Chapter 1

Who Are English Learners and Their Teachers?

The Profession of Teaching English Learners

Language is a powerful means of communicating the deepest and highest desires, dreams, and ideals of humanity. Language helps us to fulfill our potential, to share our inner selves with others, or to act on the world powerfully. We use language to participate in private and public life with our families, community, or nation. As teachers, we use language to help others reach higher states of knowledge, emotion, or spirit. These are among the strongest drives of humankind, and language has proved to be a superior tool for those ends. But how frustrating that no common language exists among peoples of the world! The world today stands on the brink of an opportunity never before available: the use of a world language, English, that can sustain intercultural contact between individuals who would otherwise have no mutual means of communication. However, the role of English entails a host of social, economic, and political issues.

English Language Development

Before looking at English teaching around the world, some fundamental questions need to be posed. Asking these questions helps frame the context for English instruction (Kaplan, 2001).

Why will English be taught, and what variety?
Who are the learners?
Who are the teachers, and how are they trained?
When will instruction begin, how long will it last, and who will pay the expenses?
Who prepares the syllabus and teaching materials?
Who determines what methods are appropriate, how the success of students is assessed, and whether the teaching program is effective?
What role do the learners, or parents of learners, play in decision making?

From these questions, it is clear that language teaching is intricately interwoven with language planning and policy decisions (see chapter 2).

Teaching English learners is one of the fastest-growing professions in today’s world. But who are “English learners”? In countries such as the United States, Canada, the United Kingdom, and Australia, native speakers of English study their own language as they progress through school. Such instruction is not considered “teaching English learners”; even though English is being taught on a daily basis, the fact that the learners are native speakers of English means they are not “English learners.” The term English learners means those who are learning English as non-native speakers.

However, in many English-speaking countries, traditional academic English classes increasingly serve students who, although schooled entirely in English, speak other languages at home. These have been called “Generation 1.5 students” (Rumbaut & Portes, 2001; Roberge, 2009)—caught between generations, having acquired some proficiency in two or more languages but not truly native speakers of English. Even though they take classes with native speakers, they may not actually have attained academic competence in English. To teach these students, English teachers in classes designed for native speakers may also benefit from a focus on “English learners.”
Therefore, the answer to the question “Who is an English learner?” may not simply be, “One who is taught by an ESL/EFL teacher.” English learners are also taught by teachers whose primary responsibility is to teach a primary language in a so-called bilingual classroom, as well as by English and other elementary school teachers who treat their students as native English speakers even if they are not. This situation creates a complex set of professional loyalties on the part of teachers.

The term teachers of English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) includes those who teach English learners in general, although classroom teachers may think of themselves as “elementary teachers,” “bilingual teachers,” or “English teachers.” Teaching English learners is a broad and flexible profession: TESOL educators can be found in kindergartens in Seattle, college classrooms in Korea, adult education classes in Texas, “cram” schools in Thailand, precollege preparation courses in Michigan, middle school social studies classes in California, five-year vocational colleges in Taiwan, private schools in the United Arab Emirates, or summer intensive programs in Uzbekistan. They operate at a myriad of levels in a host of countries around the world, working with learners at levels ranging from preschool to postgraduate. TESOL educators are represented professionally by the organization TESOL International Association (www.tesol.org).

The field of teaching English learners is equally open to those whose native language is English and those who are nonnative speakers. Positions are available worldwide with employers who recognize that those who have learned English as an additional language and have achieved some measure of bilingual competence are uniquely qualified to understand the needs of English learners (see Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 1999). TESOL's Nonnative English Speakers in TESOL (NNEST) Interest Section (http://nnest.asu.edu) can provide more information about this topic.

It is widely acknowledged that the majority of English teachers worldwide are NNESTs (Liu, 1999). It is also a fact that in EFL settings such as China, Japan, Vietnam, South Korea, and Thailand, studying English with instructors whose mother tongue is the same as that of the students is not only realistic, but it is also very successful because such teachers have unique characteristics. In July 2011, a group of South Korean teachers studying at CSU, San Bernadino, suggested that NNESTS can be as effective as native-English-speaking teachers, in these ways:

- Teach language-learning strategies in L1
- Be more empathic to the needs and problems of learners
- Anticipate transfer problems between L1 and English
- Explain complex grammar points in L1
- Maintain classroom discipline and study routines according to native cultural contexts
- Enlist parental support and intervention more effectively
The Internet can help to provide a broad picture of the possibilities available to those who specialize in teaching English learners. Bilingual and ESL educators in the United States may enjoy the professional information available from the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Programs (NCELA) (www.ncela.gwu.edu/), including the online library (hundreds of full-text articles and other documents for educators); useful links to national, regional, and state educational resources and databases; a conference calendar; lesson plans; and other practical classroom information. Dave’s ESL Cafe (online at www.eslcafe.com) is a popular site for English learning, featuring chatrooms; a “bookstore”; job listings; and sections on slang, idioms, and other language-teaching tips. The Internet TESOL Journal (http://iteslj.org) connects to 3,500 additional links of interest to ESL/EFL students and teachers. Boot up, click, and enjoy the international flavor of the profession of teaching English learners.

**PRACTICES FOR TEACHERS**

**Finding Out More about Teaching English Learners**

- Investigate the career possibilities of teaching English learners using the Internet.
- Job shadow an educator to observe the challenges and opportunities.

