

Leveraging Language:
Teacher-Identified Influences on Their Use of Linguistically Responsive Teaching

BY

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DISSERTATION

Submitted as partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Curriculum and Instruction
in the Graduate College of the
University of Illinois at Chicago, 2021

Chicago, Illinois

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Summary

Students learn best when all their languages are welcomed into the classroom and utilized for learning (García & Sylvan, 2011). Research over the past two decades has documented a strong repertoire of multilingual strategies that teachers can implement to do so (Lee & Handsfield, 2018). However, teachers continue to operate along on continuum from forbidding additional languages in the classroom to leveraging them for academic and personal development (de Jong & Gao, 2019). A teacher's orientation toward the use of additional languages is shaped by many things, including their personal background (Kasun & Saavedra, 2016), professional development (Higgins & Ponte, 2017), and teaching context (Leung, 2012). This study documents how nine teachers describe the key factors that have shaped, and are shaping, their current use of multilingual strategies in their classroom. Using a survey aligned with the framework of Linguistically Responsive Teaching (Lucas & Villegas, 2013), I documented their reported beliefs and practices surrounding multilingual students and the use of their languages. Through semi-structured interviews, I investigated the factors participants felt were most salient to their development of these beliefs and practices, as well as factors that supported or constrained their enactment. Key findings center around the development of beliefs and the enactment of strategies. Participants highlighted a combination of engaging regularly with minoritized languages and cultures, whether their own or those of others, and an understanding of multilingual language theory to be foundational to valuing the use of students' additional languages, regardless of their own language background. For the implementation of multilingual strategies, the role of their teaching context was the most salient factor for all participants. Teachers cited language program and curriculum expectations, access to resources, and the beliefs and practices of their colleagues as the most influential aspects.

To my students, from across two decades and on two continents, now spread across the globe.

Thank you for teaching me.

Acknowledgements

First, and foremost, I would like to thank my participants, without whom this dissertation would not have been possible. I am so grateful for your willingness to allow me into your current thinking and teaching. It was a joy to wrestle with your frustrations and celebrate your successes as I went over the data again and again. It is an incredible gift to have been part of stewarding your experiences as students and now as fellow teachers. I am proud to call you colleagues in education and friends as we strive to better support all of our students, but especially those often marginalized due to language or culture.

Many thanks to my committee members, who have guided me in this process. Dr. Aria Razfar, thank you for pushing me to think holistically about language ideologies and all the nuanced ways they play out. Dr. Kristine Schutz, thank you for pushing me to think beyond the context of language education and make connections to broader teacher development. Dr. Megan Hopkins, thank you for sending me in the direction of policy – it was key in framing how my participants engaged with their contexts. I hope I have done justice to your scholarship. Dr. Terri Thorkildsen, thank you for agreeing to take on an independent study and working with me to refine the survey. Thank you for insisting on the tightest research design and the clearest writing. And finally, Dr. Zitlali Morales, thank you for everything these past seven years. You have consistently championed me as a student, professor, and researcher. Thank you for your understanding and flexibility, while also spurring me on with concrete deadlines. It has been quite the journey in scholarship and life over these seven years and I could not have had a better advisor and chair to guide me through it.

Many thanks to my colleagues at Wheaton College. Jill, Alan, and Paul thank you for advocating for me, as both a professor and a PhD student, from the beginning and through the

years. Without your advocacy, this would not have been possible. Karen, thank you for always cheerfully fulfilling my requests for data and helping me sort through the various forms to find what I was actually looking for. Thank you, Patti, for always being a listening ear when I needed to step away from the computer. A huge thanks to everyone in the Education and Applied Linguistics departments who have championed me, commiserated with me, and journeyed with me through all the various stages. A final thanks to the Wheaton College Alumni Association. Thank you for valuing and investing in faculty who are pursuing their terminal degrees.

Thank you to the many friends, old and new, near and far, who have cheered me on and supported in so many ways. Rachel, thank you for being a sounding board for processing coding ideas and other random half-thoughts along the way. Nancy, thank you for cheering for me and staying connected even though we spent so little time together on campus. We are proof that moms of toddlers can get this done. Mellissa and Emily, I am so glad that we started together, but you finished first. Your consistent encouragement and sharing of your work as examples have made this process feel tangible and reachable at all phases.

A huge thanks to my husband, Joe. You joined me in this PhD process halfway through – I’m still not sure if you really knew what you were signing on for. Thank you for doing all of the things to keep our lives running these last few months. Your partnership in life is a gift that I do not take for granted. Thank you for celebrating the “I’m done” milestones with me and not getting too frustrated that there was always still more to do. I cannot imagine another person I would rather be doing all this with. A final thanks to my son Ezekiel for all the joys and distractions, and making sure that I didn’t forget about the world outside of work. Your exuberance, wonder, and celebration of life are contagious and just what I needed in the midst of this process.

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Key to Abbreviations

Bilingual Education (BE)

Culturally and Linguistically Diverse (CLD)

Dominant Culture (DC)

Emergent Bilingual (EB)

English Language Learner (ELL)

English Language Development (ELD)

English as a Second Language (ESL)

Linguistically Responsive Teaching (LRT)

Transitional Bilingual Education (TBE)

Chapter 1: Statement of the Problem

The number of students who enter school with skills in additional languages and varying levels of English proficiency consistently continues to increase (Migration Policy Institute Data Hub, 2016). Therefore, it has become crucial that teachers know how to teach in ways that support their holistic linguistic development (García, et al., 2010; Lucas & Villegas, 2013). While bilingual education is growing in response to this need, the number of additional languages spoken by students in U.S. schools continues to increase (US Department of Education, 2015). Many educational contexts contain a large variety of additional languages within one school, meaning that traditional bilingual education is not a viable option for those contexts (Park, et al., 2018). This leaves many teachers and language programs defaulting to English only instruction (de Jong & Gao, 2019).

I was one such teacher. I embarked upon my teaching career as a high school English language teacher in 2000 in one of these highly multilingual contexts. I was asked on many occasions, “But how do you teach all those students? Do you speak all their languages?” I would chuckle briefly and then explain that there was no way I could learn all the languages my students spoke, especially as they changed from year to year. Then I confidently explained how I was well-prepared with strategies to support language acquisition that did not rely at all on students’ additional languages, but was able to scaffold their learning through the use of only English. I would leave those conversations thinking how naïve those individuals were in regards to the language teaching process and unaware of the cutting-edge strategies I had at the ready. Simultaneously, I viewed myself as very supportive of students’ additional languages, critiquing those who outlawed them in their classes completely, and bemoaning the fact that students often stagnated in their language development. However, I did not see a concrete role for myself in the

ongoing development of their additional languages. Sure, I encouraged students to insert a word or cultural expression in their poetry and to complete presentations about their names' origins and meanings, but I stopped far short of making their additional languages a consistent and integral part of the classroom and language learning process. It would take many years of observing students' language practices and experiencing various linguistic and cultural contexts for me to arrive at the place of consciously and proactively making space for my students to incorporate their additional languages into formal classroom procedures. I had often wondered whether having years of experience with language in and out of the classroom was the only way for me to change my teaching practices or if there are better ways to speed up the process. There are ways that teacher preparation programs can prepare pre-service teachers to implement multilingual pedagogy from the beginning of their careers, instead of needing years to develop the underlying beliefs and gain knowledge of strategies, if a combination of factors are brought together within those programs.

In this study, I examined the relationships between teachers' experiences and their beliefs and practices. I investigated whether there are patterns within teachers' experiences with cultural and linguistic diversity and professional development and their theoretical perspectives and teaching practices. I also documented teachers' perspectives on how they developed their current beliefs and practices around the use of multiple languages in their classrooms. In doing so, I contribute to an ongoing body of research investigating teachers' beliefs, particularly around additional language usage, and the factors which shape them. This study contributes to the extant literature in two ways: (1) furthering the exploration of connections between professional development, lived experiences, and teacher pedagogy; and (2) by documenting teachers'

perceptions of the key factors supporting them to or constraining them from implementing linguistically responsive teaching.

Within this chapter, after defining key terms, I lay out the research problem, documenting that while students' linguistic diversity is increasing in our schools and strategies for encouraging the development of all their language abilities exists, these are rarely implemented. Next, I highlight the potential that exists for increasing the level of implementation by understanding the motivating factors documented by extant research. I then locate myself in the research by describing my cultural and linguistic background, as well as my own pathway to understanding and implementing linguistically responsive teaching. Finally, I describe the study, presenting the research questions and describing how I documented teachers' perspectives on the factors which impact their usage of multilingual teaching strategies in their classrooms.

Selection and Definition of Key Terms

Within the research, a variety of terms are used to describe students who speak multiple languages, their cultural backgrounds, and the languages used by these students and their communities. Within this study, the terms which were used in the original articles are used when referencing specific material; however, in general, the following terms are used. When describing students who are in the process of learning English, the term *emergent bilingual (EB)* is used according to García's (2009) usage. This term highlights an asset perspective of students' linguistic skills and capabilities for growth and development in contrast to terms like English Learner or Limited English Proficient, which focus only on an individual's English skills in an often deficit way.

For individuals who have developed English skills, yet come from a background where they interacted with languages other than English and/or come from minoritized cultural

backgrounds, the phrase *culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD)* is used. While it emphasizes an individual's difference from the perceived dominant culture, it provides space to incorporate individuals from a wide variety of linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Therefore, its use includes immigrants and US-born individuals from minoritized cultural and/or ethnic groups, bilinguals, emergent bilinguals, dialectal speakers, and those who do not claim additional languages or dialects. I use the term *dominant culture (DC)* to refer to those who are white and English speakers. This term reflects the awareness that society, and schools specifically, are most often organized to give privilege and cultural capital to those from this background (Ajayi, 2011).

For languages other than English which individuals speak, the term *additional languages* is used, unless referencing specific articles or quotes from participants. This term encompasses the ideas of first language, home language, mother tongue, heritage language, and the many other terms used for languages that students are exposed to throughout their lives and bring with them into the classroom. Its use also recognizes that for many students, especially those born in English dominant countries and/or within multilingual families, the binary of first and second language is very limiting and often creates an incorrect picture of their linguistic contexts (Taylor, et al., 2008).

The language terms are chosen for the fact that they promote an inclusive and asset-based view of all students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds. They do not limit the discussion of language development to only the English language nor to only those at beginning levels of proficiency. The cultural terms are chosen to acknowledge the role of privilege and cultural capital that exists within various groups in the United States.

Finally, in respect to the ideas and perspectives that the participants express, I use the term *beliefs*. This study defines beliefs as a system of perspectives (Ramos, 2001) that, while held by an individual, are impacted by and enacted within a specific context (Hopkins, 2016). While there are veins of research that utilize the terms orientations, attitudes, and ideologies to label perspectives on language, I have chosen beliefs, as it was most consistently used in the broader teacher development research, and specifically research framed within a systems perspective. These different conceptual frames will be examined in Chapter 2.

In respect to the activities participants enact in the classroom, I use a combination of terms to highlight the various levels of activity. For broad approaches to learning and teaching, I use the term *practices*. This term encompasses the participants' general orientation to how learning should happen in the classroom, and "incorporates both intellectual and technical activities and ... encompasses both the individual practitioner and the professional community" (Grossman, et al., 2009). When specifically looking at how participants use language(s) within the classroom, I use the term *language practices*. This includes ideas such as whether additional languages should be used and how they should be used, such as welcoming translanguageing or preferring language separation (García & Sylvan, 2011). Finally, when describing specific activities that the participants use, I use the term *strategies*. This includes allowing students to use their additional languages in small group discussions, encouraging students to read in their additional languages, or providing multilingual anchor charts (de Jong & Gao, 2019).

Statement of the Problem

As a teacher-educator, I am tasked with preparing my students for the bilingual and multilingual contexts of their future classrooms. As the coordinator of the ESL and Bilingual Education endorsements at Wheaton College, I am additionally tasked with establishing a

cohesive theoretical approach across our curriculum. Research has shown that the development of all the languages a student is connected to benefits those bilingual students, and everyone in the classroom (Lotherington, et al., 2008; Pacheco & Miller, 2016; Taylor, 2008). Holistic linguistic development focuses on the simultaneous development of a student's full linguistic repertoire and must include the use of students' additional languages in the classroom for official purposes related to core curriculum, not simply for special events or festivals (García & Sylvan, 2011; Hornberger, 2002; Lucas & Grinberg, 2008; Martinez, et al., 2017). While there are many resources that exist for the development of all students' languages, much teacher education curriculum and much of the practice currently occurring in schools focus solely on improving English development. This creates a tension between what we want future educators to do and what they eventually end up enacting in the classroom. This makes understanding the frameworks for multilingual pedagogy and the influences teachers identify on their development key information for bridging that gap.

The Development of Multilingual Pedagogy

Clear descriptions of teaching strategies for multilingual contexts exist and are being refined and improved through research (Cummins & Persad, 2014; de Jong & Gao, 2019; Lee & Oxelson, 2006). The strategies range from teachers providing resources in multiple languages, to allowing students to write and discuss classwork in their additional languages, to partnering with community members to actively teach various languages in the classroom (García & Sylvan, 2011; Kibler & Roman, 2013; Ludhra, & Jones, 2008). Research on multilingual pedagogy is grounded in the perspective that students' cultural and linguistic capital is vital to their learning. This incorporates the concepts of funds of knowledge (Moll, et al., 1992), culturally relevant pedagogy (Ladson-Billings, 1995), and a language-as-resource orientation (Ruíz, 1984). As it

has developed, the research has become more and more embedded in theoretical orientations which stress the contextualized and dynamic ways in which communities use language and culture develops. For example, García's dynamic pluriliteracy emphasizes the flexible nature through which meaning is made in multilingual, multi-contextual literacy communities (García & Sylvan, 2011). Paris' (2012) culturally sustaining pedagogy stresses that cultural and linguistic practices are fluid and ever-changing, therefore not a fixed set of practices to be learned and implemented by teachers, but to be developed in relationship with students.

The latest wave of research has shifted the focus from the "what to do" and "how to do it" of multilingual strategies to the "why" of implementation. This "why" incorporates both why teachers choose to utilize it and the deeper question of why it is beneficial to students. This has brought in a focus on students' identity development and the connections between learning, language, and identity (Martinez, et al., 2017; Wei, 2011). It has also brought up the relationship between its implementation and teachers' identity, specifically how implementation connects to beliefs about language.

The Impact of Teacher Beliefs

Although the strategies are well-developed and have been available for decades, teachers' beliefs about multilingual students and their languages have a direct impact on their implementation of multilingual pedagogy (García-Nevarez, et al., 2005; Garrity & Guerra, 2015; Pettit, 2011; Reeves, 2006). Teachers have been shown to carry negative beliefs about their emergent bilingual students and commonly believe that they have little or no role in affirming, let alone developing, students' additional languages (Ajayi, 2011; García et al., 2010; García-Nevarez, et al., 2005; Karathanos, 2009; Lee & Oxelson, 2006). Even teachers who hold positive beliefs about their students often have limited inclination to incorporate their additional

languages within the classroom and view it as an interference in students' development (De Angelis, 2011; Gkaintartzi et al., 2015; Reeves, 2006; Pettit, 2011). These negative views of additional languages lead to English-only practices within the classroom.

Not all teachers hold negative views of students' additional languages, yet positive views are still often not enough to lead to the implementation of multilingual strategies. Individuals who expressed positive views toward students' additional languages and had completed coursework in language development, so had concrete skills for language teaching, were still unlikely to utilize additional languages in the classroom (Karanthos, 2009; Lee & Oxelson, 2006; Reeves, 2006). In general, teachers from culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) backgrounds were much more likely to have positive attitudes toward additional languages, but were often hesitant to incorporate them into instruction. They either felt a lack of knowledge of concrete strategies or a lack of theoretical framing that supported their incorporation (Higgins & Ponte, 2017; Pavlenko, 2003; Safford & Kelly, 2010). Therefore, in order for teachers to begin implementing pedagogy which responds to multilingual students' holistic development, they need to develop an understanding of methods and strategies; however, equally or more importantly, they need to develop a set of beliefs which enable those methods and strategies to be fully carried out (Lucas & Villegas, 2013).

The Potential of Linguistically Responsive Teaching

There is a body of extant literature that focuses on the two-pronged teacher development of beliefs and strategies. Teachers develop their ability to be linguistically responsive by learning language development theory and methodology, and through experiences of being a cultural and linguistic minority (Ajayi, 2011; García et al., 2010). As preservice teachers come from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds, they follow different pathways in their development. For

example, those coming from dominant cultural and linguistic groups developed more positive beliefs about language development when they had times and places to process the impact of their background on their beliefs (Varghese et al., 2005). These individuals also developed more positive beliefs about emergent bilinguals and the value of language-learning supports when they had opportunities to experience being in a minoritized position, such as receiving instruction in a language they did not fully comprehend (Wright-Maley & Green, 2015) or spending time living in a location where they are a linguistic or ethnic minority (Kasun & Saavedra, 2016).

For teachers coming from minoritized backgrounds, their previous experiences being language learners themselves enabled them to identify with CLD students and see the value of using additional languages. For these individuals, exposure to theoretical frameworks in which to situate their own experiences was the key to implementing multilingual strategies. For example, Higgins and Ponte (2017) and Pavlenko (2003) found that CLD teachers valued students' additional languages before completing a language theory course, but through learning theories that emphasized the benefits of developing the home language, they felt more empowered to utilize students' additional languages in their classrooms.

Lucas and Villegas (2010) bring beliefs and practices together into the Linguistically Responsive Teaching (LRT) Framework. Within this framework, they identify two key strands: social and linguistic orientations, and pedagogical knowledge and skills. They define social and linguistic orientations as, "inclinations or tendencies toward particular ideas and actions, influenced by attitudes and beliefs" (p. 302) and identify three elements within the category. Pedagogical knowledge and skills are the "language-related knowledge and skills" (p. 302) needed to teach language well and contains four specific elements. See Table I for a full list of the seven elements and their definitions.

Table I: Aspects of Linguistically Responsive Teaching

Social and Linguistic Orientations	Sociolinguistic consciousness	An understanding that language, culture, and identity are deeply interconnected; and an awareness of the sociopolitical dimensions of language use and language education.
	Value for linguistic diversity	Belief that linguistic diversity is worthy of cultivating, and accompanying actions reflecting that belief.
	Inclination to advocate for ELL students	Understanding of the need to take action to improve ELLs' access to social and political capital and educational opportunities, and willingness to do so.
Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills	Learning about ELL students' language backgrounds, experiences, and proficiencies	Understanding of the importance of knowing about the backgrounds and experiences of ELLs, and knowledge of strategies for learning about them.
	Knowing and applying key principles of second language learning	Knowledge of key psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, and sociocultural processes involved in learning a second language, and of ways to use that knowledge to inform instruction.
	Identifying the language demands of classroom discourse and tasks	Skills for determining the linguistic features of academic subjects and activities likely to pose challenges for ELLs, including identifying key vocabulary, understanding syntactic and semantic features of academic language, and the linguistic expectations for successful completion of tasks.
	Scaffolding instruction to promote ELL students' learning	Ability to apply temporary supports to provide ELLs with access to learning English and content taught in English, including using extralinguistic supports such as visuals and hands-on activities; supplementing written and oral text with study guides, translation, and redundancy in instruction; and providing clear and explicit instructions.

(Lucas & Villegas, 2013, pp. 101-102).

The LRT framework stresses the interrelatedness of teachers' orientations and skills: "without attending to [orientations], teachers are not prepared to embrace and apply the necessary knowledge and skills" (Lucas & Villegas, 2010, p. 302). A holistic implementation of LRT includes the implementation of all four areas of pedagogical knowledge, but clearly links their implementation to a teacher's social and linguistic orientations.

Multilingual pedagogy, specifically in the framework of Linguistically Responsive Teaching, significantly impacts learning and holistic development of all students, but especially that of emergent bilinguals. Through extant research, we have a growing understanding of what constitutes strong practices within that pedagogical framework. We also have a growing understanding of what leads teachers to implement this type of pedagogy and what barriers can impede it. To continue to develop that understanding, more research into teachers' perspectives

on their developmental trajectories, and what they highlight as the most impactful factors in that process, is needed.

Locating Myself in the Research

While this study builds upon extant research in multilingual pedagogy and teacher development, it is also rooted in my personal experiences and professional development journey. I entered the field of language education in 2000 with a bachelor's degree in English as a Second Language Education K-12. As I entered into my first years of teaching, I embodied the perspective that focusing on English was my key role and that students' families and communities would be able to take care of any additional language needs. I enjoyed and welcomed my students' languages, but only in superficial ways. This perspective was formed throughout my life by the combination of my language experiences outside the classroom and the teacher preparation I received. My perspectives eventually changed, but only after several years of teaching and the experience of living internationally.

My linguistic identity and language experiences form my first perspectives on language. I was raised in a monolingual, English-speaking home. While my parents appreciated languages and exposed me to several that they had learned through living internationally (Spanish, French, and German predominantly), it was always seen as something fun to play with and not something necessary for living our daily lives. This was in fact true because I was raised in a small town in Iowa, where the overwhelming language was English. I began taking additional language classes as soon as I was able to in middle school. While I studied Spanish from 7th grade through college, even earning a minor in it, it never became something that I needed for daily life. The times that I traveled internationally, there were interpreters for major activities and having a conversational level of Spanish was enough to navigate additional situations. Those trips lasted

anywhere from five days to ten weeks and they were enough to give me a beginning level of empathy for those learning English; however, they were not enough to propel me to think of myself as bilingual or to personally experience the necessity of an additional language and the integral role it can play in shaping individuals and communities. In these immersion experiences, I was still keenly aware that English had prestige and dominance, and no one viewed me as lacking as an individual because of my lack of additional language proficiency.

I attended a small, liberal arts college with a quality education program that was well regarded in the surrounding school districts. I was educated in the state of Minnesota, which has often been on the leading edge of new language education initiatives and is one of a handful of states to require English language specialists to have a full license and not simply an additional endorsement. Therefore, I had many courses covering theories of language development, knowledge of the systems of language (phonology, syntax), and methods of language development. However, within these courses, we focused exclusively on developing students' English skills and only briefly touched on their additional languages. When additional languages were addressed, it was usually in a social-emotional way, not an academic way. I graduated feeling very prepared to support my students in their English language development and confident that I did not need to know much about the development of their additional languages.

My first five years of teaching were spent in highly multilingual schools in St. Paul, Minnesota teaching newcomer immigrant and refugee students. As I learned more about my students and their home and community contexts, I sought to purposefully incorporate this information into my lessons and student work. However, the use of additional languages remained predominantly in creative writing or culture-based projects, or encouraging students to interact with the various bilingual classroom assistants (though many languages were not

represented among the staff). Many of my students were not literate in their additional languages, and I had difficulty considering how I might incorporate their languages into assignments that seemed more formal or which required strong literacy skills to complete. At this stage in my professional journey, I began to investigate the concept of subtractive bilingualism, which Baker (2011) defines as the process of an individual's first language being replaced by their second language due to the circumstances of usage and the imbalance of status and power between the languages. I was deeply concerned that the school system was a key part of perpetuating this process; however, because of the multilingual setting and the literacy constraints, I was still focusing on how to strengthen students' English while looking to the community to support their additional languages.

The second half of my K-12 teaching career was spent in a drastically different setting. I moved to Vienna, Austria where I taught middle school and high school at an English-medium international school. Suddenly, I was the language minority in the broader community, struggling to navigate the world as a newcomer. I was the one learning for survival and not simply a personal interest. Yet, there was still the prestige of English and its use as an international language to buffer my experience of language immersion. Because I was working in an English-speaking school, the urgency for language development was not as keenly felt as those who immigrate and begin conducting all public aspects of life in a new language.

My students came from highly educated and more affluent families, and while these students had more consistent educational backgrounds than my previous students, they were also navigating the double task of learning English in school and German in the community. In this new context, a few factors contributed to me developing a more expanded pedagogy of additional language use: my language minority status, my students' educational levels, and the

international (rather than immigrant) status that most of them carried. Because my students were fully literate in their additional languages, I began to encourage them to complete activities such as research for projects and free reading in the language of their choice. Because of their international status, most students would need to return to their passport countries at some point. Therefore, there was an added value placed on maintaining the languages of those countries in the eyes of teachers, parents, and the students themselves. The students also often came from countries (such as Japan, Korea, and European nations) that were seen as more equal in power and status to Austria and the United States; therefore, their languages held status and prestige that immigrant languages rarely do.

Finally, because the large majority of the staff, and specifically me, were living as linguistic minorities and struggling to navigate a new language for daily life, there was a level of empathy achieved that was different from what developed during shorter immersion experiences of the past. Even with these changes in perspective, the lived experiences to solidify their impact, and a knowledge of theories and research which showed multilingual pedagogy to be effective, I still found myself pushing against English-dominant language ideologies in the school, with other teachers, and within myself. I continued my examination of subtractive bilingualism, but coupled it with work to implement additional language development in multiple ways across the school context.

The process of developing a view of multilingual pedagogy that went beyond a basic level took me ten years of teaching and a continental move. In that regard, I fit the model of what extant research says is required of that process, especially among those from the dominant cultural and linguistic groups. Since returning from Austria, I have continued to research and develop a repertoire of multilingual strategies and now wish I could go back to those same

contexts and change how I engaged with students and their additional languages. As I have begun a new journey as a teacher educator, I am seeking to find concrete ways in which to prepare teachers, especially monolingual, dominant culture teachers, to do this more consistently from the beginning of their careers and not require a prolonged pathway. As I have taken on the role of coordinating the undergraduate ESL and Bilingual Education endorsements, I want even more to frame a coherent theoretical approach to language and its use in the classroom that can be applied across all the endorsement coursework and practicum experiences.

Study Summary and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to document what multilingual strategies, if any, novice teachers describe using in their classrooms, and their key motivations for doing so. This work contributes to the extant literature on teacher implementation of linguistically responsive pedagogy in conjunction with research that examines the motivating factors for its implementation. This study is framed by the following questions:

1. What connections are there between teachers' personal and professional backgrounds and their reported implementation of linguistically responsive teaching?
 - a. What connections are there, if any, between experiences engaging language, culture, and ethnicity outside of the classroom, and the reported implementation of more holistic versions of LRT?
 - b. What connections are there, if any, between professional experiences, including coursework and teaching context, and the reported implementation of more holistic versions of LRT?
2. What do teachers cite as the key influences on their current level of linguistically responsive teaching?

- a. What do teachers cite as the key factors that support them in developing the various elements of LRT?
- b. What do teachers cite as the key factors that constrain them from developing and implementing various elements of LRT?

To answer these questions, I conducted a qualitative study with quantitative aspects. The study began with a survey inquiring about teachers' beliefs about and practices with additional languages. The survey served as a recruitment tool for participants for the semi-structured interviews. The interviewees' responses to the survey items served as a springboard for later interview sessions. Individual interviews were conducted in a semi-structured way to allow for focused themes to be explored within a more organic conversational flow. This follows a common research design within the area of teacher language beliefs and their pedagogical impacts (Ajayi, 2011; García-Nevarez et al., 2005; Lee & Oxelson, 2006).

Findings show that contrary to much existing research, within my participants, there were no clear patterns between an individual's linguistic background and the level of positive beliefs she/he held about multilingual pedagogy. This was due to the combination of learning multilingual theory and relational engagement with multilingual contexts that they all experienced within their preservice program. However, there were patterns in how individuals from multilingual or monolingual backgrounds interacted with and responded to the theories and lived experiences. The most salient pattern was the role their current teaching contexts played in shifting beliefs and supporting or limiting the enactment of multilingual pedagogy. The key influences that supported their enactment were the philosophy of their language program, the availability of multilingual resources, and the language beliefs held by colleagues with whom they regularly interacted. These same factors were also the most common constraints.

Conclusion

Multilingual classrooms are on the increase, yet English-only instruction remains the default teaching practice in the majority of them (de Jong & Gao, 2019), despite the known value of multilingual pedagogy (García & Sylvan, 2011; Kibler & Roman, 2013). This leaves students without the linguistic support they need to succeed in developing English and their additional languages. As my study documents, when given the opportunity to explore theories emphasizing the value of multilingualism while also seeing multilingualism play out within their own lives and/or community, teachers from all backgrounds can grow in their desire to utilize additional languages. However, the contexts in which they teach often constrain them from enacting multilingual pedagogy, leading to the continued lack of needed linguistic support for their students.

Chapter 2: Conceptual Framework

Children, families, and communities have a rich tapestry of linguistic practices that enhance cognitive development, strengthen social connections, and express identity (García, 2013). Yet these practices are rarely welcomed into the classroom. In contrast, they are often framed by teachers as contributing to academic struggle or as creating division within the school. Even when they are not directly spoken of negatively, diverse linguistic practices are often viewed by teachers as belonging at home and not within the classroom. Rarely do teachers view themselves as agents of developing these practices, yet this is exactly who they can be. The value of these rich linguistic practices is grounded within the general sociocultural theories of identity and learning, but specifically within García's (2011) theory of dynamic multilingualism. The belief in teachers' ability to be agents of multilingual practices is again grounded within broad sociocultural theories, but specifically within the context of language beliefs and sociolinguistic consciousness.

In this chapter, I specifically discuss the development of multilingual pedagogy and the evolution in its theoretical underpinnings. First, I situate the strategies broadly within a sociocultural framework, linguistic theory, and in connection with language orientations. Secondly, I lay out the development of multilingual strategies, specifically noting the theoretical framing. Next, I examine the existing literature on general teacher development, highlighting Lucas and Villegas' (2013) Linguistically Responsive Teaching Framework as a way to organize research within the specific area of multilingual pedagogy. Finally, I detail research that situates teacher practices within their professional contexts. I conclude by noting how the framework was used to organize this study.

Theoretical Frameworks

Sociocultural Theory

I situate this study within the tradition of research using sociocultural theory to understand learning, specifically language learning, as well as language learners. Sociocultural theory is conceptualized as a connected set of theories generally informed by Vygotsky's work on human development (Gavelek & Bresnahan, 2009). Vygotsky's (1978) theories focused on human development as a process embedded in community and social interactions in which practices begin within the community and are then internalized by the individual. Vygotsky's (1978) emphasis on the role of people, language, and cultural tools in human development has been taken up widely within the field of education broadly, and specifically within language education. A connected theory which impacts research in education and language is Wegner's (1998) theory of communities of practice. Similarly to Vygotsky, it emphasizes the role of the community in learning and highlights the relationships between experienced learners and novices, highlighting the aspects of mutual engagement, joint enterprise, and shared repertoire (Wegner, 1998).

