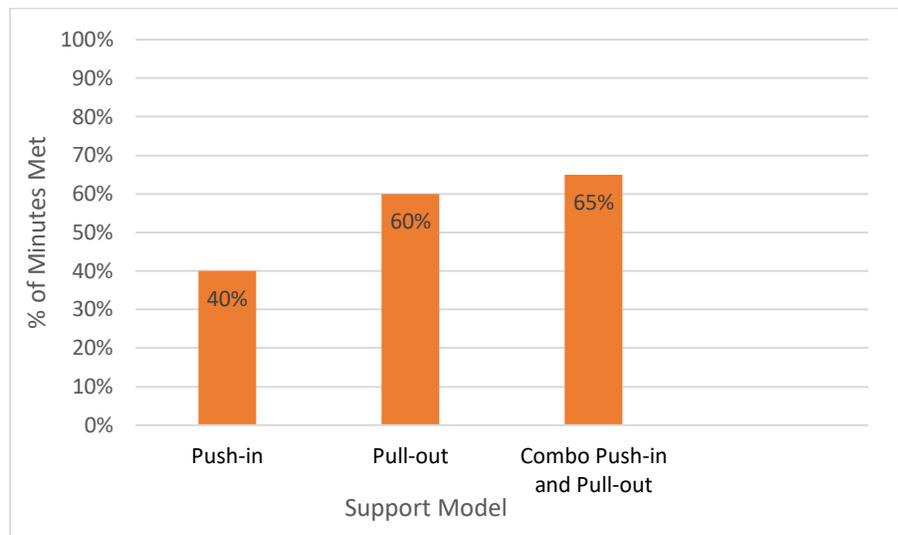
In the context of Ontario, DeJong (2017) reported that individual ELLs receive a minimal amount of instructional support from an ESL teacher, and this has left language instruction in

the hands of the generalist. DeJong (2017) cited a 2013 report by People for Education that found the ratio of ELLs to ESL teachers in schools with 10 or more ELLs was 72:1. People for Education (2015) produced a report two years later that found the ratio had increased to 76:1. It is hard to envision that those 76 students are receiving a large number of support minutes given the ESL teacher's instructional load across all grade levels. Schools with smaller numbers of ELLs in Ontario also face challenges because they do not receive enough funding to hire an ESL teacher. New immigrants to Canada receive the maximum amount of funding, at \$3920 per student (other ELLs receive less); in a school with only a few ELLs, this does not provide a large enough resource pool to provide adequate support (People for Education, 2017).

In any given context, the best case scenario is that ELLs are receiving the full number of minutes to which they are entitled. However, the limited amount of research in this area indicates that it is highly problematic to assume the best case is occurring. One of the few studies to look at this issue in detail is Bell and Baecher's (2017) paper *Opportunity to Teach: Push-In and Pull-Out Models of English Learner Instruction*. Their research, in American schools, found that it is a rare case for ESL instructors to meet the minutes allotted to an ELL in the course of a school month. A multitude of factors work to limit the support time that ESL instructors can provide: ESL instructors may have too large of a workload, or be called to cover other classes; students may need to complete an assessment, or be away on a field trip. This is a systemic problem, as all the methods run into challenges meeting the time allotments. However, according to Bell and Baecher's (2017) data, the push-in method was affected most adversely, as students only received 40% of their allotted minutes over a one-month period (see Figure 6 below). Clearly, pull-out students fared markedly better than push-in students, receiving 60% of their allotted minutes compared to 40%. Students in a combination of push-in/pull-out received 65% of their allotment; it is important to note that neither pull-out nor push-in/pull-out students approached the allotment.

**Figure 6**

*Percentage of Mandated Minutes Provided to ELLs in Push-in, Pull-out, and Combination Models.*



*Note:* This figure represents data, and uses terminology, provided by Bell and Baecher (2017).

One possibility that explains the challenges with push-in is that the model is highly dependent on the ESL instructor arriving at an opportune teaching time, which requires pre-planning and effective scheduling. In the combination model, the ESL instructor can switch to pull-out if, for example, it is a poor time to enter the classroom because only limited language work is being done. The findings show the benefits of a hybrid model that can be more adaptive to different situations that arise in the school day. If it is a bad time to push-in, pull-out may be a viable option; on a day when a student could benefit from increased focus on the classroom content, it may be beneficial to push-in.

Pearson's (2015) study indicated that ESL teachers perceive a strong benefit in having the option to use pull-out to support students. ESL teachers reported that they strongly preferred push-in and co-teaching when they were hybrid models (push-in/pull-out and co-teaching/pull-out) to when they were stand alone (push-in or co-teaching only; Pearson, 2015). In addition to

being preferred by teachers, Bell and Bacher's (2017) work showed that having a pull-out option can have a positive impact on meeting students' support-minute allotments.

In any case, it is clear that there needs to be much more research in this area to understand whether ELLs are receiving the support they need and are entitled to by district policies. A Canadian study that explores the same questions as Bell and Baecher (2017) would be an invaluable contribution to the literature. The limited research available shows a stark contrast between mandated minutes and the actual amount of support that an ELL receives inside or outside the classroom. Importantly, additional research would also show if ESL teachers are being utilized in their role or left to fill other gaps in the school. Debates about particular models are moot if ELL students and ESL teachers are not able to meet, an outcome which definitively hinders the chance for effective learning.

### **3.2 Safe Spaces and Strong Relationships**

Learning all day in an immersion context presents challenges for ELLs. Typically, the students are in an environment in which the content takes place at a higher (often, much higher) language level than the ELLs' assessed proficiency (Thompson, 2019). Such an environment is both mentally straining (Goldenberg, 2020) and intimidating for students who are worried about fitting in and communicating with their peers (Whiting, 2017). These challenges may lead teachers to conclude that the ELLs are deliberately disengaged with the classroom work, when in reality the students may be mentally exhausted or nervous about making mistakes when classroom participation is required.

In the literature on support models (McCLure & Cahnman, 2010; Whiting, 2017; Thompson, 2019; Neumann, 2021), the idea of creating safe spaces and alleviating mental strain is a theme that recurs when discussing how to best serve ELLs. A corollary to the creation of a safe learning space is the discussion of strong relationships between ELLs and their teachers as well as ELLs and their peers, as strong relationships allow ELLs to feel comfortable

in the school culture. In particular, the relationship between the ELLs and their ESL instructor is very impactful in an ELL's school life. The research notes that this relationship can have a powerful effect on an ELL's belief that school is a safe space in which they can explore the language without fear that their mistakes will be judged adversely.

Krashen's (1982) discussion of the "affective filter" is pertinent to the discussion of a safe learning environment. The "affective filter" theory posits that language learners are reluctant to make mistakes while learning because they are worried about how they will be perceived by others in their immediate environment. Krashen hypothesized that this filter starts to form around puberty and becomes stronger in adults, who feel a strong reluctance to make mistakes in front of their peers. While Krashen's theory suggests that students in their early years of primary school may not be as affected by this filter, more recent literature on support models reveals that younger students do indeed worry about how they are perceived in their elementary years (Whiting, 2017; Durham, 2018). Krashen notes that teachers have a key role in building safe classrooms and creating lessons that reduce anxiety for students in what can be a very high anxiety context, and the research on support models explores the ways in which each model can affect a student's feeling of safety.

As noted earlier (see Section 1.1), the push-in model of support builds on the practice of mainstreaming students, as it keeps the students in the classroom space with their peers. Mainstreaming was the answer to the segregated learning model; instead of excluding ELLs by putting them into separate classes, sometimes in separate schools, mainstreaming brought ELLs into the regular classroom space (Leung, 2016). While pull-out for brief periods of the day was initially accepted in the mainstreaming model, this short-term pull-out has come to be seen as problematic for the same reason as whole day pull-out: it takes the students out of the classroom, and is thus exclusionary rather than inclusive (Baecher & Bell, 2017). As Bauler and Kang (2020) have noted, having an ESL instructor push-in allows the ELLs to stay in their classroom. The ESL teacher comes into the ELLs' space and assists them within their regular

classroom, rather than taking the student to a separate area of the school. When students are not separated from their peers, they come to feel that they are truly part of the classroom; and perhaps equally importantly, the classroom teacher and the other students also feel that ELLs are full-time members of the class (Bauler & Kang, 2020).

Although the pull-out model has received criticism for being exclusionary, research pertaining to teacher perceptions of the pull-out model has found that teachers do not see removal from the class as detrimental, but rather as beneficial for providing a superior learning space (McCLure & Cahnman, 2010; Whiting, 2017; Thompson, 2019). In a pull-out model, students go to a classroom that is setup for ESL instruction. The space is often full of learning materials for ELLs, with writing on the walls that utilizes the students' first languages. The goal of these spaces is to create a welcoming environment for ELLs, a home away from their classroom home. The ESL classroom has a specified function, and is tailored to the learners who use the space (Durham, 2018).

In the conclusion to his 2017 paper, one of Whiting's three key findings was that a "safe zone" was the major benefit of pull-out instruction (p.17). Teachers in the study frequently pointed out the benefits of students feeling like they had a home in the school, where they could ask questions without fear of feeling embarrassed and take chances with their use of English. Moreover, this safe space can be a place for a mental reprieve from the heavy cognitive load of the school day. One teacher explained: "I can create a different environment for the students...specifically one of acceptance, appreciation, and where they can have freedom to be themselves and not be worried about comparing themselves to their mainstream peers" (p.17). In addition to being a safe space, the ESL classroom provided a contrast with the busy general classroom in which ESL teachers struggled to quietly communicate with their students while pushing in. Teachers noted that the general classroom space was filled with "noise" and "distractions" (Whiting, p.16) that made it challenging for ESL instructors to give effective support and for ELLs to maintain focus. In the ESL classroom, students worked at their own

language level, in small groups, at a reduced pace, and with lessons that had an individualized focus (Whiting, 2017).

Fearon (2008), drawn to the push-in model for its inclusivity, still felt a “strong need” (p.26) to pull students out of the classroom because she found that ELLs were much more comfortable working in a one-on-one or small group setting. This setting increased ELLs’ confidence and allowed them to practice their fluency skills.

Thompson (2019) interviewed both generalists and ESL instructors and found that the dedicated ESL classroom provided a productive learning space and led to language development gains. Thompson also provided the perspective of students in her study, which was rare to find in the literature about preferred models. Of the five students she interviewed, four preferred the pull-out model (the fifth did not note a preference as they were only instructed in pull-out) because they felt it was a quiet space that supported their learning. One of the students explained, “I like going to the [ESL] classroom because it is quieter and calmer. In the class, the kids talk a lot, and that bothers me, especially when I am try[ing] to do something important” (p.86). The ELLs felt that this environment aided their academic performance; students pointed to improvements in math and English, and also noted the ESL classroom was a much better place to write tests. Though the one student who had only pull-out support did mention that they wished for more push-in instruction, another student receiving both types of support criticized push-in as unreliable because the instructor was often unable to come to class due to other obligations (Thompson, 2019). The small sample size of students in this research is a definite limitation, but the inclusion of students’ perspectives highlights a larger limitation in the research about support models, and that is the tendency for research to focus only on the perceptions of instructors in general, and ESL instructors in particular. This paper takes up this discussion again in Chapter 3.

As mentioned earlier, an added benefit of an individualized learning space is the opportunity for relationship building between the ESL instructor and ELLs, and between ELLs

and their peers. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory posits that a student's cultural background should be seen as an asset, and their identities need to be valued to ensure success in school (Cummins et al., 2015).

Durham (2018) found that a major benefit of pull-out instruction was the relationship built between the ESL instructor and the students. A key component in forming this relationship was the safety of the ESL classroom space; students quickly found comfort in a place that they felt was their own, where they were free to make mistakes and not be as self-conscious about their English language ability/performance. The ESL instructor, by asking ELLs questions about their lives and backgrounds, showed students that their identities were valued. This type of instruction supports the idea of providing students with a culturally responsive pedagogy that utilizes an ELL's existing knowledge base and connects the work that ELLs are doing with their own cultures (Raisinghani, 2019). Durham (2018) noted that the background of ESL instructors, who are often from other places or have worked in other countries, enables strong personal connections that can be difficult to forge in the classroom environment.

As the goal of school policy and curriculum documents is to make students feel like an integral part of the school community (Donhoo, 2020), the relationships that ELLs build in the ESL instruction space (with both their teachers and ELL peers) are often the starting point for gaining comfort in an entirely new school setting. When a school moves to a push-in only model, it can be harder to find the time and space to build this relationship. After moving to a push-in model, a teacher in McLure and Cahnmann's (2010) study stated, "I miss the close relationships I built with my students in the small pull-out setting" (p.118).