Once the door to English is opened, learners who acquire basic tools of language acquisition can proceed at their own pace. In some countries, English skills can be a key to social and economic success. However, in the United States, as
in other target cultures, entrenched social class privileges, politics, and economic realities present obstacles that must be overcome. Assisting English learners to adapt to or adopt the ways of a particular target culture as they learn English is an increasingly important facet of teaching. In the process, educators of many backgrounds, not solely native speakers of English, may learn much about themselves. Such cultural broadening as an outcome of teaching offers the possibility of valuable personal growth.

Aside from the intellectual and pedagogical challenges of teaching in a language-acquisition classroom, those who teach in such classrooms reap what they sow. Those who offer cultural understanding receive it; those who offer language exchange expand their foreign-language skills; those who offer empathy grow as human beings. No other area of teaching extends as rich an opportunity for intercultural communication, literacy development, creative instructional delivery, or reflective social praxis. And few other teaching areas involve such hard work!

Language learning is a complex, dynamic process that forms the foundation for academic skills. Beginning with basic communication skills, English learners face an uphill battle to acquire the sophisticated verbal skills needed for college entry or career success. Part of the challenge of educating learners of a second language is discovering what works and doing more of it, and then supporting other educators who are making similar discoveries and achieving similar successes.

In the past, students without English skills may have sat silent, excluded from instruction, because the classroom teacher was unable to teach them. In contrast, teachers today are challenged to prepare all students to succeed in life, including those learners who enter schools speaking a language other than English. Part of the repertoire of the contemporary teacher is a set of English-teaching strategies to reach those students whose English proficiency is emergent.

**Educational Terminology**

As in other professions, teaching English learners requires mastering a unique jargon. Table 1.1 offers a look at the terminology in this field.

As in other fields, when teaching English learners, one occasionally meets controversy over terminology. This book uses the term *English learner* rather than the term *language minority student*, although Skutnabb-Kangas insists that the term *minority* is correct, and its use in reference to populations whose language is a minority actually preserves legal protections for students’ language rights under international agreements (see Wink, 2000).

The term *bilingual* has a wide variety of meanings and connotations. It can be used to designate the linguistic skills of individuals competent in two or more languages. The term *bilingual education* is also used to characterize types of educational programs (see Díaz-Rico & Weed, 2010). Many other terms will arise in the glossary of words useful in teaching English learners. These will be defined as they arise.

Teachers of English learners draw on such disciplines as linguistics, English literature and language study, foreign-language teaching pedagogy, sociology, anthropology, psychology, philosophy, and computer-assisted learning, as well as specific fields of study (medicine, engineering, aviation) that have their own distinctive
## TABLE 1.1 Educational Terminology for Teachers of English Learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
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<tr>
<td>English learners, EL students</td>
<td>Anyone learning to speak English whose native language is not English</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)</td>
<td>The discipline of instructing English learners</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages International Association</td>
<td>International professional association that represents TESOL educators</td>
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<tr>
<td>English as a second language (ESL)</td>
<td>Learners whose primary language is not English, yet who live in places where English has some sort of special status or public availability</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teaching English as a second language (TESL)</td>
<td>Teacher education programs whose candidates will teach ESL</td>
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<tr>
<td>English as a foreign language (EFL)</td>
<td>Learners of English who live in places where English is, by and large, an academic subject, functioning narrowly in that culture as a tool for communicating with outsiders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL)</td>
<td>Teacher education programs whose candidates will teach EFL</td>
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<td>English-language development (ELD)</td>
<td>Term used in the United States to refer to ESL services</td>
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<tr>
<td>English-language teaching or English-language training (ELT)</td>
<td>Term used internationally to refer to EFL services</td>
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<tr>
<td>Language acquisition (includes language learning)</td>
<td>Learning language in a natural context or formally through rules of grammar and usage</td>
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<tr>
<td>First language (L1)</td>
<td>The language learned at home from the primary caregivers (mother tongue, primary language, or native language)</td>
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<tr>
<td>First-language acquisition (FLA)</td>
<td>Acquiring mother tongue, primary language, or native language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second language (L2)</td>
<td>Any language (whether third or twentieth) that is learned after the first language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second-language acquisition (SLA)</td>
<td>Learning any language (whether third or twentieth) in school or in some other way after the first language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target language (TL)</td>
<td>The language that is being learned in SLA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minority-language student</td>
<td>Student whose native language is not the main language spoken in that country (a misleading term, perhaps, because a language other than English is the majority language in many classrooms of English learners)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELL</td>
<td>English-language learner (English learner)</td>
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</table>
glossaries in English (creating the field known as English for special purposes, or ESP). Terminology from these associated disciplines will be introduced throughout this book as needed.

**Critical Perspectives**

This book adopts a critical perspective in regard to the education of English learners. A critical perspective is one that looks at broad social issues of dual-language proficiency and language policy from a point of view that promotes social transformation. It asks teachers to develop a deeper understanding of the effects of culture and language on the success—or disenfranchisement—of minority students by school culture, curriculum, and instructional methods in order to promote social change toward increased social equity and social justice.