Identity in Sociocultural Theory

The embeddedness of individuals within larger communities in sociocultural theory creates an examination of identity development in the process of learning. This identity construction is both an individual act and an act of co-creation (Wegner, et al., 2002). The links between language and identity are also strongly established and clearly connected to students' ethnic and cultural backgrounds as framed by the communities to which they belong or are perceived by others to belong (González, 2006; Taylor, 2008; Wei, 2011). Norton (2000) elaborates on the role of identity in language learning by examining the impact of power on

learners' access to learning communities and detailing the various roles that a language learner can take up within their learning contexts to create a more valued identity within their community.

Language in Sociocultural Theory

In applying sociocultural theory to language use and development, the role of language as a mediating tool is emphasized and expanded upon. Especially within communities which contain two systems that are in some ways separate, yet integrated with each other. Taylor, Bernhard, Garg and Cummins (2008) employ the expanded perspectives of cultural-historical activity theory (CHAT) to emphasize the ways in which individuals participate in multiple communities which each have their own systems. Pennycook (2007) highlights the ways in which those practices, which at first appear separate, are blended into new hybrid systems which transcend locality. This emphasis on the role of language within the broader CHAT framework requires the rules of a community to be addressed. In the area of language research, this is most clearly outlined in the study of language ideologies.

Language Beliefs

Research examining perspectives on language, multilingualism, and the use of multiple languages uses several terms to label individual and group perspectives. The most common of these terms are ideologies, attitudes, and beliefs, though orientations is also used in a limited manner. Each of these terms provides a slightly different emphasis on what is considered when conducting research and how that research is conducted and reported.

Research on language ideologies originated within the fields of anthropology and sociology (Kroskrity, 2004). Baker (2011) posits that varying language ideologies are grounded in a community's desire to answer a basic set of concerns: community unity, individual rights,

and the place for fluency in the majority language. The differences come in how those questions and tensions are resolved. He places them firmly within community contexts, while still indicating that individuals can hold differing ideologies within a community, and that they are shaped by their context. Within the community context, the theory has been used frequently to focus on patterns within the power dimensions of the linguistic and cultural context (Cummins & Early, 2011; Hornberger, 2002). Baker (2011) also states that ideologies can be explicitly stated, implicitly assumed, or a mixture of both – sometimes contradicting each other. Razfar and Rumenapp (2012) expand upon this concept by acknowledging that there is a balance between researching implicit ideologies and also examining explicit statements regarding language perspectives, especially within language teaching contexts. While language ideologies can be used to frame perspectives that individuals hold, it often focuses on the impact of collective perspectives within a specific context.

A related, yet differing strand of research is the focus on language attitudes. There is a consistent thread within language teacher research which focuses on teachers' attitudes toward students' additional languages (García-Nevarez, et al., 2005; Gkaintartzi, et al., 2015; Lee & Oxelson, 2006; Shin & Krashen, 1996) and toward the students themselves (Reeves, 2006; Walker, et al., 2004; Youngs & Youngs, 2001). While it could be argued that attitudes toward the students are not necessarily language attitudes, sociocultural orientations remind us that individuals cannot be separated from their full context. A critique of language attitudes research is that it is focused on experimental design and studies language out of its context of use (Razfar & Rumenapp, 2012). This study follows more closely in the vein of language attitudes research, using several studies to inform its design, yet with added elements that attempt to provide space

for teachers to reflect on their language practices in context, specifically within the policy mechanisms of their district and school.

Due to my focus on individuals' perspectives situated within the policy mechanisms of their teaching contexts, and the use of a survey and interviews to study them, I have chosen to use the term beliefs. This also fits within the vein of broader teacher development research focusing on the connections between teacher beliefs and classroom practices. For example, Borrero, et al. (2016) focus on teachers' belief systems and the impact on their implementation of culturally responsive teaching. Hopkins and Spillane (2015) and Gainsburg (2012) examine teacher beliefs within the context of mathematics instruction. Tshcannen-Moran, et al. (2014) focus on collective beliefs and norms, examining how interactions within a professional context impact how groups of teachers form beliefs. For this study, I define beliefs as a system of perspectives that, while held by an individual, are impacted by and enacted within a specific interpersonal and professional context (Hopkins, 2016; Ramos, 2001; Tshcannen-Moran, et al., 2014).

Dynamic Bilingualism

To frame the discussion of language and its use, this study uses García's concept of *dynamic bilingualism*. García (2009) defines dynamic bilingualism as the differing development of language practices for use in varying contexts with a variety of people and purposes, focusing on the holistic development and usage of an individual's linguistic repertoire. This concept moves away from previously held perspectives, such as *balanced bilingualism*, which viewed bilingualism as the use of two separate languages at equally developed levels (Cummins, 1977). The theory of dynamic bilingualism reflects more consistently how bilinguals actually use language in the real world and creates space for the navigation of language within and among

various contexts and to express multiple identities. Balanced bilingualism has been, and remains, the dominant linguistic framework within formal classroom spaces, but it is being strongly challenged across a variety of multilingual research streams.

Under the dynamic bilingualism theoretical umbrella, another key theory is the process of *translanguaging*. This term has been used by many scholars and in many contexts to refer to a broad variety of linguistic practices and pedagogical approaches (García & Wei, 2014). This study uses the term in the way that García and Wei (2014) define it, as “new language practices that make visible the complexity of language exchanges among people with different histories” in contrast to simply a way of combining two languages or a “synthesis of different language practices” (p. 21). Wei (2011) emphasizes that translanguaging as a practice requires that all participants engage in the process. In its application within language education research, a translanguaging lens has been used within the classroom to analyze how these linguistic practices build collaboration by breaking down the traditionally assumed power structures between instructors and students and users of dominant and marginalized languages (Gutiérrez, et al., 1999).

These theories have come together over the span of my professional life to shape my current practices for both teaching language and teaching pre-service teachers about language development. Tracing the incorporation and growth of current practices within the research focused on multilingual pedagogy and teacher development, we see how they have gained increasing influence on how language is discussed and taught within the classroom. Finally, the theories inform the design of the study in general, but specifically the connections to Linguistically Responsive Teaching, which emphasizes the need for teachers to have social and linguistic orientations which align closely with the above theories: an understanding of the

connections between language, culture, identity, and the sociopolitical dimensions of language use and education; a value for linguistic diversity and its development; and an inclination to advocate for emergent bilinguals (Lucas & Villegas, 2013).

Literature Review

The literature reviewed follows two veins. First, there is an examination of literature focused on the development of multilingual pedagogy. This section examines the breadth of strategies implemented within the school context across several decades, demonstrating that this approach is neither new, nor stagnant. It also highlights the theoretical underpinnings and ultimate goals that have been highlighted within the research. This body of research informed the development of the “Practices” section of the survey instrument and interview questions focused on the purposes teachers identify for their use of these practices.

The second vein examines research on teacher development in general and specifically within the area of multilingual pedagogy. While the first part of the literature review describes what can be done by teachers, the second part focuses on the ways in which teachers need to be developed personally and professionally to fully implement these practices. This second section does not address specific teaching methods, but the understanding of language development theory and the underlying ideologies teachers must develop to bring potential teaching methods into their classroom practice in contexts where it is neither required, nor often supported. Finally, to address the impact of context, literature documenting teacher practice within local, state, and national policy contexts is examined.

Multilingual Pedagogy

This review of the literature on multilingual pedagogy within the English-dominant classroom demonstrates that there are practices that can be employed by all teachers which

support and promote the additional languages of all students. The pedagogy described is rooted in theories of additive dynamic multilingualism, multiliterate practices, and sociocultural theories of identity and learning. Within the examination of methodology, it highlights the ideological foundations and theoretical orientations underpinning the research and implementation of multilingual pedagogy.

Historical Development

While the number of students in the United States who spoke languages other than English at home was significantly lower in the 1990s (US Department of Education, 2004), the core strategies for multi-language use within the general education classroom were already being researched and taught to teachers. In the early 1990s, Freeman and Freeman (1993) were studying and publishing on multilingual strategies for academic and practitioner audiences. Edwards (1998), in her text *The Power of Babel: Teaching and Learning in Multilingual Classrooms*, provided a strong theoretical foundation and implementation model for general education in-service and pre-service teachers. This research was based on the perspective that students' cultural and linguistic capital is valuable and vital to their learning. A sociocultural framework of learning and research structured the work being done by both teachers and researchers. The teachers included in these studies valued the funds of knowledge (González, 1995) that students brought and developed language-as-resource orientations (Ruíz, 1984). The perspective toward bi/multilingualism that is demonstrated within this research is that of Cummins' (1980) theory of *Common Underlying Proficiency*, a theory which recognizes that bi/multilinguals have underlying linguistic knowledge that can be expressed in either/all of the languages which they speak. The inclusion of additional languages within the curriculum also indicated an additive approach toward bilingual development versus the subtractive approach,

which was, and unfortunately still is, common. These theoretical orientations led to the development of general strategies and methodologies which could be implemented in the English-dominant general education classroom by monolingual teachers.

In reviewing the literature from the mid-2000s to the present, a clear shift became apparent. This research had additional theoretical orientations that began to be prominently highlighted, and the teaching practices took on a broader and deeper integration within the general education classroom. While some of the theoretical bases were not new, they seemed to be more fully recognized and used within the multilingual research community. The New London Group's (1996) theory of *multiliteracies* is one such framework. The multiliteracies framework and pedagogy combines the concepts of multilingualism and multimodal literacy, the inclusion of meaning making through audio, visual, and other means in addition to traditional reading and writing. The combination of multimodal and multilingual emphases connects perfectly within the multilingual teaching research vein and, with the rapid expansion of technology, primarily the internet, occurring within classrooms in the early 2000s, the multiliteracy framework began to strongly impact research and practice.

The explosion of technology allowing individuals to easily connect with others around the globe also contributed to a shift in how immigrants framed their identities. While immigrants had long held onto their linguistic and cultural heritage, the internet and other communication technologies were now adding an immediacy to that interaction that changed and strengthened those connections. With more immediate interaction tied with more transnational movement, more people began to form *plural belongings* (Taylor, et al., 2008). Pennycook's (2007) concept of *transculturation* describes how the creation of transcultural elements includes supercultural commonalities that transcend locality, but also involves a process of blending and remaking

cultural elements into a new cultural form. As our understanding shifted about how immigrant families and children may not feel that they had to give up prior belongings to belong in their new context, the place and role of language shifted. This shift in language practices has also broken down previously assumed distinctions between native and non-native speakers of languages and created a broader continuum of linguistic practices which are recognized (Marshall & Walsh Marr, 2018). At this same time, García (2009) was putting forth the term *dynamic bilingualism*. For her, this conception of bilingualism – not as balanced and fully equal, but as flexing within contexts, systems, and needs – created what she has termed “the second turn: from linear bilingualism to dynamic bilingualism” (García & Sylvan, 2011).

The final ideological shift in multilingual classroom research was the added focus on power, identity, and critical literacy. Again, these elements had been integrated into educational research in general before this point, but there is a clear shift in how they begin to impact this specific vein of research and practice. In 2006, Cummins introduced the concept of *identity texts*. These are student-created projects which are designed to engage students not only in learning and language development, but also in identity formation (Cummins & Early, 2011). Within these strands of identity and power dynamics, what is considered *legitimate* in terms of language use and literacy begins to shift. As Taylor (2008, quoting Heller, 2003) states, “legitimacy in terms of ‘what counts as competence ... as excellence,’ as literacy, as prior knowledge, or as proficiency and of who has the right to define, validate, and distribute the resources of language, authority, belonging, and identity” was redefined (p. 99). The major shifts of this research are best summarized by Taylor, et al. (2008):

Finally, this article argues for the need to rethink power and knowledge in transcultural and transnational contexts. Current conceptions of literacy as monolingual, monomodal,

textual and divorced from the increasingly complex, globally wired and connected communities of practice and multiple affiliations in which our students learn, communicate and make meaning are no longer tenable. (p. 289)

Looking at classroom-based strategies and focusing specifically on ways to create context for dynamic pluriliteracy offers a place to begin such rethinking. Exploring how teachers can access language resources within the broader community adds a second layer to the argument.

Examining the ideas of identity and community connections by exploring the purposes given for, and results of, the use of additional languages in the classroom completes this inquiry.

Classroom-based, Teacher-initiated Strategies

The following strategies focus exclusively on activities happening within the classroom that are initiated by the teacher. These strategies have been documented throughout the multilingual pedagogy research and can be based in more general socio-cultural theories or arise out of the more recent theories of multiliteracies and dynamic bilingualism.

Multilingual Print Resources. The use of environmental print, such as signs, posters, and anchor charts, has been a consistent way for teachers to display the value of additional languages (Schwarzer et al., 2003) and provide a way to develop visual literacy or capitalize on students' existing literacy (Edwards, 1998). This strategy continues to play a role in pluriliteracy practices (de Jong & Gao, 2019; Iannacci, 2008), but the emphasis moves from the teacher providing those resources to student designed and created materials (Lotherington, et al., 2008).

The provision of books in additional languages provides students with official materials to use in their multilingual development (Abbot & Grosse, 1998; Malsbary, 2013). Such books can also play a key role in the pluriliterate practices of these classrooms (García & Sylvan, 2011). Instead of simply being supplementary for the emergent bilinguals, the books now form a

key part of the curriculum for all students and can be used to model student-created materials (Cummins & Persad, 2014; de Jong & Gao, 2019; Lotherington, et al., 2008). They can also create school-home connections for parents to read with their children (Souto-Manning, 2016), or for parents to come into the classroom to read in their additional language (Abbott & Grose, 1998). Bilingual read alouds can be done with the use of bilingual books where students co-read the section in their strongest language (Freeman & Freeman, 1993). These read alouds can become more than simply reading another's work, but become critical retellings from students' perspectives (Lotherington, et al., 2008). They also become a place for students to try on parts of each other's identities as they work together to present in various languages that are not even "theirs" in the traditional sense, but have become theirs because those languages are a part of their communities (de Jong & Gao, 2019; Iannacci, 2008).

Multilingual, Multimodal Instruction. With the increased availability of multimodal resources, there is an increased variety of modalities within literacy. The availability of online multilingual resources provides students access to many additional language materials that would have been much more limited before. These resources can be used for student research (García & Sylvan, 2011; Malsbary, 2013; Muller & Beardsmore, 2004), the development of literacy materials by teachers and students (Cummins & Persad, 2014; Lotherington & Jenson, 2011), and the publishing of multimodal projects such as multilingual newspapers for online publication (Ludhra & Jones, 2008; Taylor, 2008). The use of pluriliterate maps allows students to choose modes, representational styles, and languages to map a variety of elements of their lives (Taylor, 2008; Van Sluys, 2005). Curriculum including plurilingual drama also enabled students to make connections to their lives, critically examine questions within their community and school

context, and demonstrate their plurilingualism in ways that were applauded and valued (Lotherington, et al., 2008; Ludhra & Jones, 2008; Ntelioglou, et al., 2014).

Creating Contexts for Dynamic Pluriliteracy

The following techniques move even further beyond the multilingual classroom integration and further into critical literacy, identity formation, and power dynamics. This becomes a theme we see throughout the studies as the research and practices employed expands and develops. The combination of the previously described practices and those to come creates a literacy environment which truly embraces *dynamic pluriliteracy*. *Pluriliteracy practices* include four principles García (García & Sylvan, 2011).

- an emphasis on *literacy practices in their appropriate sociocultural contexts*, as influenced by different cultural contexts and various social relations;
- the *hybridity* of literacy practices, especially as afforded by new technologies;
- the increasing *interrelationship of semiotic systems*, a product of new technologies;
- *increased valuing of different literacy practices*, including those that have no place in school, and drawing on different literacy practices to develop school-based literacy. (p. 3, emphasis original)

Bilingual writing is a key skill by which students can develop pluriliteracy. Writing should be contextualized to provide clear purpose and a location to be shared (Ludhra & Jones, 2008; Lee & Handsfield, 2018). Through their writing, students enter into conversation with their school community, broader local community, and international communities as they publish digitally and share with family and friends around the world (Lotherington, et al., 2008). As with the reading, students can participate in classroom literacy activities in a way that highlights their

strengths and not their limitations (Abbott & Grose, 1998). For Edwards (1998), multilingual writing becomes a way of connecting students' memories that may have been created in their additional language contexts with the literate practices of school. Finally, bilingual writing can be a way of expressing content in ways that highlights similarities and differences in language and perspectives (Van Sluys, 2005).

Incorporating Student Identity. Two examples of activities that engage students in pluriliterate practices are critical retellings (Lotherington, et al., 2008) and the creation of *identity texts* (Cummins & Early, 2011). With critical retellings, students become familiar with traditional folk tales or fairy tales and then work to reenact them in ways which problematize them for a new context (Lotherington, et al., 2008). With the creation of identity texts, students are investing their identity into their academic work, which leads to maximum engagement and language development, according to Cummins' *literacy engagement pedagogical framework* (Cummins & Early, 2011). Students invest their perspectives and in- and out-of-school lives and experiences within the piece, making connections between academic content, their multiple languages, and cultural backgrounds (Ntelioglou, et al., 2014; Taylor, 2008; Taylor, et al., 2008).

Creating Contexts for Dynamic Bilingualism. Dynamic bilingualism is the acknowledgement that plurilinguists operate in different ways than monolinguals, and that their languages are used in various contexts for a variety of reasons and therefore will move in and out of skills in a dynamic and not "balanced" way (García, 2009). While plurilinguists do this spontaneously in multilingual contexts, there are skills that can be taught that maximize individuals' abilities. Also, within the school context, most settings insist on a more fixed or static view of language use, and therefore, students do not always make use of their

plurilingualism within the school context. The following are specific techniques that should be modeled for plurilingual students.

Teachers, in organizing their materials and presenting language, should put an emphasis on developing cross-language transfer (Escamilla, et al., 2013). This involves purposefully pointing out connections between languages in a way that allows students to begin to do so on their own as well (Ntelioglou, et al., 2014; Zapata & Laman, 2016). Students should also be taught purposeful use of translation (Lotherington, et al., 2008; Ludhra & Jones, 2008; Malsbary, 2013). Within the classroom, there are clear times and ways in which translation benefits students. One strong example is when students are at the beginning stages of English literacy. If they are allowed to compose in their additional language and then translate the material with community resources, they may produce much more complex texts with richer language than they would if required to only use English when composing (Jiménez, et al., 2015; Lotherington, et al., 2008; Malsbary, 2013). Students should also be taught the specific uses and goals of translanguaging within writing, such as expressing identity, connecting with certain readers, creating a unique authorial voice, or expressing specific concepts, and be allowed to do so within the classroom for those purposes (Canagarajah, 2011; Cummins & Persad, 2014). Research has demonstrated that students are often able to complete more complex tasks by translanguaging than if they were required to do the same literacy tasks monolingually (García & Godina, 2017; Iannacci, 2008; Malsbary, 2013; Muller & Beardsmore, 2004; Ntelioglou, et al., 2014; Wei, 2011).

Connected to and stemming from the use of translation and translanguaging, students should be able to work together, within language groups or across language groups, in a process called resource pooling (Muller & Beardsmore, 2004). Students may combine their English

skills, brokered by other languages, to complete an assignment in English (Malsbary, 2013) or they may make use of all their varied linguistic skills to complete a multilingual project (García & Sylvan, 2011). In these contexts, while the structure is described and modeled by the teacher, it does not result in top-down policies; it should be the students and teachers working together to negotiate plurilingual practices (de Jong & Gao, 2019; García & Sylvan, 2011). Students then become more than just helpers, but co-teachers and co-learners (Jiménez, et al., 2015; Wei, 2011). Teachers allow classmates to assume responsibility in teaching other students, and teachers are willing to become the learners (García & Sylvan, 2011; Malsbary, 2013; Muller & Beardsmore, 2004).

Language Resources Outside the Classroom

Research documents that students develop their bilingualism most effectively when they can draw upon the linguistic resources within their community. The focus on linguistic collaboration through translanguaging and translation, with an openness to the creation of new literacies and linguistic practices, combine to reposition teachers, students, parents, and other members of the community in the following ways.

Parents in the Home and Classroom. Parents can be a key element in the completion of academic tasks which are integral to the curriculum (Fain & Horn, 2006). Through the development of multilingual literacies, not only are parents repositioned, but grandparents as well can feel that they have skills to offer toward literacy development (Lotherington, et al., 2008; Ntelioglou, et al., 2014; Taylor, et al., 2008). As parents and grandparents are given crucial roles in literacy development, their cultural and linguistic funds of knowledge are valued, and the form that education takes is critically restructured. Parents and community members take on the role of presenting their own cultural and linguistic expertise, which is held as equal alongside

traditional academic literacies (Ntelioglou, et al., 2014; Taylor, et al., 2008; Zapata & Laman, 2016). This opens up space for the whole learning community to see the value of these additional literacies and the integral role of family in the development of students' pluriliteracy – not just that of their own children, but of all the students. As this happens, there is space for parents and community members to enter the classroom, not just as show-and-tell items or special guests, but as co-teachers (Lotherington, et al., 2008; Ntelioglou, et al., 2014; Taylor, et al., 2008).

Purposes for and Results of Additional Language Use

As a pluriliteracy orientation is taken up within the classroom or school, the purpose for additional language use begins to change and the results change as well. To fully re-conceptualize the purpose of additional language use, the purpose of school needs to be reconsidered. According to García and Sylvan, “teaching in today’s multilingual/multicultural classrooms should focus on communicating with all students and negotiating challenging academic content with all of them by building on their different language practices, rather than simply promoting and teaching one or more standard languages” (2011, p. 386). They ask us to consider what it would look like to truly communicate and negotiate in all of the languages students bring to the classroom. The following purposes begin to provide an answer.

Demonstrating Language Skills. A primary reason for students to use additional languages in the classroom is so that they can demonstrate literacy and other academic abilities that they are unable to demonstrate in English yet (García & Sylvan, 2011; Iannacci, 2008; Lotherington, et al., 2008; Ludhra & Jones, 2008; Malsbary, 2013; Ntelioglou, et al., 2014). However, with the re-envisioning of the role of additional languages, the students also use them simply to demonstrate that they have skills in those languages as well (Fain & Horn, 2006; García & Sylvan, 2011; Iannacci, 2008; Juan-Garau, 2014; Lotherington, et al., 2008; Ludhra &

Jones, 2008; Schwarzer, et al., 2003; Taylor, 2008). Those languages are no longer simply a bridge to English development, but something to be celebrated in and of themselves and leveraged for learning (Martinez, et al., 2017). This opens the way for developed bilinguals, as well as emergent bilinguals, to use their language skills to the fullest in the classroom.

Bridging Between Languages. As the contexts of the studies reviewed are English dominant countries, the importance of students' English development should not be diminished. With the dynamic pluriliteracy orientation, students may bridge their existing literacy skills into English in a way that values those skills and allows them to develop alongside the additional language skills (Escamilla, et al., 2013; Lotherington, et al., 2008; Ludhra & Jones, 2008; Schwarzer, et al., 2003; Taylor, 2008). As the students become confident that their existing language will not be devalued, they can become even more comfortable with and confident in embracing English (García & Sylvan, 2011; Malsbary, 2013; Ntelioglou, et al., 2014).

The additional benefit of teaching for linguistic transfer is that as their English develops, students are not losing the skills they previously acquired in their additional languages. The longer students are in an English-speaking context, especially an educational one, generally the less they make use of their additional languages in that context (Iannacci, 2008). However, in multiple studies, once the various multilingual methods were introduced, the students began to use their additional languages more than they had in previous years (Iannacci, 2008; Lotherington, et al., 2008; Ludhra & Jones, 2008; Malsbary, 2013; Ntelioglou, et al., 2014; Taylor, et al., 2008). As they increased their additional language use, it was for educative purposes, predominantly in literacy events, and therefore, the students made gains in their additional language skills (García & Sylvan, 2011; Lotherington, et al., 2008; Ntelioglou, et al., 2014; Taylor, et al., 2008). These gains were in settings where the teachers were predominantly

monolingual English speakers, or in cases where bilingual teachers only shared the language of a few of their students (Cummins & Persad, 2014; Fain & Horn, 2006; García & Sylvan, 2011; Lotherington, et al., 2008).

Metalinguistic Awareness. Emergent bilingual students who were allowed and encouraged to use their additional languages in the classroom developed higher levels of linguistic and metalinguistic awareness (Cummins & Persad, 2014; García & Sylvan, 2011; Ludhra & Jones, 2008). As teachers purposefully taught for linguistic transfer with the whole class, students also developed abilities to compare and analyze languages which are not their own (Iannacci, 2008; Malsbary, 2013; Ntelioglou, et al., 2014; Pacheco & Miller, 2016; Taylor, 2008). These skills were developed even within the monolingual English speakers, demonstrating that the use of additional languages is a resource for all students in the classroom (de Jong & Gao, 2019; Lotherington, et al., 2008; Pacheco & Miller, 2016; Taylor, 2008).

Language Awareness and Interest. Because they were in a rich, pluriliterate environment, students not only developed the cognitive skills to analyze and compare languages, they developed a greater openness to and interest in the languages of others (García & Sylvan, 2011; Iannacci, 2008; Lotherington, et al., 2008; Ludhra & Jones, 2008; Ntelioglou, et al., 2014; Taylor, 2008). An additional, non-anticipated finding was that within these multilingual classrooms, heritage speakers with very limited to no additional language skills began to seek out their heritage language. Seeing the use of additional languages become such a positive and normalized event in the classroom led students to request their parents and/or grandparents to use their heritage language with them at home (Fain & Horn, 2006; Lotherington, et al., 2008; Ntelioglou, et al., 2014; Pacheco & Miller, 2016; Taylor, et al., 2008). Some monolingual English-speaking students became accustomed to seeing others reading and interacting with

multiple languages, such that they were confident they were able to read languages that they had only been exposed to within the classroom in limited ways (Iannacci, 2008). As multilingual parents saw the place additional languages (and they as speakers of those languages) had in the classroom, some began to examine their previously negative or indifferent views on the importance of those languages to their children (Fain & Horn, 2006; Lotherington, et al., 2008; Schwarzer, et al., 2003; Taylor, et al., 2008).

Identity and Group Membership. The final element that the use of additional languages added was that of group connection and identity development. In multiple studies, students were observed using additional languages and/or choosing when to use additional languages to demonstrate group affiliation (Iannacci, 2008; Malsbary, 2013; Muller & Beardsmore, 2004; Ntelioglou, et al., 2014; Taylor, 2008; Taylor, et al., 2008; Wei, 2011). Occasionally, this was done in a way that excluded others (Malsbary, 2013; Wei, 2011), but generally it was used to signal positive membership in a way that encouraged others to feel positive membership in their own linguistic groups (Iannacci, 2008; Ntelioglou, et al., 2014; Taylor, 2008), to the point that, as mentioned above, some students developed a strong desire to learn a heritage language (Fain & Horn, 2006; Pacheco & Miller, 2016; Taylor, et al., 2008). The affirmation was not limited strictly to identity development within specific cultural-linguistic groups. The use of additional languages allowed all bilingual students to affirm their identity as bi/multilingual (García & Sylvan, 2011; Iannacci, 2008; Juan-Garau, 2014; Lotherington, et al., 2008; Ludhra & Jones, 2008; Malsbary, 2013; Ntelioglou, et al., 2014).

Along with the linguistic awareness, cultural awareness was developed in the classrooms. This was especially visible in contexts where students could be viewed as from the same culture (e.g., Punjabi or Spanish speakers), but in fact had diverse cultural backgrounds (Ludhra &

Jones, 2008; Malsbary, 2013). Additionally, students and teachers from recent immigrant cultures and more historic immigrant cultures were motivated to connect with their heritage cultures by creating a project-focused classroom environment (García & Sylvan, 2011; Iannacci, 2008; Juan-Garau, 2014; Lotherington, et al., 2008; Ntelioglou, et al., 2014). This expanded cultural awareness allowed for an even deeper understanding of language and language forms, like dialectal differences, but also situated the languages within a broader cultural context and benefited all members of the learning community, not simply those who had previously identified with additional languages and cultures (Lotherington, et al., 2008; Martinez, et al., 2017; Pacheco & Miller, 2016).

Teacher Development

The desire to see teachers implementing research-based, asset-focused methodology within their classrooms is consistent across educational disciplines. This is especially true when focusing on novice teachers and their implementation of methodologies presented in teacher preparation programs (Borrero, et al., 2016; Gainsburg, 2012). Two key strands that emerge within teacher development research are the importance of teacher beliefs and the specific strategies which teachers enact within their classrooms. This section will briefly survey general teacher development research in these two areas before moving into a deeper examination of the research on teacher preparation for working with emergent bilinguals and CLD students. Because of the clear link between teacher preparation programs and enacted practices of in-service teachers, the literature reviewed includes studies of both preservice and in-service teachers. The inclusion of in-service teacher research also allows for a study of contrasts between what preparation programs hope their candidates will do, what candidate and novice teachers believe they will do, and what is truly enacted in the classroom.

Teacher Beliefs

Pre-service programs and in-service professional development (PD) often seek to shift teachers' beliefs. Research documents that coursework and PD often have an immediate impact upon beliefs, but this can tend to wear off over time (Bacon, 2018; Ramos, 2001). However, having a cohort or network of like-minded individuals helps to develop and maintain initial beliefs, and shift existing beliefs (Borrero, et al., 2016; Fitzgerald, 2017; Hopkins & Spillane, 2015). Beliefs are also complicated, and teachers can hold multiple, contradictory beliefs without realizing it (Hopkins & Spillane, 2015; Shin & Krashen, 1996). For example, participants have reported positive beliefs about the value of a teaching methodology while simultaneously that students lack the capacity to learn in that manner (Fitzgerald, 2017).

In examining the alignment between beliefs and practices, research documents multiple aspects that can lead to the narrowing or expanding of the gap. One element that plays a key role within the development of beliefs is an individual's understanding of theoretical orientations they profess to believe (Borrero, et al., 2016; Nilsson, et al., 2016; Richards, 2008; Spillane, et al., 2002). Teachers' internal definitions may vary from the official theoretical definitions and therefore be worked out in ways that do not match professed beliefs (Borrero, et al., 2016; Fitzgerald, 2017; Nilsson, et al., 2016). For example, many teachers espouse a belief in the value of additional languages, but when asked where and how those languages should be supported, an individual may describe valuing language separation between school and home rather than the holistic integration of a student's full linguistic repertoire. Ramos (2001) frames this as the knowledge to theory connection versus the belief to practice connection, contending that there is less connection between stated knowledge of theory and any emotive beliefs that become enacted practice.