Though relationships with peers and ESL instructors are valuable, proponents of the push-in and co-teaching models note that classroom relationships are equally vital for ELLs; if a student is regularly segregated from the class, they may never feel like a true member of the classroom community. Vintan and Gallagher (2018) noted that this increased sense of social inclusion was a valuable outcome of the move towards push-in support. Additionally, Whiting

(2017) found that teachers perceived that the push-in model contributed to some students feeling an increased sense of confidence, and a belief that they were just as capable as other students at completing the classroom assignments. However, the same study noted the push-in model was perceived by teachers to be just as segregating as pull-out. This was due to the strong sense of embarrassment felt by students when the push-in instructor sat with them, and led to students becoming worried about how they were seen by others. The instructors in the study noted that this led to ELLs abstaining from class discussions (Whiting, 2017). This lack of participation points to push-in not creating the comfortable learning space that was the intention of the model.

Co-teaching, when done effectively, can create safe spaces for students because the co-teacher does not work with only the ELL, and therefore does not single out the learner. York-Barr et al. (2007) found that students made social gains in a co-teaching model because they felt a strong connection to the class. Similarly, Bauler and Kang (2020) noted that a co-teaching model that had significant collaboration and allowed for both instructors to take key roles in the classroom led to fully integrated classrooms. In their study, teachers expressed great pride in the manner that ELLs fit into the class, noting that it would be impossible to walk into some classes and know which students were ELLs. In this co-teaching model, both teachers were expected to plan lessons to support ELLs by modifying language and expectations, and both teachers were expected to support ELLs in class (in contrast to the push-in model in which the ESL teacher worked with “their” students; Thompson, 2019). Additionally, Bauler and Kang (2020) found that non-ELL students were encouraged to ask questions of the ESL instructor who was expected to be familiar with classroom content. These co-teaching models resulted in the classroom ideal envisioned in the push-in model, with ELL students working alongside the other students in a safe learning space. The ELLs were comfortable participating because the classroom language had been modified to ensure that they were included in the tasks, and not simply sitting in the mainstream class, left to struggle with overwhelming content (Harper & de

Jong, 2009). The classroom environment in these co-teaching studies remains highly idealized, however. Bauler and Kang (2020) are proponents of the model, but they explicitly note how challenging it is to find the ideal scenario in actual practice. For a classroom to become a safe space for learners where they can nurture strong relationships, teachers need to establish an environment where errors are acceptable, questions can be asked freely, and activities are scaffolded to support learners. In Bauler and Kang's (2020) study, the co-teachers fostered a sense that each ELL was a valued learner, and that the ELL was not the only student learning a language; it is appropriate to strive for this goal, but teacher's perceptions reveal that the resources necessary for the ideal co-teaching model are not always provided. Instead, as Whiting (2017) noted, co-teaching often falls back into a push-in model, in which students do not experience the safe space that is so beneficial for a learner already functioning in a mentally taxing environment.

This section has examined safe spaces and strong relationships. The literature shows that teachers in a pull-out model feel that it is easy, and beneficial, to create this space outside of the classroom. Students also report that the ESL classroom is an effective learning space. ESL teachers who have moved to push-in miss the relationships they formed in the ESL classroom, and struggle to create a safe learning space in the mainstream classroom. If collaborative models are to have success in building safe spaces, teachers will have to work together to create a learning environment where students can make mistakes and can fit in seamlessly during activities. This section has looked at creating an environment for effective learning; the next section will explore the 'what' of learning by examining the debate between targeted language instruction and content learning that comes to the fore in discussions of support models.

### 3.3 Targeted Language or Content-Based Focus

Before mainstreaming became the norm in the mid 1980's, the pedagogical focus was on language instruction (Leung, 2016). Students would learn through targeted instruction (for e.g., phonics, grammar forms, functions, etc.) to increase their language ability, and then move to the regular classroom when they had reached the necessary proficiency. With the move to mainstreaming, it was thought that students would have a better opportunity to learn language in the classroom while simultaneously learning content. This move to mainstreaming moved the focus away from explicit language instruction and brought content to the fore as the access point for acquiring English. Other programs like French immersion in Canada were content based, but these programs differed from the English medium classroom because all the students in French immersion classes were language learners, compared to only a few in the English classroom.

Initially, pull-out remained the predominant method of support within mainstreaming; pull-out was predicated on the idea that ELLs would still have some portion of the day, albeit a shorter one, dedicated to targeted language instruction (also referred to as explicit instruction and direct instruction; Neumann, 2021). However, the pull-out model also came into question, partly again for reasons of inclusion, but also for academic concerns. Poor performance by ELLs on standardized tests was attributed to the students missing key classroom content, and this helped to inspire the move to a push-in support model that would ensure ELLs stayed in the class and engaged with the grade-level curriculum (Harper & de Jong, 2009). The debate about whether targeted learning or content learning best supports language acquisition is a debate that also persists as a theme in the literature about models of support. In general, the research shows that pull-out is more supportive of targeted language instruction, while push-in and co-teaching models support a content focus that leads to language improvement. Although content-focus continues to be the driver for ELL instruction, much of the literature acknowledges a

concern that ELLs are not receiving enough targeted instruction (for e.g., Saunders et al., 2013; Bell & Baecher, 2017; Neumann, 2021).

In a 2013 literature synthesis by Saunders et al., the authors concluded that explicit instruction in areas such as vocabulary, syntax, and morphology was needed to develop language skills. Though the authors agreed that content was very important as a motivational factor for learning, they stressed that learning the forms of English played a larger role in language acquisition. In the same paper, the authors found that ELLs should be taught separately for a portion of the school day to best develop their language skills; in other words, they argued for a separate ESL pull-out space that would enable targeted language learning.

Very little quantitative research has been done on the relationship between pull-out support and language acquisition. However, one study found that oral language development improved in a kindergarten pull-out situation as evidenced by test scores that had slight but significant increases (Saunders et al., 2006). The authors believed that this improvement was due to the target language focus afforded by a separate block of English instruction. The ELLs who had this separate block of instruction time performed better when compared to ELLs who had increased literacy instruction in their homeroom class. In another study (Short, 2018), a principal changed the support model to push-in after hypothesizing that this would lead to increased achievement for the students in elementary classes. However, after three years of operating as a push-in school, the scores of the students had decreased in comparison to the scores in the pull-out model; the principal opted to change back to a pull-out model after seeing the findings. This study did have limitations: first, the students were at an international school and did not have the benefit of an English language environment outside the class; second, some students dropped out of the study when they changed schools, making the data incomplete.

Although quantitative data is sparse, qualitative research that investigated teachers' perceptions noted strong support for the pull-out model's ability to offer targeted instruction, and

a corresponding conviction that targeted instruction leads to linguistic gains. Whiting (2017) found that ESL teachers preferred pull-out because they had the opportunity to give focused language instruction on the areas where ELLs needed support. Similarly, both McClure and Cahnmann (2010) and Durham (2018) emphasized the benefits of the individualized approach; the teachers in their studies stated that a pull-out setting offered the space and time necessary for intensive language focus. Thompson's (2019) research had similar findings from the perspective of the ESL instructors, but also added the perspective of the generalist teachers. The generalists strongly supported pull-out because they believed it allowed for targeted language instruction and this led to direct improvements for the ELLs. The generalists felt that they did not have enough time in class to support language development, and they were impressed by the gains that the ELLs made outside the classroom. Neumann (2021) provided a synthesis of these perceptions when she concluded that one of the major benefits of pull-out support was the ability to provide targeted language instruction for ELLs.

Though these studies were widely supportive of pull-out programs for providing targeted language instruction, what targeted language programming included was rarely discussed in any depth. Instead, the research pointed to a general perception of teachers at the elementary level; this perception was that ELLs benefit from doing language work in a pull-out setting, and this language work may or may not connect to classroom work. Fu et al. (2007) examined a scenario in which pull-out instruction was closely connected to the classroom content. In this elementary class, the focus of pull-out instruction was almost exclusively on writing skills, and the work completed in the ESL classroom focussed on writing projects that were being completed in the homeroom. The authors found that student achievement increased substantially when the ELLs focussed on class content during their pull-out time, but it is worth noting that the participants focussed on only one strand (writing); in addition, the ESL and generalist teacher were granted extended time for collaboration. Nonetheless, Fu et al.'s (2007)

research points to one way in which targeted language instruction can be focussed to support content instruction in a pull-out scenario.

The move to push-in changed the ESL teacher's focus to helping the ELLs understand the classroom content (Baecher & Bell, 2017; Whiting, 2017; Neumann, 2021). The ESL teacher would assist with language challenges that arose, but this help would be in service to the greater aim of understanding the content that was being studied. Neumann (2021) explained that the ability of students to stay in the classroom and complete grade-level assignments continues to be seen as a major benefit of the push-in model. By remaining in their classrooms, ELLs do not miss out on the material (for e.g., social studies or science) their classmates are studying, which happens often in a pull-out situation (Thompson, 2019). As McClure and Cahnmann (2010) state, push-in is "predicated on the premise of fostering language and content development for ELLs in the most inclusive and efficient environment possible" (p.103). The "efficiency" is multi-layered; push-in solves the problem of supporting an increasing number of ELLs, and it supports language and content simultaneously. A further strength of the push-in model as noted by ESL instructors is that it allows them to become familiar with the material the students are learning in class (Whiting, 2017; Simmons, 2018). This highlights a benefit of push-in that could also be used to inform pull-out instruction in a hybrid model that uses both approaches.

A major criticism of the push-in model is that it does not allow the ESL instructor to apply targeted instruction that suits the individual ELL's level. Unlike the pull-out model, where the ESL instructor taught in their own classroom with their own lesson plan, the push-in model did not allow instructors chances to focus on language (Baecher and Bell, 2017). Furthermore, the teachers in Whiting's (2017) survey noted a lack of intensive language work and bemoaned "little time to provide comprehensible input" (p.13). Thompson (2019) recorded the pertinent observation that, instead of language instruction, what ELLs often received in the push-in model was support for "task-completion" (p.76). When the ESL instructor sits next to an ELL in class,

their primary goal becomes completing the assigned content work. For example, in a social studies reading context, the goal of the support teacher becomes finishing the assigned questions rather than examining the language of the reading or the language of the questions in any depth. Task completion may allow the ELL and generalist instructors to feel that they are keeping up with the curriculum, but ESL teachers perceive that this focus provides only very limited scaffolding (if any) for language learning.

In addition to the challenges around targeted language instruction that take place within the classroom, there are also challenges that take place before the lesson. As Neumann (2021) has pointed out, the push-in model's focus on content does not prioritize targeted instruction, and ESL teachers often enter the push-in setting with no idea about the topic of the lesson. For this reason, they have little opportunity to prepare language-based tasks that connect with the curriculum, and little opportunity to modify the language of the lesson, which may be much higher than the ELL's level. Neumann makes the related point that a group of ELLs in a class may have different proficiencies which leads to ELL instruction that is "aimed at mid-proficiency rather than the specific language level of each ELL in the classroom" (p.43). Clearly, it is a challenge for any push-in ESL instructor to find opportunities to provide targeted instruction on language in the course of a support session.

If pull-out instruction had too much of a focus on targeted instruction at the expense of content learning, and push-in moved the needle too far in the direction of content learning, then the idea of co-teaching was an attempt to hit the sweet spot in balancing the needs of both language instruction and content instruction. Citing a clear benefit of co-teaching, Neumann (2021) wrote that co-teaching can "better merge content and language instruction" (p.46). Co-teaching attempted to rectify the problematic traits of push-in instruction, noted above, by ensuring that co-teachers had a plan in place for each lesson that would support the language needs of the learners in the class. Indeed, the studies on co-teaching reveal that ELLs have strong academic growth under the co-teaching model (Bauler & Kang, 2020; Kimani, 2018;

York-Barr et al., 2007). All of these studies noted the increased focus on language learning that takes place when the collaboration takes advantage of each teacher's specialization, thus leading to academic growth.

However, Goldenberg (2020) has pointed out that the larger overall trends show that ELLs have not been able to close the achievement gap with non-ELLs. He has questioned the "creaky base" (International Literacy Association) of ELL instruction that has not brought ELLs up to grade level, attributing this failure, in part, to a focus on content instruction, arguing that the move towards content instruction has taken away from important language work that is necessary for long-term success.

In a recent paper, Goldenberg (2020) maintained that there is a clear distinction between support and development. Support, in his view, is strongly connected to classroom content. He argued that models such as Sheltered Instruction (an American program that makes "content comprehensible for students while developing academic English proficiency through access to the core curriculum"; Desjardins, 2020, p.15), which focuses on making content accessible to students, are less effective at developing language skills. Development emphasizes targeted language instruction that makes use of the content, but retains a pedagogical focus on language proficiency. Goldenberg has argued that there is a gap in the literature, noting that "shockingly little research on whether programs promote proficiency" exists (International Literacy Association, 2020). For Goldenberg, a content-based focus means less time for the targeted language instruction that is vital for academic achievement in Grade 4 and beyond.