As Wink (2000) has stated, “Critical does not mean to criticize. Rather, it means seeing beyond. It means looking within and without and seeing more deeply into the complexities of teaching and learning” (p. 29). It is my hope that those who use this book will become inspired to look within, around, and beyond social and educational issues; to ask probing questions concerning the role of educators in the struggle to attain fairness, justice, equity, and equal opportunity in the world; and also to work toward social equity and justice as part of their role as language educators.

Equity issues connected to the teaching of English do not disappear when English is taught as a foreign language. The same social, political, and economic forces that have mandated English learning in countries around the world have created layers of access and disenfranchisement that facilitate enrollment in English courses for social elites while barring the door to the poor. English as an international language (EIL) is an area of sociological and linguistic study that traces the impact of English on societies around the world. Those who equate English with traditions of social justice and democracy may be in for a rude awakening, for English is deployed within a wide variety of nations without democratic goals and ideals as well as in countries that share liberal Western cultural values.

**Who are English Learners and What are Their Needs?**

“What’s that?” Jenny Wright asks fourth grader Michael Lopez, pointing to a drawing of a foot.

The boy shrugs.

This fall afternoon, as the rest of Wright’s remedial reading class at Park Hill Elementary School in San Jacinto, California, completes language exercises on worksheets or computers, Wright is coaching her newest student, Michael, one on one.

He knows what a foot is, of course, but to him, it’s *el pie*. The nine-year-old arrived last year from Culiacan, Mexico, and speaks barely a word of English.
Scenes like this unfold in nearly every classroom on Park Hill’s tidy campus, where teachers struggle daily to balance the intense needs of immigrant students with the overall demands of educating everyone (Rosenblatt, 2007).

The following overview of the education of English learners in the United States and in selected countries around the world is presented with this question in mind: Who are English learners and what are their needs?

**U.S. Demographics**

Higher birthrates among nonwhites than among whites, together with steady immigration rates, have impacted U.S. demographics and created a need for ESL services. California still leads the United States in demographic changes, as “minorities” became the majority in California in the year 2000.

In 2008–2009, there were 49,487,174 students enrolled in K–12 schools in the United States. Of these students, 5,346,673 are English learners (NCELA, 2009). This represents a 51 percent gain since 1997–1998. In nine states (California, Oregon, Nevada, Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, Illinois, and Florida) over 10 percent of students are English learners. The greatest growth in percent of population, however, has taken place in ten states, mostly clustered in the South: Alabama, Georgia, Arkansas, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, Tennessee, and Kentucky, as well as Indiana and Colorado (NCELA, 2009). Five states—California, Texas, New York, Florida, and Illinois—are home to almost 70 percent of all English learners in elementary schools (Cosentino de Cohen & Clewell, 2007).

In 2000, 32.8 million Latinos resided in the United States, accounting for 12 percent of the total U.S. population (the terms Hispanic and Latino are used interchangeably in the 2000 census reports). From 2000 to 2004, Latino populations grew more than 40 percent in six metropolitan areas: Atlanta; Cape Coral, Florida; Charlotte, North Carolina; Indianapolis; Nashville; and Raleigh, North Carolina (Associated Press International, 2006). Latinos of Mexican origin live mostly in the West (56.8 percent) and South (32.6 percent); Cubans predominate in the South (80.1 percent); Puerto Ricans in the Northeast (63.9 percent); and Central and South Americans in the Northeast (32.3 percent), the South (34.6 percent), and the West (28.2 percent) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2001b).

In 2010, the Asian and Pacific Islander population in the United States numbered 18.5 million, constituting 6 percent of the population. (Asian refers to those belonging to any of the original peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia, or the Indian subcontinent, including Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippine Islands, Thailand, and Vietnam. Pacific Islander refers to those belonging to any of the original peoples of Hawai’i, Guam, Samoa, or other Pacific islands.) Approximately 2 percent of these Asians are Chinese speakers, and of these more than 80 percent prefer to speak Chinese at home (Wallraff, 2000). Nationally, the growth of the Asian and Pacific Islander population at 46 percent
between 2001 and 2010 is the largest of any racial or ethnic group, suggesting a proportional increase in the English-language teaching needs of these students (http://2010.census.gov/news/releases/operations/cb11-cn123.html).

Nationwide, in 1990 about one in seven people spoke a language other than English at home. By 2010, that number had risen to 20 percent of the population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2001c). States vary in this percentage, with California leading at 40 percent, followed by New Mexico at 36 percent and Texas at 32 percent. Swerdlov’s (2001) detailed population maps show when and where immigration has occurred within the continental United States. In 2010, California, with a school enrollment of approximately 1.6 million English learners, led the states in the need for ESL services at the K–12 level (California Department of Education, 2010).

**ELD Services for English Learners**

By and large, then, in the United States, those who educate English learners are most likely to find employment in California, New Mexico, New York, or Texas, and in schools in city centers serving Hispanics or Asians and Pacific Islanders. Aside from this employment likelihood, demographics indicate that services for English learners are needed in every state and large city. For example, a major employer in the Cedar Falls/Waterloo metropolitan area is the meatpacking industry. Although Iowa in general is not a magnet for immigrants, many immigrants are attracted every year because of the high turnover of employees in the dangerous and low-paying meatpacking industry. Many such immigrants—mostly from Mexico, but also from Bosnia and Vietnam—bring with them schoolchildren; the ESL population in the local schools has gone from 50 in 1996 to more than 800 in 2001 (Milambiling, 2002).