An additional aspect is the individual's teaching context. Beliefs can often be stable, but decontextualized, leading to teachers holding beliefs that they do not implement and implementing practices which conflict with their stated beliefs due to the interaction with their specific context (Gainsburg, 2012; Hopkins, 2016). Gainsburg (2012) frames the tension between teaching beliefs and seeing a lack of implementation,

An uncertain relationship between beliefs and the uptake of teaching tools does not mean teacher-preparation programs should abandon the attempt to instill productive beliefs, but it suggests that doing so in the abstract, decontextualized environment of the university may have little effect on later practice. Further, it cautions against looking to beliefs to explain new teachers' limited use of university-taught tools. (p. 364)

Teacher beliefs, while held at a personal level are not enacted within a bubble. Professional context cannot be ignored when considering the development and maintenance of beliefs. Research on the impact of context for enactment of beliefs and practices is covered in more depth in the final section of the literature review.

Teacher Practices

Research documents several key factors that support and constrain the implementation of desired practices. A key support is teachers' level of content knowledge and their perceived self-efficacy in utilizing that knowledge in the classroom (Bacon, 2018; Fitzgerald, 2012; Gainsburg, 2012, Richards, 2008). This is also connected to the understanding of theoretical orientations. When teachers feel confident in their understanding of pedagogical approach, they are more likely to fully implement it (Borrero, et al., 2016; Bottiani, et al., 2018; Fitzgerald, 2012). For both development of content knowledge and a deepening understanding of methodological

approaches, consistent on-going support was beneficial to teachers at all levels of experience (Fitzgerald, 2012; Hopkins & Spillane, 2015; Nilsson, et al., 2016).

There are several constraints documented in the research. The lack of time to implement practices not embedded within existing curriculum or habitual practices is consistently cited by teachers as a major constraint (Bacon, 2018; Borrero, et al., 2016; Fitzgerald, 2012; Gainsburg, 2012). The lack of resources to implement desired practices is also a consistent constraint. This occurs when policy mandates are given, without the provision of appropriate PD and resources (Fitzgerald, 2012; Gainsburg, 2012). It also occurs when teachers want to implement an approach they believe in, but which is not mandated by policy and therefore there are limited resources which align (Borrero, et al., 2016; de Jong & Gao, 2019). The final key constraint is the inability to take generalized practices that have been presented in teacher preparation programs or PD sessions and turn them into specific strategies for the specific teacher's classroom (Borrero, et al., 2016; Gainsburg, 2012; Nilsson, et al., 2016). Teachers often expressed frustration that the examples they were provided were not appropriate to their specific context and therefore not useful or implementable (Bacon, 2018; Fitzgerald, 2012).

Linguistically Responsive Teaching

Within the literature, there is a comprehensive model of professional development for educators of emergent bilinguals that brings together the two strands detailed above. Lucas and Villegas (2013), in what they entitle the Linguistically Responsive Teaching (LRT) Framework, identify the two strands as social and linguistic orientations, and pedagogical knowledge and skills. I use LRT as a framework to focus more deeply on what research deems to be best practice in the education and support of emergent bilingual and culturally and linguistically diverse students.

The holistic implementation of LRT must include the usage of students' additional languages in the classroom for official purposes related to core curriculum, not simply for special events or festivals (García & Sylvan, 2011; Hornberger, 2002; Lucas & Grinberg, 2008). As seen in the review of literature on multilingual teaching, clear descriptions of teaching strategies for these multilingual contexts exist and are being refined and improved through research. The strategies range from teachers providing resources in multiple languages, to allowing students to write and discuss classwork in their additional languages, to partnering with community members to actively teach various languages in the classroom. What has also become clear through research is that teachers' strengths in strand one – social and linguistic orientations – have a direct impact on their implementation of this pedagogy (García et al., 2010; García-Nevarez, et al., 2005; Garrity & Guerra, 2015). For teachers to begin implementing pedagogy which responds to multilingual students' holistic development, they need to develop an understanding of strategies, along with a set of beliefs or orientations that enable those strategies to be fully carried out.

Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills. While listed second in the LRT framework, knowledge and skills will be examined first because of their relationship to the multilingual strategies detailed above. Under the strand of pedagogical knowledge and skills are four core areas of knowledge that teachers need to have and implement: 1) a repertoire of strategies for learning about students' linguistic and academic backgrounds both in English and their additional languages; 2) an understanding of key principles of second language learning theories and ways to use them to guide instruction; 3) the ability to identify language demands of classroom tasks; and 4) a repertoire of strategies for scaffolding instruction in order for students to meet those demands (Lucas & Villegas, 2013, pp. 101-102).

Across all teacher candidate groups, teachers perceived themselves as more prepared and more positively disposed to having EBs in their future classrooms when they had had some type of coursework in language theory and methodology (Ajayi, 2011; Mantero & McVicker, 2006). Across the board, researchers found that the more professional development pre- and in-service teachers had in how to support emergent bilinguals, the more positively they viewed students, their additional languages, and their own ability to implement appropriate strategies (García-Nevarez et al., 2005; Karanthos, 2009; Lee & Oxelson, 2006; Pettit, 2011; Walker et al., 2004; Youngs & Youngs, 2001). Well-designed coursework included specific strategies for general education teachers (de Jong, et al., 2013) and provided opportunities for preservice teachers to observe and implement strategies in classroom contexts (Coady, et al., 2011). In addition to general strategies, disciplinary language and literacy skills are needed for content area teachers, an acknowledgement that linguistic practices are not identical across disciplinary lines (Faltis, et al., 2010; Tolbert, et al., 2014; Turkan, et al., 2014). While the role of specific professional development is clear, it also intersects with several other factors to create a variety of outcomes (Ajayi, 2011; Garrity & Guerra, 2015), which will be explored in depth in later sections.

Social and Linguistic Orientations. Under the orientation strand are three core understandings which lead to teacher action: 1) sociolinguistic consciousness – the understanding of connections between language, culture, and identity, and the sociopolitical dimensions of language use and education; 2) value for linguistic diversity – believing that it is worth cultivating and implementing actions to support multilingual development; and 3) an inclination to advocate for emergent bilinguals – understanding the need to take action to improve EBs’ access to social and political capital and educational opportunities (Lucas & Villegas, 2013, p. 101). Preservice teachers overall felt more prepared to engage in advocacy

when they had completed some type of language development coursework. They were especially likely to feel ready to advocate for students when they could do so with concrete theories and knowledge of policy (de Oliveira & Athanases, 2007). However, teachers' development in the areas of sociolinguistic consciousness and value for linguistic diversity (areas one and two) was much more varied, especially when it came to the purposeful inclusion of additional languages in the classroom (Karathanos, 2009; Kibler & Roman, 2013).

Unfortunately, while many teachers professed to believe that the additional languages of their students were beneficial for life in general, they were unlikely to see a place for them in the classroom (Lee & Oxelson, 2006; Pettit, 2011). In analyzing development in areas one and two, it is crucial to consider the theoretical orientations present within the professional development contexts of teachers and teacher candidates (García et al., 2010). Researchers showed significant differences in perceptions about additional language use among those who had training with a more bilingual focus versus only English as a second language (Ajayi, 2011; Ramos, 2001). Pavlenko's (2003) study of in-service English language teachers completing a master's degree in language development highlights this factor. The teachers had already completed professional programs in teaching English; however, few had ever heard of or considered the multilingual concepts being discussed in the program the study examines. Not all professional development is equal in developing sociolinguistic consciousness and value for linguistic diversity, and therefore, research must address the focus of the larger system and not simply one course or individual (Solano-Campos, et al., 2018).

Varying Pathways to Developing Linguistically Responsive Teaching. Research has shown that the two strands (sociolinguistic orientations and theoretical/pedagogical knowledge) develop differently for different groups of teachers. This is especially true for the perceptions of

and advocacy for additional languages included in strand one. One key difference is the impact of teachers' linguistic and ethnic backgrounds on their developmental pathway. In examining these varying pathways, studies from within the language-teacher-identity vein are also included because many of these studies point to factors which impact teachers' uptake and implementation of LRT. Language is clearly tied to identity, which is constructed through individuals' interactions in sociocultural contexts, and there are strong bodies of literature connecting teacher identity to the choices they make in their classrooms (Morgan, 2004; Norton, 2000; Varghese, Morgan, Johnston & Johnson, 2005). This vein of literature is especially important to include when documenting the differing pathways of preservice teachers based on their demographic backgrounds.

Preparing Dominant Culture Preservice Teachers. For ethnic and linguistic majority teachers, especially those who were monolingual, research demonstrates that professional development served to create a framework for them to explore the concepts of culture and language as they began their journey into multicultural and multilingual settings (Ajayi, 2011; García et al., 2010). They also served as spaces to formally learn an additional language and language development theories (Nero, 2009). However, preparation programs that never entered into discussions of ethnicity and other identity categories which give privilege left the teachers with strong professional knowledge, but lacking an understanding of their students' experiences (Morgan, 2004; Varghese et al., 2005).

Within research studies that reported perceptions related to ethnic identities, white teachers, in general, did not describe themselves within racial or ethnic terms when providing reasons for how they orient themselves to students and their languages (Ajayi, 2011; García-Nevarez et al., 2005). They also rarely identified the larger systemic issues at play within the

school that might block EB and culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students from achieving academic success (Ajayi, 2011). They were more focused on the use of English exclusively as the perceived ticket for success in the United States. Participants offered more consistent references to theories learned in teacher preparation programs than to lived experiences (Ajayi, 2011). García-Nevarez, Stafford, and Arias (2005) found that bilingual education was often framed by white teachers negatively by relying on a lens of racial difference and division. In contrast to these findings, Morgan (2004) saw himself fully as a racial and gendered being and purposefully leveraged that privileged position to push boundaries of education practice in his context. Knowing he would be given more leeway, he used his identity as a white man to push for change in how students and their roles were seen. Instead of maintaining the traditional monolingual teacher-centered model favored in his context, he introduced more student-centered methods and multilingual activities (Morgan, 2004).

In Kibler and Roman's (2013) comparative case study, two participants highlighted the interaction of ethnicity and immigrant status in a white context. Although there were other demographic differences such as age and student population, the teachers were both white females. The non-immigrant teacher was more open and proactive with the inclusion of students' additional languages, but the teacher who was a child of immigrants was less so. The first-generation teacher was Italian and referenced her family's switch to English and cultural assimilation when considering her students' experiences (Kibler & Roman, 2013). What the teacher did not seem to be aware of was the ethnic differences between her family, which could "pass" as fully assimilated non-immigrants as soon as their language was switched, and her predominantly Latinx students for whom the process is more complicated as visible racialized minorities often perceived as perpetual foreigners (Hornberger, 2002).

Across the research, it was largely found that monolingual teachers were much more likely to view additional languages as interfering, delaying, and confusing for students in their academic journey (De Angelis, 2011; Gkaintartzi et al., 2015; Reeves, 2006). While many teachers agreed that it can be beneficial in general to be multilingual, they reported that they did not act to develop multilingualism in school or consider it when giving advice to parents about language choices in the home (De Angelis, 2011; Gkaintartzi et al., 2015; Reeves, 2006). Teachers were also found to be more positive about theoretical statements regarding additional language use than they were about actual practices incorporating multiple languages (Karanthos, 2009; Lee & Oxelson, 2006; Reeves, 2006). When asked specifically about the responsibility of additional language development, teachers were likely to say that it was the job of parents or language community alone, and not of the school (Gkaintartzi et al., 2015; Kibler & Roman, 2013; Lee & Oxelson, 2006; Reeves, 2006). Finally, when monolingual teachers were open to the incorporation of additional languages, they saw its use as only for facilitating classroom processes, not for delivering content nor for the social-emotional development of the students (Ajayi, 2011; García-Nevarez et al., 2005).

An additional finding, which is crucial to consider, is that when monolingual teachers reflected on language learning, they were most likely to focus on failure (Ellis, 2004). Since the majority had experience in some kind of language learning context, yet had not successfully learned the language, they were likely to empathize with students' experiences of struggle, but not see past that to the possibility of clear success (Ellis, 2004; Nero, 2009; Wright-Maley & Green, 2015). The successful language learning of teachers is one factor that has not been explored in much detail, but has a direct impact on how teachers perceive the process of

language learning and the value of languages other than the dominant national one in themselves and their students and calls for more in-depth research.

A key perspective to take from this research is that while a grounding in theory and coursework is helpful, preservice teachers from the dominant culture need personal experiences to enact a more complete version of LRT. We need to have clear pathways for monolingual, ethnic majority teachers to develop the necessary orientations and skills, as they currently make up the majority of teacher candidates (Martin & Strom, 2016). In this process, we realize that theory and methodology alone are generally not enough to get teachers to a place of embracing and supporting their multilingual students' holistic development. We see in the studies that often teachers can understand all the theories and concepts, but still lack the will or skill to change the dominant discourse and at times actively reinforce it (Ajayi, 2011; Higgins & Ponte, 2017). Without the experience of being minoritized or viewing their language and cultural backgrounds as a crucial part of who they are, they are more likely to think well of their students and focus on their academic and English development, but neglect larger issues connected to language and identity development.

In this process, we are not without solutions. Nero (2009) and Wright-Maley and Green (2015) provide glimpses into structured immersion language learning experiences for pre- and in-service teachers. These are structured in such a way as to highlight the influences of cultural and linguistic backgrounds and allow participants from a variety of backgrounds to learn from each other's experiences. Kasun and Saavedra (2016), and Marx and Pray (2011) detail programs within preservice education that purposefully seek to disrupt teacher candidates' identities through immersion experiences where they are the cultural and ethnic minority. While these studies describe longer experiences, value has been found even in short term experiences (Palmer

& Menard-Warwick, 2012). These studies document strong examples of dominant culture preservice teachers who experienced shifts in their identities and orientations towards EB and CLD students because of their participation in structured lived experiences. Finding ways to embed more of these types of experiences into teacher education programs is one way to support the holistic development of LRT among dominant culture teacher candidates.

Preparing Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Preservice Teachers. For ethnic and linguistic minority teachers, professional development seemed to release the power of their personal experiences (Higgins & Ponte, 2017; Pavlenko, 2003; Safford & Kelly, 2010). Morrell (2010) found that CLD preservice teachers did not need to be convinced of the value of diversity, but desired deeper and more comprehensive information about how to affect change in their future teaching contexts – they thrived on the discussions of theoretical frameworks and educational approaches like Freire’s (1970). Specifically in regards to language, many of the studies found that linguistically diverse individuals had often not fully claimed their multilingual identities in the classroom because of the strong monolingual discourses (official and unofficial) present in their contexts. Having a space to clearly learn research-based theories of language development and explore their own linguistic journeys was needed for the teachers to create an alternative multilingual discourse for their teaching (Higgins & Ponte, 2017; Pavlenko, 2003; Safford & Kelly, 2010; Taylor, 2008).

While most of the studies collected demographic information on race or ethnicity, few separated out the data by these categories. In those that did, some trends emerge. In general, ethnic minority teachers leveraged their personal experiences to help them understand the experiences of their students and the systematic issues at play within their schools and society. Latinx teachers leveraged their shared cultural knowledge with Latinx students to create space in

classrooms for students' existing knowledge, including their linguistic skills, to be maximized (Ajayi, 2011). Ramos (2001) and García-Nevarez and colleagues (2005) found that Latinx teachers were much more likely to see the incorporation of students' culture and language as a key to personal identity development and self-esteem, in addition to academic success. These teachers also identified negative societal and cultural factors which impact ethnic minorities and were being replicated within the school system and desired to work against them on behalf of their students (García-Nevarez et al., 2005). Latinx teachers were also able to leverage the experiences, if not the shared cultural knowledge, to support non-Latinx students (García-Nevarez et al., 2005).

In general, non-Latinx ethnic minority teachers also cited their own experiences of discrimination and alienation as foundations for their orientations toward emergent bilingual and CLD students (Ajayi, 2011). Those teaching in locations where they had grown up often leveraged understanding of economic and resource disadvantages to help students navigate systemic issues (Ajayi, 2011). African American teachers sometimes spoke of experiencing the devaluation of African American English (AAE) when they were students and used that to form beliefs about the role of language with their students. However, within her study, Nero (2009) had a mixture of Black immigrant (mostly Caribbean) and African American pre-service teachers, among other ethnicities, and she found that the immigrant experience created different perspectives on language learning and maintenance among the participants. Those who were speakers of another language were more likely to value the use of multiple languages in the classroom than those who were speakers of other English dialects (Nero, 2009).

It is not surprising that teachers' linguistic backgrounds had strong impacts on how they viewed the use of their students' languages in general and in the classroom. However, the results

are not uniform; interactions between various factors in the teachers' backgrounds mitigated their perceptions of official use of additional languages in the classroom. Virtually all multilingual pre- and in-service teachers referenced their additional languages and language development experiences when talking about insight to teaching students (Ellis, 2004; Higgins & Ponte, 2017). However, a key difference among the multilingual teachers was whether their multilingual development was circumstantial (required to learn language due to relocation or language suppression) or elective (choosing to add a language voluntarily) (Ellis, 2004; Nero, 2009). Teachers who themselves had experienced linguistic suppression were more likely to want to reverse that for their students (Ajayi, 2011). Circumstantial multilinguals also referenced the cultural adjustments, social structures, and emotional experiences which came with that process, and which they have used to shape their teaching practices (Ellis, 2004). Teachers who themselves were circumstantial English learners positioned themselves as successful learners, which created a level of solidarity with their students (Ajayi, 2011; Pavlenko, 2003).

While one would hope that being multilingual would automatically translate into the incorporation of students' additional languages in classrooms, that is not always the case. Teachers sometimes did so, but they also often adhered to monolingual expectations of their educational institutions, whether that was their teacher preparation program or the school in which they taught (Ajayi, 2011; Garrity & Guerra, 2015; Higgins & Ponte, 2017; Safford & Kelly, 2010). For many of these teachers, it wasn't until they were in formal spaces which promoted the use of additional languages, supported those ideas with theories, and provided space for teachers to explore their beliefs and practices, that they were able to claim the knowledge they had and begin considering how it could be leveraged in the classroom (Higgins & Ponte, 2017; Pavlenko, 2003; Safford & Kelly, 2010; Taylor, 2008). Even bilingual preservice

teachers preparing to teach in officially bilingual classrooms still need a space in which to imagine how they will teach and engage students differently than they were taught (Brochin Ceballos, 2012; Varghese & Snyder, 2018).

There is a strong call to diversify the teaching force (Martin & Strom, 2016; Morrell, 2010). From the research above, this would clearly benefit EB and CLD students (indeed, all students) in multiple ways, but not if those diverse teachers are not given the developmental space and appropriate theoretical constructs to leverage their personal experiences into professional ones (Norton, 2000). CLD preservice teachers can have all of the life experiences deemed beneficial, but not have connected them to theory or developed positive orientations, and therefore be a teacher who recreates monocultural, monolingual discourses in their classroom (Garrity & Guerra, 2015; Higgins & Ponte, 2017; Kibler & Roman, 2013). Or these preservice teachers can spend time in diversity-focused classes frustrated with the lack of deeper insight or theoretical and pedagogical tools that change the systems they already know exist (Morrell, 2010). Preservice programs need to provide specific places and different ways for CLD teacher candidates to process their past and present experiences and connect them to teaching theory and methods they are learning (Morrell, 2010; Varghese & Snyder, 2018).

Enactment in Context

While the developmental trajectory of individual teachers is important to consider, it is equally important to acknowledge that teaching is not done in a vacuum. Leung (2012) highlights this when outlining the two dimensions of professionalism, that which is institutionally prescribed (set by national, state, district, and building policy) intertwined with independent professionalism (an individual's view of teaching and reflections on practice). While teachers still make choices in final implementation, the influence of their teaching

environment is a key factor in how they enact their beliefs and implement practices. Spillane, et al. (2002) frame the interaction of individual and context, stating:

Policy messages are not inert, static ideas that are transmitted unaltered into local actors' minds to be accepted, rejected, or modified to fit local needs and conditions. Rather, the agents must first notice, then frame, interpret, and construct meaning for those policy messages. (p. 392)

This interwoven process has been framed in various ways: as internal and external factors (Nilsson, et al., 2016), as context being a filter through which ontologies and pedagogy pass (Bacon, 2020), as multiple levels of policy mechanisms (Hopkins, 2016), and as a “two-worlds” paradigm contrasting beliefs and strategies learned in preservice programs and their implementation (or lack thereof) in the first years of teaching (Gainsburg, 2012).

Hopkins (2016), referencing Scott (2013), makes clear the multiple levels of policy that interact. Within a systems framework, she details the levels of policy mechanisms as regulative, normative, and cognitive. Regulative mechanisms are policy expectations set at the state or district level. Normative mechanisms are policy expectations set at the building level. Cognitive mechanisms are the individuals' beliefs about what should happen within their practice. Young (2006) details the levels of policy as district, building, grade-level teams, and teachers. She highlights both the interconnectedness and relative autonomy that can be demonstrated between each of the levels. This can lead to a bidirectional influence on operating norms (Galey, 2016; Hopkins, 2016; Young, 2006) and even conflicting goals between levels (Hopkins & Spillane, 2015).

Regulative Mechanisms

Regulative mechanisms include formal national educational policy and reform movements (Fitzgerald, et al., 2017; Hopkins & Spillane, 2015), state policy (García-Nevarez, et al., 2005; Ramos, 2009), and district level programs (Chesnut, 2015; Hopkins & Spillane, 2015). Additional factors that influenced teachers' implementation of specific methodologies were curriculum choice made at the district level (Fitzgerald, et al., 2017; Hopkins & Spillane, 2015) and required assessments that teachers viewed as contradicting their personal beliefs and practices (Borrero, et al., 2016; Chesnut, 2015). Finally, teachers noted the lack of resources present to enact specific pedagogies within their classrooms (Gainsburg, 2012).

Normative Mechanisms

Normative mechanisms occur at the building level; setting the expectations and modeling how teachers should implement policies from the regulative level. The building-level philosophy of how a program was to be implemented impacted teachers' perceptions and abilities to carry it out (Chesnut, 2015; Hopkins & Spillane, 2015). The impact of requirements which placed time demands on teachers was documented as a key factor cited by teachers for lack of implementation of new pedagogy (Bacon, 2018; Borrero, et al., 2016; Fitzgerald, et al., 2017; Gainsburg, 2012). This included the assignment of new courses to prepare and/or the number of courses a teacher was assigned (Fitzgerald, et al., 2017; Nilsson, et al., 2016), and the expected number and type of administrative tasks required of teachers within their own classrooms (Borrero, et al., 2016; Fitzgerald, et al., 2017) or at the building level (Takimoto Adams, 2016). A final key factor cited by teachers was colleague attitudes (Borrero, et al., 2016; Fitzgerald, et al., 2017; Richards, 2008). The number of other teachers who had similar beliefs and were actively working to implement new pedagogy had a large impact on teachers' desires to continue

working toward the implementation of their beliefs and their ability to collaboratively plan and problem solve specific classroom strategies. The impact of colleagues has grown in recent years with the expansion of structured forms of teacher collaboration.

Teacher Collaboration. Teaching has moved more toward “de-privatization,” meaning a greater focus on collaborative work and less on individualized models of teaching (Hopkins & Spillane, 2015; Lee & Shaari, 2012). Within this context, teachers are working more consistently in some type of collaborative relationship, whether on teaching teams or with instructional coaches (individually or within teams). Instructional coaches are often focused around improving a specific area of a teacher’s practice, such as literacy, mathematics, data analysis, or language development (Galey, 2016; Russell, 2015). Teacher teams can be formed in a variety of manners: grade-level teams, content area departments, co-teaching contexts, and formalized professional learning communities (PLCs), often comprised of one of the former groups. These collaborative relationships operate within the level of normative mechanisms due to the influence they have over a number of teachers, the structure that is generally created by school administration, and the role they often play in policy implementation (Eddy Spicer, 2013; Galey, 2016; Russell, 2015).

Collaboration can increase teacher competence and implementation of skills (Hopkins & Spillane, 2015; Penner-Williams, et al., 2017). However, collaborative planning, whether in formal PLCs or in other types of teaching teams is not always the answer. It can also limit the enactment of certain beliefs and practices based on how aligned the collaborative group is with the target policy and each other’s beliefs (Chesnut, 2015; Leung, 2012), and overall effectiveness of the group (Hopkins & Spillane, 2015). Due to the power differential within the teacher-instructional coach relationship, teachers may feel compelled to implement the methods and

policies presented by the coach, even if they differ from their own beliefs (Russell, 2015).

Differences in perspectives may not be made known within teams because teachers may choose to not share a perspective that seems to go against the normative beliefs to maintain relationships (Chesnut, 2015; Spillane, et al., 2002), or due to power differentials within the team dynamic (Eddy Spicer, 2013; Leung, 2012). Due to the unreliability of agreement in beliefs and implementation support from their assigned teams, teachers often turned to other formal and informal networks where they could find like-minded teachers for support (Borrero, et al., 2016; Chesnut, 2015; Fitzgerald, 2017; Nilsson, et al., 2016; Spillane, et al., 2002).

Cognitive Mechanisms

Cognitive mechanisms occur at the individual level. They are the internalized understanding of policy which has become the assumed norm for day-to-day practices. Many of the research findings were addressed above in the section on teacher beliefs research. These include that beliefs are often separate from action due to the stronger contextual influence on practice (Gainsburg, 2012; Hopkins, 2016), and that teachers' understandings of theoretical orientations are varied and often different from official definitions and frameworks (Borrero, et al., 2016; Nilsson, et al., 2016; Richards, 2008; Spillane, et al., 2002).

The final aspect to examine is the interaction of the levels of policy upon teachers' identities, which are ultimately formed at the cognitive level. Identities are formed by personal experiences, but also engagement within their professional context (Bacon, 2018; Chesnut, 2015). In research, this is seen as especially salient for teachers who are operating out of beliefs developed from their own personal experiences, such as teachers of color enacting culturally responsive pedagogy or multilingual teachers implementing linguistically responsive pedagogy. Within their contexts, they often own their identities as responsive teachers, but navigate

consistent questioning and misunderstanding, especially by those who claim similar beliefs, but lack the enacted practices (Borrero, et al., 2016; Chesnut, 2015; Kubanyiova & Crookes, 2016). This can lead teachers to simultaneously assert this identity within some contexts and downplay it in spaces where they feel it is misunderstood or devalued (Chesnut, 2015; Takimoto Amos, 2016). The formation of teacher identity, beliefs, and practices within their broader professional context is a complex and iterative process.

Conclusion

There have been strong conceptual and theoretical shifts in how multilingual pedagogy is viewed, implemented, and researched. These shifts have moved from more pragmatic views of language use, and pedagogy focused on academic development, to theoretical frameworks which prioritize community practices and negotiation of identity. These orientations and language practices are beneficial not only for emergent bilinguals and CLD students, but all students who are involved in developing these classroom community learning practices. Although not as common as hoped, teachers can hold theoretical orientations which prioritize contextualized language development for the whole child within their particular community context(s).

The two strands of teachers' beliefs and practices are seen across disciplinary contexts. The question of how to best to develop teachers whose beliefs and practices align, and are consistently implemented within the classroom, is a perennial question within the literature. The consistent findings are that they must be developed in conjunction with each other, and generally within the context of specific practice to be most consistent. This is seen specifically within the area of language development when utilizing the Linguistically Responsive Teaching framework to examine research on beliefs and practices related to multilingual students and the use of their additional languages within the classroom. An additional theme that arises within the language

development domain is the role of teacher identity and its influence on teachers' linguistic and pedagogical approaches. This is seen in the findings from research question one of this study as participants described their journeys of belief and identity formation. The final vein of research documents the need to be mindful of the contexts in which teachers seek to develop and implement their practice, as the current study does through the investigation of factors which support and constrain the participants within their individual teaching contexts.

Chapter 3: Methods

This study was designed to investigate whether connections exist between participants' demographic backgrounds, their professional experiences, and their self-reported implementation of linguistically responsive teaching. The linguistically responsive teaching (LRT) framework contains two key strands: social and linguistic orientations and pedagogical knowledge and skills. Each strand consists of three to four sub-strands focusing on understandings and beliefs, and specific knowledge and practices. These strands and sub-strands guided the research framework, while also allowing for space to investigate the various pathways and teaching contexts of individual participants. While the extant research documents teacher language beliefs and practices, it rarely does so while considering both teachers' demographic backgrounds and their teaching contexts. Because teachers neither develop beliefs and practices in a vacuum, nor enact them in one, both aspects are important for a more complete understanding of how and why teachers implement LRT, and specifically multilingual pedagogy, in their classrooms.

Nine participants were recruited from among the alumni of the Wheaton College Teacher Education Program (WheTEP) who graduated between 2016 and 2019. This general pool of participants was chosen because of my connection to Wheaton College. I am a professor in the education department and the coordinator of the ESL and Bilingual Endorsements. My research questions were the following:

1. What connections are there between teachers' personal and professional backgrounds and their reported implementation of linguistically responsive teaching?
 - a. What connections are there, if any, between experiences engaging language, culture, and ethnicity outside of the classroom, and the reported implementation of linguistically responsive teaching?

- b. What connections are there, if any, between professional experiences, including coursework and teaching context, and the reported implementation of linguistically responsive teaching?
- 2. What do teachers cite as the key influences on their current level of linguistically responsive teaching?
 - a. What do teachers cite as the key factors that support them in developing and implementing the various components of linguistically responsive teaching?
 - b. What do teachers cite as the key factors that constrain them from developing and implementing the various components of linguistically responsive teaching?

Research Design

I modeled this study's design after this set of studies which utilized the administration of a survey followed by interviews with a representative sample of participants (Ajayi, 2011; García-Nevarez et al., 2005; Lee & Oxelson, 2006), but focused on a smaller number of participants, due to the small pool of potential participants. Therefore, instead of following the mixed methods approach that the former studies undertook, this study employed a case study design (Yin, 2017). The nine participants constitute one case, as they all completed their teacher preparation through the same general education program, with eight completing their endorsement coursework through the same program as well. They all graduated within three years of each other and during their time in the program, there were no significant shifts in the coursework requirements. The participants are from a variety of backgrounds and currently teach in different contexts (i.e., school districts and grade levels). These contextual features allow for comparisons of the influences of different factors within the context of participation in the same

teacher preparation program. Figures 1 and 2 provide an overview of the coursework students within the WheTEP program complete across all programs and within the various grade level and endorsement tracks.