Cummins (1984) has stressed the challenges that students face moving from BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) to CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency), and Goldenberg's (2020) work emphasizes the importance of direct instruction in helping students gain mastery of academic English. Goldenberg (2020) cited balanced literacy as a model that neglected direct instruction in favour of a content-based approach, and failed to deliver improvements in ELLs' language abilities. Goldenberg's solution is to go beyond content

support and increase focus on English language development, which is primarily focussed on language goals. Earlier work co-authored by Goldenberg (Saunders et al., 2013) specifically mentioned pull-out instruction as beneficial for short parts of the day because this time removes students from an environment with little comprehensible input, providing them instead with language challenges that meet their level. The overarching aim is to prepare students for the rigors they will face as the level of classroom English changes from basic communication (Grades 1-3) to academic (Grades 4 and up), a massive jump in language difficulty that places increased demands on ELLs (Goldenberg, 2020). Recently, Goldenberg has urged for “super-accelerated” language development, which requires an intense focus on language proficiency so that students are not left behind as they engage with increasingly low-context material (International Literacy Association, 2020).

In conclusion, it is clear that both ESL teachers and generalists perceive that a deficiency of the push-in model is a lack of focus on language skills. This is problematic when research shows that targeted language instruction is important for ELLs. Pull-out struggles with the opposite challenge, which is making sure that language activities have some connection to the content being studied. Co-teaching, when done well, appears to bridge the gap between content and language instruction, but can have the same challenges as push-in if there is not enough time to put a language focus on a lesson. The next section will look at the role of leadership in establishing a culture of collaboration that will benefit English language support.

### **3.4 Support from Administration**

The role of school leadership is repeatedly mentioned as a key factor in the success of ELLs. As with many initiatives at the school level, those which are strongly supported by school administrators are much more likely to be implemented (Government of Ontario, 2020). In the literature on ELLs, responsibility for successful learning outcomes often falls upon school administrators because they have the power to bring a school-wide focus to particular initiatives.

Baecher and Bell (2017) write that “school leadership can make a tremendously positive impact on ELLs” by promoting strong collaboration between teachers (p.63).

The discussion of administration does not come down in support of one particular model (pull-out, push-in, co-teaching), but notes the importance of leadership for any effective program. Although the role of administration tends to be emphasized in discussions of collaboration in the push-in and co-teaching models, its importance is also clear in pull-out situations. Fu et al. (2007) found that administrative support was a prerequisite in the successful pull-out program that they examined. The authors concluded that the increased collaboration time given by the school leadership was a key driver of the students' achievement.

Administrators are integral in creating the culture of a school. Schools that have had success with ELL support, such as the elementary school studied by York-Barr et al. (2007), have ‘recultured’ to emphasize effective collaboration. The recommendations of their study (to strategically allocate resources, to take a whole school inventory of needs, and to provide planning time for teaching teams) require buy-in from administrators if a “reculturing” is to take place.

Administrators are recurrently cited as the key element in providing proper planning time for ESL teachers and generalists. Giles and Yazan (2020) found that the role of leaders is integral to collaborative models, as push-in and co-teaching are dependent on the ability of instructors to meet and plan. They conclude that “collaborative models will require administrators to create schedules for teachers to engage in collaborative efforts” (p.9). The strong choice of words (to “require” the creation of schedules) reflects the importance of administration support; without clearly demarcated meeting times, teachers are forced into informal meetings that can impact the depth of planning. The existence of a schedule emphasizes that teachers must meet if they are going to provide useful language support. An example of an effective way to provide planning time comes from Thompson’s (2019) study, where an interviewee mentioned that Friday afternoons were dedicated to teacher collaboration

meetings. Another method would be to provide coverage for teachers with ELLs so that they can meet with the ESL instructor for a longer period of time.

Bauler and Kang (2020) also found that leadership that supported collaboration led to ELL success. In the first year of their study, when ESL instructors worked with fewer generalists and were given increased planning time, student achievement soared. However, as administration support wavered in the face of standardized tests demands and scheduling issues, the task of arranging time to collaborate increasingly fell to instructors. Bauler and Kang (2020) believed that the early success reflected a buy-in at the district and leadership levels, and doubted whether collaboration could be sustained without support from these groups. To overcome the persistent barriers to co-teaching success, such as lack of planning time and curriculum demands, required strong support from leadership.

What leads to administrative support? A key first element is putting the issue of ELL education on the radar of administrators. Donhoo's (2020) recent report, *What Are We Learning About Supporting English Language Learners in Ontario*, examined how effectively the *ELLs Policy and Procedures (2007)* document had been implemented in Ontario schools. The report listed a litany of failed education policies, and argued that one of the essential factors in the success of a board mandated policy was buy-in from the administration. This finding was evident in both of the report's data sources: The teachers Donhoo (2020) interviewed expressed that the principal was integral in giving teachers a sense of efficacy; in addition, the author examined board project reports on English language learning and concluded that "when principals participated in the projects, everyone benefitted" (p.43).

A further finding of this report noted the principal's role in creating an environment of collaboration. It was important that principals took part in collaborative efforts in order to create a school-wide environment that was supportive of English learning. This highlights that a key consideration moving forward should be the emphasis on increasing the amount of training for administrators on collaboration. This training should go beyond paying lip service to

collaboration as a great idea, and focus on how to affect changes that increase collaborative practices across the school. This is vital for the type of 'reculturing' noted by York-Barr et al. (2007).

Unfortunately, Donhoo's (2020) report also noted that ELL issues were not on the radar of boards, as only 11 of 60 boards made explicit mention of ELL needs in their most recent Board Improvement Plans. If ELL education is not on the board's priority list as the number and needs of ELL students grows, it is understandable that it may not be on the priority list of administrators working in those boards.

Once the issue is on the radar of administration, the administration needs to find value in the role of ESL teacher if that teacher is going to be an effective member of the staff. Baecher and Bell (2017) argued that both teacher planning time and the instructional time given to each ELL are contingent upon the principal valuing the role and expertise of the ESL teacher, who in many contexts has had to acquire additional qualifications to assume their role. If the ESL teacher is not perceived to have equal status, they are more likely to be used as substitutes or given other coverage duties, thus reducing their contact minutes with ELLs (McClure & Cahnmann, 2010; Baecher & Bell, 2017; Whiting, 2017).

This section has looked at the importance of administrative support in the education of ELLs. Administrators provide time and support, and can foster an environment of collaboration that allows the ESL teacher a key role in the school, and will lead to better outcomes for ELLs. Administrators are vital for the success of any model of support, though, like generalists, they may be more inclined to value the expertise of the ESL teacher in the pull-out model because they see this teacher as having their own classroom with their own program (McClure & Cahnmann, 2010). However, all ESL teachers, including pull-out instructors, value collaboration with generalists (Baecher & Bell, 2017), so administrative support is integral in a pull-out model as well. No matter which model is being utilized, school leaders have an outsized influence on making sure that the education of all students is a priority. Leadership is one key area that

affects how ESL teachers perceive the value of their role. This theme of perceived role and the value placed on that role is very common in the literature about support models, and will be examined in the next section.

### **3.5 Professionalization**

Teaching is a profession that requires the educator to develop, customize and deliver content for their students, often resulting in a strong sense that the classroom is 'theirs' and that they alone are responsible for the students within its walls. Support instructors, such as ESL instructors, must fit into this environment. A recurring challenge is that ESL instructors do not feel their role is valued, particularly in push-in and co-teaching models in which the ESL instructor becomes a part of the classroom.

This positioning of the ESL instructor starts in Ministry curriculum guides and policies. The work of Turner and Windle (2019) examined curriculum documents from five different regions (Australia, Great Britain, Ontario, New York City, and New York State) to understand whether the generalist teacher or ESL instructor was positioned as the expert in language instruction for ELLs. Their analysis showed that in Britain, Australia, and Ontario, the generalist teachers in Grades K-8 were expected to be language instructors, whereas in New York City and New York State documents the ESL instructors filled the role of expert language teacher. Turner and Windle (2019) argued that curriculum documents that appointed the generalist as expert may have unintentionally devalued the role of the ESL instructor; when every generalist is expected to be a competent language instructor for ELLs, it reduces the value of expert and specialized knowledge. Interestingly, in the case of Ontario, Turner and Windle (2019) argued that teachers at the high school level were positioned as experts because instruction moved out of the mainstream classroom and into a dedicated area of content instruction: English language.

Turner and Windle's (2019) work on the codification of deprofessionalization in curriculum documents built on earlier research by Harper and de Jong (2009) that had also examined deprofessionalization of ESL instruction. Harper and de Jong (2009) argued that the loss of status for ESL instructors was largely self-inflicted. The authors explored the case of Florida in the early 1990's, when districts mandated a move from segregated classrooms for ELLs to the *mainstreaming* model (see Section 1.1). Generalist teachers were now responsible for ELLs in their classrooms, and they wanted professional development (PD) for guidance on how to support their new students. ESL specialists led these PD sessions and attempted to boil down methods for teaching ELLs into techniques that would be easily applicable in the general classroom; they also emphasized that effective teaching for non-ELLs would be transferrable to the new language learners in the classroom. Thus, "without intending to, ESL specialists and the professional development they provided essentially pulled the rug out from under the discipline, leading to comments from mainstream teachers such as, 'Teachers don't need specialized ESL training; common sense and good intentions work just fine'" (Harper and de Jong, p.143).

Although ESL instructors may have played a part in diminishing their role within the educational structure, the move away from specialization in ESL was made inevitable by the move to mainstreaming. It is for this reason that the critique of deprofessionalization often accompanies a larger critique of mainstreaming. Multiple authors, such as Harper and de Jong (2009), Leung (2016), and Meyers (2006) have pointed out that a fallacy of mainstreaming is the belief that the hard work is done when the ELLs join the regular stream, and that thereby, they no longer require explicit language instruction or modified pedagogical approaches. These authors argued that simply placing students in a classroom with English speakers is not an endpoint, as it offloads responsibility onto the generalist teacher and brings into question the role of the ESL teacher and support in general. Leung (2016) insisted that support is still required, along with ongoing consideration for best practices for ELLs, after mainstreaming has

taken place. In the Canadian context, Meyers (2006) gave a strong critique of mainstreaming, arguing that the belief that “every teacher is an English teacher” lets districts off the hook when it comes to providing practical supports that help ELLs to succeed. The clear implication is that mainstreaming by itself can actually be harmful if it is not coupled with a strong network of support. A key player in this network is the trained ESL instructor. Harper and de Jong (2009) underscored this point in their conclusion when they asserted that the knowledge and skill set of ESL instructors are crucial in ensuring that ELLs are engaged and active members of the classroom community, “integrated” and not simply physically “included” (p.148).

This macro-level discussion of deprofessionalization is clearly mirrored in the discussions of professionalism at the level of each support model. A prominent theme in the literature about the three models is the perceived role of the ESL instructor. As discussed below, ESL instructors report that they are undervalued as experts in their field. This feeling of low status is pronounced in the push-in and co-teaching models of support which place an increased emphasis on working with another teacher.

In the push-in model, the ESL instructor joins the ELL(s) in the class and supports them with the classroom content. Often, an ESL teacher is entering the classroom with no idea of the subject matter under discussion (Bell & Baecher, 2012), so they must make programming and strategy decisions in the moment. The ESL instructor, seated next to the ELL, often has little interaction with the rest of the students. ESL instructors in the push-in model feel that they are perceived as ‘interns’, ‘helpers’, ‘aides’, ‘assistants’, ‘over-paid tutors’, or ‘paraprofessionals’ (Baecher & Bell, 2017, p.59; Whiting, 2017, p.13), but rarely as teachers. They often feel that when generalist teachers do not see them as equals, then other students, including the ELLs they teach, will also not see them as bona fide teachers. Whiting (2017) found that ESL teachers felt a distinct loss of power in the push-in setting. This resulted from their feeling that they had no control over the lesson and had few opportunities to provide any direct instruction. One teacher stated: “I am doing more assisting than teaching...sometimes I am just sitting and

listening” (p.13). In push-in, the ESL teacher often feels hindered by a role that reduces their self-efficacy, and this feeling leads them to believe their time is not used productively and does not best support the ELLs’ learning needs.