From these demographics, it should be clear that ESL education in the United States is deeply bound up with the problems of inner-city education. As of 2007, about 46 percent of schools with high levels of English learner enrollment were in urban settings, versus about 24 percent of the low- and no-English-learner schools. Schools with no English learners tended to be in rural parts of the country, and those with low numbers were in suburban areas. Racial differences in schools correlated with large numbers of English learners. Rural areas served a 76 percent White student population, whereas at schools with high numbers of English learners, minority students accounted for 77 percent of the student body. These differences were largely driven by Hispanic students, who made up 53 percent of the students enrolled in schools with high numbers of English learners (Cosentino de Cohen & Clewell, 2007).

There are many English learners among the 50 percent yearly dropout population of the Boston public school system, or the 70 percent dropout population in the New York public schools. Macedo and Freire (1998, p. ix) claimed that the United States is experiencing the “Third-Worldization” of North America, with high levels of poverty, violence, homelessness, and human misery in the inner cities that approach proportions seen in the shantytowns of the disadvantaged nations of the world. The percentage of poor children, represented by the share qualifying for free and/or reduced-price
school lunches, was significantly higher (72 percent) in schools with high numbers of English learners compared to schools with few English learners (about 40 percent). In fact, poverty was cited as a “serious problem” by more than 40 percent of principals and teachers at schools impacted by English learners, versus 20 percent or less of staff at other schools. Student health problems, likely also related to poverty, were identified as “serious” and “moderate” more frequently in high- than in low-English-learners-impacted schools (Cosentino de Cohen & Clewell, 2007, p. 3).

To educate these students, resources are badly needed, resources that are often not available to inner-city schools. The richest school districts spend 56 percent more per student than do the poorest; schools with large numbers of poor children tend to have fewer books and supplies and teachers with less training and experience. Thus, the urgent need for excellence in education for English learners is further complicated by the fact that many of the very students enrolled in these programs in the United States are poor and attend poorly equipped schools.

### Did You Know?

**Hispanic College Degrees**

Leaders of society continually emphasize the importance of a college degree in the U.S.’s knowledge-driven economy, yet in 2007, only 13 percent of Hispanics age 25 and over had earned a bachelor’s degree or higher; in 2003–2004, only 3 percent of all doctoral degree and 5 percent of master’s degree recipients in the United States were Latino/a. Given the projected Latino demographic growth in the future, it is time to say to our Latino/a youth: “Latinos are critical to our nation’s future and we will not let you fail” (S. E. Brown, 2009, p. 160).

### International Demographics of English

Shakespeare’s English at the end of the sixteenth century was the native speech of between 5 and 7 million Britons. Today, English is used by at least 750 million people, although only about 427 million speak it as a mother tongue. In fact, despite the establishment of 23 languages with equal rights in the European Union, English is nudging out French as the language of diplomacy in Europe (Phillipson, 2003).

No one is sure, moreover, what level of mastery of English determines whether a user of the language is proficient. Richard Parker, in his book *Mixed Signals: Prospects for Global Television News* (1995), reported that a study in the early 1990s tested 4,500 Europeans for “perceived” versus “actual” English skills and found that in countries such as France, Spain, and Italy, fewer than 3 percent had an excellent command of English. Only in Scandinavia, the Netherlands, and Belgium did the number rise above 10 percent. These sobering statistics indicate that English may not, after all, be the perfect international communication tool. In fact, several factors
may be putting at serious risk the idea that English will continue to dominate worldwide discourse (Wallraff, 2000): the backlash against American values and culture in the Middle East and other places; the rise of regional trading zones in Asia, Latin America, and the Middle East; and the demographic surge of young non–English speakers in Asia, Africa, and the Middle East.

Many have touted the Internet as a medium that will circulate English around the world. However, as the technology becomes more widely available, people will naturally prefer to use the Web in their home language. No matter how much material is available on the Web, one cannot simply assume that people will use the medium as a tool to practice English. As the Internet is more widely available for recreation and entertainment, it may become more and more similar to television: People may consume and use it in their native language in preference to English. After all, more than six billion people in the world are not native speakers of English.

Given these conditions, one cannot simply assume that the demand for English will develop apace with world population growth. But the presence of a variety of trends argues as much for the increasing role of global English as against. Whatever the long-range opportunities, for the present, teaching English learners is among the world’s fastest-growing occupations.

**Contexts for Teaching English Worldwide**

Despite concerns that call into question the value and utility of English to the world’s cultures and peoples, there is no doubt that many countries are eager to employ English teachers. Following is a brief sampling of the conditions in which English is taught in various countries and areas of the world. In Japan it is widely believed that people who can speak English well have an advantage in obtaining and advancing their careers; however, few Japanese people need English skills in their everyday lives. Teachers who are native speakers of English are employed by the Japanese Exchange Teacher (JET) program at the high school level, but there is also work in the private eikaiwa (conversation) schools (G. Morrison, 1997).

In South Korea, English plays a crucial role in academic performance as a requirement for admission to competitive universities, as well as in entering prestigious occupations and, later, obtaining advancement at work. An impetus to learning English for many Koreans is the desire to live in the United States, which is home to over 1.4 million expatriate Koreans, many of whom live in the Los Angeles area (van der Woude, 1998).