Figure 1: WheTEP General Education Coursework

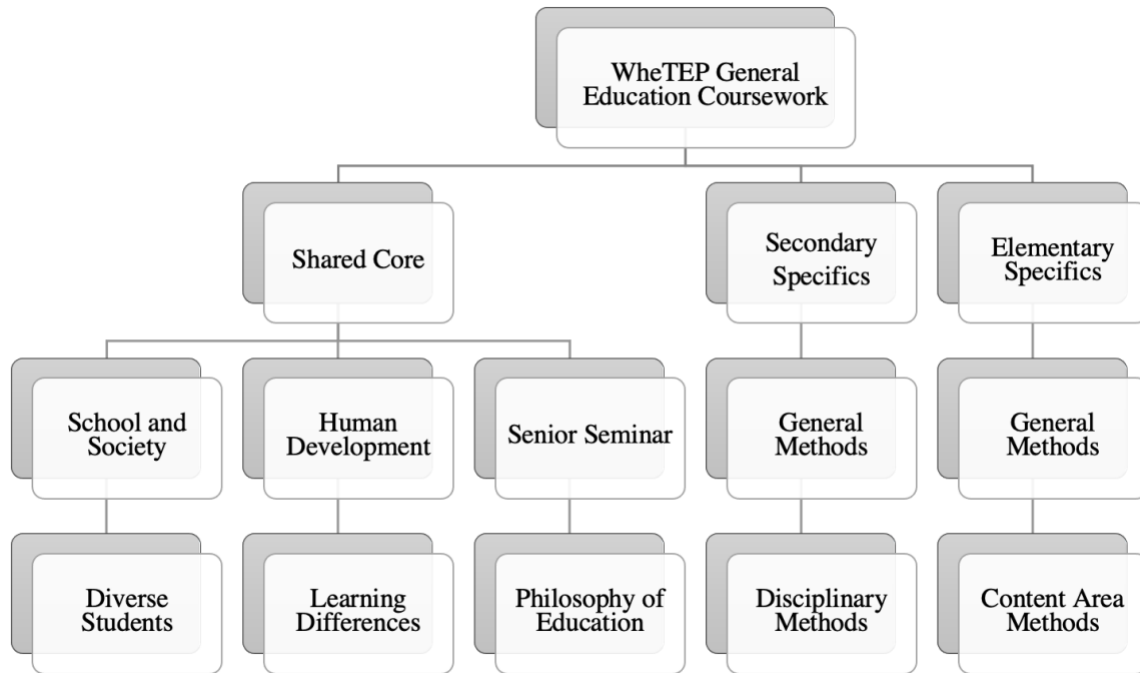
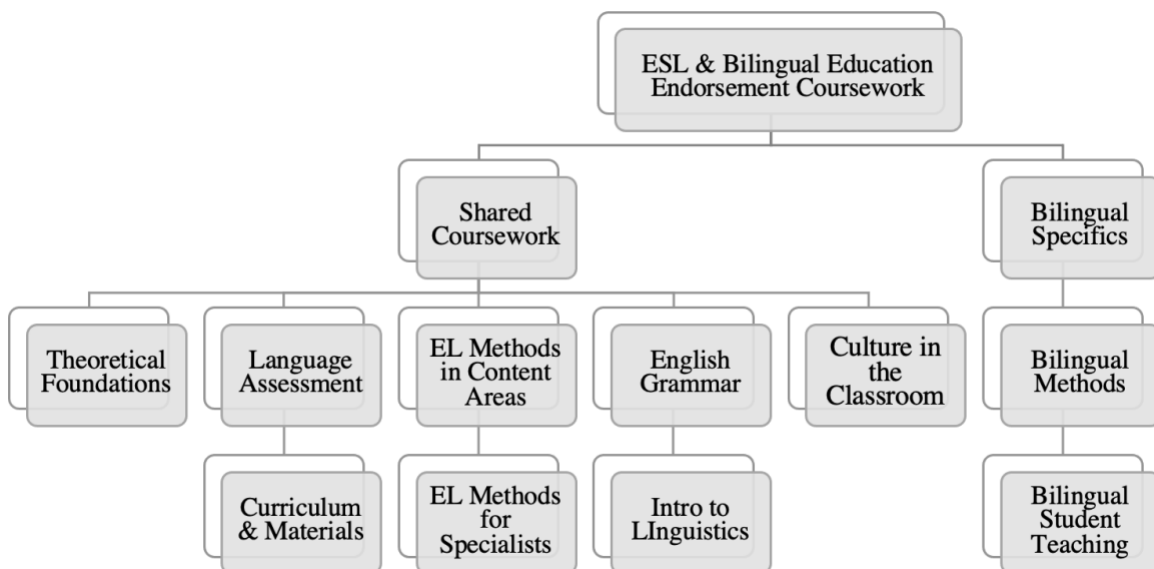


Figure 2: ESL & Bilingual Education Endorsement Coursework



The survey data was used as a source of data for identifying patterns within various demographic groups, as well as for individual participants when used and triangulated with the data gathered in the interviews. The interviews served as the primary way of exploring the participants' perspectives and their beliefs on the supports and constraints of their use of multilingual strategies (Barlow, 2012).

Participants

Participant Pool

The participant pool was focused on graduates from the Wheaton Teacher Education Program (WheTEP). As mentioned above, I am the coordinator of the undergraduate ESL and bilingual endorsements at Wheaton College. I began teaching there in the 2013-2014 academic year and was tasked with developing the undergraduate endorsement program. I teach three of the eight required endorsement courses and a general introductory course for all education majors. Therefore, I have a relationship with the individuals within the participant pool, having taught them at least once and up to four times during the course of their undergraduate program.

The pool was narrowed to graduates from the academic years 2015-2016 through 2018-2019 who were currently teaching at the time of the survey. The 2015-2016 academic year was chosen as the starting point, because that was the first year there were graduates who had earned the ESL or bilingual endorsement. Within these years, there were fifty-eight endorsement completers; approximately one third of all general education program completers. All of these individuals were included in the pool. An additional group of fifty-eight graduates who had not completed either endorsement were also chosen to be contacted. These individuals were selected based on matching characteristics to the endorsement completers. Characteristics that were considered included grade level of licensure (elementary or secondary) and ethnic background.

Both of these details are contained within the WheTEP records on program completers, as they must be submitted to the Illinois State Board of Education yearly.

Wheaton College graduates go on to teach in a variety of locations and school contexts around the world; however, the large majority (71%) teach in public schools in the United States: 15% in urban settings, 81% in suburban settings, and 4% in rural settings (WheTeach, 2020). While alumni licensure spans kindergarten through twelfth grade, the large majority (77%) of endorsement earners are licensed as elementary teachers. Teachers from all contexts and grade level positions were included in the selection pool.

To ensure participants were currently teaching, question four of the survey asked respondents to mark their current teaching position. Those who marked *Not currently teaching* were eliminated from the selection pool. Those who marked any other option, indicating that they were currently teaching, and indicated at the end of the survey that they were willing to participate in an interview, made up the final pool.

Recruitment

Participants were recruited through the alumni contact list maintained by Wheaton's Education Department. This list includes the most updated email addresses the department has, but there is no guarantee that it is an account the individual still uses. The 116 alumni selected for contact received an email inviting them to participate in the study and providing a link to the survey hosted through Qualtrics. A reminder email was sent one week later, with a final reminder sent a week after that. Of those contacted, thirty-eight completed a portion of the survey, and of those, thirty finished it entirely. Of the thirty completers, thirteen provided contact information for a follow-up interview. Table II details the number of individuals at each phase of the recruitment process.

Table II: Recruitment Steps

Recruitment Step	Selection Pool	Survey Respondents	Survey Completers	Contact Information Provided	Interviews Scheduled
Number of individuals	116	38	30	13	9

The thirteen individuals who provided their name and email address were contacted via the provided address with an invitation to schedule a follow-up interview. If the individual had not replied, one additional reminder email was sent two to three weeks after the initial invitation. At that point, three bilingual teachers, two English language development teachers, and two general education teachers had agreed to an interview. To have three representatives from each teaching context, one general education teacher and one English language development (ELD) teacher were sent an additional email request. They both agreed and this resulted in an opportunity sample (Creswell, 2014) of nine participants. All participants had completed the ESL and/or ESL-Bilingual endorsement and represented the breadth of teaching contexts that can be fulfilled by teachers who have earned these endorsements.

Participant Descriptions

All nine participants are alumni from the Wheaton College Teacher Education Program (WheTEP) and graduated between May 2017 and May 2019. While alumni from 2016 were included in the survey contact list, none from that year agreed to be interviewed. Of the nine participants, eight completed all licensure preparation through WheTEP, including their ESL and bilingual endorsements. Angela completed only her elementary education and middle school math preparation through WheTEP. She then completed the ESL and bilingual endorsements through a continuing education program, after being hired for a bilingual teaching position and obtaining a Transitional Bilingual Educator license by passing the Target Language Proficiency

exam. She had chosen not to complete the bilingual endorsement at Wheaton, because “I didn’t think I needed it, even though you tried to convince me.” Everyone had taken at least one class with me, and the eight who completed the ESL and bilingual endorsements at Wheaton each had four classes with me over the span of their program. Table III provides a brief overview of the nine participants. Expanded details for each participant are presented throughout the following sections. Names are pseudonyms either chosen by participants or assigned by me and approved by participants.

Table III: Characteristics of Participants

Name	Race/ Ethnicity	Place of Birth	Additional Language	Years Teaching	Current Grade(s)	Current Teaching Context	District Type
Andrew	White	United States	Spanish (Proficient) Italian (Conversant)	2	7 th -8 th	ELD & Gen. Ed. Social Studies	K-12 suburban
Angela	Latina	Dominican Republic	Spanish (Fluent)	3	4 th	Transitional Bilingual school, math specialist	K-12 urban
Diana	Latina	Colombia	Spanish (Fluent)	2	4 th	Transitional Bilingual school, Classroom teacher	K-12 urban
Erica	White	United States	Spanish (Fluent)	3	9 th -12 th	English Language Development	9-12 suburban
Katherine	White	United States	Spanish (Phrases)	2	8 th	English Language Arts	K-8 suburban
Mariana	White	United States	Spanish (Fluent)	2	2 nd	Two-Way Dual Classroom	K-12 suburban
Naomi	White	United States	Spanish (Phrases)	1	K-3 rd	English Language Development	K-8 suburban
Phoebe	Asian	Indonesia	Bahasa Indonesian & Spanish (Conversant)	2	6 th -8 th	Enrichment (elective) teacher	K-8 suburban
Tina	White	Japan	Japanese (Proficient)	2	3 rd	Gen. Ed. Classroom Teacher	K-8 suburban

Demographic Backgrounds. The participants fall into three categories: Culturally and Linguistically Diverse (CLD), Dominant Culture-Multicultural/Multilingual (DC-Multi), and

Dominant Culture-Monocultural/Monolingual (DC-Mono). For this study, culturally and linguistically diverse individuals are those who identify as belonging to a racially or ethnically minoritized group and whose family used an additional language in the home. Phoebe, Diana, and Angela are in this category. Dominant culture-multicultural/multilingual are individuals who identify as white and grew up in an English-speaking household, but who had ongoing relational interactions with individuals from other cultures, ethnicities, and languages throughout their childhoods. Erica, Andrew, Mariana, and Tina fall within this category. Dominant culture-monocultural/monolingual are individuals who identify as white and grew up in an English-speaking household and did not interact consistently with others outside of their same demographic. Katherine and Naomi are categorized as such.

The two participants who grew up outside of the United States until college have an interesting mix of experiences. Angela grew up as a privileged, dominant culture individual in the Dominican Republic. Tina grew up as an ethnic and linguistic minority in Japan. However, I have placed them in groups according to how they are perceived in the United States, Angela as CLD and Tina as DC-Multi. This is because how they are perceived in their current teaching context, through the lens of dominant U.S. culture, has a greater impact on their interaction with students, families, and colleagues than the position they had growing up. Table IV provides brief details of participants' individual backgrounds. These will be elaborated on throughout the findings chapters as the ways in which participants draw on their backgrounds is highlighted.

Table IV: Participants' Cultural and Linguistic Experiences

Participant	Category	Cultural Experience	Linguistic Experience
Angela	CLD	Raised in Dominican Republic Came to United States as college student	Spanish at home and school, English as additional language of access
Diana	CLD	Raised primarily in Colombia until age 8 U.S. experience - predominantly white Midwestern suburb	Spanish at home – support from mother for biliteracy development, English at school
Phoebe	CLD	Raised in Indonesia until age 5. U.S. experience - largely immigrant suburb on West Coast.	Bahasa Indonesia at home – strong pressure from family to learn English. English at school
Tina	DC-Multi	Raised predominantly in Japan with short visits to the United States. College in the United States.	English at home, with some Japanese. English and Japanese at school. Japanese in community.
Andrew	DC-Multi	Raised in United States. Parents had many multilingual friends from around the world. Sister adopted from South Korea.	English at home, in school, and community. Studied Spanish starting in middle school. Learned Italian in semester abroad.
Erica	DC-Multi	Raised in United States. Family hosted newly arrived refugee families throughout her childhood. Many multilingual friends.	English at home, in school, and community. Studied Spanish starting in middle school. Studied abroad in Spain for a summer.
Mariana	DC-Multi	Raised in United States. Parents had many multilingual friends and connections to Mexico.	English at home, in school, and community. Studied Spanish starting in middle school. Semester abroad in Mexico in college.
Katherine	DC-Mono	Raised in United States. Primarily white, working class community.	English at home, in school, and community. Studied French in high school.
Naomi	DC-Mono	Raised in United States. Military family moved frequently within the U.S.	English at home, in school, and community. Studied Spanish for two semesters in college.

While a sample of nine does not allow for broad generalizations, it is interesting to compare these individuals with all WheTEP graduates. Nine participants represents 15.5% of the total ESL/BE endorsement completers and 5% of the total WheTEP graduates.

When compared to all ESL/BE endorsement completers, the main difference is a higher representation of people of color in the participant group, specifically those who identify as

Latina, though there is a lack of representation of those who identify as Black or as two or more ethnicities. There is an over representation in the male category, though there was only one male participant. One out of nine participants creates a higher statistical representation than the three out of fifty eight total endorsement completers. There is also a higher number of secondary education teachers and those with the bilingual endorsement than the total endorsement completers.

Table V: Participants Compared to Endorsement Completers and WheTEP Graduates

Demographic Factor	Study Participants	All Endorsement Completers	All WheTEP graduates
Gender			
Female	89%	95%	77%
Male	11%	5%	23%
Ethnicity			
Asian	11%	13%	11%
Black	0%	3%	2%
Latina	22%	6%	6%
White	55%	74%	79%
Two or More	0%	4%	1%
Primary Certification Level			
Elementary	56%	79%	56%
Secondary	44%	21%	44%
Endorsements			
ESL only	67%	78%	26%
Bilingual & ESL	33%	22%	8%
Neither	--	--	66%

When compared to all WheTEP graduates, the key difference is that all the participants had completed either the ESL or the bilingual endorsement, while only 34% of all WheTEP completers do so. Additional differences lie in a lower representation of male graduates and a higher representation of people of color. The number of individuals reporting skills in a language other than English at the proficient or fluent level are significantly higher than the general WheTEP population (Vroom Fick, 2016-2019), which is likely due to the fact that those who

self-select into the ESL endorsement track often have a high interest in language and language development.

Teaching Experience and Contexts. Interviews were conducted in the spring and summer of 2020, as participants were completing their 1st through 3rd year of teaching. In detail, two were in their third year, six were in their second year, and one was in her first year. However, their years of experience vary from the years they had been in their current school and position. Angela and Erica were both in their third year of teaching. Angela had been in the same building, but had recently moved from 1st grade classroom teacher to 4th grade math specialist. Andrew and Katherine had been working in the same position for both of their years, and Naomi was in her first year and had the same position all year. Erica taught beginner Spanish split between two high schools for a year in one district and then was hired as an ELD specialist in a neighboring district. Phoebe and Tina were hired in the same district into a teacher residency program. For their first year, they floated between buildings, getting a feel for various positions. They both ended their first year covering maternity leaves in the buildings they were currently teaching in. Diana changed elementary schools within the same urban district between her first and second year. Mariana had the largest change, spending a year teaching English at a private school in Mexico, and then moving back to the United States and teaching in a public elementary school.

At the time of survey completion, all were teaching in public schools within the United States, eight in the Chicago metro area and one in Wisconsin. At the time of her interview in the early summer, Mariana, who had been teaching in Wisconsin, had recently resigned from her teaching position, because she had moved to Mexico to be near her husband's family. Of the eight within the Chicago area, two were teaching in an urban district and six were in suburban

districts. Of those six, one was in a K-12 district, one in a secondary district (9-12), and four in the same elementary (K-8) district at three different schools. The districts varied in student demographics in areas of ethnicity, percentage of English learners, and students in low-income households. These will be described in more detail in Chapter 5, as several teachers reflected on the makeup of their district as a structural factor impacting their implementation of Linguistically Responsive Teaching.

On question five of the survey, teachers were asked to indicate the position they currently held with the option to choose multiple categories. Participants identified themselves in three main categories: bilingual classroom teacher, English language development (ELD) specialist, and grade level classroom teacher. Three of the participants identified as elementary bilingual classroom teachers. Mariana was teaching in a dual language program and two in transitional bilingual programs (TBE). The two teaching in the TBE programs, Angela and Diana, were both in 4th grade classrooms where their curriculum was expected to be 100% in English, yet they both selected bilingual classroom teacher rather than general classroom teacher on the survey, indicating where their primary teaching identity lies. Three participants marked themselves as ELD specialists, with one at each grade range: elementary, middle school, and high school. Naomi was in her first year of teaching and taught primarily within a pullout program, although the school was transitioning to a co-teaching model for the following year. Andrew taught two sections of general education social studies in addition to the English language classes, though he only marked ELD Specialist on the survey. This could indicate where he places his primary teaching identity, as he reinforced and elaborated on in his interview. Erica, the high school ELD specialist is also endorsed as a Spanish language teacher and taught exclusively beginning Spanish classes her first year of teaching. At the time of the interview, she was teaching only

English language classes, but was in the process of negotiating with her department chair to add a Spanish class into her teaching load for the following year, as she truly saw herself as both an English and Spanish teacher. The final three participants identified as general education teachers. Tina taught third grade. Katherine and Phoebe taught at the middle school level, teaching English Language Arts and an enrichment course in a maker space, respectively.

Methods of Data Collection

Data were collected through an online survey and a semi-structured in-person or remote interview. The development and execution of each is described below.

Survey

The survey was based on two existing instruments developed by Karathanos (2009) and Shin and Krashen (1996), with some adaptation needed to update and contextualize educational terms. The survey consisted of 98 items grouped into the following categories: Demographics, Beliefs, Practices, and Background Experiences. Items within the beliefs and practices sections are also connected to the constructs of Lucas and Villegas' (2013) Linguistically Responsive Teaching framework. One area of the LRT pedagogical knowledge strand (identifying language demands) was not included in the survey, as no items in the original instruments directly asked participants about their perceived ability to do this. One additional construct, multilingual strategies, was added. The items focusing on multilingual strategies were developed from the literature review on multilingual pedagogy included in Chapter 2.

All required items contained discrete point answers on a five-point scale. Open-ended optional comment items were included at the end as a way for participants to provide any feedback they wanted to share on ideas or topics that were not specifically addressed in the survey. The full survey is included in Appendix A. The survey was entered into Qualtrics and

disseminated using the email addresses listed in the alumni database maintained by Wheaton's Education Department. As described in the recruitment process, reminder emails were sent out after one week and two weeks.

Interview

The second method of data collection was a semi-structured interview conducted with each of the participants. The semi-structured format provided a guiding structure for the interview, while also allowing for the time to flow more naturally and for participants to elaborate on topics or themes as they saw fit (Barlow, 2012). The interview protocol was developed after seeing the initial responses to the survey with the goal of allowing participants to describe connections they identified between their past experiences, current contexts, and stated beliefs and practices. The full protocol is included in Appendix B.

In the initial scheduling stage, participants were interviewed in-person, if they were living locally, or through video chat if they were not. For in-person interviews, participants were asked to choose a location that worked best for them: my office, their classroom, or an additional location of their suggestion. Midway through the interviewing process, the governor of Illinois issued a stay-at-home order due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Therefore, the final interviews were all conducted virtually regardless of the participant's location. The video interviews occurred through a secure Zoom account which was maintained by Wheaton College.

Table VI: Interview Locations and Length

Participant	Andrew	Angela	Diana	Erica	Katherine	Mariana	Naomi	Phoebe	Tina
Form of Interview	In-person	In-person	In-person	Video	Video	Video	Video	In-person	Video
Location	My office	Her classroom	Coffee shop					My office	
Length	1:15	:45	:58	1:15	1:10	:43	1:17	:48	1:07

The interviews lasted between 43 minutes and an hour and 17 minutes. They were audio recorded using a recording device for the in-person interviews or via the Zoom recording feature for virtual interviews. Zoom automatically records both video and audio in a combined file and an audio-only file; only the audio file was saved.

After welcoming participants and completing the consent process, each participant was provided with a copy of their survey responses, either as a hard copy or as a PDF emailed to them. This allowed them to review their responses as the initial part of the interview. With the invitation to review their responses, many participants jumped straight to the topic covered in question six of the protocol: *For those with a gap between beliefs and practices: What would you identify as some of the key factors for the gap between your beliefs and the practices you are able to implement?* Often the other topics included in the interview protocol came up in the flow of conversation extending from the initial discussion. For example, many cited the beliefs that others in their school held as a reason for why they did not feel as free to advocate for the use of additional languages. This statement often led them to explain why they felt their beliefs were different from their colleagues. Additionally, if they mentioned a specific strategy, I asked them to elaborate on what it looked like in their classroom (protocol question 4). Often, as teachers were doing so, they would mention the things that supported them in the use of that strategy. Throughout the interview, if there was an extended pause, I consulted the protocol to see which topics had not yet been addressed and then continued with the corresponding question.

Because I was not observing teachers, I enquired about their language practices and the specific strategies they mentioned using in multiple ways. Often, participants would reference the survey response about a particular strategy. I would then ask them to elaborate on that specific strategy, providing concrete examples of when and how they had used it and how

students had responded. If participants did not reference strategies on their own, I would direct them to their survey responses and ask them to describe those they marked as using with any regularity. If participants mentioned a specific resource, I would follow up by asking the ways in which they used that resource and the specific strategies it supported.

For the bilingual teachers, whose beliefs aligned the most closely with their colleagues, they had fewer conflicting emotions about their teaching context, and fewer gaps between beliefs and practices to describe and account for, so their interviews were on the shorter side. Phoebe, whose interview was also on the shorter side, expressed the most conflict with her colleagues and had a large gap between her stated beliefs and practices. She felt that the vastly differing beliefs between herself and her colleagues along with the structure of the enrichment class program accounted for the majority of the issues. For many topics, she described things very succinctly and almost fatalistically, “I can’t support [CLD students] all alone in 6 weeks. There has to be collective buy-in.” This perspective seems to have led to a shorter interview as well.

During the interview, I took notes on key events in participants’ lives related to shifts in orientations or practices and other key themes that were emerging. Sometimes the notes included follow up questions that I wanted to be sure to ask. I also recorded time stamps to return to for the selective transcription. After the interview was completed, I wrote up any additional observations from the overall interview. As I progressed through the interviews, I also noted key themes that may have been developing across interviews.

Positionality Statement and Role of the Researcher

As described above, I am the coordinator of the undergraduate ESL/BE endorsement program and was the professor of each of the participants. For almost all of them, I had filled additional roles at some point in their academic or professional career. I was the student teaching

supervisor for Tina, Naomi, and Mariana. Phoebe had participated in a prior interview for my coursework at UIC and we had co-presented on ideas stemming from that interview at the state multilingual teaching conference. Andrew hosts students at his school for a tutoring practicum that I oversee and has been a guest speaker for the introductory course I teach. Erica and Katherine were both my advisees for a portion of their time at Wheaton. For several, they have initiated ongoing connections since graduation; for example, requesting specific resources, connecting in-person at conferences, or simply sending email updates on life and teaching. Angela was the only participant for whom I had not played any role other than professor for one course.

I did not specifically seek out participants with this level of relationship, but it is very likely that our ongoing relationships motivated them to participate as a way to support me in my research. The level of existing relationship with virtually all participants created certain affordances. For everyone but Angela, I knew the ESL/BE coursework they had completed and the theoretical orientations and teaching strategies it contained. From our variety of interactions, there was already a deep level of rapport; speaking openly about their professional areas of strength and places for growth was a part of most of the relationships. This perhaps led to more openness within the interviews, but it could also have made it so they sought to please me and provide me with the answers they thought I wanted or needed to hear.

My role as interviewer was to create a context in which my participants felt that we were equal “partners in knowledge building” (Barlow, 2012). In this process, I worked to create space for them to lead the flow of discussion within the semi-structured nature of the protocol. I needed to be aware of my role as researcher, but also of my additional roles as former professor to all the participants, and on-going mentor to several. I addressed these various roles with participants at

the start of the interview. I acknowledged that there was no way to fully separate them; however, I assured them that I was there to listen and learn from them and not to evaluate or give advice. Still, there were times in the conversations that I felt much more like a mentor or former professor than a researcher, especially as participants referenced events in our shared history.

When participants directly asked for advice on classroom strategies, possible resources, or navigating colleague relationships, I noted the question and told them that we would come back to it at the end. In those cases, after I formally ended the interview and stopped recording, we often did chat about ideas and strategies for their contexts. At the end of each interview, I also let them know that I would be happy to continue conversations on this topic and provide assistance in whatever way possible. In doing this, I sought to have their participation in the research be as mutually beneficial as possible.

This mutual benefit connects to my broader perspectives of supporting students. Whether they are students currently in the endorsement program or former students in their professional careers, I seek to support them as holistically as possible so that they are as prepared as possible to do the same for their students and the communities in which they teach. Ultimately, their participation in this research will help inform changes within the program that I coordinate, and most directly, the courses that I teach. It will also hopefully inform the ways in which our whole department thinks about connecting with and supporting our recent graduates and other alumni.

Data Analysis

Using my research questions and theoretical framework as a guide, I examined the data using a variety of systematic methods. For the survey, this included assigning scores to survey responses in order to categorize levels of Linguistically Responsive Teaching (LRT) implementation and identify patterns in responses for individuals and groups of participants. For

the interviews, this included selective transcription and multiple cycles of coding. Amidst these procedures, I wrote analytic memos, noting emerging patterns within and across the two data sources, paying additional attention to outliers or instances contrary to the emerging patterns. My own experience as a language teacher and as a language teacher educator provided me a sense of what to pay attention to when participants discussed perspectives on practices and complexities of implementing those practices.

Table VII: Data Analysis Steps

Survey	Survey	Interviews	Surveys	Interviews	Interviews	Interviews
Thematic analysis to inform interview protocol	Informal analysis of individual responses before interview to pinpoint any specific questions	Analytic notes after each to note emerging themes	Responses scored Analysis of patterns for individuals and across a variety of groupings	Listening for emerging themes Selective transcription	Coding cycles: Deductive – LRT framework & literature concepts	Coding cycles: Inductive for missed themes

Survey Analysis

Responses to survey items were given scores in order to assign an overall rating of each participant's level of implementation of LRT. Each item was on a five point scale. Items in the Beliefs section were assessed on a 0 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree) scale. Items which allowed respondents to indicate a clear negative perception of language use (3-4, 8-10, 14-17, 20, 26-28) were negatively coded. Higher scores indicate more positive attitudes toward the use of additional languages. Items in the Practices section were on a frequency scale ranging from 0 (never) to 4 (always) scale. Items which allowed respondents to indicate a clear negative perception of language use (33-34, 44, 52) were negatively coded. Higher scores indicate a higher self-reported implementation of additional language practices. Scores from each section were combined into an overall score, and these scores were then grouped into the following

categories of LRT implementation: High (80-100%), Moderate-High (60-79%), Moderate (40-59%), Moderate-Low (20-39%), and Low (0-19%).

Individuals

While overall themes in responses were noted prior to interviewing, survey responses were not fully analyzed until after the interviews were completed due to the uncertainty of who the final participants would be. Prior to interviews, individual survey responses were reviewed to familiarize myself with their responses and pinpoint any specific questions or themes.

After all the interviews were completed, survey responses for each individual were manually scored according to the process outlined above. Scores for individuals, rounded to the nearest percentage are included in Table VIII. An expanded score table, which includes raw scores and scores for each sub-section is included in Appendix C.

Table VIII: Participant Score Percentages and LRT Level

Participant	Andrew	Angela	Diana	Erica	Katherine	Mariana	Naomi	Phoebe	Tina
Total Score	76%	80%	70%	76%	77%	80%	58%	65%	60%
Total Level	Mod-High	High	Mod-High	Mod-High	Mod-High	High	Mod	Mod-High	Mod-High
Beliefs	84%	85%	72%	83%	86%	83%	72%	83%	78%
Beliefs Level	High	High	Mod-High	High	High	High	Mod-High	High	Mod-High
Practices	67%	75%	68%	68%	66%	77%	41%	43%	39%
Practices Level	Mod	Mod-High	Mod	Mod	Mod	Mod-High	Mod-Low	Mod-Low	Mod-Low

The individual scores were used to triangulate data found in the interview responses. In general, there was strong overlap between the self-reported levels of beliefs and practices on the survey and those described in the interviews.

Patterns Across Groups

LRT implementation scores were then analyzed within groups to identify any patterns and outliers that might exist. The first analysis was by demographic group: culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD), dominant culture-multicultural/multilingual (DC-Multi), dominant culture-monocultural/monolingual (DC-Mono). This analysis was selected based on extant literature which describes individuals' cultural, ethnic, and linguistic backgrounds as significant in developing positive beliefs and practices surrounding the use of additional languages (Ajayi, 2011; García-Nevarez et al., 2005; Higgins & Ponte, 2017). The analysis contributed to answers for research question 1.a. *What connections are there, if any, between experiences engaging language, culture, and ethnicity outside of the classroom, and the self-reported implementation of linguistically responsive teaching?* Table IX shows participant scores arranged by background. Participants are arranged left to right from highest to lowest score, within each group.