McClure and Cahnmann’s (2010) research highlights the stark power imbalance that can occur between teachers who share the same space. ESL teachers report that they often feel a reduced status in this situation because they are not teaching a particular content area that has a curriculum to support it. McClure and Cahnmann (2010) use the terms ‘push-in’ and ‘co-teaching’ interchangeably in their work, and they critique the pedagogical conceit of these models that the inclusion of ELLs in the classroom naturally leads to better outcomes. On the contrary, if one teacher is perceived as having an inferior role in a collaboration, it can lead to multiple inequitable outcomes: “the lived experiences of these partnerships can actually reinforce the marginalization of ELLs and their ESOL teachers” (p.106). In McClure and Cahnmann’s study, which was done in the United States, many of the ESL teachers were not first language English speakers, and they felt that this contributed to the deprofessionalization that they experienced. The ‘lived experience’ of ESL teachers pushing into the classroom includes conceding a large amount of their power, and descriptions of the push-in model indicate that it does not always live up to its ideal. McClure and Cahnmann (2010) used the unique research approach of performance-based focus groups in one part of their study; this required ESL teachers to perform skits about the challenges they faced in their roles. A recurring theme in their dialogues was that the ESL teachers did not feel valued by either their partner teachers or by administrators who regularly increased their workloads with responsibilities unrelated to instruction. Pearson (2015) noted that ESL teachers are often asked to fill other support roles because administrators feel that ESL teachers need less preparation time in a push-in model. Although McClure and Cahnmann’s (2010) study was limited in that it only presented the ESL teacher’s perspective and not the generalist teacher’s, it did allow ESL teachers to provide insight into their feelings.

Even research that is generally supportive of the move to push-in notes that the barrier of teacher status is persistent. In a Canadian study that documented the move away from a pull-out model to an “integrated” (push-in) model, the ESL teachers reported that push-in successfully promoted collaboration and student success to a greater degree than pull-out instruction; however, ESL teachers still reported that generalists were confused about the ESL teacher’s role (Vintan & Gallagher, 2018). The generalists supported collaboration, but felt the designated job of the ESL teacher was pull-out instruction. This is reflective of the fact that the schools in the study were in a transition phase to push-in/co-teaching, so the generalists still believed an ESL teacher’s job was to take the students away for a period and help them learn English. This highlights a challenge of the push-in method, which is that a teacher who sits in for a classroom lesson may not be perceived as an equal, but a teacher who takes a student out of the classroom to be taught separate content in a separate room will be more readily accepted as an expert, as seen in the high school context.

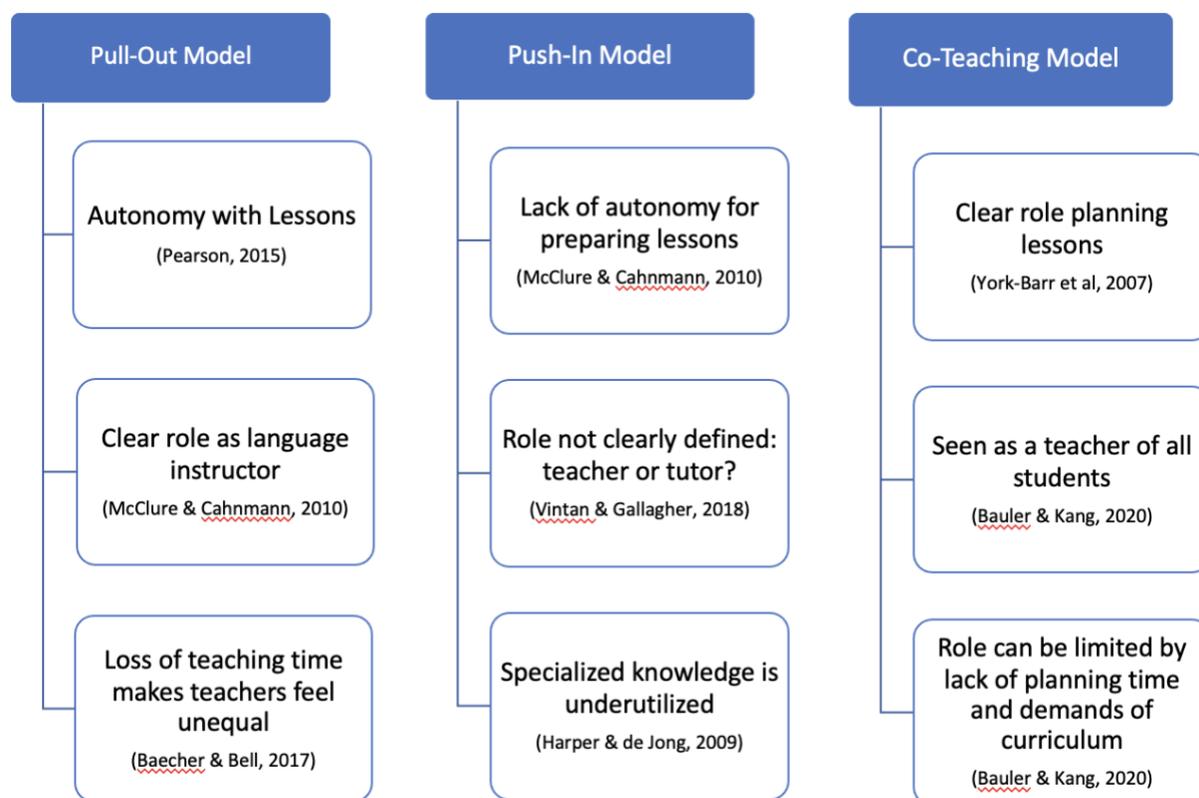
This may explain a lack of discussion in the research about questions of professionalism in the pull-out model. Teachers report a stronger sense of control, and this capacity to program directly for the ELLs results in an increased likelihood of teachers being perceived by their colleagues as having equal status. Studies that report on teacher preferences invariably note that pull-out is the preferred method (Pearson, 2015; Baecher & Bell, 2017; Whiting, 2017; Thompson, 2019), and one key factor in this preference is that ESL teachers feel accepted as teachers. Nonetheless, pull-out teachers do still feel like their professional role is undervalued when they lose contact minutes with students because another activity, such as the classroom lesson for the ELL or other class coverage for the ESL teacher, is seen as more important than language instruction. The fact that pull-out instruction can be viewed as an optional activity has led, in some cases, to ELLs challenging their instructors about the necessity of the pull-out class (Baecher & Bell, 2017).

While research such as McClure and Cahnmann's (2010) places push-in and co-teaching models in a boat laden with similar challenges of deprofessionalization, other research has shown that co-teaching has a better record in making ESL teachers feel valued. One aim of the co-teaching model was to equalize the relationship of the collaborating instructors by requiring that both the generalist and the ESL teacher would teach to all students in the class and thus be seen to have equal responsibility and equal status. Bauler and Kang (2020) have shown that the longer a collaboration exists between two parties, the more they come to value the contributions of each instructor. In addition, when the co-teachers work closely together, the generalists gain an appreciation for the methods the ESL teacher employs to make the content accessible for ELLs in the classroom (Giles & Yazan, 2020). However, Whiting (2017) warns that co-teaching models that may appear to have bridged the status divide by equalizing power can quickly devolve back into push-in models when planning time is not provided for the co-construction of lessons. In his survey of 71 ESL teachers, zero stated that they would prefer to teach in a push-in/co-teaching model.

In conclusion, this section has looked at the importance of professionalization in the discussion of each support model. ESL teachers often comment on how they feel a particular model highlights or diminishes their role. Figure 7 below provides a summary of how ESL teachers feel they are valued in each model.

**Figure 7**

*ESL Teachers' Feelings Regarding Their Professional Role in each Model*



An examination of the literature discussed above reveals that ESL instructors in the pull-out model are most likely to feel valued for their expertise. The push-in model often leads the ESL teacher to feel that they are not being utilized properly, and these teachers report a preference for an alternative model (pull-out, co-teaching, or hybrid). Co-teaching seeks to equalize the roles of the instructors, and ESL teachers do report that increased collaboration leads to a stronger sense of professionalism in their jobs. Co-teaching, however, depends on highly collaborative practices, and research reveals that this collaborative environment does not always exist in the school setting. The next section will look at the theme of collaboration in greater detail.

### 3.6 Collaboration

The notion that one class is taught by one teacher is an outdated conception of the modern classroom. Today, generalist teachers work with an increasing number of supporting staff, from educational assistants to behavioural specialists to guidance counsellors. Working as a teacher requires working with many colleagues in a variety of areas. Due to this reality, a dedicated field of research around collaboration has been fostered that is aimed at exploring how teachers can maximize the benefits of working in an environment with other instructors. English language learning has added another supporting instructor to this mix, and research into this collaborative relationship (examining how generalists and ESL instructors can effectively collaborate and the hindrances that impede useful collaboration) has burgeoned. In particular, the wider move toward push-in and co-teaching models has brought greater focus on collaboration because, in theory, these models require educators to work together closely to provide useful content area instruction that is individualized for each ELL. The research points to some major success stories when collaboration between teachers is strong, and indicates long-term success for schools that create a culture of collaboration. However, the research also continuously highlights the barriers to collaboration, such as unclear roles, lack of training, and the most often cited barrier: planning time. A key focus of this section will be in understanding why the theoretical benefits of these collaborative models are not able to be realized in practice, rendering true collaboration an elusive goal (Baecher & Bell, 2012). In other sections of this paper, push-in and co-teaching have been discussed separately, but in this section, they will be treated together under the term 'collaborative models', as these two models are often used interchangeably in the research on collaboration and are juxtaposed against the pull-out model.

Although the pull-out model requires less direct collaboration, pull-out instructors report that a lack of collaboration with the classroom teacher is a barrier to success (Bell & Baecher, 2017). As pull-out instructors have fewer opportunities to observe what is being studied in the class, they feel it is important to communicate with the classroom teacher in order to plan

appropriately for their time with the ELLs. As mentioned in section 3.2, research by Fu et al. (2007) has pointed to the benefits of a pull-out model that stresses collaboration. The co-operating team in their study aimed to find out whether a focus on curriculum-based writing assignments during pull-out time would increase student achievement. The ESL teacher collaborated extensively with the generalist teacher, completed some push-in time to get a sense of the classroom work, and then focussed on the writing assignment during pull-out time; this led to substantial improvements in written work. The study was limited by the very small number of participants and focussed on only one language strand (writing), but it highlighted one way in which a pull-out model can increase collaboration, and showed how the pull-out minutes can be utilized to support ELLs with the classroom content. Creese (2006) argued that another way in which pull-out ESL teachers can support curriculum work is by focussing on different components of the material than the generalist, leading to language gains while at the same time teaching content. For Creese, the collaborative model proved beneficial because the ESL teacher was an expert in providing 'facilitative talk', a deeper discussion of the content that went beyond 'yes/no' questions and gave the ELL an opportunity to listen to and employ academic language. The collaboration in this context was less focussed on the teamwork of the teachers working together, and more focussed on the different skill sets that collaborating instructors can bring to an ELL's learning experience.

While collaboration between instructors can help to improve pull-out support, for push-in and co-teaching, collaboration is integral to the functioning of the model. Teachers who push in feel they must be given advance notice of the work being studied in class in order to anticipate potential language challenges and prepare activities, such as pre-teaching vocabulary, that will assist the ELLs to understand the content (Bell & Baecher, 2012). Co-teaching models, which build on the push-in model, but require the classroom teacher to take greater responsibility for ELLs and the ESL instructor to have a greater presence in the classroom, need structured opportunities to co-plan so that the lesson will be accessible for all ELLs. Often, this requires

modifying the language used in the lesson and incorporating activities that require more interaction and language focus.

Over time, ELL support has moved towards the more collaborative models (push-in and co-teaching). This move is evident in regions such as the province of Ontario, which has embraced the push-in model and is slowly shifting away from pull-out (Vintan & Gallagher, 2018), and New York state, which has mandated co-teaching of ELLs as the statewide model (Bauler & Kang, 2020). This reflects the principle, noted above, that teaching is a job that demands extensive collaboration, and teachers should be trained to work together. As one ESL instructor in Vintan and Gallagher's study noted, "collaboration, I think, is essential for survival as a teacher right now" (p.76). It is worth scrutinizing whether this 'essential' aspect of ELL education is being utilized to create a better learning environment for ELLs.

Collaboration is, most certainly, a challenge. It presents a challenge because it requires two teachers, who may have very different pedagogical approaches and philosophies, to program together. At a fundamental level, it requires a lot of time and energy. A study by Giles and Yazan (2020) detailed the large amount of work that the ESL instructor needed to do in order to change the generalist's perception about the benefits of a co-teaching approach. The generalist's initial belief that the ESL teacher was responsible for the ELL(s) while she was responsible for the rest of the class was altered when the ESL teacher put in extensive time to modify the content (by scaffolding lessons and revising assessments) to show how the generalist could instruct all students simultaneously. By allowing the ESL teacher to have a larger role in the construction of content lessons, the generalist gained an appreciation for the value of co-teaching, and realized that she was responsible for every child's success. Similarly, Vintan and Gallagher (2018) noted that a benefit of the push-in model was that the increased collaboration between instructors allowed them to modify the content to suit the learning needs of the ELLs. These modifications, which are recommended in guides such as *Supporting English Learners* (Government of Ontario, 2008), can be easier to make when two teachers are

working together to analyze the content and pick out possible areas for modification. This task is much more challenging if only the generalist, who carries so many responsibilities, is solely responsible. When content can be modified effectively, the ELL(s) can actively participate in the classroom learning; thus, push-in and co-teaching models are able to increase the confidence of students by allowing them to stay with their peers and work together on the assigned tasks (Simmons, 2018).