In Taiwan, most students study English beginning in junior high school or earlier. About 80 percent of the economy of Taiwan relies on importing and exporting, with English being the most commonly used language in the global economic system as well as in trade between other Asian countries. English is largely a tool for passing senior high school or university entrance examinations. English teaching jobs are available in the private after-school or after-work “cram” schools, in which creative alternatives to rote classroom instruction are possible.
In the People’s Republic of China, English is widely taught, although the preferred target language is still British English. The demand for teachers who are native speakers of English is high, although the pay is low by Western standards. Those who have an MA in TESOL may find themselves teaching English teachers or preparing advanced students for the required nationwide English examinations. Conversational classes are also popular (Ness, 1998).

In 2001, France announced a package of government reforms aimed at lowering the age at which French children start studying a foreign language to six in 2004 and five in 2005. These changes will require the employment of 1,850 language assistants in the schools each year. Not all French citizens are happy with these policies, however. Many teachers fear that the new policy will result in the dominance of English (Pugliese, 2001).

In Tunisia, most students learn English as a fourth language, after Tunisian Arabic, classical Arabic, and French. Despite the dominance of French as a Western language, English is gradually gaining ground in some sectors of society (Battenberg, 1997).

In Israel, all university students need a high level of reading comprehension in English, for the vast majority of courses feature reading assignments in English. However, as written and oral assignments and class lectures take place in Hebrew, students tend to prioritize learning the meaning of technical vocabulary words in English (Kirschner, 1993).

In Eastern Europe, the breakup of the Soviet Union and the declining influence of Russian culture and language has brought new life into English studies in former Soviet-bloc countries such as Hungary, the Czech Republic, and Poland. In former republics of the Soviet Union, however, the surge of nationalist sentiments and the scramble for economic survival has served to emphasize communication in the native language and in the language of nearby trading partners over a large-scale push for English proficiency. However, outside Moscow or St. Petersburg, there are few opportunities to use English outside the classroom. Teaching positions for foreigners are limited at the primary and secondary levels, but institutions of higher education and foreign-language institutes employ native speakers, and exchange programs are available (Menconi, 1996).

Indonesia, as the world’s fourth most populous country, developed a national English-teaching syllabus as early as 1950, when English was chosen as the country’s official “first foreign language.” Students receive most of their English in high school, where it is a required subject. Currently, there are thousands of native-English-speaking teachers working in schools, universities, and private institutes all over Indonesia, supported by government-to-government agreements and university exchange programs (Musthafa, 2002).

In Mexico, English is in high demand. Anglo-American culture is popular, represented by subtitled Hollywood movies, dubbed American television shows, American baseball and football news, and various forms of pop and rock music in English on radio and television. Positions for English teachers are found mainly in private schools, in private English institutes, or in businesses, particularly in larger cities.

In Colombia, the extreme economic and security situation, as well as the number of multinational companies doing business in Colombia, have created a surge of interest in engineering and technical English (Deer, 2001). Ecuador has much to offer EFL teachers with MA degrees, who may receive a reasonable teaching load at a provincial university, free health insurance, and paid vacations (Owens, 1998). In Uruguay,
English is taught as a required subject at the secondary level and, since 1993, in the primary schools. Even small towns have English institutes, in which students work to complete international certificates. Teacher training is also available through distance learning (Pérez de Lima, 1996).

From these examples, it is evident that English learners are found throughout the world, making the teaching of English an international profession.

**Career Preparation for Teaching English Learners**

To prepare for teaching English learners, one can pursue various stages of career preparation, from BA programs with a special emphasis on language teaching through twelve-hour certificate or endorsement programs to MA programs to doctoral study in academic departments of education, linguistics, applied linguistics, or English. Despite the widely varying career ladders available to educators, the demand for professional English-language teachers has grown steadily around the world. In all parts of the world, at all times of the day, someone is teaching or studying English.

**Teaching ELD in the United States**

In states that support bilingual education, teachers with bilingual fluency who can deliver K–6 primary-language education in the languages of demand often receive hiring preference over educators who do not have bilingual certification. In the course of their primary-language instruction in literacy and in content areas, these teachers are expected also to deliver English-language development (ELD) instruction. In states where structured immersion (content delivery in English, usually without support for primary-language literacy) is the norm for K–12 English learners, teachers may be asked to use specially designed academic instruction in English (SDAIE) strategies (see Chapter 5) in addition to ELD. Elementary and secondary school teachers in most states must have a degree in education. Most elementary or secondary education teaching positions in school districts heavily impacted by English learners also require ESL/TESL/ESOL/TESOL certification or an add-on endorsement in ESL.

Ramon Espinal teaches first grade. His class consists of twenty students, all of whom speak Spanish as their primary language. Fifteen of the students attended the school during the previous year and speak a limited amount of English. He has two students who are in their first year of formal schooling and are new to the United States. The other three students have come from other schools within the district and speak no English. Espinal partners with two other first-grade teachers. These three teachers teach specialized courses in the afternoons and rotate and integrate their students for language experience. (Frey & Fisher, 2007)

For teacher education positions as well as community college and precollege preparation of international students (intensive English programs, or IEPs), an MA degree is the basic requirement. The website www.tesol.org offers an online directory of teacher education programs in North America.
Teaching adult immigrants to function successfully in an ESL environment can be richly rewarding, for seldom does one find a more grateful or devoted group of students. Aside from the level of survival skills (gaining employment, finding housing, and providing vocational English), higher levels of professional ESP can include work-site training for engineering and computer professionals and other career-enhancing efforts.