Table IX: Participant Scores by Demographic Background

Participant	Angela	Diana	Phoebe	Mariana	Andrew	Erica	Tina	Katherine	Naomi
Demographic Group	CLD	CLD	CLD	DC-Multi	DC-Multi	DC-Multi	DC-Multi	DC-Mono	DC-Mono
Total Score	80%	70%	65%	80%	76%	76%	60%	77%	58%
Beliefs	85%	72%	83%	83%	84%	83%	78%	86%	72%
Practices	75%	68%	43%	77%	67%	68%	39%	66%	41%

The second analysis was done by teaching context, separating out language teaching context and grade range. The language teachers' contexts were: bilingual (BE), English language development (ELD), and general education (Gen Ed). The grade ranges were: elementary (Elem), middle school (MS), and high school (HS). These analyses were completed based on extant literature that documents the influence of context on teachers' beliefs and practices. These

two factors were chosen because they were the most distinct contexts. The analysis contributed to answers for research question 1.b. *What connections are there, if any, between professional experiences, including coursework and teaching context, and the self-reported implementation of linguistically responsive teaching?* In Tables X and XI, participants are arranged left to right from highest to lowest scores, within each group.

Table X: Participant Scores by Teaching Contexts – Grade Level

Participant	Angela	Mariana	Diana	Tina	Naomi	Andrew	Katherine	Phoebe	Erica
Grade Level	Elem	Elem	Elem	Elem	Elem	MS	MS	MS	HS
Total Score	80%	80%	70%	60%	58%	76%	77%	65%	76%
Beliefs	85%	83%	72%	78%	72%	84%	86%	83%	83%
Practices	75%	77%	68%	39%	41%	67%	66%	43%	68%

Table XI: Participant Scores by Teaching Contexts – Classroom Type

Participant	Angela	Mariana	Diana	Andrew	Erica	Naomi	Katherine	Phoebe	Tina
Language Teaching Context	BE	BE	BE	ELD	ELD	ELD	Gen Ed	Gen Ed	Gen Ed
Total Score	80%	80%	70%	76%	76%	58%	77%	65%	60%
Beliefs	85%	83%	72%	84%	83%	72%	86%	83%	78%
Practices	75%	77%	68%	67%	68%	41%	66%	43%	39%

There were additional cycles of analysis as additional themes emerged within the interview data. These additional factors were: the specific philosophy of the language development program, and years of experience in general and within the same teaching roles. These analyses helped to make sub-patterns visible and accounted for outliers within groups. For example, Diana's score is 10% below the other two bilingual teachers, Naomi's is almost 20% below the other ELD teachers, and Katherine's score is 12-17% higher than the other general education teachers. Each of them was in a program with different underlying philosophies from those of similar contexts, and Diana and Naomi had somewhat differing levels of experience.

This method of analysis demonstrates the interactive process between the survey data and the interview data. As patterns emerged within the survey data, I was able to pay closer attention to details shared within the interviews and vice versa in an attempt to triangulate the findings.

Interview Analysis

The interview transcript analysis entailed a series of coding cycles, summarized below.

Table XII: Interview Coding Cycles

Step	Analysis Method	Focus
1	Deductive Provisional Coding	Use of existing codes to focus on incidents referring to key components of the conceptual framework and survey categories
2	Inductive Expanded Coding	Coding for additional layers of details within the initial five provisional codes which may not be directly cited in extant literature
3	Coding for Attribution	Overall coding of statements indicating support or constraint of a multilingual practice
4	Causation Coding	Linking of codes into causation patterns, by specific participant details first and then collapsing into broader categories
5	Visual Representation	Organize patterns of causation in a way which allows for further analysis and synthesis

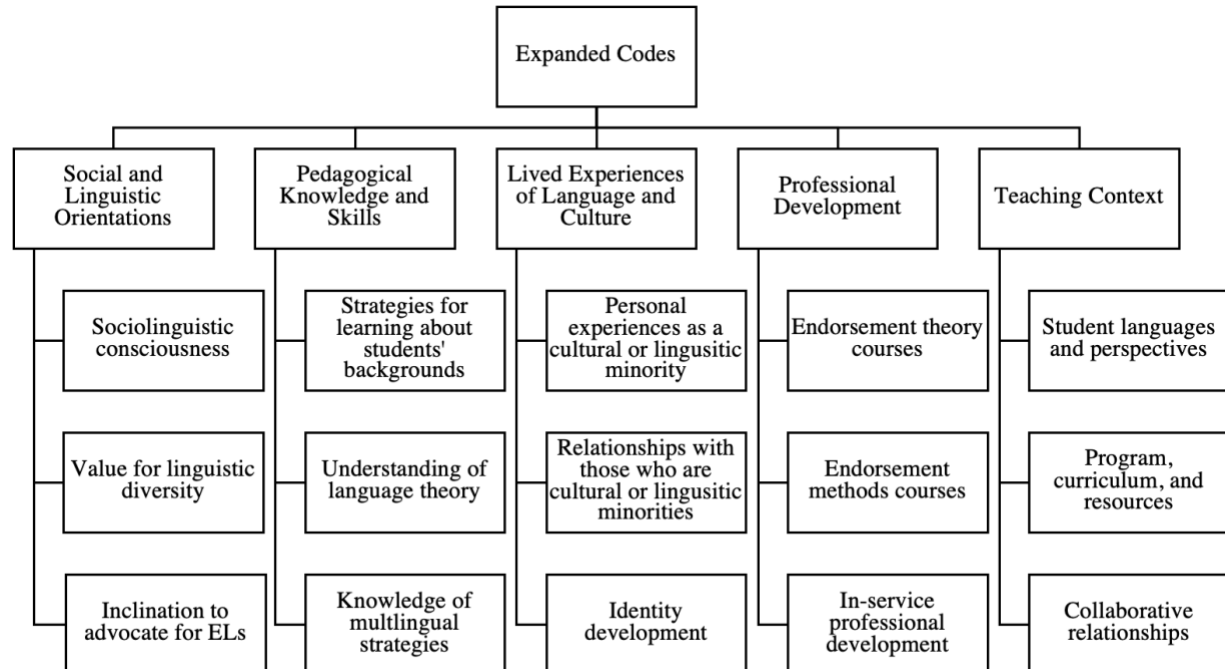
Provisional Coding

After the transcription process, I conducted a cycle of provisional coding using a set of existing codes determined by the extant literature and the structure of the survey. Saldaña (2016) highlights that this form of coding is especially useful for studies which are based on previous research, as this study is, and recommends pulling codes from the literature review, conceptual framework, and previous research findings. The predetermined codes, listed in Table XIII, were developed by pulling the key factors included in the framework of Linguistically Responsive Teaching and findings from extant research included in the literature review. Creswell (2013) recommends beginning with a short list of codes (5-6), which can be expanded and modified during the coding process, and finally condensed into overarching major themes.

Table XIII: Predetermined Codes

1	Social and Linguistic Orientations	References to beliefs about language, multilingualism, students' cultures, or family language practices.
2	Pedagogical Knowledge and Skills	References to practices used in their classrooms or knowledge of concrete practices that could be used.
3	Lived Experiences of Language and Culture	References to concrete/specific experiences of linguistic or cultural nature in their life.
4	Professional Development	References to any type of professional development centered around language – college, in-service sessions, coaching, etc.
5	Teaching Context	References to the influence of their teaching contexts – colleagues, students, curriculum, etc.

As I examined the instances of the five codes listed above, it was clear that there were additional details which could be highlighted with the use of additional codes. I went through each of the above categories and recoded for specific themes embedded within the larger concept. Figure 3 organizes the additional codes within the larger themes.

Figure 3: Round Two Data Codes

Causation Coding

The final cycle of coding was causation coding. Because I wanted to examine what supports and constraints teachers identified when describing their current level of practices, this form of coding helped to mark the causal links they identified. Saldaña (2016) frames causation coding as a process in which the goal is “to locate, extract, and/or infer causal beliefs from qualitative data such as interview transcripts...” and notes that an attribution “can consist of an event, action, or characteristic” (p. 187). Causation coding is a strong fit for this final cycle, as it provides a strong system for “looking at the complexity of influences on human actions” (Saldaña, 2016, p. 291). In order to prepare the data for causation coding, I reviewed the data and coded for language indicating something as a support or a constraint, or in some other way described the reasons behind practices or beliefs. Table XIV provides a sample list of phrases that were used to identify supports and constraints.

Table XIV: Example Language Indicating Support or Constraint

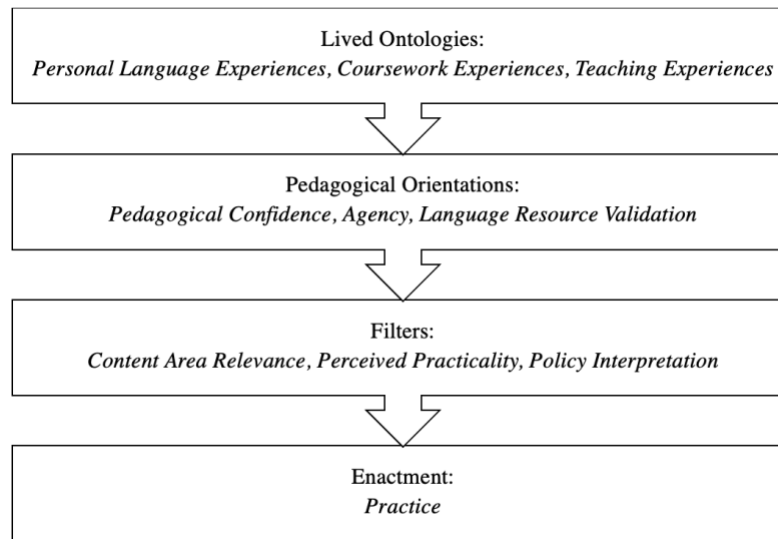
Language of Support	“I remember what it was like to learn English, so I...” “After I learned that theory, I understood...” “Because we have..., students can...” “My department chair encourages us to...”
Language of Constraint	“I am not sad about it, so I don’t ...” “People on my team aren’t open to...” “There aren’t resources in other languages, so...” “No one else shares that language, so...”

Maxwell (2012) stresses that causation coding should not fragment the data, but be done in extended excerpts. Additionally, Saldaña (2016) reminds researchers that in narrative structures, the causation is not always clearly stated, nor presented linearly, and therefore may require a process of deduction and reordering on the part of the researcher. Therefore, after identifying specific statements of support or constraint, I went through the data again looking for

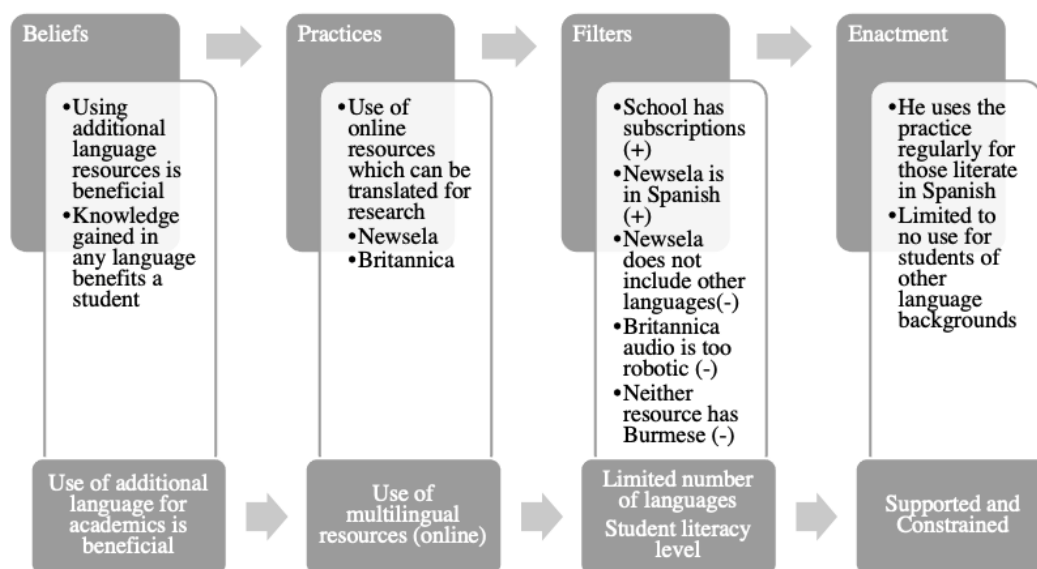
instances where causation was not explicitly stated, but either implied by the context or stated at another point in the interview.

To identify causation that may have been referenced at various points in the interview, I located each instance where a participant referenced a specific belief, language practice, or multilingual strategy. As I asked about strategies in various ways and at different points of the interview, participants often referred to the same strategy multiple times. I then analyzed each of those references as one unit. An example of this is that Andrew referred to the use of the online websites Newsela and Britannica at two different points in his interview, once to state that he enjoys using them because articles are available at multiple levels of English and in Spanish. However, later in the interview, he noted that Newsela is difficult to use in more multilingual classes, because it is not available in any additional languages. Britannica had more languages, but some students were not literate in their additional language, and the voice function was so robotic, it was difficult for students to understand. In this example, the existence of the resource in other languages (or lack thereof) was coded as both a support and a constraint. In this coding cycle, I first used details specific to the individual's context and then completed a final round of coding, collapsing the details into broader categories that applied to multiple participants' contexts.

In order to organize and make sense of the overall causation patterns being identified, I organized the causation relationships visually. Saldaña (2016) recommends either creating a three-column table highlighting antecedent conditions, mediating variables, and outcomes, or graphic modeling of the data to create a visual flow of attribution. For this visualization, I used an adapted form of Bacon's (2018) language ideologies framework (p. 176).

Figure 4: Language Ideologies Framework

For my purposes, I titled the first section Beliefs and the second Practices, maintaining Filters and Enactment for the third and fourth. Figure 5 takes the example from Andrew described above and puts in into the visual format. The white boxes contain the specifics for his exact context, and the gray boxes at the bottom indicate which of the broader categories those details were collapsed into.

Figure 5: Causation Visual – Andrew Digital Research

The multiple cycles of coding enabled me to analyze the data in systematic ways that could account for the participants' descriptions of what led them to hold certain beliefs and what supported or constrained them from implementing specific practices.

Enhancing Trustworthiness

To strengthen the validity and reliability of the survey instrument, existing instruments were used (Karathanos, 2009; Shin & Krashen, 1996). These instruments have been used in previous research studies and demonstrated to be both valid in measuring what they purport to measure and reliable in that across multiple studies they have resulted in similar findings (García-Nevarez, et al., 2005). Because some of the terms used in the original instruments were somewhat dated, especially the terms used to refer to emergent bilinguals and their languages, those terms and labels were updated. A primary way to increase reliability is to ensure that all participants are interpreting the new terms in as consistent a way as possible (Fowler, 2014). In this vein, the key term "home language" was defined at the beginning of the section in which it is used; this term was chosen because it mirrors the term used on school intake forms and Home Language Questionnaires, with which classroom teachers are familiar. Referring to students as "English Learners" also follows the common terminology currently used in schools across the United States and that which was used in the participant pool's preservice teacher program. An additional point of reliability is the inclusion of multiple questions which address the same subjective state, which can be combined into a specific construct. This can assist in leveling the discrepancies created by the wording of, or context surrounding individual items (Fowler, 2014).

In the analysis of the survey, scoring was completed separately two times to check for errors in calculations. When comparing patterns across individuals, multiple combinations were undertaken. This allowed me to see a variety of combinations and not simply examine ones

based on previous assumptions. For example, existing literature consistently reflects higher levels of positive beliefs among culturally and linguistically diverse teachers, but this was not a clear pattern within the survey data. When considering context, I grouped participants by grade level, which did not show clear patterns, and by teaching context, which did to some degree. By also paying attention to the outliers and discrepant data within groups, I ensured that the patterns were truly in the data and not simply my assumptions about the data (Maxwell, 2012).

In the interview process, I utilized the semi-structured protocol to both give space for participants to explore the topics in ways that made sense to them, but also to ensure that I was focusing on the same key topics within each interview. As I engaged in the cycles of coding of interview data, I began to construct assertions about the data. In order to strengthen the trustworthiness of my assertions, I engaged in data triangulation (Maxwell, 2012). In triangulating data both within various respondents and across the two sources of data, I supported my findings with multiple points of evidence. As the extant research demonstrates, while there are strong patterns within the connections between teachers' background experiences and their perspectives and practices surrounding additional languages, there are also key outliers that do not fit the patterns. In a desire to account for these outliers and other patterns which emerged in the data, I purposefully examined the data for discrepant evidence (Maxwell, 2012).

Finally, as I coded for causation and constructed the visual model, I remained aware of and worked to create structures that accounted for the fact that, as humans, we seek to establish causality. This is a process that had the potential to impact both how the participants described their experiences and how I interpreted that data. Therefore, as Saldaña (2016) recommends, when asserting my findings, I worked to retain "nuance and detail in the construction of causation narratives or diagrams" (p. 197). One of the key ways that I worked to do that was

coding for both the positive and negative impacts of any specific element, such as resources or colleague beliefs, identified by participants. Additionally, in the findings, I indicated bidirectional influence where possible, using the policy framework outlined in the literature review.

Conclusion

Throughout this chapter, I have articulated the research design and data gathering and analysis procedures. In Chapters 4 and 5, I present the findings organized by research question. Chapter 4 details findings related to patterns within participants' personal and professional backgrounds and their implementation of linguistically responsive teaching. Chapter 5 details findings related to supports and constraints that participants identified as impacting their implementation of linguistically responsive teaching, specifically multilingual pedagogy.

Chapter 4: Connections Between Backgrounds and Implementation of Linguistically Responsive Teaching

This chapter is the first of two presenting the findings from the study. The opening section provides an overview of general findings, followed by a detailed analysis of the findings for research question one: *What connections are there between teachers' personal and professional backgrounds and their self-reported implementation of linguistically responsive teaching?* The general findings focus on patterns within the survey response data among the nine participants. The detailed analysis expands on the survey response data by incorporating participant perspectives from their interviews.

Summary of Survey Responses

In analyzing the survey responses, some patterns emerge. As described in Chapter 3, responses to survey items were given scores to assign an overall rating of each participant's level of implementation of Linguistically Responsive Teaching (LRT). Each item was on a five-point scale and had a possible score of 0 to 4 points. Negative items were reverse coded. Scores were then grouped into the following categories of LRT implementation: High (80-100%), Moderate-High (60-79%), Moderate (40-59%), Moderate-Low (20-39%), and Low (0-19%).

Response Patterns by Teaching Context

For beliefs, all participants were at the moderate-high level and above, six at moderate-high, and three at high. Practices were noticeably lower across the board, with participants ranging from the moderate-low to moderate-high levels. This gap between the level of belief and the level of practice was a key topic participants focused on at the opening of, and throughout, each interview. This gap, and the reasons teachers gave for it, will be explored in more detail in Chapter 5. Table XV shows participants' scores for each section, rounded to the

nearest percent. Participants are organized by teaching role: bilingual education (BE), English language development, and general education.

Table XV: Participants' Overall Score by Teaching Context

Participant	Angela	Diana	Mariana	Andrew	Erica	Naomi	Katherine	Phoebe	Tina
Teaching Context	BE	BE	BE	ELD	ELD	ELD	Gen Ed	Gen Ed	Gen Ed
Total Score out of 220	177 (80%)	154 (70%)	177 (80%)	168 (76%)	168 (76%)	127 (58%)	169 (77%)	143 (65%)	132 (60%)
Beliefs Total out of 120	102 (85%)	86 (72%)	100 (83%)	101 (84%)	100 (83%)	86 (72%)	103 (86%)	100 (83%)	93 (76%)
Practices Total out of 100	75 (75%)	68 (68%)	77 (77%)	67 (67%)	68 (68%)	41 (41%)	66 (66%)	43 (43%)	39 (39%)

In the area of beliefs, there were no clear patterns by teaching context, as individuals from each teaching context fell within the moderate-high and high levels. A slight pattern did emerge, when participants were arranged by years of experience, both in total and in their current position. This could indicate that as teachers have more experience with students and families, their positive beliefs about the value of additional languages may increase. This may be connected to the fact that several of the beliefs statements specifically referenced participants' thoughts about students and families and those with more experience had more mental examples to draw from when answering.

Table XVI: Participant Belief Scores by Years of Experience

Participant	% Beliefs	Years of Teaching	Years at School	Years in Position
Angela	85%	3	3	1
Erica	83%	3	2	2
Andrew	84%	2	2	2
Katherine	86%	2	2	2
Mariana	83%	2	1	1
Phoebe	83%	2	1.5	1
Tina	76%	2	1.5	1
Diana	72%	2	1	1
Naomi	72%	1	1	1

Within practices, a clear pattern emerged in relation to teaching context: bilingual, ELD, and general education. However, even within that pattern, there were variations, with at least one individual from each context scoring the same, or lower, than those in the next highest context. Specifically, one individual from each of the contexts scored within the 66-68% range. The top scores (75%, 77%) were both in the bilingual context, but the lowest three (39-43%) were across both the ELD and the general education contexts. Some of this can be accounted for by examining the participants' descriptions of the philosophies within their teaching context. Philosophies within a program or teaching team that supported a multilingual approach supported teachers in higher levels of LRT implementation, while monolingual assumptions and strict adherence to scripted curriculum deterred its implementation. This will be explored in more detail in Chapter 5.

Table XVII: Participant Practices by Teaching Context and Program Philosophy

Participant	Practices	General Context	Specific Program and/or Program Philosophy	Years in building
Mariana	77%	Bilingual Education	Dual Language – 2 nd grade – 50/50 program	1
Angela	75%	Bilingual Education	TBE – 4 th grade – flexibility and autonomy – translanguaging valued within school	3
Diana	68%	Bilingual Education	TBE – 4 th grade – all curriculum in English, few Spanish resources	1
Erica	68%	English Language Development	Dept. Chair strongly believes in multilingual pedagogy	2
Andrew	67%	English Language Development	District ELD program supports multilingual pedagogy	2
Naomi	41%	English Language Development	Monolingual assumptions in building and on teaching team	1
Katherine	66%	General Education	MS ELA – year long course – flexibility within teaching team	1.5
Phoebe	43%	General Education	MS Enrichment – students rotate every 6 weeks – inflexible team	1.5
Tina	39%	General Education	3 rd grade – scripted curriculum – team focuses on directed coaching goals in math and literacy	1

Adding in the years a teacher had been in the same building paralleled what was noted when examining the beliefs. When accounting for program philosophy, those with more experience were likely to have higher levels of implementation. This could indicate that as teachers gain experience in their specific context, they are able to implement higher levels of linguistically responsive pedagogy. Reasons for this are discussed in more detail in Chapter 5, based on themes which emerged within the interviews.

Participant Identified Connections

What connections are there between teachers' personal and professional backgrounds and their self-reported implementation of linguistically responsive teaching?

This question included sub questions separating out personal backgrounds and professional experiences. Each sub question will be examined on its own, integrating data from the survey responses and key themes which emerged from the interviews. Because of the gap between reported levels of beliefs and practices, these concepts will be examined separately. This is due to both the survey data and themes within the interview data that become most clear when separating the two concepts. However, within the findings, connections will be drawn between the two, as they are interrelated.

Response Patterns Connected to Lived Experiences

1. a. What connections are there, if any, between lived experiences engaging language, culture, and ethnicity, and the self-reported implementation of more holistic versions of LRT?

As described above, I have grouped participants into three groups: culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) individuals, dominant culture individuals who grew up in more multicultural/multilingual contexts (DC-Multi) and dominant culture individuals who grew up in monocultural/monolingual contexts (DC-Mono). As noted above, within the survey results, when

examining overall LRT scores, there were no patterns that emerged when grouping individuals by their upbringing. When comparing within teaching contexts (e.g. comparing bilingual teachers from different backgrounds to each other), there were again no patterns that emerged along the lines of participant backgrounds. In fact, when examining general education teachers, the two with more lived experiences as linguistic and/or ethnic minorities reported only moderate levels of LRT implementation, while the participant with few lived experiences reported moderate-high levels of implementation. While there were no patterns within the survey results, clear patterns emerged from the interviews. The following table presents participants' belief scores by their demographic background.

Table XVIII: Belief Scores by Demographic Background

Participant	Angela	Diana	Phoebe	Mariana	Andrew	Erica	Tina	Katherine	Naomi
Demographic Group	CLD	CLD	CLD	DC-Multi	DC-Multi	DC-Multi	DC-Multi	DC-Mono	DC-Mono
Beliefs Scores	85%	72%	83%	83%	84%	83%	78%	86%	72%

Examining Belief Development by Demographic Background

Six out of nine participants scored in the High (80-100) range for beliefs and three scored at a moderate-high level (60-79), with all of those scoring above 70%. As noted above in the general analysis, there were no patterns within the belief scores that indicated connections to an individual's cultural or linguistic background. When arranged by background, the three highest belief scores representative each category, with the highest score (86%) from Katherine, who described a monocultural, monolingual upbringing until arriving at college. These results differ from existing literature, which has shown connections between individuals' lived experiences as cultural or linguistic minorities and their beliefs concerning additional languages (Higgins & Ponte, 2017; Pavlenko, 2003; Safford & Kelly, 2010). Yet, they also reflect findings that

individuals who have experienced a more monocultural, monolingual life can increase their empathy and beliefs with key lived experiences (Kasun & Saavedra, 2016; Marx & Pray, 2011; Nero, 2009). However, with nine participants, the ability to generalize is limited.

Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Teachers. While not reflected in survey scores, it was apparent in interview responses that individuals specifically drew on their experiences to shape their beliefs on the value of additional languages in general, and specifically in the classroom. For CLD teachers, the key shaper of their value of additional language was their own experiences with language development. Angela, who had not completed the bilingual endorsement in her undergraduate coursework, still applied for a bilingual position where she could use her Spanish because she “understood not feeling confident because of the language barrier.” She described feeling so frustrated when peers in college teased her when she was tired and her accent became more pronounced. It made her feel like yelling out that she was “doing everything in two languages!” She wants her students to have a different experience, so tells them regularly, “Dude! You know two languages, so you should kiss your brain every time you remember that. Cause you have double the strategies than kids who only have one language.” She explicitly states the value of their bilingualism because she generally did not receive that support after arriving in the United States.

Diana recognized the pressure her students sometimes felt to speak English, noting that “some students don’t feel American enough if they speak both languages,” so she desires to be a role model for them, demonstrating that “this [language] is part of our identity.” Phoebe directly contrasts her beliefs with those of many monolingual colleagues “Yes, everyone has these beliefs, but did they live through it? Do they see the need for it? You can have all the underlying beliefs, but not any of the action-oriented beliefs.” While she is generous in saying that

“everyone” has similar beliefs, she critiques the lack of follow through, attributing her own strong motivations to her lived experiences as an emergent bilingual.

Dominant Culture – Multilingual Context Teachers. Those from dominant culture backgrounds with multilingual upbringings described how the consistent engagement with bilingual individuals and the ideas of language and culture shaped their beliefs. They often cited specific relationships that developed over years and expanded their understanding of the role of language. Erica described the process of watching refugee families “live a normal life” in her home and then “struggle to express themselves in stores” and realized that they were often dismissed because others in the community did not value any skills that were not in English. She noted that she specifically sought to learn another language because she did not want “everyone I came in contact with who spoke a different language to have to completely bend to me.” She wanted “to have some kind of hope of meeting them half way.” The ongoing relationships with refugee families, many of whom were emergent bilinguals developed this perspective in her.

The theme of language usage and learning as a way to develop empathy was consistent throughout this group. Mariana described her first trip to Mexico in which she saw that language was more than a “mental exercise,” but a way to “understand people better and know a part of the world.” For her, the combination of a brief immersion experience to see the vitality of the language, ongoing relationships with Spanish speakers in her hometown, and Spanish teachers who themselves were part of the dominant culture showed her that, “I cannot just observe this, but become part of it in a way.” These experiences being in the position of a learner in their formative years developed empathy and a desire to live life bilingually.

Andrew spoke less of language directly and more of understanding the role of culture and privilege as he got into high school. He specifically noted a high school teacher who helped him

begin the journey of understanding culture and privilege, noting that it was especially powerful because it coincided with his adopted sister of Korean heritage entering middle school and encountering more overt prejudice. He noted that he continued to develop these beliefs through several other lived experiences traveling, and a semester abroad. When asked to describe any defining moments, he stated, “It’s hard to pinpoint it really, because even before [pursuing those experiences] there was something that drew me toward those beliefs, and so I don’t know how much of it is how my parents raised me.” He specifically noted that through these various experiences, he has realized that, “Every box you can check for privilege, I fall under it,” and so he asks himself, “How then am I going to use it and steward it?” In response to that question, he has purposefully sought out ways in his school to advocate for students because he believes he has “a calling and duty to follow through on these beliefs.” He felt the understanding he had gained needed to be enacted in all areas of his life.

Dominant Culture – Monolingual Context Teachers. Those from dominant culture, monolingual backgrounds focused on very concrete experiences and relationships in college. They were the one group that described some very specific “aha” moments that they could vividly recall. Katherine and Naomi, the two participants who were categorized in this group, both developed extensive relationships with students they tutored. All education majors are required to complete a community-based tutoring practicum in their first year. It officially requires 24 hours, and most students complete those within the school year and then move on to other things. However, these two continued their tutoring relationships for their entire college experience, and Naomi continued to tutor the same students even in her first year of teaching. They both highlighted how the longevity of the relationships allowed them to see bilingualism lived out in the students and families.

Katherine got to know one specific family, three generations of it, and said that this relationship is “what kick started all of it.” One particularly salient memory she shared was writing a Christmas card for the grandmother in Karen (the language of the Karen people, an ethnic group from Myanmar). The grandmother “lit up with joy” when she opened it. Katherine described that event as one where she saw how powerful using someone’s language can be in creating connections because of “how excited [the grandmother] was that someone was actually trying to meet her where she was, rather than this constant stepping into what she feels like is someone else’s world.” The feeling of that moment was one she hoped to create with her students when using, or making space for the use of, their additional languages in the classroom.