These social gains were also a key finding in two long-term studies that analyzed the effectiveness of co-teaching. Importantly, however, these studies found that co-teaching not only led to social gains, but significant academic gains as well. In a three-year study, York-Barr et al. (2007) found that the co-teaching model allowed students to be more engaged in classroom activities, and create stronger relationships with their classroom peers. Overall, teachers perceived that ELLs became a part of the classroom community to a greater extent when the teachers co-taught. In addition, ELLs made large academic gains in reading and math on a standardized state test. These gains were very strong in the first year of the study when the administration strongly supported co-teaching by designating collaboration time and providing resources to the co-teaching teams. When the collaborative model was halted in the second half of the study (partly due to a perceived unfairness due to study cohorts receiving an extensive amount of the ESL teacher's attention), ELL scores either dropped or the gains diminished markedly. The authors argued for a "restructuring" and "reculturing" of the school around the notion of collaboration, and found that this was possible with strong administration support.

A second three-year study by Bauler and Kang (2020) supported the findings of York-Barr et al. (2007). Long-term studies are difficult to find in the area of ESL collaboration, but Bauler and Kang's (2020) recent work has added to this "under-researched" (p.339) area. In 2015-16, New York State mandated co-teaching between classroom teachers and ESL instructors. The researchers, in a mixed-methods study, surveyed teacher teams, completed

classroom observations, and analyzed State testing data at the K-4 level from the year before the mandate and the two years following the mandate. Like York-Barr et al. (2007) before them, the authors found that collaboration led to social gains for students as they became fully included in the classroom activities. The authors reported that while observing groupwork activities they could not tell which students were ELLs and which were non-ELLs because all the students were working together so fluidly. Academically, they found that ELL scores improved after co-teaching was mandated, with more ELL students scoring at the higher end of the proficiency scale and fewer at the lower end.

It is important to note that the studies that found evidence of collaboration improving an ELL's experience also detailed the challenges of collaboration. Indeed, the 'persistent barriers' to collaboration are a persistent theme in the research on ESL teacher and generalist collaboration. Russell (2019) found that the barriers were multitudinous, and therefore hard to overcome; one teacher in the study explained that the challenges around "time, ability, and desire" (p.22) to collaborate made the reality of co-teaching quite different than the ideal. Barriers that will be addressed in this section include a lack of clarity about each teacher's role, the necessity of strong relationships among partners, a lack of training on how to best collaborate, and an overall lack of time for teachers, best exemplified by a lack of planning time.

The first barrier is the misunderstanding that takes place concerning each teacher's role. Vintan and Gallagher (2018) and Bauler and Kang (2020) documented the challenges that ESL teachers faced in trying to move away from the pull-out perception that the ESL teacher is responsible for ELLs, and the generalist is responsible for other students. Bauler and Kang (2020) also noted the confusion in teachers' understanding of the difference between push-in and co-teaching. In their study, in which co-teaching was the mandated model, almost one half of ESL teachers still described their role as the teacher of ELLs, revealing that they did not understand that their duties included teaching all of the students. More problematically, many generalists perceived that the role of the ESL teacher was to report back to the administration

on whether the generalist was effectively teaching ELLs; to dissuade generalists of this fear of being spied upon, ESL teachers spent much of their time convincing the generalist that they were not there to monitor, but to support (Vintan & Gallagher, 2018).

This highlights a second barrier to collaboration, which is that collaboration demands strong relationships. It is hard to establish a relationship when the generalist is wary of the ESL teacher's intentions, and it is hard for the ESL teacher to fulfill their role when they are constantly deferring in order to keep the relationship strong. Relationships can be affected by so many factors (personality, teaching style, planning style), and if the teachers are out of synch in these areas, collaboration will tend to be weak (McClure & Cahnman, 2010; Thompson, 2019). As an instructor expressed in Simmon's (2018) study on ESL collaboration: "Personality is everything" (p.137). This is an apt summation of one of Simmon's findings, which was that effective collaboration hinges on relationship dynamics. If two people forge a strong relationship, they can push through the challenges that will imperil weaker relationships, such as a lack of meeting time or different beliefs about best approaches. In the research on collaboration, smaller ethnographic studies often examine teacher teams that have shared beliefs about teaching and are eager to work together, and these underscore the value of strong partnerships (for e.g., Bauler & Kang, 2020; Giles & Yazan, 2020); conversely, larger scale quantitative studies (for e.g., surveys) reveal a higher level of dissatisfaction. Other research has concluded that relationship challenges pose a substantial hurdle to collaboration (McClure & Cahnmann, 2010), and that similar teaching styles are a prerequisite for the ESL teacher/generalist partnership in push-in and co-teaching models (Pearson, 2015). In Pearson's (2015) study, poor relationships were a major reason that only 41% of teachers preferred the co-teaching only model in which they were working, while 83% of teachers who worked in a pull-out only model preferred it.

A third barrier that is frequently cited is the lack of training and professional development (PD) on collaboration (Giles & Yazan, 2020; Simmons, 2018; Vintan & Gallagher, 2018).

Teacher training programs, though they are now starting to emphasize the importance of collaboration, have historically prepared teachers for a job that is highly individualized (Simmons, 2018). ESL teachers reported the need for more PD on both ELL instruction and collaboration, and that generalist teachers in particular would benefit from increased training (Simmons, 2018; Vintan & Gallagher, 2018). Ways to overcome this barrier could include a larger emphasis on collaboration in pre-service training, and also strong support from administration (see Section 3.4 for further discussion).

The greatest barrier to collaboration, noted again and again in the literature, is insufficient time. First and foremost, time denotes planning time, but it also highlights a general feeling that there is just too much to do, and forging an ESL/generalist relationship is another burden in a school day already short on minutes. Teachers and researchers sum up the challenges: “Time is a constant struggle” (Simmons, 2018, p.116); “Time is a four-letter word” (Bauler & Kang, 2020, p.349); “Juggling numerous responsibilities leaves few opportunities for the time required for collaboration” (Vintan & Gallagher, 2018, p.85). Designated time to meet with ELLs, time to work with the same students, time to have whole grade meetings, and, of course, planning time, are required to meet ELLs’ needs. Without planning time, ESL teachers enter the push-in or co-teaching classroom unprepared to address the content. This makes for ad hoc lessons that may provide some benefit for an ELL, but much less than when two teachers have time to sit down and prepare for the lesson in advance.

Almost all of the research on collaboration includes the finding that planning time needs to be built into teachers’ schedules (for e.g., see Pearson, 2015; Simmons, 2018; Giles & Yazan, 2020). The longitudinal studies mentioned above (Bauler & Kang, 2020; York-Barr et al., 2007) both found that planning time remained the key barrier three years after implementation of co-teaching models. In the first year of the studies, extra resources were provided to co-teachers, including dedicated planning time. In both studies, collaboration time dwindled in the second and third years for various reasons (teachers were spread out over more classes;

generalists voiced concerns that the ESL teacher was only working with the study cohorts) and teachers were forced to depend on their own 'resilient practices' (based on strong relationships they had formed, prior curriculum work, and informal meetings) to ensure the continued success of co-teaching.

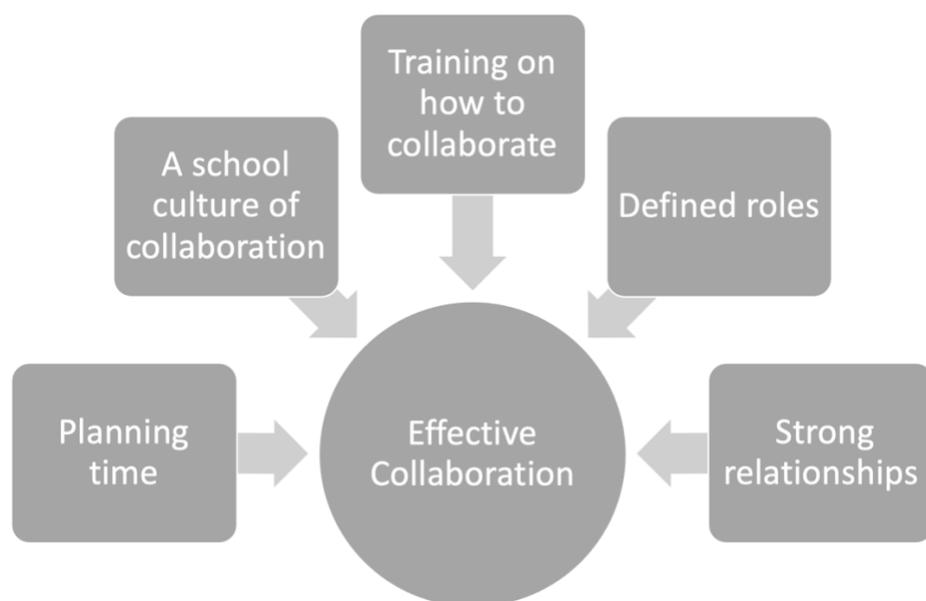
It may be too much to expect teachers to rely on their own resiliency in the face of diminished planning time. As Baecher and Bell found in their 2012 study, collaboration between ESL and generalist teachers tends to be both informal and infrequent. Vintan and Gallagher (2018) arrived at the identical conclusion six years later in their Canadian study. Collaboration was informal because it took place in hallways, or on a short break in the staffroom; it was infrequent in that it happened sparingly and briefly. This environment places all of the onus on busy teachers and the outcome, logically, is very surface-level collaboration that does not lead to modified content or, in the case of co-teaching, the teachers working together in the classroom to instruct all students, both of them at ease with the curriculum and the language adaptations. This situation makes collaborative models far-removed from their ideal conception, and is the focus of pointed criticism from research that finds deep flaws in the collaborative models. McClure and Cahnmann (2010) noted that it is easy to say collaboration is great for students, but much more challenging to put into practice: "co-teaching runs the risk of being relegated to another best practices mandate...that is enthusiastically implemented with good intentions but fails to provide any substantive or lasting educational improvements" (p.102). The authors argue that the reason push-in and co-teaching fail is because collaboration is "often a contentious and exhausting enterprise" (p.107), a fact that is downplayed in the rush to support an agenda that is "cloaked in the rhetoric of inclusion" (p.111). Whiting (2017) offered a similar critique, noting that "there is a looming gap between the ideal of mainstreaming ELLs in a co-teaching model and the reality described by teachers...there is clearly a perceived contradiction between co-teaching in name, and tutoring in reality" (p.18). ESL teachers did not feel their skills

were being used to support ELLs when they pushed in or co-taught, but instead felt diminished in their role as teacher.

This section has examined the theme of collaboration as it pertains to support models. The barriers noted above reveal a disjunction between the ideal of collaboration and the reality in classrooms (see Appendix B for a teacher-friendly visual comparison of this disjunction). Long term studies do show that the ideal can produce remarkable results when resources are provided for teachers, the foremost resource being planning time (which has the added benefit of helping strong relationships develop). These showcase collaborative models at their best, with ELLs benefitting both socially and academically when two teachers create lessons with English language learners in mind. I constructed Figure 8 below to highlight the requirements for effective collaboration between teachers based off the research studies explored in this section. If these requirements are in place, collaboration has the chance to thrive.

### Figure 8

*The Requirements for Effective Collaboration*



Many other research papers point to the resiliency of educators, and the way this resiliency can sustain collaboration (Bauler & Kang, 2020; Simmons, 2018; Vintan & Gallagher, 2018).

However, much of the literature brings into question the notion that teacher resiliency can overcome the multitude of barriers mentioned by research participants. This research shows that overcoming a lack of planning time, a lack of PD, challenging relationships, and unclear roles, requires a concerted effort from many parties and sufficient resources. Collaborative models of support are rife with “complexities” (a term aptly included in the titles of the works by McClure and Cahnmann, 2010, and Vintan and Gallagher, 2018), and simply instituting a collaborative model without addressing the reality of the challenges may fail to give ELLs the support they deserve.

#### **Chapter 4: Conclusion**

This paper has examined the three main models of ELL support used in the North American context of English-medium schools: pull-out, push-in, and co-teaching. As these models are the predominant method of support in English language schools, it is valuable to explore the benefits and challenges of each. It is particularly pertinent as schools are at a point in which all three models are being widely used. Though there had been an initial move away from pull-out support to push-in, followed by a more recent move from push-in to co-teaching, the literature reveals that all models continue to be used.