Certification for teaching in adult English programs in the United States is less standardized than are requirements in K–12 schools. Some states have statewide certification, but in others the professional requirements vary from one service provider to the next. Each employer can make the local requirements and training options available to prospective employees.

The availability of teaching employment in the United States, then, depends on the population, the role of ELD teaching in relation to bilingual education, and the local need for qualified ESOL experts. One fact, however, remains a constant: The current shortage of teachers in U.S. classrooms will worsen in the decade 2010–2020, with urban school districts facing the most extreme shortfalls. The United States is expected to need ESL-trained teachers in affected rural areas (Chan, 2004). Districts are setting aside funds for teacher bonuses, training, and recruitment; raising starting salaries for teachers; and recruiting abroad for teachers in such specialty areas as bilingual education. The employability outlook remains constant for teachers who specialize in teaching English learners.

**PRACTICES FOR TEACHERS**

*Increasing U.S. Employability*

- Be aware of the connection between local language populations and career opportunities in teaching.
- Engage in career preparation that certifies instruction at more than a single level.
- Find out what specific kind of ESOL instruction is offered at various levels of education.

**Teaching English Around the World**

English teaching is an attractive international career, one that, although imperfect, offers interesting professional and personal growth opportunities. Teaching English in a foreign country has its own rewards: viewing your native language from another perspective, living and working in a foreign country, experiencing intercultural communication on a daily basis, and learning about the learners’ culture at close range.

TESOL professionals seeking to work globally may find that the era is over in which native English speakers could be hired to teach English solely on the basis of
their native speech. There is increasing evidence that being a native English speaker will be less of a hiring advantage in the coming years. In fact, as the twenty-first century advances, English will be shaped less by the cultures of English-speaking countries and will show more evidence that English has been localized and influenced by the native language.

One is best advised to prepare carefully for a job overseas; www.tesol.org offers articles in the Placement E-Bulletin (PEB) that often suggest additional articles and tips for working outside the United States (sample tip: Candidates should take plenty of official transcripts and copies if planning to teach abroad—they may need to change jobs while overseas). Whether you are looking for a teaching position or are just curious about ESL/EFL employment trends, PEB is a useful resource. To subscribe to PEB, you must be a member of the TESOL International Association.

PRACTICES FOR TEACHERS

Teaching Successfully Abroad

- Be prepared for local adaptation and adjust your teaching to local needs.
- Even though you may have native-like or native-speaker proficiency in English, face the fact that you may not understand the English of the natives!
- Negotiate job details carefully before accepting an overseas position.

Challenges for Teachers of English Learners

The first challenge is to teach English effectively, to motivate English learners to achieve the highest possible level of proficiency under the circumstances, and to gain a sensitive and complex understanding of the target culture. In this process, teachers of English who represent the highest ideals of the American target culture will work to create a classroom environment characterized by equal opportunity and democratic process.

The second challenge for the teacher of English learners is to respect the native language and the rights of its speakers. English teachers must be aware that for young children, learning English may put their knowledge and use of the heritage language at risk. Teachers must make every effort to support and enhance student's heritage language skills.

English teachers who make sincere attempts to learn the languages of their students and build English on students’ prior language expertise will model expert learning. Teachers of English learners are intercultural educators whose understanding of crosscultural similarities and differences will further the abilities of the learners to acquire an appreciation for the target culture.
English as an International Language (EIL)

No one will question the claim that English has achieved some sort of global status. Three linked events created the opportunity for English to spread worldwide and fulfill social and economic functions in the lives of people from many nations: (1) the global military, political, and economic imperialism of Great Britain and the United States; (2) the defeat of Japan and Germany in World War II, with the subsequent reconstruction of their cultures and economies more aligned with English-speaking cultures; and (3) the global deployment of the Internet, resulting from a communication matrix connecting the technical and scientific universities in the United States (Wark, 2001). As such, English has become an international language, used by many the world over as a common linguistic currency.

Is English Natural, Neutral, and Beneficial?

Many regard the spread of English around the world as the beneficial result of a natural process in which English is benignly chosen as a trade lingo of choice because, as a language, it is somehow neutral in its social, political, and economic entailment. In reality, nothing could be further from the truth. Researchers who have looked closely at the role of English as an international language have challenged the spread of English in its global and local contexts. What are the implications of using English globally? Pennycook (1994) frames the issue with the following questions: To what uses is English put? What different meanings does it come to carry? Is the spread of English indeed natural, neutral, and beneficial?

Is English Natural? To see the domination of English as natural is to believe that EIL is the result of inevitable global forces; that some language would eventually come to dominate others; and that, as it happened, English filled this slot. However, the spread of English is in fact due to politics and economics. To choose one example, the use of English on the part of the people of Puerto Rico, a commonwealth associated with the United States, is the result of a series of coercive government policies that have mandated English instruction at one level or another in Puerto Rican schools from 1905 to the present (Pousada, 1999). Another example is the way in which U.S. foreign policy created connections with populations abroad that pulled certain groups to the United States. For example, the conquest of the Philippines at the beginning of the twentieth century eventually resulted in significant Philippine immigration to the United States. Later, during the Vietnam War and its aftermath, Cambodians who cooperated with the U.S. military immigrated to the United States (Gillett, 1989). Basically, English has spread around the world because of war, colonization, and global trade.