Naomi described how engaging with the students radically changed her view of translanguaging from something that excludes to something that “increases self-efficacy, increases self-worth, makes them feel like they really belong in this place.” Those views were really solidified when she student-taught at the elementary school that many of the tutees attended. There she was surprised to see “how silent, how submissive, like they were afraid to speak” they seemed when she had known them for many years as “very loud, rambunctious, energetic.” Seeing “how shut down they were at school” galvanized her desire to create spaces that welcomed all students’ languages.

Finally, Katherine, who opted to student teach internationally in Thailand, specifically pointed to the impact learning a language while living in it had on her perspectives. She highlighted how “being in uncomfortable situations, especially related to language usage helped me to empathize a lot more and be more understanding of the difficulty of operating and not feeling completely comfortable in a language that’s not your first.” She described feeling overwhelmed by Thai in the market and then finding someone who could assist in English and

how “it’s like breath. I can breathe a little bit” and because of that vivid experience, “I wanted to provide that for my students a lot more.” Because these teachers purposefully sought to develop extensive relationships in these contexts, they experienced rich encounters with language and culture that radically altered their understanding of the world.

Examining Practice Enactment by Demographic Background

As noted in the overview, the level of practices did not have any strong patterns that were determined by participants’ backgrounds. Table XIX summarizes the level of reported practices by demographic background.

Table XIX: Level of Practice by Demographic Background

Participant	Angela	Diana	Phoebe	Mariana	Andrew	Erica	Tina	Katherine	Naomi
Demographic Group	CLD	CLD	CLD	DC-Multi	DC-Multi	DC-Multi	DC-Multi	DC-Mono	DC-Mono
Practices Score	75%	68%	43%	77%	67%	68%	39%	66%	41%

In interviews, participants who grew up in dominant culture contexts did not describe their lived experiences as impactful in shaping their specific practices. However, participants with more extensive lived experiences in multilingual contexts did reference their lived experiences and more frequently described an openness to translanguaging as a normal part of life. Angela, a bilingual teacher who grew up in the Dominican Republic, demonstrated this perspective when she stated, “the rigidity of ‘well you HAVE to learn this in English,’ I was never able to associate with.” She further explained that at times when she felt it was important to focus on a specific language, she would say to students, “Now we’ll team up and switch languages. Never, it’s 2:00 pm; I cannot hear a lick of Spanish from you.” Participants who grew up bilingually often felt what was missing in English-dominant contexts more keenly than those who grew up in more

monolingual contexts. They also described a wider range of practices that could be used to create a more multilingual environment.

Phoebe, who immigrated to the United States from Indonesia at age 5 said she frequently asked herself, “How do I teach this to my 7 year old self?” when thinking about how to best support her emergent bilinguals. Later she stated, “What I have found is, it’s hard. It’s just hard. I feel guilty if I’m not being equitable to all my students.” While she described an incredible openness to students using whatever language was needed to complete their maker space projects, and cited several examples of how students did so, she marked herself low on the implementation of practices, scoring at the low end of moderate (43%). This may indicate that those with more multilingual backgrounds marked themselves lower on the survey items due to the fact that they were more aware of language practices that could be happening. They may have been evaluating themselves according to a different standard than those who grew up in predominantly monolingual households.

Tina presented an interesting study in this situation. She is a United States citizen, but was raised in Japan. She attended an international school that operated in a bilingual manner with teachers moving fluidly between Japanese and English, “based on what the students needed.” The school’s language landscape also included several other languages, like Korean, that students spoke at home. This led to consistent language exchanges between students, “From 1st through 12th grade, it was just, ‘what languages can we learn?’” However, she found it difficult to translate this to her current classroom. While she shared with her students that she spoke Japanese, it was not something she felt she could use to assist students because it was not a shared language. It seemed that she had a difficult time bridging her prestigious international bilingual development to the immigrant experience within a monolingual curriculum. However,

as the interview continued, she elaborated with more complexity on the use of additional languages. She articulated that she felt like “bringing in Japanese would have opened up a lot of opportunities for them to bring in Spanish or talk about [language].” As the interview concluded, she stated that she was interested in incorporating more Japanese as a model for students.

Response Patterns Connected to Professional Experiences

1.b. What connections are there, if any, between professional experiences, including coursework and teaching context, and the self-reported implementation of more holistic versions of LRT?

Moving to sub question B, participants’ professional experiences will be examined in more detail. Due to key themes that emerged when examining the impacts of coursework and teaching context, they will be examined separately.

Coursework

Because all of the participants had completed the ESL endorsement, I was not able to compare groups of those who had and had not completed that endorsement. In comparing those who earned only the ESL endorsement to those who had also earned the bilingual endorsement, there was a slight indication of a pattern. The two highest overall scores were from bilingual teachers; however, the third bilingual teacher had the third lowest score overall. As will be noted later, this seems to be an indication of the allowances of teaching context, rather than the results of coursework. It would have been interesting to include a participant who earned the bilingual endorsement, but was teaching in a general education classroom, but no one in that situation responded to the interview request. While there were no clear patterns regarding the impact of coursework in the survey data, in interviews participants spoke specifically to the unique ways in which their coursework changed their perspectives.

Coursework's Impact on Beliefs. A finding that crossed all backgrounds was that completing the coursework provided participants with a community of like-minded people with whom to process their beliefs and experiences. Katherine stated that she was very grateful to be a part of a group of people who were also exploring similar ideas and experiences, "If I hadn't had people to process through that verbally, I don't think it would have been as meaningful." Many participants found that to be a stark contrast to their current teaching contexts, which lacked like-minded community. That will be elaborated on in Chapter 5, as it was consistently cited as a limiting factor to their implementation of LRT. Patterns emerged among participants by demographic group when they described how they engaged with the coursework in reference to their lived experiences prior to and within the teacher preparation program.

Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Teachers. For those who grew up in a bilingual household, coursework served as a way to process their families' language ideologies and consider their implications in the classroom. This is a consistent finding in existing research, with theories often giving individuals permission to implement what they wish they had experienced (Higgins & Ponte, 2017; Pavlenko, 2003; Safford & Kelly, 2010; Taylor, 2008). Angela grew up speaking Spanish at home and studying all in Spanish, except for an English class once a day. However, her family and community used English frequently for socializing, accessing entertainment, and expanding their professional and relational networks. In her context, growing up in the Dominican Republic, translanguaging was seen as a marker of education and culture. She believed in the use of translanguaging within her classroom, but noted that within her endorsement program, completed after graduating from Wheaton, "the attack on Spanglish is hard." However, due to her strong personal beliefs and the culture of her school, she was able to resist those perspectives.

Diana immigrated from Colombia when she was eight. She was raised to be bilingual and biliterate by her mother, even without access to bilingual education. However, her Mexican-American husband was raised monolingually, though his parents were bilingual. When contrasting her family's language practices with those of her husband's she stated, "I guess they don't know how to do it. My family – we know how [to become bilingual]." She stated that upon transferring to Wheaton College as a junior, she was not thinking about pursuing ESL or bilingual education because "you're always going to be bilingual regardless." However, it was upon taking her first class in the endorsement track that she began to "really understood the importance of language" in the classroom and decided "I NEED to teach other people to be bilingual!" Her family language practices had helped her arrive in college biliterate, but she began to realize that this was not the case for many K-12 students. The coursework shifted her beliefs from assuming bilingualism would happen in most cases to highly valuing formal bilingual education.

Phoebe immigrated to the United States from Indonesia at age five. She stated that her family believed "all English, all English, all English – that was the best way to learn." They required her and her sister to complete the Hooked on Phonics program at home in order to "get rid of any accent" on the advice of extended family that had immigrated previously. She listed herself as currently conversant in Bahasa Indonesia and working to relearn it. Growing up, her classmates were mostly immigrants, with a mix of half first-generation and half second- or third-generation. She details beliefs within the school and her peers that viewed home language and school language as distinctly separate. If there were newcomers who spoke their home language at school, she recalled thinking, "Oh, we're not like that anymore. We're better now." She described the ESL endorsement coursework as facilitating "the biggest shift" in her thinking.

“Taking your classes, it was like counseling, honestly. A lot of processing, ‘Oh, yeah. I guess that did happen.’” She further elaborated, “When I learned these theories, I realized it wasn’t a me thing, the reason why I was struggling, but it was just a process, and that’s okay. I could forgive myself for all the years I struggled.” The ability of coursework to help her release former negative perspectives toward herself, her language, and the learning process is a consistent finding with bilinguals who have grown up in families or communities with monolingual English beliefs (Ajayi, 2011; Ellis, 2004; Pavlenko, 2003; Safford & Kelly, 2010).

Dominant Culture Teachers. The three main things that ESL endorsement coursework did for those from dominant cultural contexts was give exposure to new perspectives, provide theoretical frameworks for how language and culture impact life and education, and provide research to support the use of multiple languages in the classroom. This was true of both those from multilingual and monolingual backgrounds. This echoes the research that finds coursework for dominant culture individuals is more about providing frameworks and theories, rather than integrating personal beliefs (Ajayi, 2011; García et al., 2010; Nero, 2009). However, when combined with lived experiences, it can be instrumental in developing personal beliefs (Nero, 2009; Wright-Maley & Green, 2015). Katherine, who grew up in a monolingual context, highlighted how strong this shift can be when stating that as she completed the survey, she found herself exclaiming, “How could anyone not have this belief? If you’re a teacher, what do you mean you wouldn’t value their home language?” She later elaborated on the intersection of coursework and experiences: “Having those experiences simultaneously with being enrolled in a course, not even completely related but somewhat related, was really helpful. It allowed me to see things I might not have noticed otherwise.” For her, the integration of both types of experiences were what allowed her to make the strong shift in thinking she described.

At the basic level, taking the required coursework for the ESL endorsement created learning communities where dominant culture participants were able to gain new perspectives from course content and classmates. Naomi described peers who were multilingual sharing the knowledge of how language impacted their lives. This impacted her greatly because “growing up I didn’t have any bilingual friends, but I began to see the full cognitive depth that another language provides. I saw more clearly how much more knowledge can be gained through another language.” Katherine noted feeling the loss of a like-minded community in her current teaching context, wishing that she had a similar group at her school and grateful for the conversations she had been able to have with college friends about teaching ideas and implementation.

Naomi spoke specifically to how learning the history of linguistic laws in the United States impacted her, especially the use of English-only laws, “as deprivation toward Native Americans and immigrants with the agenda to intentionally rid students of languages.” She realized that “there’s an ugly side to [English only]. It’s not just good-hearted teachers who can’t use other languages. I do not want to perpetuate the sins of the past.” In addition to the endorsement courses, Andrew, whose primary licensure is history, also mentioned how learning about the history of various groups in the United States continued to shift his thinking, and he was able to think about how their language histories were impacted by their social histories.

Several participants specifically referenced their theory course when giving reasons for why they held the beliefs they did. Tina, the bilingual outlier within the dominant culture group, had similar thoughts to CLD individuals in the area of language theory. She remembered “loving that [theory] class. I think it’s because I could relate to so much having grown up overseas, and everything was clicking so much.” Yet, she also noted that it expanded her thinking around language in the context of the United States. Mariana noted that her main takeaway from her

theory class was how language articulates the view of the world that, “by supporting a student’s language, we’re supporting a part of their identity.” Naomi recalled learning theories about how languages interact and disbelieving them until she had conversations with her bilingual peers, who validated that they did indeed have all their languages in “a big mix.” This highlighted the importance of the relational component, especially for those from monolingual backgrounds. Katherine emphasized the value of learning the idea of metalanguage, “Being able to attach language, and specific language to what was happening was really helpful. Without the classes, I wouldn’t have had the schema to think through the experiences.” This knowledge especially helped her to process experiences she was having in her relationship with the refugee family.

Several participants said they viewed their understanding of language acquisition research as one of the key reasons why their beliefs differed from many of their colleagues. Andrew stated that from research, it is “pretty evident that literacy in first language and continuing in bilingualism once you’ve learned a new language is beneficial.” He contrasted that with the beliefs of colleagues who have not completed any endorsement work, and who often “blame students’ home languages for their lack of success in school.” Naomi attributed these negative perspectives in other teachers to “miseducation,” citing an example of a teacher attributing academic challenges negatively to the home language. Emily, whose department teaching high school ELD was mostly teachers with 25+ years of experience, highlighted the value of current research, stating that “the research around [additional language use] is so much more than my 50-55 year old coworkers had when they were in college.” Several referenced the impact that specific theories had on them, in support of learning being transferable across languages. Tina illustrated this: “It doesn’t matter what language you’re learning in; you’re learning. Learning the importance of bridging the gap was helpful because you don’t want to

negate all they do know [in additional languages] because that's not fair." The role of coursework in the process of belief formation stood in contrast to the participants who were raised bilingually and mostly came into the program with these lived understandings and learned the theoretical labels in their classes. It did in some ways mirror the experience of Phoebe, who came into the program with English-only beliefs, yet she had the lived experience as a bilingual to more readily problematize those views.

Coursework's Impact on Practices. The connection between coursework and implemented practices was less clear. When naming specific practices they learned, most generally referenced good English language development strategies and not strategies for developing additional languages. Some noted that they remembered talking briefly about some of the listed practices and looking at a few websites, but not in a way that had a lasting impact. For those who completed the bilingual methods course, there were more concrete specifics. Emily described the course as showing the various programs, techniques, and benefits of using both languages simultaneously and that learning about "places embracing both languages was empowering." For Diana, her student teaching in a highly structured two-way dual language program with a two-teacher model seemed to limit her ability to develop more organic bilingual practices in her 4th grade TBE classroom. She frequently referred to the fact that the two schools she had worked in did not have specific "look fors" provided by the administration, and that it made it difficult for her to know how to specifically implement Spanish in her teaching.

Patterns Across Teaching Contexts

Strong patterns emerged in relation to the context in which teachers worked: bilingual education, English language development, or general education. All participants referenced their

teaching contexts in both general and specific ways throughout their interviews. The impact of contexts on beliefs and practices will be explored separately.

Impact on Beliefs. As noted in the general findings, in the area of beliefs, there were no clear patterns in survey results by teaching context, as individuals from each teaching context fall within the moderate-high and high levels. A slight pattern did emerge when participants were arranged by years of experience, both in total and in their current position. This could indicate that as teachers have more experience with students and families, their positive beliefs about the value of additional languages may increase. This was highlighted by Naomi in her interview. She stated that with only one year of experience she couldn't identify specific patterns in parental views. She described some parents' perspectives as "shocking" because of "how little regard they seem to have for the home language." However, she also saw the opposite – families that highly valued the use of their home language. If the perspectives that seemed to devalue home language use stood out more because she found them "shocking," they may have impacted how she views all parents and therefore lowered her beliefs about their engagement in and value of home language development.

One area that was noted by participants across teaching contexts was the level of difficulty they had maintaining their beliefs depending on the beliefs held within their surrounding contexts. The impact of each context will be explored separately.

Bilingual Contexts. Those in bilingual contexts described how closely their program model was aligned with their beliefs and how they navigated any gaps. This is a situation that many bilingual teachers navigate as they, and their administration, take stances on specific program and policy expectations (García-Nevarez, et al., 2005; Hopkins, 2016). Mariana felt in full alignment with the official dual language program, stating their "values are the same on the

whole.” Angela felt in full alignment with the culture of her grade level team and comfortable with the hands-off view that administration took on language allotment, noting that while they were expected to follow a TBE model of language transition, administration “didn’t actually enforce it or take it into account when they were evaluating us or anything.” Diana specifically noted that her beliefs in the benefits of dual language and her desire to teach in an urban public school were at odds when first looking for jobs, because “it took time to get dual into the city,” so all she could find were TBE programs. There were dual language charter school options, but she opted to take a public school job in hopes that the language program would change. When switching schools after her first year, she specifically chose one that was building up a dual language program and took a grade level she was not as specifically interested in so that she could teach at a dual language school. She still felt that she was not teaching in ways she really believed in and was “counting the years” until the dual program would reach the fourth grade.

English Language Development Contexts. ELD teachers described specific conversations within their district ELD teams and their school teams, and how they were often in a process of negotiation within those teams and with those outside the ELD context. This negotiation of roles and the place of additional languages is a consistent finding in research (de Oliveira & Athanases, 2007; Karathanos, 2009; Pettit, 2011). Andrew specifically contrasted the views of the ELD teachers in his building with those in general education who saw “additional languages as a hindrance.” While he was frustrated by that, he felt aligned with his team and the broader district ELD program. Erica said she specifically asks herself the question, “How am I reconciling what I believe to be true versus what is asked of me?” when negotiating the assumption that upper level ELD classes be conducted monolingually and was very grateful that the new department chair “has a different approach.” Naomi noted that her school seems “neutral

toward multilingualism; at worst, apathetic.” She stated that no one is “intensely antagonistic,” but that little comments, like blaming additional language use for academic gaps, showed they do not see it as an asset. The fact that she was in a pull-out program provided some autonomy, but the school was moving to a co-teaching model in the coming year. She was excited to work with an experienced co-teacher, but also worried the assigned person would not share the same beliefs and she was not sure how she would negotiate that.

General Education Contexts. The general education teachers most strongly described the lack of discussion of language use, other than in contexts of behavior management or for newcomers. They were the participant group that felt it was the most difficult to hang onto their beliefs in the face of either the complete absence of discussion or explicitly antagonistic perspectives. This also aligns with trends in existing research (Pettit, 2011; Reeves, 2006). Katherine described her 8th grade language arts team as all monolingual and not comfortable with the use of other languages: “For the most part, most teachers don’t consider it. It’s not something people are comfortable with at all, really.” She was grateful for ongoing conversations she had with other alumni from the program that encouraged her and shared strategies.

Tina found herself succumbing to the dominant belief that parents’ fluency in languages other than English was a negative, especially in the area of parent/teacher communication. She described feeling torn, “even though I do value their home language in my mind, I think of them more negatively sometimes than I want to. I know that’s not valid, it’s just my own... I don’t know what that would be.” While she admitted that she knows it’s not a valid belief, she was not able to name it as prejudice because she held strongly to her abstract positive beliefs about language. Phoebe felt the most distant from her team of explorations (electives) teachers, who were all dominant culture and monolingual, and isolated as “the only female Asian teacher in the

building.” She was also frustrated by the lack of engagement they had in even the standards they would be assessed on. She said she had given up trying to change their mind on language, because “if you can’t get teachers to buy in on the practices they will be concretely assessed on, how can I expect them to buy in to practices that aren’t even mentioned in most places?” The ignoring of her bilingualism as an asset for learning is not uncommon (Higgins, & Ponte, 2017).

Impact on Practices. When examining levels of implementation of practices, a clear pattern emerged in relation to current teaching context. Bilingual teachers scored highest overall, followed by ELD specialists, and then general education teachers. In many ways, this is to be expected, given that bilingual teachers are specifically tasked to use their students’ additional language, and ELD specialists are often working with more newcomers, with whom teachers more readily create space for multilingual strategies (De Angelis, 2011). However, within the pattern of teaching context, there were variations within each context. At least one individual from each context scored the same, or lower, than those in the next highest context. As noted in the general findings, much of the variation within contexts can be accounted for by examining the participants’ descriptions of the philosophies within their teaching context. Each was asked to elaborate on their teaching context in their interview. As they described their specific context, there were clear structures that emerged which supported LRT and those which limited it. These specific structures will be discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

Of interest within the bilingual context is a situation that Mariana encountered in her two-way dual language program. She had two students that spoke languages other than English or Spanish at home. These students spoke Italian and Chinese, but those languages were never used in the classroom. When asked, she noted that “the student might have brought up cognates with Italian, but not with Chinese. Maybe it’s because they’re so young.” This could indicate that

while Mariana has strong practices for integrating languages that are formally included in the curriculum, she is less aware of and skilled at integrating all additional languages her students may have connections to.

As noted above, adding in the years a teacher had been in the same building and/or position reflected what was noted about beliefs. When accounting for program philosophy, those with more experience were likely to have higher levels of LRT implementation. Naomi elaborated on the role of experience, noting that as she completed the survey section on practices, she frequently thought, “Oh, that’s a thing that I could do,” and it “made me realize how inexperienced I am.” Tina echoed that sentiment: “This is something I’m passionate about, but that I forgot about, which is so easy to do when there are so many things, especially in the 1st year of teaching.” This could indicate that as teachers have more experience navigating their teaching context, they’re better able to identify how to implement LRT within that context. This will be explored in more detail in the following chapter.

Conclusion

In examining the connections between teachers’ personal and professional backgrounds and their self-reported implementation of linguistically responsive teaching, some patterns emerge within the survey responses, but others remain obscured. The interview data serves as a way to illuminate, and at times, call into question the ways the survey data can be interpreted. While there are no clear patterns in levels of beliefs according to participants’ demographic backgrounds, the ways in which they have arrived at their beliefs did vary according to their lived experiences. These experiences serve to broaden their understandings and awareness, and in some cases, may cause CLD teachers to underreport what they are doing in their classrooms.

Coursework served to expand participants' understandings of how language works and either affirm or contradict perspectives they gained in their lived experiences. It was helpful for affirming the lived experiences of CLD individuals as emergent bilinguals themselves, and providing research-based frameworks for all teachers to operate out of. Due to the nature of ESL endorsement coursework, participants refer to it for strong English language development strategies and theoretical approaches, but less often as a resource for multilingual strategies.

Finally, teaching context has a strong impact on individuals. The general program design and specific philosophical context are both highly influential as teachers wrestle with aligning their beliefs with those held by their colleagues and administration. They are also key in developing structures which support or constrain the use of multilingual strategies. These structures will be examined in detail in the following chapter.

Chapter 5: Contextual Influences on the Implementation of Linguistically Responsive Teaching

The following chapter examines the findings for research question two and its sub questions. The bulk of the chapter presents a detailed analysis of the findings for the research questions listed below, pulling data from the participant interviews. In large part, this serves to expand upon the concepts identified in Chapter 4, by identifying the reasons given by the participants for the gaps between their beliefs and their practices.

2. *What do teachers cite as the key influences on their current level of linguistically responsive teaching?*

- a. *What do teachers cite as the key factors that support them in developing and implementing the various components of LRT?*
- b. *What do teachers cite as the key factors that constrain them from developing and implementing the various components of LRT?*

Data was first coded inductively for any terms or descriptions as to something being a support or constraint. After these references were tagged, they were then coded deductively, identifying specific elements that participants noted and allowing for the key themes to rise to the surface. These themes indicated similar factors that influenced teachers in all contexts. Example factors are language program philosophy, personal language fluency, how multilingual their student populations were, and the views their primary collaborative team held toward LRT. See Table XX for a description of participants' teams and other collaborative relationships. Each of the factors was described as both a support and a constraint, depending upon the individual teachers' context. Therefore, the sub questions will not be considered separately. Instead, under

each of the identified factors, I will address the aspects of it that participants said provided support or resulted in constraints.

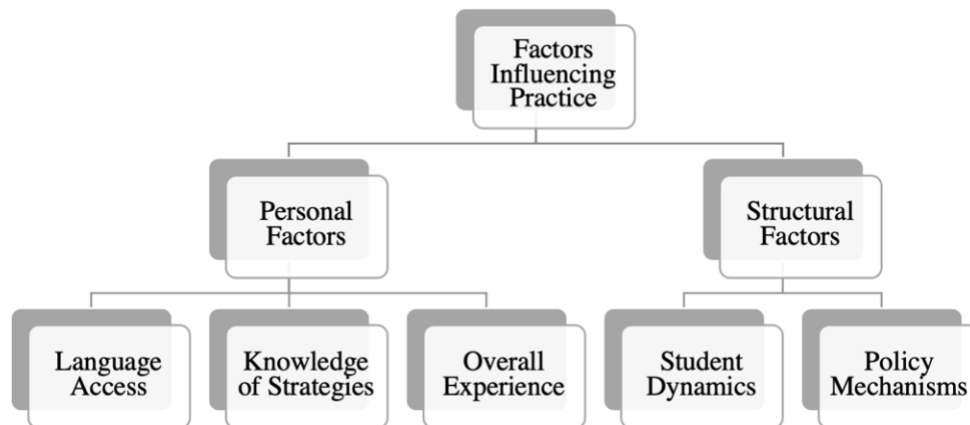
Table XX: Teaching Teams and Other Collaborative Relationships

Participant	Key Team	Other Collaborative Relationships	Instructional Coaches
Andrew	ELD department at MS Social Studies department	ELD Program in district	None mentioned
Angela	4 th grade team	K-4 th grade team	TBE coach
Diana	4 th grade team	TBE teachers (vs. K-1 teachers already transitioned to dual language)	TBE coach
Erica	ELD department	Department chair provided consistent guidance and informal coaching	None mentioned
Katherine	8 th grade ELA team	MS ELA department	None mentioned
Mariana	2 nd grade team	None mentioned	None mentioned
Naomi	ELD team at school	Teachers whose students she worked with	None mentioned
Phoebe	MS Enrichment team	None mentioned	None mentioned
Tina	3 rd grade team (general planning & collaboration)	3 rd grade data-driven PLC	Literacy Instructional Coach – directed PLC meetings

In further examining the factors which teachers cited in their interviews, two aspects came to the forefront: their individual abilities, and the impact of their professional context. This echoes existing studies which emphasize the interplay between the individual teacher and that teacher's professional context on his or her implementation of specific aspects of language teaching. Nilsson et al. (2016) organize this interaction by detailing internal and external factors. Bacon (2020) frames this interplay as filters through which teachers' lived ontologies and pedagogical orientations pass on their way to becoming enacted practices. Hopkins (2016) expands upon the general concept of policy using a systems perspective. She identifies three levels of policy: regulative, normative, and cognitive. The interaction occurs as regulative and normative mechanisms form the context in which a teacher enacts their individual cognitive mechanisms.

In order to better organize the key factors that emerged deductively, they were grouped into categories pulled from these studies. The overarching categories which will be examined in this chapter are personal factors and structural factors. Personal factors include individual language access, knowledge of specific strategies for their context, and general experience. Structural factors include student dynamics and policy mechanisms.

Figure 6: Factors Supporting and Constraining Practice



The theme of access to resources was a complicated one to assign. Teachers sometimes took on full ownership for that, acknowledging that they had not built up a personal collection of multilingual resources that they could use. Other times they described the resources available within their building or district, focusing on what was provided for them. I have categorized references to resources under policy, due to the connection it has to district policies and how those have (or have not) allocated resources to support various programs and initiatives. As a reminder, Table XXI, below, provides a general overview of the participants with relevant personal and professional information.

Table XXI: Participant Characteristics

Participant	Personal Background	General Teaching Context	Specific Curriculum Program and Its Philosophy	Years in Position	Reported Language Proficiency
Mariana	DC-Multi	Bilingual	Two-Way Dual Language – 2 nd grade – 50/50 program	1	Fluent – Spanish
Angela	CLD	Bilingual	TBE – 4 th grade – flexibility and autonomy – translanguaging valued within school	1	Fluent – Spanish
Diana	CLD	Bilingual	TBE – 4 th grade – all curriculum in English, few Spanish resources	1	Fluent – Spanish
Erica	DC-Multi	ELD Specialist	Dept. Chair strongly believes in multilingual pedagogy	2	Fluent – Spanish
Andrew	DC-Multi	ELD Specialist	District ELD program supports multilingual pedagogy	2	Proficient – Spanish, Italian
Naomi	DC-Mono	ELD Specialist	Monolingual assumptions in building and on teaching team	1	Phrases – Spanish
Katherine	DC-Mono	General Education	MS ELA – year long course – flexibility within teaching team	1.5	Phrases – Spanish
Phoebe	CLD	General Education	MS Enrichment – students rotate every 6 weeks – inflexible team	1.5	Conversant – Bahasa Indonesia, Spanish
Tina	DC-Multi	General Education	3 rd grade – scripted curriculum – team focuses on directed coaching goals in math and literacy	1	Proficient – Japanese

Factors Supporting and Constraining Implementation

What do teachers cite as the key influences on their current level of LRT?

The first section examines the personal factors which teachers identified. The second section then addresses the structural factors. While the interaction between personal and structural will be briefly mentioned throughout, I conclude the chapter with a short section highlighting a few specific examples of how the participants framed this interaction in their own words.

Personal Factors

Each of the participants specifically described what they saw as their own strengths, gaps, and areas for growth in regard to Linguistically Responsive Teaching. The three main factors

which emerged are personal language proficiency, knowledge of specific strategies, and their overall experience as teachers. Each of these will be addressed, highlighting the specific ways they supported and constrained the implementation of linguistically responsive teaching.

Language Access

Personal Proficiency. The participants who reported the highest levels of proficiency in a language other than English (Angela, Diana, and Mariana) mentioned the impact of their language skills on their classroom practice the least. This is most likely due to the fact that they were teaching in bilingual contexts, where that proficiency is assumed. While they did not focus directly on their proficiency, they did provide many examples of practices they implemented due to their language ability. Angela described how she allows students to answer in any language during math talks because, “what was important to me was that they could express their learnings, regardless of their language.” Additionally, as discussed in Chapter 4, these teachers saw their bilingualism as a direct connection to and model for their Spanish-English bilingual students.

For other teachers, they described more of a continuum of how their proficiency allowed or constrained various practices. Andrew noted how it was great to be able to use a student’s language because there was often “an ‘aha’ moment when I’m able to translate something.” For many, their ability to understand Spanish allowed for Spanish-speaking students to use their language more frequently in the classroom for both the learning process and final products or assessments. Andrew and Phoebe both described allowing students to use Spanish in class for discussions and assignments, as well as on quizzes. Phoebe stated, “they can write in Spanish. I can get by in Spanish.” Erica noted that knowing Spanish was an advantage in her teaching because she could say to students, “it’s okay to tell me in Spanish, and we’ll figure it out together

in English.” Katherine and Naomi both listed themselves at the phrases level of Spanish proficiency. Katherine noted that she allows any language in the process of learning, but final products have to be in English, because she is “not comfortable grading in Spanish.” Naomi noted that while there were many resources in Spanish for students to reference, she still did not feel she could actively use them for teaching and stated, “I’m not fluent.” Tina, who speaks no Spanish but is proficient in Japanese, began to speak differently about how she had positioned the two languages as the interview progressed: “As I was doing this survey, [I realized] me bringing in Japanese would have opened up a lot of opportunities for them to bring in Spanish or talk about that.” In describing their use of Spanish, teachers directly referenced their own proficiency level and the space it gave them to leverage its use in the classroom.