It is important to note that there are a limited number of studies in the area of ELL support as a whole. This is especially true of longitudinal studies that attempt to evaluate how ELLs are performing in a given model over a period of time. As noted in Section 3.1, although pull-out instruction is strongly favoured by instructors, there have been very few quantitative studies that compare student achievement across the various models. Thus, it is very hard to determine which models are benefitting students academically. In Canada, there are even fewer studies that look at ELL proficiency as a whole, or within a push-in or pull-out framework specifically. How are students' doing? It is hard to know.

In Ontario, the EQAO is one standardized assessment that gauges how ELLs (and all students) are doing across the province, but the data is difficult to access. After requesting data for this paper, the EQAO office sent back access to three different files, but the file that was needed to learn about ELL data was not included. A follow up request for the data that was pertinent to this paper was denied because “P1\_3 files are meant for boards and schools. Therefore [they] aren’t publicly shared” (Senior data analyst, personal communication, April 13, 2022). If researchers do not have access to the data, it is hard to make conclusions about how ELLs are doing in the public system. One of the International Dyslexia Association’s (2021) recommendations was for greater transparency in EQAO data reporting, which would give a wider swath of interested parties access to the information.

In addition to being difficult to access, research that has looked at the EQAO data has questioned its validity. Donhoo (2020) detailed her experience trying to utilize the data:

When the researcher examined results from the Education Quality and Accountability Office (EQAO) grades 3 and grades 6 and the Ontario Secondary School Literacy Test (OSSLT) in an effort to further inform this study, it was not possible to draw any conclusions about the progress of English language learners in Ontario from large scale provincial assessments. There were many inconsistencies in how ELLs were identified and deferred from assessments. There were few or no reported cases of ELLs in some schools, including schools where ELLs were known to exist (p.34).

Ontario should be credited for making an attempt at data collection, as many other jurisdictions have even less quantitative data to examine. Standardized tests, of course, tell only one part of a story, and they have detractors both inside and outside of schools (Volante et al. [2019] and Kirylo [2020] synthesize a variety of the critiques of standardized tests). Programs should not be judged solely on proficiency indicators, as there are also important questions about how students are doing socially and how their identities are valued in a school setting. However, in a field in which there are many barriers for researchers to undertake studies in school settings, it

is important to gain as much information as possible regarding how ELLs are faring academically.

There are other observations about ways to improve the understanding of support models. First, there is a large swath of research on the topic of collaboration, but a small number of studies in relation to collaboration between ESL teachers and generalists. Second, the studies that do exist about support models are generally focussed on the perceptions of ESL teachers; the research base would benefit from the added perspective of generalists, administrators, and importantly, students themselves. These perspectives, combined with more long-term studies about how ELLs are performing, would greatly add to the knowledge base about support models and how ELLs can best be served in schools.

After reviewing the existing literature on support models, six key themes arose: ELL instructional minutes, safe spaces and relationships, target language versus a content focus, the support of administration, professionalization, and collaboration. The paper will now give a brief summary of each theme along with recommendations that could lead to improvements in the varying supporting models.

#### **4.1 Instructional Time**

The first theme came from the research paper that inspired the writing of this report. Bell and Baecher (2017) compared the instructional minutes that ELLs received in a push-in model versus a pull-out versus a combination of push-in/pull-out, and found that push-in faltered, providing less than half of the mandated minutes. The teachers surveyed mentioned a variety of reasons why support was difficult to offer, and this inspired further research on the topic of support models. This issue of receiving support minutes is critical, but it is the theme that received the least amount of attention in the research and is the vaguest in written policy. Nonetheless, an overall look at the research revealed that some measure of pull-out support, or at least the option to remove students for a session, is beneficial for meeting their mandated

minutes. This theme rarely registered in discussions about the co-teaching model, but it is fair to conjecture that when co-teaching falls back into a push-in model (McClure & Cahnmann, 2010; Whiting, 2017), then the problem of reduced minutes will reassert itself. Bell and Baecher (2017) concluded that a hybrid model may be the best option, and this is worth considering.

#### **4.2 Safe Spaces and Strong Relationships**

A second theme that emerged was the importance of safe spaces and strong relationships for ELLs. A common worry reported by ESL teachers was that moving away from a separate classroom has made it more challenging to create a space where their stress can be reduced. Teachers feel that a separate classroom is a home for students, a place they look forward to going to because the mental demands are less taxing, the language is level appropriate, it is safer to make mistakes, and strong connections can be made to a student's home culture. The affective filter is reduced, and students can let their personalities shine. It is interesting to note these perceptions because the major criticism of the pull-out model is that it is exclusionary and, therefore, creates mental stress by making ELLs feel like outsiders. Push-in, however, faces the same obstacle, as students feel singled out when a teacher works beside them in the classroom, which creates a stress that was meant to be relieved by the model. The key challenge for push-in and co-teaching models is to make the classroom a safe space; if the classroom is equally as safe a space as the ESL classroom, then this is a strong validation of these support models. In practice, however, the demands on a generalist's time and energy make it a real challenge to replicate the safety of the ESL space in the classroom. Even excellent teachers may have ELLs that are more often included than integrated, to borrow the phrasing of McClure and Cahnmann (2010). A recommendation moving forward is that generalists would benefit from the support of ESL coaches, which have been used in some Ontario districts (Donhoo, 2020), to meet with teachers and discuss ways to improve the space so that ELLs feel at home in the classroom. If a coach is not available, it would be worthwhile to

gain the ESL teacher's input on ways to make the classroom and lessons more inclusive for ELLs. Additionally, the option for pulling students out of the classroom should be on the table, particularly for lower-level students. The benefits of the pull-out model noted above would be valuable to these students, as they get support in a safe environment that focusses on their learning needs (which may be as simple as a mental break).

#### **4.3 Targeted Language vs Content Instruction**

Learning needs bring up a third theme, which is the discussion of targeted language learning versus a content-focussed approach. The move to mainstreaming was a move towards content instruction, and the move to push-in and co-teaching places a further emphasis on content instruction. The move away from targeted instruction is problematic in the face of research that says a much stronger focus on language, and academically language specifically, is required to increase proficiency (Saunders et al., 2013). Push-in suffers the most from a lack of targeted language instruction, the most prominent reason being that ESL teachers do not have time to prepare language focussed lessons. The literature reveals the concern on the part of educators that ELLs are not receiving enough language instruction to complement the content work. The belief persists that pull-out supports language learning, but important research has shown that co-teaching can successfully bridge the content/language divide by focussing on both simultaneously. Co-teaching appears to be the superior model in having students learn the language features through the content, since a key part of the teaching partners' work is to modify language so that is accessible to ELLs and scaffolds their learning. Two long term studies (York-Barr et al., 2007; Bauler & Kang, 2020) documented the academic benefits of successful co-teaching. If teachers are working in a push-in model, the research seems to indicate, again, that there be an option for pull-out instruction. This would give teachers flexibility, and respond to a perceived need, allowing them to work with ELLs to focus on particular language skills. For teachers working in a pull-out only model, it is recommended

that they push-in to classes at various points in the school year so that they have a clearer idea of the content being studied and can use this knowledge to inform pull-out lessons. Fu et al. (2007) documented a case in which push-in was used in this way, and the pull-out lessons that were strictly tied to the content proved beneficial for students. Whatever model schools are employing, it is recommended that some thought be given to how targeted language instruction can effectively be employed in order to increase an ELL's chance of success in later grades. To paraphrase Goldenberg (2020), at some point in the day content instruction should be in the service of language instruction, rather than the reverse.

#### **4.4 Support from Administration**

A fourth theme was the important role that school administrators played in ensuring the success of ELL support. Scholarly articles often concluded by noting that administration support was crucial for effective ELL programming. The literature seems to indicate that administrators value a pull-out method of support, but that they take a more hands-off approach with this model, allowing ESL teachers and generalists to find their own way to success. The support of administration has particular relevance for push-in and co-teaching models because leadership influences the role of collaboration in a school. It is recommended that a move to either of these two models be accompanied by administrative support in providing planning time for the instructors. In order for administrators to place such a high value on collaboration, qualification courses for leadership roles need to train candidates on implementing and supporting collaborative practices. Finally, it is vital that the administration perceives ESL teachers as experts in their roles so that they are utilized as teachers and not given other duties that take away from their ability to support ELLs. No matter which support model is being used, it would be advantageous for the administration to address the staff early in the year so that they can emphasize the value of the ESL teacher's role in the school.

#### **4.5 Professionalization**

This question of professionalization was the fifth theme to emerge from the literature. Teachers in the pull-out method had the strongest perception that their role was valued. That these teachers had their own meeting space and greater control of the content contributed to this feeling. However, pull-out teachers also noted that they would miss meeting times with students because students had to do other work or teachers would be asked to perform other duties. The perceived lack of equality was a major barrier to success in the push-in and co-teaching models. Studies with various methodologies concluded that the ESL teacher felt undervalued in their role. It is recommended that ESL teachers have opportunities early in the school year to meet with generalists so that they can discuss their roles in supporting the ELL(s) who will be in the class. It is also important that the ESL teacher complete as many Additional Qualification courses as possible in the area of their specialization. In Ontario, for example, there are three AQ courses for ESL instruction; ESL teachers would benefit from both continued study in their area of expertise, and the perception that the role requires a focus on continuous learning. Many studies conclude that professional development on teaching ELLs and collaboration would improve other staff members' perceptions on the value of the ESL teacher. A final recommendation is that schools partake in purposeful planning of the make-up of each classroom, particularly when there are a large number of ELLs and multiple classes at a given grade level. By grouping ELLs together by level in the same classroom, it allows the ESL teacher to make a more effective schedule so that they can reach as many students as possible. Scheduling challenges pull the ESL teacher in many different directions, and do not allow them to provide effective and efficient support.

#### **4.6 Collaboration**

The final theme of the paper was collaboration. Recent papers (Vintan & Gallagher, 2018; Thompson, 2019; Bauler & Kang, 2020; Giles & Yazan, 2020; Neumann, 2021) reveal

that the trend in school districts has been a move away from pull-out support towards the collaborative models of push-in and co-teaching. Collaboration comes under strain because it requires relationship building, professional development, and dedicated planning time for lessons. Push-in is at its most effective when collaboration time is provided so that the ESL teacher can have knowledge of the content being instructed, and thereby modify lessons to support language learning. In the push-in model, the ELLs do not miss classroom content and can, in fact, gain a better understanding of the content through the ESL teacher's support. Co-teaching has attempted to build on these strengths while reducing the limitations of the model, such as unclear roles, reduced language support, and a distracting work space. The distinction between the two methods is an important one, as co-teaching's increased focus on collaboration allows both teachers to be content and language teachers for all of the students in a class. To separate itself from the push-in model, however, co-teaching needs a heavy investment in planning time and a commitment from both instructors to teach together. Many studies reveal the benefits of collaboration, but work centred on teachers' perceptions shows that pull-out is still strongly preferred (Baecher and Bell, 2012; Pearson, 2015; Whiting, 2017; Bell and Baecher, 2017; Thompson, 2019).

Collaboration is certainly a buzzword in education circles and beyond, but real collaborative practices take time, training, and support. York-Barr et al.'s (2007) finding that a 'reculturing' needs to take place sounds dramatic but, after reading various perspectives on collaboration, is an accurate assessment. Such a reculturing would require training on collaboration from the early days of teacher education programs through to in-service training, and separately in leadership preparation courses. A long-term commitment is also a key factor – how well do these collaborative practices hold up years later? After three years in the York-Barr (2007) study, teachers remained persistent in trying to collaborate, but the barriers made collaboration harder to sustain. These barriers popped up in Bauler and Kang's (2020) study as it went into years two and three. It would be interesting to see how collaboration has persisted in

the school studied by York-Barr et al. (2007) a decade and half later: was 'reculturing' permanent or temporary?

#### **4.7 Summary**

The number of ELLs is increasing in North American schools; therefore, the amount of support required in schools is increasing in kind. The pull-out model that has been a mainstay of ELL support in English language classrooms for decades is ceding ground to the push-in model in Canada. Push-in support has the appeal of being cost-effective and inclusive (McClure & Cahnmann, 2010), and it begets a more collaborative working environment (Vintan & Gallagher, 2018). However, one wonders if Canada will soon be following the United States by moving away from the push-in model towards a co-teaching model that sees both the generalist and the ESL teacher instructing all the students in a classroom. This move seems to be in response to ESL teachers believing that the benefits of inclusiveness in push-in are outweighed by the many challenges that arise when teachers try to share a space without effectively collaborating. The research shows that co-teaching has the chance to be a highly successful model when instituted with strong support, but it remains an idealistic model in practice. In the literature on support models, ESL teachers strongly favour the pull-out model for the learning space, the ability to instruct language, and feelings of self-efficacy, to name just a few reasons. Researchers often support a hybrid model of learning (Fearon, 2008; Pearson, 2015; Bell & Baecher, 2017; Neumann, 2021) because they feel this allows the ELLs to receive the benefits conferred by each model. In such a model, ESL teachers could push-in or co-teach part of the time, and pull students out when they want to work on focussed skills in a quieter space. The option to pull an ELL out of class when the push-in environment is not meeting the needs of the ELL is a useful compromise, and responds to the preferences of ESL teachers who want the opportunity to meet with students and provide them with a supportive learning environment.