Is English Neutral? Is English a neutral, transparent medium of communication, detached from its original cultural contexts and not ideologically encumbered? First, we may hope that English will remain “ideologically encumbered” with the highest ideals: equality of opportunity, social justice, and human rights. However, it is naive
to believe that people around the world are choosing to study English in a neutral way. To do so would be tantamount to denying that English proficiency worldwide is associated with middle- or upper-class status, access to higher education, and cultural encumbrances including the embrace of modernity.

EIL is heavily implicated in many social systems abroad that reproduce inequities in wealth, power, and privilege. Because English is the means to achieve education, employment, and social position, its use creates and maintains social divisions dominated by elites. Like access to technology, English is a player in a system that is widening the gap between global haves and have-nots, with the ownership of knowledge becoming ever more one-sided. In many countries, not speaking or reading English is an assurance that one will remain in an unskilled job.

Is English Beneficial? One final question that Pennycook (1994) posed is this: Is the spread of English beneficial? Such a belief assumes that this spread occurs on cooperative and equitable footing, denying the role that English plays in many countries as a gatekeeper to social and economic progress. Like the spread of capitalism, international development aid, American media-disseminated popular culture, and international academic relations, the drive to attain English proficiency has its good and bad points. Just as consumers can become dependent on store-bought goods that were not considered necessary in traditional cultures, students can become dependent not only on knowing English for academic purposes but also on English-language media to spur desires that are, in the final analysis, irrelevant for their own best needs and purposes. This is the danger inherent in a world language when the world is not an equal playing field.

The changing nature of English—its evolution en route to becoming “the world’s language,” and the pros and cons of this process—are a part of the curriculum in educating teachers of English to speakers of other languages. Teachers are becoming increasingly aware that like many other aspects of teaching, teaching English involves power and politics.

**PRACTICES FOR TEACHERS**

Concerning English as an International Language

- Don’t be naive about the social and economic forces that coexist with the demand for English worldwide.

Languages at Risk

Unfortunately, the rich linguistic heritage of the peoples on earth today is at risk. Of course, the dominant languages of the world are not threatened—the 1,113 million Chinese speakers, for example, outnumber the native 352 million English speakers
by a ratio of three to one. By the year 2050, 556 million speakers of Urdu and Hindi, 486 million speakers of Spanish, and 482 million speakers of Arabic will more than hold their own numerically against 508 million speakers of English (Wallraff, 2000).

Minor languages, however, are in jeopardy. According to Woodbury (2001), there are roughly 5,000 to 6,000 languages spoken in today's world. A century from now, the number will almost certainly fall to the low thousands or even the hundreds. Even now, fewer than 300 of these languages have more than one million speakers; half of the world's languages have fewer than 10,000 users (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2001). Nearly half of the world's languages are already moribund, that is, they are no longer being learned by children. The linguistic diversity most at risk includes the tribes of Papua New Guinea, who alone speak as many as 900 languages; the native peoples of the Americas, who in ever-smaller numbers still retain 900 or so of their indigenous languages; national and tribal minorities of Africa, Asia, and Oceania, speaking several thousand more languages; and marginalized European peoples such as the Irish, the Frisians, the Provençaux, and the Basques.

The single greatest threat to languages with tiny numbers of speakers is often the language of the colonizer, of the most profitable trading partner, or of a more numerous and aggressive nearby population. In California, for example, the number of speakers of the 100 Native American languages spoken 150 years ago at the time of the arrival of English-speaking settlers has dwindled decade by decade. At present, there are about 1,000 speakers of these languages, representing 27 languages or language families (Hinton & Montijo, 1994). English is the native language of the children of these native groups, with the exception of the Spanish-speaking Indian people (Kumeyaay, Ipai, Tipai, and Quechan) residing on the border of Mexico and the United States.
What happens when a language dies? Woodbury (2001, p. 1) described this damage in eloquent terms: “Language loss entails the loss of much of the cultural, spiritual, and intellectual life of a people as experienced through language, ranging from prayers, myths, ceremonies, poetry, oratory, and technical vocabulary, to everyday greetings, leave-takings, conversational styles, humor, ways of speaking to children, and unique terms for habits, behavior, and emotions.” When a language is lost, there is no guarantee that all this can be refashioned in the new language; when it does take place, such refashioning involves abrupt loss of tradition.

Aside from the toll on specific human cultures, social groups, and individuals’ personal identities, the impending loss of linguistic diversity will limit scientific knowledge about the human mind. Language diversity tells us about the types of languages people can and cannot learn, how these differ, what such limitations may reveal about human cognition, and what this can tell us about the ways in which infants and young children acquire the range of diverse language structures now known to us.

Educators can address the problem of language endangerment in two positive ways. One is to volunteer to work with communities around the world who wish to preserve their languages, offering technical and other assistance in programs of language teaching, language maintenance, and even language revival. The other approach is to help English learners grow toward full bilinguality while documenting the primary language using videotape, audiotape, and written records of both formal and informal language use.