None of the other languages spoken by students, such as Polish, Karen, Malayalam, Arabic, and Somali, were shared by any of the teachers; therefore teachers had more limited approaches to those languages. Andrew noted the complexity of a multilingual classroom, stating “it’s just so hard when I don’t know or understand, or can’t easily translate their language.” However, rather than disallowing those languages, many of the teachers in multilingual contexts spoke to the role technology played, as opposed to their own fluency. Yet, participants generally limited students to using their additional languages in discussion and process stages, but not in final products such as papers, quizzes, or tests. Andrew allowed students to use their additional language in the learning process and then utilize Google Translate to create a final product in English, though he encouraged them to use it at the word/phrase level and discouraged them from copying and pasting entire essays because of the limitations of the translation software. Erica echoed this strategy, “we use Google Translate and then follow up with that, because you

can't just leave Google Translate with what it is." The availability of technological resources was appreciated, yet always acknowledged as a poor substitute for human fluency.

Phoebe, for her maker space projects, told students "you have the whole internet as a resource" and allowed them to translate their One Note instructions and then seek out YouTube tutorials in whatever language they would prefer. Yet, she still felt limited. "If I spoke the language, I could have communicated [the vision] to them better." Erica described how, at the suggestion of her department chair, she conducted beginning and end-of-year informal assessments in students' additional languages. For languages she does not know, she described mainly paying attention to fluency in reading and writing in order to get a general feel for their levels. She said doing this helped her to see, "are they truly bilingual and biliterate?" Of note is that all of these strategies were described by those teaching in middle school or high school. This could be because they had more technology infused throughout their curriculum, as three of the four teach in one-to-one schools with Chromebooks. It could also be that there are only two elementary level teachers that are not in bilingual contexts, and they described significant other limiting factors which will be examined below. While most teachers focused on themselves as the facilitators of additional language use, many also used strategies in which students filled that role with each other. Those circumstances will be addressed later in the chapter under student dynamics.

Language Networks. One additional strategy that was mentioned by several participants was accessing personal language networks. These were most frequently discussed in reference to parent communication because the networks were something that teachers accessed for planned communication outside of the classroom. Several mentioned the use of bilingual colleagues and other school staff. These individuals were often called upon to facilitate phone calls to parents, to

read through rough translations of classroom newsletters and announcements, or to translate communication to specific parents about the progress of their child. Tina had a Spanish-speaking ELD teacher who co-taught writing with her. Together, they called four families for “happy calls,” that Tina was concerned about making on her own because she was afraid the parents “would be so worried about a call from school,” and assume it was negative if she could not communicate with them well. Katherine appreciated having the Spanish teacher check through things when she was available; however, she brought up a key point echoed by most others, that she tried to limit the number of requests for translation support. As Tina stated clearly, “everyone can’t be sending things to the Spanish-speaking teacher all the time.” Phoebe noted that the presence of only one Spanish speaker in the main office made it difficult because of the burden she knew the secretary already bore for building-wide communication. The fact that they registered this and desired not to add to the additional “invisible work” of the bilingual staff shows an awareness that is often not present in schools (Takimoto Amos, 2016). A further analysis of building-level practices is presented in the policy section later in the chapter.

Several participants also networked with individuals outside of their school contexts to request translation assistance. Erica described translating “standard parent communication” into Arabic via Google Translate and then having her sister, who has studied Arabic, edit it for her. Though she also admitted to just doing a “copy and paste” of Burmese and feeling embarrassed about it. Katherine described using Google Translate for newsletters and getting a Google Voice account in order to be able to text parents in Spanish, at times requesting editing help from a colleague. Naomi is part of a multilingual online community for Third Culture Kids that she joined while in college after having roommates who were members of the TCK community. When she needed multiple language translations for small projects, she would solicit help from

this community. She said that she valued assistance “even from people I didn’t know” because even if they were strangers, she decided that, “I’m going to trust your Nepali more than Google Translate.” Even with access to this network, she limited herself to requests for small projects, like a five word phrase for an end of the year video, and did so infrequently. While acknowledging that, “it’s nice to have access because it’s a skill and a resource people have,” she also highlighted the reality that it was difficult to ask people to take on extra work all the time, and she did not want to be a burden. Similar to the concern about adding extra work to colleagues, finding the balance of utilizing their existing networks, while also not overburdening them was a consistent theme throughout the discussion of these practices.

Knowledge of Strategies

Participants consistently referenced ways that they felt equipped to support their students’ English development, but less equipped to support additional languages. While they often spoke in generalizations about multilingual strategies, they also frequently mentioned their level of familiarity with specific strategies for their context and how that impacted how frequently and holistically they incorporated additional languages in the classroom. Andrew, who scored at the moderate-high level of practices said that he was not proficient enough in Spanish to earn the BE endorsement, so he was “not certified bilingual, but still use[d] bilingual practices.” Angela noted that, after completing her endorsement coursework, she felt like she had “more tools to actually put this into practice.” She said she moved from telling students “oh, you should practice reading in Spanish every once in a while so you don’t forget it” to “your language gives you clues.” She had learned metalinguistic strategies, like the use of Spanish cognates and contrastive analysis, she could teach to students in order to further develop their bilingualism and biliteracy. These concrete practices gave her clear ways to draw her students’ attention to ways

in which they could truly leverage their linguistic skills and not simply acknowledge their existence. Naomi remarked how excited she was when she saw a bilingual teacher who was “just phenomenal” incorporate parents in a classroom and was inspired because she had thought those were “things you read about in fairy tales, but she actually did it, so it IS possible!” Seeing a strategy she had read about in college put into practice at her school made it feel real and accessible for her, even as a novice teacher.

Other participants noted that while general strategies were helpful, it was sometimes difficult to adapt them to their specific context. This echoes existing research showing the difficulties teachers have in transferring course knowledge or that gained in teaching practica to new situations (Gainsburg, 2012). Diana said that seeing examples of programs was helpful because it gave her a vision for what it could look like instead of just being uncertain since she felt that she had “no clear idea of what it should look like in our classrooms” in her current 4th grade TBE context. Erica said that number and variety of practices she used had increased in the past year because her department chair had given her some specific strategies to use. She had also learned concrete examples from other high school teachers at conferences, especially for how teachers allow students to use languages that they themselves do not understand. She described being able to see clear transfer from presentations about the use of Spanish, but still had difficulty transferring ideas from other presentations where languages other than Spanish were included. She said she had never heard of resources specifically for a context like hers, “I have six languages. How do I every day incorporate native languages in a way that is effective when I only speak one of them?” For her, incorporating Spanish seemed natural because it matched her own bilingualism, but navigating multiple languages simultaneously felt like too much.

Naomi and Tina spoke most directly about how the lack of specific strategies tailored to their context limited them from using additional languages. Yet, the completion of the survey spurred them to think about and recognize many strategies they knew, but had forgotten in the busyness of teaching. Tina described saying to herself, “this is something I could have done and should do” as she marked “never” on multiple survey items asking about the frequency of use of a specific practice. Naomi echoed this stating, “Oh, that’s a thing that I could do!” and felt that completing the survey “made me realize how inexperienced” she was. This leads into the next section. Several teachers mentioned their general lack of teaching experience as a significant constraining factor.

General Experience

All of the participants were within their first three years of teaching and none had held the same position longer than two years, with the large majority in their first year of their current position. Tina highlighted the feeling many had when she said “I didn’t really know what I was doing at the beginning of the year,” so she just sent home material that other teachers were also sending home, and therefore had not thought to include a language survey for families or students to complete. While none of them described their lack of experience as a support for implementing additional practices, they did consistently contrast the beliefs they brought with them due to their newness with the beliefs the more experienced teachers held. These were beliefs about students and languages, and beliefs about innovation. The impacts of their teaching teams will be analyzed under structural factors; however, one aspect to note here is that many participants felt their lack of experience gave them more beneficial views, but it also reduced the power of their voice. Katherine said that as a beginning teacher, “no one wants to make things more difficult,” so “it can be easy to stick with the status quo.” Phoebe described giving up on

changing her team's perspectives on emergent bilinguals and teaching strategies to support them because she "couldn't get the department to budge." She ascribed their lack of desire to innovate to the fact that "they're all tenured... I'm the only one not tenured." In this way, she felt that her newness gave her more positive orientations towards students and a willingness to try new things, while their years of experience had caused them to focus on maintaining the status quo.

Besides those in the formal bilingual programs, participants felt that students' additional languages were definitely viewed as "extra" by their administration. This will be explored in more depth in the structural factors section. What is important to this section is that their lack of experience led them to feel a consistent lack of time for "extras." Erica, who was in her second year as an ELD teacher, described needing to develop completely new curriculum for a different class every year. Because she was "constantly refining in so many other ways," she felt there was not time to also think about how to incorporate the use of additional languages in a more comprehensive way because of the level of preplanning she felt it would take. While talking about the gap between her beliefs and practices, Katherine asked herself, "how much did I let that fall to the wayside because I'm just trying to survive the day to day?" while also echoing statements by her principal to be patient with herself because "I'm only two years in. You have to cut yourself some slack. You can't do everything perfectly." She gave a specific example of how her experience limited her when describing a project she designed where students created public health announcements. She purposefully created it to utilize additional languages, telling students to pick a context where the poster or billboard would be displayed and use the language(s) most common to people there. Students only wrote in English, and as she analyzed why she said, "I can tell students 'Hey, you have the option', but I didn't model it or show examples because I don't have examples. If the rubric and strong examples are only in English,

students choose English.” She said that since she was often creating examples the night before she presented them to students, and her language skills were limited, she did not have the ability to develop them in languages other than English, but hoped to build up some examples in the future.

Finally, two participants described their general lack of life experiences as constraining their implementation of LRT. Naomi referenced the many languages her students spoke, and noted her surprise at never having heard of some. She specifically highlighted Malayalam, saying, “I didn’t even know this language existed, so I really doubt there are a lot of materials printed for children that [students] have access to.” She let her lack of experience with the language color her whole perception of it and resources connected to it. In a different area of life, Katherine said that because of her youth and lack of parenting experience, she was hesitant to tell parents what to do when it came to using additional languages in the home. While she spoke to parents about its value, she said “it was more encouragement, not advice” because she felt it was not her place to give advice to those who were older and experienced as parents. For her, the desire to respect the role of the parents outweighed the confidence she had in her understanding of language development theory and practice. While she held strong convictions about the value of families using all their languages at home, she felt limited in how strongly she could insist upon it. This may also be connected to the fact that she grew up in a monolingual household, so did not feel she could advise parents about a situation that she had never experienced herself. This is in contrast to the CLD participants who grew up in bilingual homes, so could speak to students and families out of their own lived experiences as well as their professional knowledge.

Structural Factors

While the role of a teacher's professional context has been largely ignored in most studies concerning language attitudes, it plays a critical role in shaping how a teacher enacts her or his beliefs (Hopkins, 2016). The two areas that will be examined under structural factors are student dynamics and policy at the district, building, and personal level. Nilsson, et al. (2016) highlight how students' perceptions about what teaching and learning should look like impact the strategies a teacher may employ. While student culture could have been embedded within the section on policy, as students' assumptions are generally formed by the existing norms within their educational settings, I chose to have it as a separate section. This allows for the exploration of additional student dynamics frequently referenced by participants, such as the number of languages present in their classrooms and students' proficiency levels in those languages.

Student Dynamics

Number of Languages. Bilingual teachers rarely remarked upon the number of languages, but the assumption was that there were two at play, Spanish and English. Even when additional languages were spoken, as with Mariana in the dual language program, those languages were not factored into their classroom linguistic equation. Therefore, the presence of one additional language, in which the teachers were also fluent, was a clear support to implementing LRT, especially the multilingual strategies component. However, all of the other participants were in highly multilingual contexts. While Spanish remained the dominant additional language in most of their classrooms, it was not unusual for them to be working with students who represented five to six other languages. For these teachers, the number of additional languages felt mostly like a constraint to their implementation of many practices and several relied on strategies which acknowledged and even celebrated additional languages, but stopped

short of leveraging them for learning (Martinez, et al., 2017). While there are many ways that LRT can be implemented in highly multilingual contexts, the majority of the participants had not found a way to enact that in their classrooms.

Naomi elaborated on this theme in response to the survey item: *Schools should be invested in helping students maintain their home language*. She commented, “It’s a difficult state for language learners in schools, especially for low incidence languages. I don’t think it’s impossible [to support them], but it feels really out of reach for certain language groups – which I hate.” Andrew simply stated, it “wouldn’t be possible to provide that much support.” The concrete picture of what resources were available to teachers was often discussed in this context. When teachers felt they had any type of physical resource, it was usually only for the Spanish language, with all other languages missing. The electronic resources did offer more languages, but availability and quality varied among languages due to the perceived status of individual languages (i.e., how common it is in the United States and how powerful globally). In these discussions, teachers generally maintained a focus on the resources that existed within their schools and classrooms, and had not been connected with resources within their broader communities, except in the ways mentioned above when accessing their own language networks. A further discussion of resources is found in the policy section.

For several teachers, there was a feeling of unfairness if they decided to devote extra time via language support to only a portion of the students. Andrew said that he felt it was unfair to provide things for his Spanish-speaking students that he could not provide for all the students. He felt this conflict more acutely in his smaller ELD classes than he did in his general education social studies classes. In social studies, he was much more willing to provide additional language support for his students who were classified as English learners and allowed students to write in

Spanish and complete quiz responses in Spanish. In an ELD class of five students, he had two Spanish speakers, two Burmese speakers, and one Farsi speaker. He said that the Farsi speaker “was always kind of out of the loop” because he did not have a partner to discuss with. So he felt that in his ELD classes, additional language use “can create almost a sense of favoritism,” and he could imagine that students would perceive it that way. Erica noted that in her current year of teaching, she had felt more free to promote using additional languages because all but one student had a language partner in their class, so they all had someone to work with. She was concerned that this would not play out the same way in the future, so the practices she was currently utilizing might not fit future classes.

Students’ Proficiency and Literacy. Many of the participants described students’ proficiency and literacy skills in their additional languages as a determining factor in the number of LRT strategies they felt were available for them to use with those students. Additional language literacy was one of the strongest supports of implementing many LRT strategies because teachers felt that this level of language proficiency allowed students to use their languages independently for many different projects. Andrew described using the Britannica school database for student research projects. He appreciated that it could be translated into many languages and encouraged students to utilize that feature. However, for students who were not literate, he was torn. There was an audio option, but “it sounded so robotic” that students said it was too hard to understand. Instead, he would encourage those students to use the Lexile adaptation feature in English. Erica described the experience of several of her Yazidi students from Iraq. When encouraging them to select free reading books in their additional languages, a student told her, “In my language we don’t write it, but I can speak it.” Several other teachers in multilingual settings described the difficulty of implementing the strategies they knew because,

besides discussion activities, every other strategy they were familiar with depended on students being literate.

When students had very low proficiency levels in their additional languages, the response by teachers varied according to the teacher's background. Those who grew up in bilingual homes – Angela, Diana, and Phoebe – spoke to students directly about the value of continuing to build their language skills and used personal examples of how they wish things would have been for themselves. Those who grew up in monolingual homes were more torn about how to encourage students. Katherine noted that some of her middle school students “have a tendency to want to shut it down” because they “feel a sense of inadequacy” in both languages. She had decided to speak directly to students about the value of their additional language, but she did not have personal experience to draw on. When a student did not engage around the idea of maintaining family connections, she found herself talking about the value of connections in broader society and job opportunities, while also “hating to commodify it like that.” She wanted students to develop an internal value for their additional languages and not have to sell them as something that was only valuable due to how they could make money in the future.

Naomi took a different approach. While she noted on the survey that she regularly spoke to students about the value of their additional languages, when a student whose home language was listed as Vietnamese stated that he had no proficiency and “that’s just my grandparents,” she felt she could not push the idea. While she felt it was really important, she decided she had to let it go because “YOU have to decide who YOU are and if you are going to decide that [your language] doesn’t really play a major role in your life, that’s a choice that you get to make.” She noted that she was not sad that she could not speak French, her heritage language, so the student would probably be fine. In these cases, teachers still offered options for students to use their

additional languages within the classroom, but recognized that some of the students could not access them, and that they were not in the position to develop the students' proficiency without the time or resources to do so.

Student Culture. The role that students play in determining when and how additional languages were used in the classroom is a blend of the messages students have internalized from the surrounding school culture and assumptions teachers have of the students' engagement with their languages. Student culture can be defined as, "the experiences, beliefs and expectations of learning, teaching and assessment that students share and which influence their approach to learning" (Hockings, 2005, p. 316, as cited in Nilsson, et al., 2016, p.12). While some teachers specifically sought to influence students' assumptions about how language should be used, others were more likely to follow student patterns. Many teachers created opportunities for students to use their additional languages in free reading, vocabulary practice, and other choice activities, but did not monitor or strongly promote those options. Tina expressed this perspective when she stated that "kids were not asking for it, or using it when given permission, so I just focused on English." While she assumed that students knew they could use their languages if they wanted, she did not work consistently to model other expectations.

Angela, on the other hand, did work to change students' expectations. Even though her class was a mix of bilingual and monolingual students, she encouraged students to explain the math concepts in whatever language they could and then have peers translate it into the other language. Angela's encouragement of all languages led to a very collaborative environment among students: "When they experience frustration with language, they feel like they're in an environment where they can ask others for help. ... I guess that healthy balance has been good for them." Andrew and Erica both described students in the ELD classes teaching each other

their languages, though it was most likely that students were all learning Spanish, than a lower incidence language like Burmese. Erica noted that students had “no qualms about sharing language with each other,” even when they were somewhat hesitant to do so with teachers. It seemed to her that students felt comfortable translanguageing when with peers, even beginning to use phrases that other students had taught them, but assumed they needed to follow a more structured, language-separation approach with teachers.

This idea of who it was okay to share language with was expanded on by Andrew and echoed by Diana. They both found that in their classrooms, students who were hesitant to use an additional language in the classroom for their own self-expression or learning, were open to using it with a newcomer. Diana said that many students were resistant to using Spanish in a formal way in the classroom, but with a newcomer from Mexico, “they feel comfortable... They’ll translate for him and help him.” Andrew specifically highlighted the same pattern in one of his students, and noted that a lot of the more proficient students do not want to use their additional language in general, but they will to support a newcomer. They seemed to view the use of additional languages as a needs-based option and English as the only accepted or valued language within the formal school context. These attitudes mirror those commonly held by teachers, who are much more likely to allow students at beginning levels of English proficiency to use additional languages in the classroom than those at higher levels (García & Sylvan, 2011; Ntelioglou, et al., 2014).

These perspectives connect to the overarching power of English within U.S. culture and schools. Mariana admitted that even within a dual language framework, students could be hesitant to use Spanish. She described needing to be aware of and work to counteract language shaming: “The ideal would be that students would not ever feel excluded from using their home

language. The reality is, unfortunately, there can be dynamics that make that happen.” Diana described a context where “some students are shy, or they don’t feel American enough if they speak both languages,” and parents say, “They want nothing to do with Spanish.” Angela also noted that her older students can begin to bring in English-only ideologies and resist using Spanish. Andrew estimated that within his middle school students, they are “about 50/50 in valuing their home language.” Both Diana and Angela personally took on the role of combatting the hegemony of English, with Angela stating that she wanted to “burn it with fire!” She took time within her math classes to address identity and bilingualism even though “it’s not part of the curriculum.” The majority of participants specifically worked to reduce this type of thinking in students, but many recognized that the power of messages from outside of their classroom were often stronger than what they could create in their short time with students.

Teachers also identified these perspectives in their monolingual English-speaking students. Katherine noted that her monolingual middle school students sometimes felt uneasy when they heard languages other than English in unstructured situations. However, she said that students in her grade level knew each other from being together for three years, so they generally felt that they were in a safe environment with each other. She also worked to set up situations within her English language arts classes where students would actively use additional languages for contrastive analysis. Because she linked these strategies to the analysis of aspects of English, “monolingual students felt they could still participate because they’re examining English at a deeper level.” Angela echoed this experience, describing that in her extensive use of cognate work, “half the time we end up comparing the words, monolingual English students like seeing it’s the same and they feel like they’re learning a new language.” The benefit of metalinguistic and critical language awareness for all students is documented consistently within existing

research (Fain & Horn, 2006; Lotherington, et al., 2008; Malsbary, 2013; Pacheco & Miller, 2016). So while there were strong assumptions among all students that English should be the dominant language in the classroom, some teachers were able to establish routines that promoted additional language use and identified it as a resource for all their students.

Three Levels of Policy Mechanisms

Beliefs are not formed in a vacuum; they are shaped by, and interact with, various levels of policy. This section will use the three levels of policy mechanisms broadly outlined by Scott (2013), and utilized within language education research by Hopkins (2016), as a structure to examine constraints and supports identified within the participants' environments. Regulative mechanisms occur at the federal, state, and district levels. Normative mechanisms occur at the building level and establish building norms. Finally, cognitive mechanisms are the policy messages that have become internalized as the "natural order" for day to day practices (Hopkins, 2016, p. 576). While themes are at times difficult to separate out by level, I have placed them within the level that exerts the most influence on that specific area. For example, I listed curriculum choice at the regulative level because it is a district level decision. However, what was specifically done with that curriculum is described at the normative level because curriculum implementation is a building-level supervision issue. How teachers then conformed to those expectations is analyzed at the cognitive level.

For context, Table XXII provides an overview of selected district and school-level demographics. Demographic information for Illinois districts is from Illinois Report Card (ISBE, 2020). Demographic information for the Wisconsin school is from the Kenosha Unified School District website. Angela and Diana work in the same district. Katherine, Naomi, Phoebe, and Tina all work for the same district. Phoebe and Katherine work at the same school. Erica's

district is comprised of the one high school, so the data is identical. Illinois Report Card does not provide school-level data on teacher ethnicity. Kenosha USD does not provide school-level data.

Table XXII: District and School Demographics

	Andrew	Angela	Diana	Erica	Katherine	Mariana	Naomi	Phoebe	Tina
District									
Grade Range	K-12	K-12	K-12	9-12	K-8	K-12	K-8	K-8	K-8
# of Schools	20	629	629	1	5	41	5	5	5
Teacher Retention	94%	81%	81%	93%	84%	No data	84%	84%	84%
Teachers of Color	5.5%	49%	49%	10.3%	14.7%	No data	14.7%	14.7%	14.7%
Students of Color	37%	89%	89%	76.8%	81.8%	51.3%	81.8%	81.8%	81.8%
Low Income Ss	26.5%	78.8%	78.8%	33.6%	54.6%	51.5%	54.6%	54.6%	54.6%
English Learners	10.2%	19.7%	19.7%	21.5%	31%	12.3%	31%	31%	31%
School									
Grade Range	6-8	K-8	K-8	9-12	6-8	No data	K-5	6-8	K-5
Teacher Retention	95%	74%	78%	93%	87%	available	83%	87%	82%
Students of Color	39.4%	99.3%	98.8%	76.8%	82.2%		86.8%	82.2%	64%
Low Income Ss	31.6%	92%	95.4%	33.6%	54.6%		60.9%	54.6%	41.4%
English Learners	8%	44.3%	45.4%	21.5%	19.6%		33.1%	19.6%	25%

Regulative Mechanisms. Participants cited a variety of policies and practices from the state and district level that positively or negatively impacted their ability to implement more holistic versions of linguistically responsive teaching. The major themes that arose were the role of assessment requirements, program and curriculum choice, district-level enactment of LRT, and resources provided by the district.

Assessment. Multiple participants described the role assessment played in what they felt they could do in their classrooms. The standards-based curriculum and multiple standardized tests, including additional ones like the yearly ACCESS for emergent bilinguals, overwhelmingly felt like a constraint to teachers. Diana lamented the fact that while they were a bilingual school, “students are only assessed in English” on standardized tests and therefore it puts all the emphasis on English and not Spanish. Andrew stated that there was a lot of “pressure and stress” to increase English and “fill gaps” to meet standards. He noted that with the increase

of students designated as English Learners in his school, the scrutiny on meeting adequate yearly progress for that group was heightened. He felt this was especially true because the district was generally very well-performing and there was pressure to maintain that standard.

Phoebe focused the feeling of constraint on the teacher assessment level. When describing the resistance of her teaching team to the use of LRT strategies, she expressed frustration that it was difficult to achieve understanding and alignment on the standards they would be assessed on, let alone “practices that aren’t even mentioned in most places.” She felt her team was resistant to being held accountable, even to implementing standards they were directly assessed on, so could not see how they could be motivated to implement additional strategies.

They all described this strong emphasis on English development, the lack of official assessment of students in additional other languages, and no requirement to use multilingual practices within teacher assessment as a constraint to their implementation of LRT. Additionally, there was a strong emphasis among virtually all participants on the general role that assessment expectations played. In order to meet district requirements for assessment data, they felt pressured to focus on English development only. As mentioned in the section on personal language access above, teachers often only felt able to allow the use of additional languages for final learning outcomes when they were proficient enough to assess in that language. The ways that teachers found to get around some of these expectations will be described in the cognitive mechanisms section.

Program and Curriculum Choice. All but one of the participants teach in the state of Illinois. As a state, Illinois requires transitional bilingual education when a school enrolls at least twenty students from the same language background (Transitional Bilingual Education, 2013).

While bilingual education is required, districts are allowed to choose the type of program. If a transitional program is implemented, the official bilingual curriculum ends in third grade, and sometimes before. Diana and Angela felt that this state policy, in some ways, supports their use of Spanish in the classroom because it officially promotes bilingual education. However, the nature of the transitional program made it so that their fourth grade classrooms were no longer officially part of the bilingual program, and therefore constrained their use of Spanish as the focus shifted to English. Mariana, whose Wisconsin district elected to implement a two-way dual language program, saw their program choice as fully supporting her implementation of LRT.

In Illinois, if there are fewer than twenty students from the same language background, districts are required to provide English language instruction, but no native language component is required (Transitional Bilingual Education, 2013). Some participants noted that the presence of a bilingual program at their school could set up a false dichotomy about who was supposed to use what techniques for teaching. Tina and Naomi both mentioned that their buildings had transitional bilingual programs, so people assumed that the other classes were supposed to focus exclusively on English. Erica, whose district is only the one high school, noted that additional language use and bilingual methodology was growing in the school as a whole, as teachers see the value of it in connecting with students and their families. She noted the presence of a Spanish for native speakers track in the language department as a way to consider varying language needs of students. She noted that while the Seal of Biliteracy had been highly promoted within the school, “it’s always been a world language thing, but we’re realizing that a lot of our students could qualify for it.” She described an increase in bilingual sections of sheltered content classes, yet acknowledged that they were exclusively for students assessed at WIDA levels 1-2, and that content courses for students above those levels or not in the English language program were

assumed to be taught monolingually in English. While the presence of the varying programs shows expansion in language consideration, it still falls within the bilingual/monolingual dichotomy described by other participants. Erica highlighted this when she described the puzzle of what to do for a Vietnamese speaker at WIDA level 1. While the Spanish bilingual classes had more support in general, including instructional aides, a large chunk of the instruction was in Spanish. The sheltered English content courses were options, but were conducted at a higher English level. This left students who spoke additional languages other than Spanish in a complicated spot.

For Tina, a 3rd grade general classroom teacher, her focus was not on a program style, but curriculum expectations. Her district used a lot of scripted curriculum packages with expectations of close adherence. When describing the major way she felt constrained by the curriculum, she stated, “it always goes back to there’s not time. There’s no time for fun stuff because we have to incorporate all this other stuff that’s coming from the district.” The district required 95 minutes for English language arts and 90 minutes for math daily. Tina felt the loss of flexibility because “those are huge blocks of time and it can’t be negotiated. Then we just have to fit everything else in.” These expectations were further compounded by the way in which her building implemented professional learning communities tied to these areas. The use of PLCs will be analyzed further in the normative mechanisms section.

District Level Enactment of Linguistically Responsive Teaching. Participants most often described how the district enacted LRT by describing parent communication. This most often had to do with whether the district actively provided translation for general communication and events. Andrew spoke about the steps his district took to reach out to parents in multilingual ways, including having conferences at community centers and clearly providing translators for

conferences and other family-focused events, were supportive of his work to implement LRT in his classroom and beyond. Katherine, and several others, mentioned the fact that “the district is very cognizant of having resources in Spanish” but not in any other languages. This seemed to echo the participants’ perspectives that districts were supportive of official Spanish bilingual programs, but less actively supportive of the use of additional languages other than Spanish. Katherine and Phoebe, who taught at the same middle school, both expressed that parent communication overall needed to improve across their district, even with monolingual English speakers. Katherine noted the very low involvement in the parent teacher association, but critiqued the communication of those opportunities, saying that parents were given the option to join by way of a letter written in Spanish and English. However, that was “still putting it all on them to take the steps. We need to be the ones who actively pursue this.” Erica noted that her district had a subscription to a language line (on-demand phone translation). However, she stated that she had not needed to use it until remote learning started, but then was not able to because the service did not allow the caller to hide their number when using it, and school policy was to not share their cell phone numbers with families. Therefore, with the mixed expectations of the district, she felt both generically supported, but logistically constrained. While this is a situation somewhat unique to the remote learning contexts of the pandemic, it is worth examining the ways in which district policies, while seemingly supportive of teachers when taken separately, may actually work against each other to constrain the use of additional languages.

Resources. Several of the participants taught in districts that they identified as lacking in resources in general, and which served families that were at the lower end of the income spectrum. Due to this, several rationalized the fact that language development was not an emphasis from their administration. When describing the practices she saw demonstrated in her

first year, Diana stated, “honestly, it was a very rough school with behaviors, so you’re just focused on the main things of teaching, and language kind of comes second when it comes to that.” Phoebe expressed similar perspectives, “our students come from really rough backgrounds. Because of that, [language is] the last on the to-do list.” After critiquing the lack of LRT enactment at the administrative level, Phoebe also stated, “to their defense, we have a lot to deal with.” However, Katherine did not embrace this separation of language use from the other needs of the community. Referencing attendance, student behavior, academic development, and family engagement, she said that the use of students’ home languages “is so core, especially in the setting I was in, to being able to do anything well.” The LRT framework emphasizes the interconnectedness of all of these aspects with its emphasis on social and linguistic orientations, paired with the pedagogical knowledge and skills to support students in all areas of their academic life (Lucas & Villegas, 2013).

When it came to educational resources in the classroom, several participants noted how their district provided materials for some programs and not for others. Katherine, Phoebe, and Erica all taught at schools with one-to-one technology programs, so students have their own devices. They all noted that this allowed students to utilize the language settings and translation programs freely for all of their classwork. While the three teachers did not describe this outcome as one that was planned for or expected when the district introduced one-to-one devices, they did clearly describe how it supported their implementation of LRT.