In summary, six themes emerged from a review of the literature, and these themes are well worth considering when deciding how to support ELLs. These themes point to the need for strong leadership, ongoing training and support for collaboration, consideration of how to provide targeted language instruction, creating a safe language learning environment, valuing the ESL instructor's role, and ensuring ELLs receive the support minutes they are entitled to by district policies.

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## Appendix A

Table A1

*Notes of the Sources Reviewed*

<b>Authors(s) Publication Year Journal</b>	<b>Participants</b>	<b>Research Objectives</b>	<b>Methods (Qualitative, Quantitative, or Mixed)</b>	<b>Key Findings</b>
Baecher, L., & Bell, A. B. (2017). Opportunity to teach: Push-in and pull-out models of English learner instruction.	Part 1 – 72 ESL teachers from Gr.1-5  Part 2 – 20 randomly selected teachers from first group completed data tracking of the minutes that students received ESL support. Only 9 teachers completed the month of tracking.	First, to learn from ESL teachers about their own experiences with the different models. Second, to see which model provided more minutes of ESL instruction for ELLs.	In part one, a questionnaire with both qualitative and quantitative questions. In part two, a detailed questionnaire (qualitative) and data-tracking (quantitative) of instructional minutes for 9 teachers.	Part one found that teachers had strong concerns about support: 1) no time to collaborate, 2) not seen as equals, 3) floated around the room, 4) massive caseload. Part two revealed that push-in provided fewer minutes of instructional time (40% of required minutes). Pull-out reached 60% of required minutes. Authors argue that school leaders have a key role in the success of ELLs, by mandating minutes, spaces, coverage, etc. to ensure ELLs receive strong support.
Bell, A. B., & Baecher, L. (2012). Points on a continuum: ESL teachers reporting on	72 ESL teachers across multiple states.	This study examined teachers' perspectives on	Mixed Methods. Teachers were surveyed with qualitative	Teachers reported that they "strongly favoured pull-out." Collaboration tended to be informal

<p>collaboration. <i>TESOL Journal</i>, 3(3), 488-515.</p>		<p>whether collaborative models (push-in and co-teaching) were more effective than pull-out. The study examined the frequency and formality of collaboration.</p>	<p>(perceptions of each model) and quantitative (frequency and formality) questions.</p>	<p>(unplanned, little recorded information) and infrequent. ESL instructors valued more collaboration but believed there was no culture of collaboration. This culture would require planning time, equal status, and admin support.</p>
<p>Bauler, C. V., &amp; Kang, E. J. (2020). Elementary ESOL and content teachers' resilient co-teaching practices: a long-term analysis. <i>International Multilingual Research Journal</i>, 14(4), 338-354.</p>	<p>Initial survey n=73. In year 2 and 3, n=43 individual teachers at the K-4 level (12 teams of teachers: ESOL teacher + content teachers).</p>	<p>A 3-year study in New York to understand the resilient practices and persistent barriers that existed for co-teachers (ESOL and content teacher) in a mandated co-teaching environment in one district.</p>	<p>Mixed Methods. Surveys, classroom observations, informal interviews, and NYSESLAT statewide test. Surveys determined initial participants. In years 2 and 3 observations and interviews were conducted. The statewide test was compared across 3 years (the first-year results took place before co-teaching was mandated, year 2 and 3 results</p>	<p>Even with limited planning time, co-teaching had resilient practices. Co-teaching succeeded well in English heavy classes (writing, social studies). In years 2 and 3, roles of teachers became more equal in successful teams. In strong partnerships, the ESOL teachers could teach all students academic language. Teachers also reported that co-teaching was inclusive for students and led to collaboration with peers. Performance scores on the test showed that the number of low-proficiency students decreased, and the number of higher-</p>

			came after the mandate).	proficiency students increased after the mandate. However, even after 3 years, planning time, curricular and scheduling issues, and confusion of roles continued to be barriers to successful co-teaching arrangements. The success of collaborations was highly situational, dependent on good relationships and a willingness to work extra hours to plan.
Creese, A. (2006). Supporting talk? Partnership teachers in classroom interaction. <i>International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism</i> , 9(4), 434-453.	Two secondary teachers working in 'support' (not collaboration): the ESL instructor and the geography instructor. They worked with two students.	The study aimed to examine the different discourses used by the subject teacher and the ESL teacher.	Case study. The two teachers were selected out of a larger group, and they present a 'typical' case.	The paper is supportive of mainstreaming. The aim of ESL teacher is to have students understand the content. ESL teachers are stronger at facilitative talk, as opposed to the discourse of transmission of the subject teacher. Facilitative talk uses questions to access prior knowledge and check understanding; the importance of this talk shows that the ESL instructor has an important role in

				supporting content learning for ELLs. “Facilitating, accessing, scaffolding and often working with the few” is often perceived as unskilled work, but this is not the case.
Cummins, J. (1981). Age on arrival and immigrant second language learning in Canada: A Reassessment. (1981). <i>Applied Linguistics</i> , 11(2), 132–149.	Data from a previous paper, the Ramsey and Wright paper, was re-analyzed. 1200 immigrant students in Toronto, grades 5, 7, and 9.	The study examined the relationship between the length of residence in Canada and English proficiency.	Quantitative. Students were given an English language test assessing various language skills.	A key finding was that it took immigrant children who arrived after the age of 6 an average of 5 years to attain grade level proficiency. Thus, ELLs need support for longer than one or two years, which was often the duration granted by boards.
Durham, C. (2018). Teacher interculturality in an English as a second language elementary pull-out program: Teacher as broker in the school's community of practice. <i>The Qualitative Report</i> , 23(3), 677-696.	One ESL teacher, Lidia.	To examine Lidia's experience in an elementary pull-out program.	Ethnographic case study.	ESL teachers enable students to become participants in the school community. Lidia's experiences as a foreigner and English L2 speaker allowed her to connect with the students on a personal level. Empathy is a key trait, and the pull-out method allowed Lidia to connect with students and instruct them on the unspoken cultural rules of school. Very important to allow student to use

				their own experiences to make connections (multiliteracies). Criticism: a focus on culture leads to a lack of emphasis on academic language.
Fearon, K. (2008). <i>A team teaching approach to ESL: An evaluative case study</i> (Doctoral dissertation, Kean University).	4 elementary teachers: 2 generalists and 2 ESL instructors.	Examined whether a move away from pull-out towards a more inclusive team-teaching approach could decrease the learning gap that adversely affected ELLs compared to non-ELLs.	Case study. Teachers met and discussed the effectiveness of their new collaborative method.	The study found that a hybrid model is ideal. Although increased collaboration was found to be beneficial for ELLs, the author argued that she still felt a “strong need” for pull-out. Pull-out allowed students to 1) “relax and verbalize” more easily 2) practice conversational fluency 3) improve reading fluency by re-reading texts and 4) build vocabulary and prior knowledge for classroom work. The author did not find that co-teaching decreased the learning gap.
Fu, D., Houser, W. R., & Huang, A. (2007). A collaboration between ESL and regular classroom teachers for ELL students’ literacy development. <i>Changing English</i> , 14(3), 325-342.	One 4 <sup>th</sup> grade teaching pair (ESL instructor and classroom teacher).	Examined how a structured collaboration between an ESL teacher and a classroom teacher could benefit Chinese ELLs	Qualitative study. Teachers were interviewed and they discussed the progress of their students.	Bauler and Kang cited this work in 2020: “when teachers engaged in classroom observation, curriculum collaboration, goal-setting, assessment progress, and structured push-in sessions, Chinese speaking

		literacy skills (in particular, writing).		students' English literacy skills improved dramatically." The overall model was pull-out but teachers' collaboration was highly structured, and included some push-in sessions. Almost a complete focus on writing, which led to improvements in this area. Administration support was crucial, but meeting time remained a major barrier (many working lunches). Time, limited budgets, pressure to meet outcomes, remain large barriers to successful collaboration.
Giles, A., & Yazan, B. (2020). "You're Not an Island": A Middle Grades Language Arts Teacher's Changed Perceptions in ESL and Content Teachers' Collaboration. <i>RMLE Online</i> , 43(3), 1-15.	Two collaborating teachers in middle school: the ESL instructor and the Language Arts instructor.	The study examined whether increased collaboration with ESL instructor would change the LA instructor's perception of the ESL role, and lead the LA instructor to alter their teaching to better accommodate ELLs in the classroom.	Case study using qualitative methods (interviews, recorded planning sessions, journal for LA instructor).	The ESL instructor put in a lot of planning time to make sure lessons were scaffolded and outcomes were differentiated. The homeroom teacher came to see ELL learning as her responsibility, not just the ESL teacher's. The homeroom teacher came to view the role of the ESL teacher as vital, and perceived

				collaboration as highly valuable. Paper argues that admin needs to allow planning time for collaboration; also, both teachers need to put in work to learn about the area outside their expertise.
Goldenberg, C. (2020). Reading wars, reading science, and English learners. <i>Reading Research Quarterly</i> , 55, S131-S144.	A Synthesis of literature on best practices for reading instruction for ELLs.	Literacy levels for ELL's are lower, and become more pronounced as students age. Aimed to find a "science of reading instruction", building on a well-developed "science of reading."	Literature Synthesis. Literature notes the importance foundational skills (phonics, vocab, etc.) as key to learning academic language. Balanced literacy not effective for ELLs due to lack of meaning construction.	Foundational skills are important for all readers. ELLs decode as well as native speakers, but lack vocabulary and comprehension skills Major gaps in Gr.3/4 are hard to fix, as language use becomes decontextualized. Argues for a much stronger focus on oral language and listening skills; direct instruction is valued as much as content. Interventions supporting ELLs do not address achievement gap, and tend to support non-ELLs equally, bringing up the question, do ELLs require differentiated instruction? Key findings: oral language support needed for L2 learners to build skills

				and knowledge; ELD should be prioritized over “culturally appropriate instruction”; academic language proficiency is the greatest need for ELLs, and will support school success.
McClure, G., & Cahnmann-Taylor, M. (2010). Pushing back against push-in: ESOL teacher resistance and the complexities of coteaching. <i>TESOL Journal</i> , 1(1), 101-129.	1 <sup>st</sup> Study --A group of ESOL teachers (# unknown).  2 <sup>nd</sup> Study – 2 Co-teachers	Used performance-based theatre to hear stories of the struggles of ESOL teachers in a co-teaching environment.  Part 2 looked at the relationship of 2 co-teachers over the course of an extended period.	Qualitative. Performance-based theatre, followed by discussion and questioning of ESOL teachers. 2 <sup>nd</sup> study – 19 observations, plus interviews with the two co-teachers at various stages.	Push-in method of ESOL instruction fails students. Conforms to the “rhetoric of inclusion”, but its effectiveness is questioned. The key issue is the problem of forming strong relationships among co-teachers. The ESOL teacher is not perceived as an equal (sometimes due to race or ethnicity). Even in equal relationships, meeting time, planning time, and critical reflection are neglected. Teachers noted that they were “going through the motions.” ESOL teacher missed direct focus on language.
Neumann, M. (2021). The advantages of existing English-medium models in meeting the linguistic needs	A capstone project that led to the creation of a practical guide: <i>Guide to an Effective</i>	The goal was to compare push-in, pull-out, and co-teaching in order	A literature review of the pros and cons of each model.	Concludes that a hybrid model, in which the benefits of each individual model are

<p>of elementary ELL students. <i>School of Education: Student Capstone Projects.</i></p>	<p><i>English-medium ELL Program Model.</i></p>	<p>to understand the benefits of each model.</p>		<p>utilized, is the ideal model for ELLs. The key pull-out benefits are 1) opportunities for explicit instruction 2) a safe environment. Key push-in benefits are 1) decreasing ELD time and 2) increased socialization. Key co-teaching benefits are 1) frequent observations by colleagues and 2) simultaneous content and language instruction.</p>
<p>Pearson, A. M. (2015). Second language model programming: an examination of co-teaching and pull-out instruction/assessment of second-language learners: an examination of current assessment practice. <i>Culminating Projects in English.</i></p>	<p>83 ESL instructors.</p>	<p>The study examined ESL teachers' perceptions of the success of the model they were teaching in, and the model they would prefer to teach in given the option. The four models were: full-time pull-out, co-teach and pull-out, full-time push-in, full-time co-teaching.</p>	<p>Quantitative. Surveys were used in which teachers answered questions about their current instructional model, their perception of the model's success, and their preferred model.</p>	<p>Sample sizes for each group were small. Full-time pull-out was perceived to be much more successful (87.5%) than full-time co-teaching (53.6%). The two preferred models were full-time pull-out and pull-out/co-teaching hybrid. Author concludes that without 1) adequate training 2) similar teaching styles and 3) common planning time, co-teaching is "difficult".</p>
<p>Russell, F. A. (2019). ESOL and mainstream teacher collaboration: Overcoming</p>	<p>8 teachers (4 generalists and 4 ESL teachers), for a total of 4 pairs of co-teachers at the</p>	<p>The study explored how co-teachers sustained their</p>	<p>Case study that used multiple qualitative</p>	<p>The author found that challenges of collaboration were</p>