**Box 1.1 Preserving the Hopi Way of Life**

About 10,000 Hopi Indians have lived on their 1.8-million-acre reservation in Arizona for over 1,000 years. Their language is used for ritual purposes and is still spoken by all generations in the course of daily life, although now interjected with many English terms. Hopi educators are currently developing thematic educational units on such cultural content as Hopi legends, stories, and narratives; children’s games; and history, including clan and village histories. Even though Hopis live in the modern world, they are raising their consciousness of the danger of language loss and reaffirming their identities as Hopi through schooling and literacy practices.

Each Hopi ceremonial dance begins with these words:

Pay yeesiwni.

Sopkyawat sinom wuyomiqhaqami qatsit naavokyawintiwni.

Paypu okiwa.

This invocation can only be roughly translated into English:

We journey together in the Hopi Way immersed in the good things in life, our deepest values rooted in the cornfields; we Hopi aspire to experience the highest in life, and pursue this with humbleness and industry, so that each can reach self-fulfillment on behalf of the whole.

(Sekaquaptewa, quoted in Nicolas, 2005)
English-language development teachers can show support for indigenous languages by integrating local indigenous culture into English language learning—not only to educate learners about indigenous people in their own countries and throughout the world, but also so that students from indigenous cultures can recognize their own culture(s) in the curriculum. Barfield and Uzarski (2009) give examples of using the history and design of Maori tattoos for English learners in New Zealand, using stories from the Bantu culture in EFL classes in Mozambique, incorporating the colors of Tibetan prayer flags into English teaching using environmental awareness as a theme, and basing ESL lessons in North American classrooms on ideas and designs drawn from Native American start quilts. Thus, despite the loss or future loss of an indigenous language, elements of culture can be preserved during English lessons. Only in the context of full support for the bilingual, bicultural learner does the teaching of English respect the learner’s linguistic and cultural heritage. Chapter 2 and Appendix A explore in more depth the role of educators in language planning and policy issues, and Chapter 14 examines ways in which educators can involve the broader heritage–language community in English learning.

**Practices for Teachers**

To Support Endangered Languages

- Further the teaching of English while respecting native-language rights.
- Encourage speakers of endangered languages to speak, read, or write in that language (if a writing system exists for that language).

**Professional Organizations for Teachers of English Learners**

**TESOL International Association as an Organization**

The TESOL International Association promotes excellence in education for English learners and a high-quality professional environment for their teachers. TESOL’s mission is to develop the expertise of its members and others involved in teaching English to speakers of other languages to help them foster effective communication in diverse settings while respecting individuals’ language rights. To this end, TESOL articulates and advances standards for professional preparation and employment, continuing education, and student programs; enhances communication among language specialists; produces high-quality programs, services, and products; and promotes
sound, research-based education policy and practices that increase awareness of the strengths and needs of English learners and further appreciation of diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

TESOL is organized around twenty-two interest sections, offering the opportunity for members to focus on particular areas of expertise such as teacher education, adult education, intercultural communications, and computer-assisted language learning, to name a few. Associated regional organizations comprise more than one hundred affiliates, with such titles as Thailand TESOL (ThaiTESOL), IATEFL Hungary, Moroccan Association of Teachers of English (MATE), and California/Nevada TESOL (CATESOL). Most affiliates hold yearly conferences or institutes for professional development so that teachers, administrators, and researchers with a distinct focus on areas such as elementary, secondary, adult, and university education can meet and share expertise.

Other Professional Organizations

However, many teachers of English learners do not identify themselves as TESOL educators. They may choose other professional affiliations, such as the National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE, www.nabe.org); National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE, www.ncte.org); International Reading Association (IRA, wwwIRA.org); International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL, www.iatefl.org); or state, regional, or local affiliates of these organizations. Although these organizations increasingly focus on the education of English learners in their publications and conference sessions, the TESOL International Association is the only U.S.-based professional organization whose central mission is the teaching of English to speakers of other languages.

P R A C T I C E S F O R T E A C H E R S

Meeting, Networking, and Enhancing Employment Options

- Investigate the local and regional TESOL affiliates.
- Explore the TESOL interest sections available with membership.
- Use sample TESOL interest programs.

The best educators of English learners are those whose passion for teaching and learning nurtures within their students the capacity for critical literacy and joyful lifelong learning along with a sense of respect and pride regarding human diversity and the desire to promote intercultural understanding. This accomplishment is made possible through professional collaboration between colleagues who together undertake the task of achieving full literacy and social justice accompanied
by equal access to, and opportunity for, quality education for all students. Critical educators become advocates for a more inclusive society, in which language, literacy, and culture play a central, integrated role in the understanding, communication, and respect needed to improve and transform education in local and global communities.

Those who teach English learners work within a full range of social, cultural, and linguistic contexts. They engage in reflective practice, promote reciprocal teaching and learning relationships, develop pedagogical knowledge that is socioculturally based, and honor in themselves and others the diversity in culture, language, socioeconomic status, and talent that makes us all uniquely human.

**Exploratory Break**

- Describe the demographic profile of the English learner population at your school site or in your local area. What specific linguistic or cultural needs should be incorporated into your curriculum or lesson plans?

- If you are a new teacher, what support do you think you will need during your first year of teaching to succeed as an ELD educator?