<p>challenges through developing routines. <i>NYSTESOL Journal</i>, 6(1), 19-33.</p>	<p>3<sup>rd</sup> grade level in elementary school.</p>	<p>collaborative relationship, and the challenges that arose from co-teaching.</p>	<p>instruments, including surveys, document analysis, and interviews.</p>	<p>prominent in the findings, such as lack of time, unrealistic expectations, and some teachers not buying into shared space and shared roles. However, co-teachers found value later in the year when relationships were established, and they could build off each other's strengths.</p>
<p>Saunders, W. M., Foorman, B. R., &amp; Carlson, C. D. (2006). Is a separate block of time for oral English language development in programs for English learners needed?. <i>The Elementary School Journal</i>, 107(2), 181-198.</p>	<p>1399 kindergarten students across America.</p>	<p>To examine whether a separate ELD block led to greater amounts of literacy and oral language study time. Also, to see if separate ELD blocks led to greater academic achievement.</p>	<p>Quantitative. Woodcock Language Proficiency Battery- Revised: English and Spanish Forms test was administered twice.</p>	<p>Separate ELD blocks (cited by Baecher and Bell as 'pull-out' instruction) led to more time on literacy and oral language tasks. In addition, learners with ELD blocks showed "modestly but significantly" higher oral and literacy scores. ELD time block brought focus to activities. PD is needed for teachers to learn about the "decontextualized register" (defined as the "explicit encoding of references for pronouns, actions, and locations") because this improves academic skills.</p>

<p>Saunders, W., Goldenberg, C., &amp; Marcelletti, D. (2013). English language development: Guidelines for instruction. <i>American Educator</i>, 37(2), 13.</p>	<p>Article synthesizing research on best practices for ELD instruction.</p>	<p>After combing the research on instruction for ELD, the authors give 14 guidelines to promote effective instruction.</p>	<p>Article uses six research syntheses and meta-analyses.</p>	<p>Some guideline examples: 1) Focussed language instruction is beneficial 2) Support should continue until advanced levels 4) A separate ELD block (pull-out) is beneficial 6) ELD requires direct instruction of vocab, syntax, morphology, functions, etc.) and 7) a focus on academic language 12) Use interactive activities, but wisely, with production as goal 13) Use corrective feedback</p>
<p>Short, K. (2018). <i>Effects of teaching methods on achievement of English language learners</i> (Doctoral dissertation, Walden University).</p>	<p>A four-year study of 54-74 Gr.3-5 ELLs at an American school in Brazil; number depended on the year of study.</p>	<p>Analyzed whether the switch to a push-in program from a pull-out program led to higher end-of-year-achievement at an American school in Brazil for ELLs. Data was analyzed with Kruskal-Wallis test. Author hypothesized that push-in would lead to great achievement.</p>	<p>Quantitative ex-post facto study: causal-comparative approach. 2010 pull-out scores were compared to 2012, 2013, and 2014 push-in scores on a year-end assessment.</p>	<p>Author's hypothesis was proven incorrect, as achievement scores dropped after implementation of a push-in program. Author (the principal) decided to revert to a pull-out program and increase PD for teachers, emphasizing collaboration to connect language learning to curriculum.</p>
<p>Simmons, C. Y. (2018). <i>The co-teaching model: relational</i></p>	<p>6 teachers (3 generalist and 3 ESL).</p>	<p>The aim of the study was to</p>	<p>Qualitative. Teachers were</p>	<p>Four themes identified: 1) preparation 2) value</p>

<p><i>dynamics and lived experiences of teachers within the english language classroom</i> (Doctoral dissertation, Walden University).</p>		<p>receive feedback from co-teachers on their experience working in a co-teaching ESL model.</p>	<p>interviewed twice to understand their feelings about co-teaching.</p>	<p>of time 3) issues of control 4) dynamics of relationship. "Time is a constant struggle." Though teachers were open to collaboration, finding time was a constant challenge. An effective relationship could overcome many barriers: "personality is everything." Model works best when both teachers feel responsibility for all students. Long-term partnerships are recommended, and more training on collaboration is needed.</p>
<p>Thompson, S. (2019). <i>Perspectives on English language learner programs: A case study</i> (Doctoral dissertation, Lindenwood University).</p>	<p>17 professionals interviewed (5 generalists, 3 ESL instructors, 2 ESL paraprofessionals, 5 ELLs, 2 principals).</p>	<p>The author wanted to gain various perspectives on the push-in and pull-out program models through interviews of professionals in one district which worked on a hybrid model (using both push-in and pull-out).</p>	<p>Qualitative. Participants were interviewed to gain an understanding of their perspective.</p>	<p>Teacher participants believed students gained more from pull-out than push-in (focussed language instruction). English teaching staff referred to push-in as "task-completion" with little language work. Students preferred pull-out because it was less noisy, allowing them to learn more. Push-in was infrequent. PD is necessary for educators. Caseload is too high for</p>

				ESLs. More resources are needed for ELLs to be successful.
Turner, M., & Windle, J. (2019). Exploring the positioning of teacher expertise in TESOL-Related curriculum standards. <i>TESOL Quarterly</i> , 53(4), 939-959.	Analysis of teacher expertise requirements in five different places (Australia, England, Ontario, New York City, and New York State).	To examine policy and curriculum documents from different countries and districts and analyze the expertise in language instruction necessary for instructors who are with ELLs.	Curriculum and policy analysis.	In Ontario, teachers at the secondary level (9-12) are considered experts in language instruction. At the K-8 level, English instruction falls to generalists. Unlike England and Australia, curriculum documents in Ontario show that these generalists are expected to have a deep knowledge of expectations/outcomes for ELLs. By acknowledging lesson differentiation and altering expectations for ELLs in curriculum guides, Ontario is acknowledging that specialist knowledge exists. The fact that all generalists in Australia, England, and Ontario are expected to have some knowledge about instructing ELLs could contribute to a diminishment in the perceived value of specialist instructors; in

				these regions, the focus for instruction is on “strategies” rather than “knowledge”. In the U.S, instructors promote bilingualism, and policies reveal that teachers are expected to be experts in language instruction (by incorporating home language into classroom activities).
Vintan, A., & Gallagher, T. L. (2019). Collaboration to support ESL education: Complexities of the integrated model. <i>TESL Canada Journal</i> , 36(2), 68-90.	Four ESL teachers	This paper aimed to examine how ESL teachers and generalists collaborated at the elementary level after the move to a push-in model, and how future professional development could benefit collaboration.	Case study. The data included semi-structured interviews and observations of teachers	The ESL teachers reported a strong belief in the value of collaboration; in addition, they felt that a move to push-in led to more collaboration. However, barriers emerged such as 1) generalists not being aware of the ESL teacher role and perceiving ESLT's as evaluators 2) collaborators not using technology effectively 3) a limited amount of training in how to collaborate on curriculum mapping, goal setting, and assessment. Due to these barriers, collaboration remained infrequent and informal.

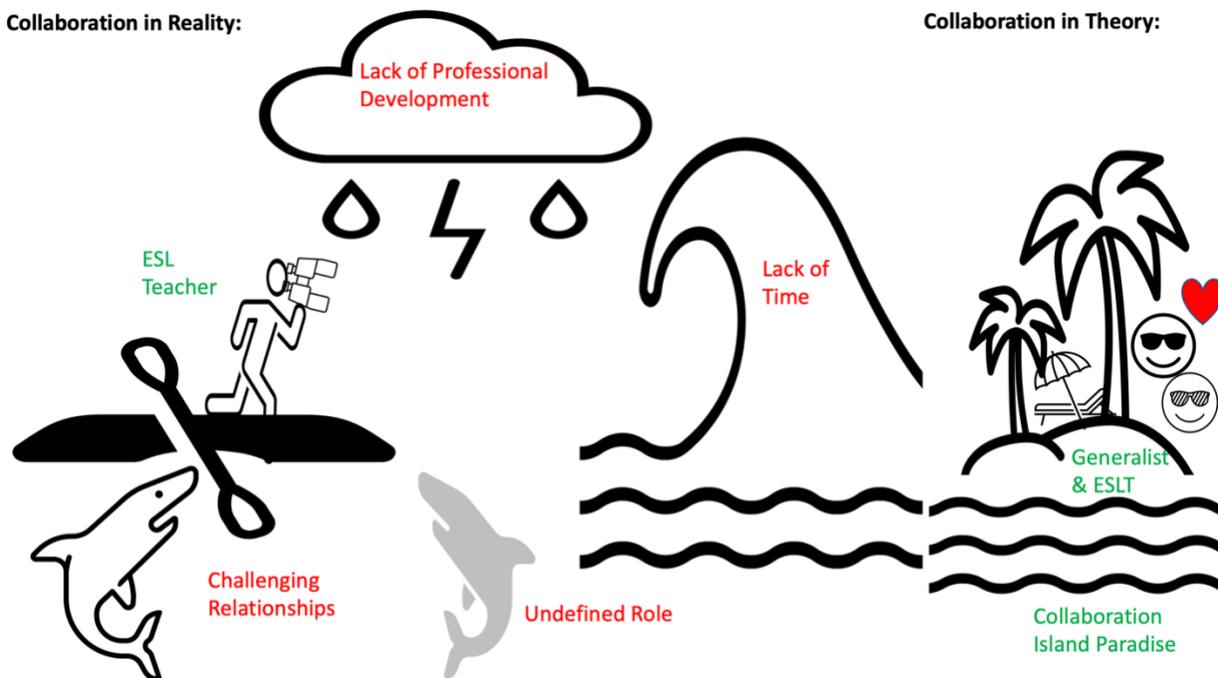
<p>Whiting, J. (2017). Caught between the push and the pull: ELL teachers' perceptions of mainstreaming and ESOL classroom teaching. <i>NABE Journal of Research and Practice</i>, 8(1), 9-27.</p>	<p>71 teachers surveyed.</p>	<p>To examine the perceptions of teachers on pull-out and push-in support. The teachers were working in low-incidence ELL settings (few ELLs in a classroom).</p>	<p>Mixed methods. The survey had both quantitative and qualitative questions.</p>	<p>Study found that teachers have an "overwhelmingly negative" view of the push-in method. Argues that the co-teaching ideal is rarely met in push-in settings, and that safe-zones are key for ELLs. Major disadvantages of push-in are 1) student embarrassment 2) teacher's loss of professional identity 3) less focussed instruction 4) logistics of working in the classroom 5) unclear role. Advantages of push-in were 1) knowledge of the mainstream classroom 2) not missing classwork 3) social benefits of not being pulled-out. Major advantages of pull-out as noted by teachers were 1) freedom from distraction 2) curriculum control 3) safe zone for ELLs.</p>
<p>York-Barr, J., Ghere, G., &amp; Sommerness, J. (2007). Collaborative teaching to increase ELL student</p>	<p>3-year study. 81 teachers over 3 years.</p>	<p>This study examined how co-teachers developed</p>	<p>Case study with qualitative and quantitative data. Qualitative data</p>	<p>Teacher groups reported very positive experiences with collaboration; they felt</p>

<p>learning: A three-year urban elementary case study. <i>Journal of education for students placed at risk</i>, 12(3), 301-335.</p>	<p>Each year had 150-160 students, 50-55% of which were ELLs.</p>	<p>collaborative practices over an extended period, and how they felt about this collaboration. It also examined academic achievement for ELLs.</p>	<p>included group and individual interviews for teachers. For quantitative data, the annual MAT-7 was used from years 0-3.</p>	<p>lessons became more interesting and supported all learners, and some found more joy in teaching. Key barriers that remained were trying to force relationships when teachers had different philosophies, unclear roles, and other teachers feeling bitter because resources went to the collaborative teams. Students did very well with collaborative instruction because they valued the safe space and this increased participation. Students' grades increased substantially in math and reading in the 1<sup>st</sup> year of the study, but reading scores decreased in the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> years.</p>
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## Appendix B

Figure 9

*Collaboration in Reality Versus Collaboration in Theory for Push-in and Co-teaching*



*Note:* This visual representation of collaboration was drawn by Hilary Livingston (M.Ed). It provides a teacher-friendly visualization of the challenges of collaboration.