Mariana did not spend much time describing the available resources within her context. This may be because the district’s choice to implement a dual language program came along with the provision of sufficient resources and she had never experienced a different context. Angela and Diana both described the pros and cons of being a part of a school with a TBE

program. They noted that while there were many resources in Spanish, they were mostly for lower grade levels and were often below what their students needed. Andrew, who stated that his district was well resourced, felt it was clear what the district valued when looking at how all the resources were devoted to English development programs, and there were “systemic financial obstacles” to attaining multilingual resources. Naomi echoed this feeling: “We really do want our students to be bilingual, but the lack of resources, especially for non-Spanish can make it feel impossible.” Her response was to work at “building up a base of books and materials and teaching resources. It will take time. It’s so expensive!” For these participants, they saw the lack of resources as an issue related to district priorities, but did not see an option for changing those priorities. Instead some, like Naomi, focused on developing their own personal collection.

Normative Mechanisms. Participants frequently described the influence the day-to-day procedures and culture of their building had on their implementation of LRT. As already discussed, all the participants were within their first three years of teaching and the large majority in their first year in their current role. Due to their newness, they felt that there were many levels of authority or supervision that they were under, ranging from their principal to instructional coaches and the experienced members of their teaching team. The major themes that arose were the building’s philosophy of language program implementation (how much the building chose to embrace additional languages within whatever formal program it provided), supervision and support, LRT enactment at the school level, and school allocation of resources. These build off of the regulative mechanisms from the district level and demonstrate the role of building-level perspectives on implementation. Because Erica’s district is comprised of one high school, I have focused on the departmental level within this section.

Program Philosophy. Mariana found her building to be set up to promote and require both languages, stating that within the dual language model, “the school was very supportive of bilingualism.” For her, the school’s philosophy was fully supportive of her implementation of LRT. Angela found this to be true as well, even within the TBE model. Within her K-8 school, she found that the K-4 team all worked to promote a growth mindset, which included valuing and promoting bilingualism. When describing how they worked to support each other’s strategies, she said, “we’re solid!” She felt that they all operated out of the same translanguageing, Spanish-positive point of view. Erica, the high school ELD teacher, also found support in her department chair’s multilingual philosophy for the ELD program. However, she also noted there “has been a little bit of pushback from colleagues” within the ELD department and felt pressure from them as they all had decades of experience. Erica also felt pressure from general education teachers who would have her students in subsequent years. She stated, “I can use home languages, but the expectation is they need to be ready completely for English Literature classes the next year.” She also noted that the ELD and World Language departments had philosophies that were sometimes at odds. She described the Spanish department philosophy as “total immersion... all Spanish all the time.” She felt that when she began teaching a Spanish class the following year, it was clear that “from day one, I’m expected to not speak any English.” These varying philosophies served to both support and constrain her implementation of LRT in various classes and with different types of students.

Several participants felt that their building-level philosophies did not support the implementation of LRT in any way, but simply constrained it. As Diana described the school from her first year of teaching, she stated, “It was very much like compliance. Let’s just pretend that we’re doing bilingual.” She felt lost in navigating how to implement strong bilingual

pedagogy. Her second school had a much more positive philosophy and ethos around Spanish usage, which she felt was generally supportive. However, they were focused on building up the new dual language program at the lower grades, so she did not feel as supported in concrete ways at the 4th grade level. This will be examined in more detail in the following section. Naomi stated that there was no strong English-only philosophy, because no one was “intensely antagonistic” toward additional languages; however, there were many “little comments that show they don’t see it as an asset.” Examples she referenced were teachers remarking that students fell behind because they spoke their home language all summer, that parents were not able to support students well due to their English proficiency, or that students would all be doing better if they used more English. Due to these perspectives she felt somewhat constrained due to the general ethos and not supported in the use of multilingual strategies in the classroom.

Phoebe and Katherine both spoke about the role the structure of the class schedule and student groupings had on their implementation of LRT. Katherine’s administration divided the students at each grade level into three teams of 80-100 students. She described the teams as being special education, ESL, and general education. She noted that “admin says not to think of it that way, but it’s totally how it is.” She said it could lead to focusing on language more with ESL group, even though there were bilingual students in each group. Phoebe, as a teacher of enrichment classes, had students that rotated each six weeks. During the year, she would eventually teach all 900 students in the school. She stated that this structure made it difficult to connect with students and implement a more holistic version of LRT. Both referred to the general view of LRT within their teaching teams. Katherine stated, “for the most part, it’s not something people are comfortable with at all, really.” Because they were the newest, and

youngest teachers, by at least a decade, they felt that they had limited options in pushing back against the monolingual assumptions and practices of their teams.

Supervision and Support. The role that principal supervision and formal coaching played in their implementation of LRT was another common theme which arose from the interviews. Erica specifically spoke to the role her department chair, who was her direct supervisor, played in promoting LRT. She explained that using additional languages “is a ‘risk’ that I’m allowed and encouraged to take.” She stated that she did not think she would “buck the trend” if she had not been given permission: “I definitely would feel more restricted. I wouldn’t be as comfortable doing it on my own.” For Erica, her supervisor’s philosophy was fully supportive of her implementation of LRT strategies. As described in Chapter 4, Angela’s school operated within a TBE program, but the principal “didn’t actually enforce it or take it into account when they were evaluating us or anything.” Therefore, the lack of strict enforcement of language percentages promoted a wider range of LRT options for her and her co-teachers.

Mariana also described flexibility within the implementation of the dual language program allowing her to use translanguageing within the curriculum. However, she described another teacher within her grade level team who maintained strict language separation, which was also okay with the administration. She framed it as “a range, I think, of the acceptable amount of using the other language in the classroom.” Therefore the flexible philosophy only promoted the use of translanguageing practices if the teacher chose to implement it. Phoebe also noted the negative aspects that could come with an administration’s hands-off approach to language program philosophy. She contrasted the school’s desire to hire individuals with the ESL endorsement with a lack of accountability to truly implement pedagogy gained through endorsement programs. In her view, “a lot of teachers get it to move up a [salary] lane” and not

to improve their teaching. She felt frustrated because, “they all say they have their ESL endorsements, but I don’t think that means anything unless you actually take action.” Because the use of language development strategies was not a part of teacher observations, as far as she knew, she felt that most teachers neglected to implement any type of language support, let alone additional language support and development.

Several participants worked in schools with instructional coaches that met either one-on-one with teachers or with their professional learning communities (PLCs). Diana contrasted the role that the bilingual instructional coach played at the two schools in which she had taught. For her, this was directly connected to school resources. In her first school, she said the bilingual coach “did 100 other jobs,” so did not have time to invest in teachers and felt that when it came to strong teaching strategies, “there’s not a clear way on how to do it, so you just have to do it whatever way you want to.” However, her new school had two coordinators, one for the TBE program and one focused on the growing dual language program. Because she had been able to meet with and attend professional development sessions with the TBE coach, she felt more prepared with specific strategies for her classroom, even though she was often missing the resources to fully implement them. Erica was looking forward to the summer, when she would be serving as an instructional resource for general education teachers. She was focused on putting together a session about how to use the “Chromebook suite of apps that help with translation.” She hoped that this would encourage more general education teachers to allow students to utilize additional languages within the classroom.

While Diana and Erica spoke to the potential value of coaching in helping to strengthen LRT, Tina’s experience was the opposite. The way that her school structured coaching, and what it was targeted to, discouraged Tina’s use of LRT. Her grade level team met every Wednesday

for an hour with a literacy instructional coach. A significant portion of the meeting was analyzing data, so she felt “the need to produce data in time for reading meetings, which means I have to keep moving to get through material.” This was exacerbated because, “one teammate was ahead, so the other two of us had to speed up to get the same data.” This time pressure made it difficult for her to imagine how she would have time for “extra things” like incorporating students’ languages. The nature of her team’s co-planning structure and PLC focus meant that she felt a constant pressure to keep up, which she found difficult as a first-year teacher.

Building Level Enactment of Linguistically Responsive Teaching. As at the district level, all the participants focused mostly on the area of family communication, when they discussed how LRT was enacted at the school level. Tina noted a lack of enactment, or even discussion within her school, “we don’t really talk about it, which I feel like we should because we have so many ELs in our school. No one’s very strongly against it, it just doesn’t come up.” This lack of conversation around the use of additional languages strongly impacted what she prioritized in her classroom.

An additional area that also came up was hiring of bilingual staff, most often in conjunction with how that impacted communication with families. Phoebe and Katherine both highlighted that there was only one secretary who spoke Spanish fluently, and no one in the administration was bilingual. As described in the section on individual language access, many participants felt the lack of bilingual staff at the school led to limited options for family communication and low school-wide awareness of bilingual students’ needs.

In the area of family communication, several participants noted that material was sometimes translated into Spanish, but no other languages. Naomi and Erica felt that it was a strong and consistent practice for the building to send home all communication in Spanish and

English. Erica described it as “an important thing to the school culture as a whole,” and Naomi said that the school was “very quick to make sure Spanish translation is produced” if it was initially forgotten. Tina felt that her school was much more mixed in its process: “There were definitely times that things were going out from the school and I’d think, ‘I feel like this should be translated, but it’s not.’ It’s like [translated communication] was there, but not there.” That echoed her statements of a lack of discussion and visibility of languages other than English. Phoebe described their fall back-to-school night, where the administration shared a “20-25 minute presentation all in English. The slides were just paragraphs of text.” She connected that to her parents’ experience raising her: “You could see who attended. My parents wouldn’t have come.” She saw the lack of LRT at the administrative level creating a culture in which families were seen negatively: “That’s been a complaint with a lot of teachers, ‘Oh families, they don’t care about school.’ Yes, we send out an email for 900 students, and we get like 2 replies, but what [language] is the email in?” She felt that the consistent lack of enactment at the school level normalized the assumption that it was not needed from teachers either.

Resource Allocation. Finally, participants explored the impact of whether resources in additional languages were provided and how they were allocated. While much of the resources described were provided at the district level, there were some that were specific to the building level. Erica noted that due to the school’s overall culture of supporting Spanish speakers, the school library had been making a specific effort to buy materials in Spanish, being sure to provide copies of all texts taught in classes. She noted that this same effort had not occurred for languages other than Spanish, even when there were several students who spoke the same language. She supposed that this could also be more due to there being limited resources in some of the languages, like Karen (a tribal language from Myanmar), than lack of desire. Diana felt

that there were limited resources in Spanish, especially for those at a high level of Spanish. She said she had some books available, but all lower reading levels, and her students “are beyond that.” She specifically stated, “I don’t have a lot of books, being a 2nd year teacher.” Yet, she was hopeful that this would change because she had requested a classroom grant from the principal, specifically for books in English and higher levels of Spanish. The fact that the grant was available and that the dual language program would eventually roll up to fourth grade gave her hope that the school would continue to provide resources. Naomi highlighted the tension that often occurs when the bilingual program is one track in an otherwise monolingual school. She said that many teachers saw “lots of resources going to bilingual education and felt like they were getting more.” However, she was quick to acknowledge that there were many things within the school that were only provided in English, so not as accessible to the bilingual students, especially those in early grades. She felt that other teachers resented resources that were only for the bilingual program, while not recognizing all the school-wide resources that they had access to.

Cognitive Mechanisms. The final level of policy mechanisms to be explored is the cognitive level. It is at this level that the external mechanisms have become internalized as the assumed way of doing things. Many of these were analyzed in detail in Chapter 4, when examining participants’ specific beliefs. Within the following section, I will examine the ways that teachers either went along with the assumed practices detailed above, or worked to create alternative practices. The themes that emerged within this interplay were in the areas of assessment procedures, perceived practicality – to borrow a phrase from Bacon (2016), and reconciling beliefs and practices.

Assessment Procedures. As mentioned in the regulatory mechanisms section, many participants felt constrained by the expectations and forms of assessment present in their contexts. In general, teachers remained aligned with the assessment expectations, and instead found ways to incorporate additional languages in tasks and steps that were not final assessments. Erica, when describing why she allowed flashcard practice that incorporated the students' additional language explained, "it didn't matter to me, to my teaching, my assessment of them, if I understood what they had written or not. Because ultimately it was all just formative practice. So I think that worked well for that reason." Many participants also allowed students to choose free reading books in their additional language for the same reason; the goal was reading fluency and not assessment of text comprehension. Phoebe felt additional freedom because of her role as an enrichment teacher. She stated, "since the class isn't tested, I can do whatever I want." She especially highlighted the freedom that the maker space created since the main goal was to emphasize the creative process, "as long as the thinking is there, I don't care what language they use." Angela also expressed this value of thinking over language when explaining that she generally allowed her students to explain their mathematical thinking in whatever language they could in the learning process.

Perceived Practicality. Bacon (2018) describes the role that perceived practicality plays, noting that "participants' sense of agency seemed less related to whether they *conceptualized* themselves as language teachers than to whether they saw themselves as *able to be* language teachers" (p. 182, emphasis in original). This pattern also emerged within my findings. While all participants did conceptualize themselves as language teachers, many felt they were unable to be, especially in ways that incorporated students' additional languages. The reasons given for this connect directly to the descriptions of program models, school structures, and school

philosophies. Those in bilingual classrooms did not significantly address this area in their interviews due to the school-wide assumptions that it was practical, and an expected part of the curriculum. The only facet that inhibited this was access to resources, as described above.

Katherine is an interesting study in this space. The fact that she was an English language arts teacher could have been seen as a constraint, especially due to the monolingual philosophies of her department. However, she took a different route and utilized contrastive analysis consistently as a means to leverage students' additional languages. She framed this as the best way to learn English: "I would say at least once a day 'English is SO weird' and stop and have them analyze English more in ways they haven't." In these times, she always invited, but never required, students with additional languages to describe how their languages used syntactic patterns, phrases, or full expressions in similar or different ways. Because she found a way that fit the goal of deepening students' understanding of English, she felt she was able to do all that was required of her and purposefully incorporate additional languages.

The rest of the participants had not found a consistent way to feel they were able to be additional language teachers. Andrew described wanting to have students consistently engage with language and culture, especially in his general education course, but wondered, "how do you have 25 students present on something? What do the U.S. kids share about?" While talking about the survey item, *I invite parents into the classroom to share their home language with the whole class*, he stated, "Bringing parents in to talk would need to be tied to more than language. Something about their occupation, their own story, etc." He did not see enough of a connection between the parents sharing about language and his core curriculum to make it a "natural fit." Tina echoed these perspectives stating, "There's such a focus on just English in the classroom, that if the kids aren't really struggling with English, or bringing it up, or asking to use their home

language, I don't really think of including it." Her view of language as "more of a fun thing" meant that she did not see space in the tightly scripted curriculum to incorporate it. However, she did state that she wants to shift to a perspective that is more open. "Hey, we might not get through all the curriculum, but we're going to have a good discussion." This statement summarizes the struggle she expressed in balancing the requirements of the curriculum with what she identified as better ways of teaching – methods allowed for creativity in her teaching and in students' learning. As she finished the interview, she expressed hope that she would be able to integrate more flexibility and creativity into her second year.

As noted in Chapter 4, those who grew up in bilingual households sometimes seemed more critical of themselves because they knew how much more could be happening. In the area of perceived practicality, Phoebe seemed to be very critical of herself. Through statements like, "I literally have six weeks with them, so there's only so much I can accommodate for them," "it's not worth it because of time," and "the project space needs to be constant supervision or someone could get hurt, so I can't always support them the way I'd like," she seems to negate all the ways that she does allow students to use their additional languages (group work, support conversations, translating instructions with Chromebook app, viewing skill tutorial videos in any language). She had also been recognized for her highly visual and language supportive classroom set-up by a visiting professional development speaker providing a session on supporting emergent bilinguals. Yet, her desire to have students deeply understand the goal of the maker space was difficult when she did not share their language and that remained her focus: "It's difficult for me to communicate my vision for their project, that it's not a cookie-cutter project. The vision is that they take their creativity and make something out of it. That is really hard for me to communicate and convey." She remained caught in the tension between the freedom she

felt as an elective teacher, and the struggle to deeply know and support her students in the six-week rotations.

Reconciling Beliefs and Practices. Participants found a variety of ways to reconcile their beliefs and practices to varying degrees of success. The main spaces where they found support or constraint in this process were general school culture, supervisors, and PLCs or other teacher networks. Due to the formal policy nature of bilingual education, those teachers could assess schools on their general program type, and use that as a tool to best match their beliefs with practices. For example, they could seek out schools that had a dual language program instead of a transitional bilingual program because they believed in the importance of maintaining bilingual and biliterate instruction throughout the elementary grades. Mariana and Angela were able to find schools with like-minded philosophies. Diana specifically changed schools so she could be at one that aligned more closely with her own beliefs.

Those who were not bilingual teachers had a more difficult time because there is no official policy or program structure for the use of additional languages outside of formal bilingual programs. As noted above, the state of Illinois requires that English language instruction be provided, but there is no requirement that these programs be inclusive of native language support in any way. Therefore, the use of students' additional languages with ELD programs is often more of an unwritten policy than something officially stated; a person has to have a close connection to the school in order to know whether it enacts multilingual pedagogy. Andrew, who felt his district ELD program and school department were in favor of using additional languages in the classroom, felt that it was still "a struggle bridging beliefs and practices" and hoped that he could keep "learning how to bridge those gaps." Erica, whose department chair had directly encouraged most of her multilingual practices, still frequently

asked herself, “How am I reconciling what I believe to be true versus what is asked of me as an English teacher?” because she felt the overarching messages in the school and society were that English was the only language she should focus on.

Others described the difficulty of working to utilize multilingual strategies in spaces that were set up to limit them. Katherine, whose department team pushed hard to maintain the status quo said, “It’s a lot harder to do something if the people around you aren’t.” Naomi felt the same tension and stated that when completing the survey, “I tried to be very honest about what I did do, but this is not what I aspire to. I aspire to do much better than this.” However, she did not have a clear path forward in what that would look like. Tina recognized that she often missed opportunities that were possible because of how focused she was on the expectations of her PLC and instructional coach. She stated, “When I’m saying ‘we don’t have time for this,’ I’m stopping conversations that could happen if I opened up,” because she could identify times it had happened when she shared something about the Japanese language. By this, she meant that by not creating space for conversations around language, she was ensuring that they did not take place. She had seen students engage deeply in these conversations when she led the way with Japanese examples. Phoebe expressed her frustration with the difficulty in reconciling things, especially when pushing against the existing culture. In doing so, she expanded the scope to apply to all recent graduates beginning their first jobs:

You have all these ideas in college. Then you get into the real world and you’re like ‘Oh never mind, that’s not how real life works. Yes, actually theories are great. Yep, in theory that would work. And then you try to implement it and you’re like, ‘never mind.’ It happens with all fields.

She expressed the frustration that many new professionals feel as they transition between the discussions of theories and exchanging of ideas in the university context and the nature of the daily process of working in their professional field with all the constraints it brings.

The final theme that arose in the area of turning beliefs into action was the role of additional networks. For all participants, even those who were in contexts that aligned with their beliefs, they spoke about the value of having like-minded people to connect with. Katherine said that finding a network like that would be super helpful in order to get ideas and bounce ideas off each other, asking “what does this actually look like played out in your classroom?” For her, a key support would be “knowing that other people are trying, making mistakes, but still trying.” Erica and Diana both described the value of attending professional development sessions that provided new strategies, but still wished for people they could talk to about how those would work out in their specific context.

As described in Chapter 4, several felt that a strength of their ESL endorsement program was that it provided a cohort of individuals who were learning and working with the same ideas and wished that could continue in some form. Katherine described conversations that she had had with other alumni and called herself lucky because “they just happen to be my friends.” Several expressed that participating in this research study itself functioned like connecting back into a support network. A few identified value in completing the survey and how simply taking the time to read through a list of possible strategies was helpful in bringing multilingual strategies back to their attention. Naomi said she kept thinking “Oh, that’s a thing that I could do” and wished there was more space for refresher conversations as recent graduates started in their new jobs. After talking through what constraints and supports there were for a specific

project, Andrew stated that this is “good food for thought for me,” and that he hoped to make some changes for the following year with that project.

Conclusion

The personal factors and structural factors, including student dynamics and policy mechanisms, work in interrelated ways to both support and constrain the implementation of holistic forms of linguistically responsive teaching, especially in the area of multilingual pedagogy. Even when examining participants in externally similar teaching contexts, there are many layers of policy that work themselves out in specific situations. These policy mechanisms also interact with the individuals’ backgrounds, abilities, and beliefs to impact the individual, but also in ways which the individual can impact his or her environment. Only two of the participants, those in supportive bilingual contexts, felt that they could implement practices which were fully in line with their beliefs. However, the majority of the others had found ways to implement some type of language engagement strategies, even when they were not supported as practitioners, nor were the strategies recognized as valuable. What this means for teacher preparation and ongoing teacher development will be discussed in the final chapter.

Chapter 6: Discussion and Implications

I opened this dissertation with an exploration of the possibilities of multilingual pedagogy and the roles pre-service teacher education and teacher development play in helping teachers to develop strong positive attitudes toward the use of students' additional languages. I outlined a set of practices and Linguistically Responsive Pedagogy (Lucas & Villegas, 2013) as a theoretical framework for supporting the implementation of those practices. Across the findings chapters, I explored the pathways participants took in arriving at their level of LRT implementation as well as the key factors they identified as supporting and constraining their implementation. This final chapter summarizes the key findings and discusses them in response to existing literature. Lastly, I explore the implications for teacher development, teacher education, and future research.

Summary of Findings

The goal of the study was to explore teacher-identified connections between their personal backgrounds and professional experiences, and their self-reported use of multilingual teaching strategies. Through the use of a survey and semi-structured interviews, I engaged participants in a discussion about the formation of their current beliefs about students' additional languages and the key factors impacting their classroom practices. I asked:

- 1. What connections are there between teachers' personal and professional backgrounds and their reported implementation of linguistically responsive teaching?*
- 2. What do teachers cite as the key influences on their current level of linguistically responsive teaching?*

There were additional findings that emerged which were outside of the focus of the research question. One interesting finding was the level of transience within the first few years of teaching, as many of the participants had already switched districts, schools, and/or teaching

roles within the short time they had been teaching. Another additional finding was the professional pathway that each participant took, from deciding what primary endorsement to pursue in their preparation program, to whether they sought jobs primarily in that endorsement, or in their additional endorsement areas, such as ESL or middle school. In the following section, I summarize the key findings that align with the focus of my research questions: teacher backgrounds and key influences.

The Interaction of Lived Experiences and Coursework

Participants consistently reflected on the ways their coursework illuminated personal experiences and vice versa. Experiences inside and outside of the classroom worked in tandem to develop the strong positive views of the use of additional languages in the classroom that participants indicated in their survey responses and within their interviews. However, this did not mean that participants had completely consistent beliefs. Several of the teachers operated out of a variety of orientations simultaneously, depending on who they were focusing on in their response (students, families, newcomers, etc.).

While participants consistently described the interaction of personal experiences and coursework, the specific ways they interacted were different for different demographic groups. Similar to existing research, culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) teachers described coursework as helping to make sense of and reframe their own personal experiences as linguistic and ethnic minorities in the United States. Dominant culture teachers described their experiences with language and culture outside of class as being key to providing concrete contexts for them to see how coursework concepts and theories operated in people's lives. While the pathways were different, the key finding is that teachers from all demographic backgrounds need a blend

of lived experiences with minoritized languages and a solid understanding of multilingual theory in order to develop positive beliefs around the use of additional languages in the classroom.

The final theme emerging from within the discussion of coursework was the difficulty of transferring theoretical beliefs and general strategies learned in their ESL courses to their specific contexts. Participants could name groups of strategies, like multilingual print resources and group discussions in additional languages, but were not sure how those would exactly fit within their classrooms with their demographic of students. Many said that they struggled to implement specific strategies within the complex factors of their specific teaching context and wished there were ways to develop more contextualized ideas. Within that discussion, multiple participants reflected on the role of likeminded peers, emphasizing the value it added within their coursework and wishing for more of it in their professional circles. That brings us to the second key theme, the role of context.

The Impact of Context on Practices and Identity

The key theme which emerged within the focus of research question two was the impact of professional context on the implementation of practices. There were many structural factors that teachers cited, including the number of languages represented within their student population, students' proficiency and literacy in their additional languages, and limited time due to curriculum requirements, which was compounded by their inexperience as novice teachers. Each of these factors was cited as both a constraint and support, depending on the specific details of each participant's teaching context.

Framed within a systems perspective, teachers cited several aspects at the regulative and normative levels that impacted them. Primary themes at the regulative level (national, state, and district), were the role that national and state assessment expectations played, the programmatic

and curricular choices of the district, and the resources and modeling provided by the district in regards to the inclusion of additional languages. At the normative level (building), the major factors cited were the philosophies through which language programs were implemented, supervision of and support for teaching – including the role of teacher teams and instructional coaches, and additional language resource allocation and modeling at the building level.

These two levels combined with teachers' existing beliefs to impact the cognitive level (individual). This was most frequently expressed through the difficulty teachers felt in maintaining their existing beliefs in the face of conflicting philosophies of language use among their colleagues, or the encouragement they felt when philosophies aligned. For those whose philosophies were not similar, the difficulty was often compounded by their feeling of a lack of authority or equality within their teams due to their novice status. However, many teachers did form strong identities as teachers of and advocates for CLD students in response to the dynamics and contrasts highlighted within the beliefs among team members.

Participants also described ways they found to work around perceived regulative and normative expectations. For many of them, it was finding ways to include students' additional languages in less structured ways, as that allowed them to work within the structure of assessment expectations and curriculum requirements, while still providing opportunities to highlight language. Others found ways to illuminate the existing curriculum by the use of contrastive analysis or cognate development, therefore appreciating and leveraging the number of languages in their classrooms instead of seeing that as an obstruction. In addition to finding ways to work around contextual requirements, some participants also found ways to develop additional networks of like-minded people with whom they could discuss how best to implement

LRT in their context. Those who had not found such networks expressed a desire to do so. The following section explores these key findings in relationship to existing literature.

Discussion

The findings of this study build on extant research by both confirming and nuancing key themes. While the major themes are in alignment, there are differences seen within the experiences of specific participants and their contexts. This demonstrates the individualized and contextualized nature of developing and implementing Linguistically Responsive Pedagogy.

The Impact of Lived Experiences

The value of personal experiences engaging culture and language, especially when one was able to experience being in a minoritized position is documented throughout the literature of the implementation of responsive pedagogies (Borrero, et al., 2016; Kasun & Saavedra, 2016; Higgins & Ponte, 2017; Marx & Pray, 2011). This is echoed in my findings, as all participants described personal and relational experiences that impacted their beliefs toward language and culture. The personal experiences of being a language minority as a child or within study abroad programs were cited as impactful by six of the nine participants. The impact of relationships with CLD individuals over time to shape and change beliefs was also cited by all of the participants and was especially salient to the development of positive beliefs of language among dominant culture (DC) teachers. Katherine and Naomi both cited their multi-year relationships with immigrant students and their families as key to their development of LRT. One divergent experience within the realm of personal experiences was that of Tina. Though she grew up as an ethnic, cultural, and linguistic minority in Japan and held positive beliefs about bilingualism and biculturalism, she had difficulty translating those experiences into a full understanding of her immigrant CLD students' experiences. This is in line with Kibler and Roman's (2013) finding

that white individuals often fail to see the connections and differences between their often more privileged linguistic experiences to those of their CLD students. In each of the participants' trajectories, the ways in which individuals are shaped by their interactions with their communities is consistently seen. This highlights the sociocultural nature of the developmental process that occurs through the interaction of the community and the individual over time (Vygotsky, 1978).

If personal experiences with culture and language, and relationships with those who are minoritized in these areas are important to pre-service teacher development, then teacher preparation programs need to find ways to purposefully incorporate them (Kasun & Saavedra, 2016; Wright-Maley & Green, 2015). All students in Wheaton's Teacher Education Program are required to tutor cross-culturally for a minimum of 24 hours in their introductory course and several of the endorsement courses require interviews with CLD individuals around themes of language and culture. However, the extended international study and on-going relationships that participants cited as most important were all developed by choice. In already full teacher preparation programs, it is difficult to require such extensive experiences. However, models of various length exist and could be adapted to fit a program's needs and space (Kasun & Saavedra, 2016; Marx & Pray, 2011; Nero, 2009; Palmer & Menard-Warwick, 2012; Wright-Maley & Green, 2015). Even if not required, providing additional options for pre-service teachers to choose from could increase the chance that they elect to complete an immersive experience.

A key difference between my findings and existing research is that within my study, while the ethnic background of participants impacted their pathway to belief formation, it did not play as heavy a role as in other research in determining where they fell on the beliefs spectrum. Most extant research has found that white, especially white monolingual, teachers have more

negative attitudes toward emergent bilinguals in general, and their additional languages specifically (García-Nevarez, et al., 2005; Gkaintartzi, et al., 2015; Lee & Oxelson, 2006; Shin & Krashen, 1996). That this pattern did not show up in my findings could be due to the fact that I had a participant group of only nine, and they may have selected to participate in the study because of their existing interest in maintaining additional languages. I do not assume that all my former students, especially those from dominant culture, monolingual backgrounds, would score as high on the beliefs section of the survey as the participants did. However, the study findings speak to the power of likeminded community, especially in shaping beliefs. Several participants cited their engagement with others in their cohort who were more experienced with language and culture as a defining feature within their development. This seems especially true of the white, monolingual teachers who were the clear novices within their community of practice (Wegner, 1998).

In examining developmental pathways, it is important to frame this within the understanding that identity construction is both an individual act and an act of co-creation embedded within community (Wegner, et al., 2002). My findings in the developmental process of CLD teachers are consistent with existing research. Diana and Angela, the two Latina participants specifically leveraged their similar experiences to support students in cultural and linguistic development for both academic and identity development (Ajayi, 2011; García-Nevarez, et al., 2005). Phoebe, ethnically Indonesian, used her shared understanding of marginalization and linguistic devaluation to connect with and support emergent bilinguals and other CLD students (Ajayi, 2011; Higgins & Ponte, 2017). The lived experiences they entered the program with remained key resources for supporting their students. However, Angela and Phoebe underwent significant shifts in their beliefs about these experiences during their time in

the ESL/Bilingual endorsement courses. This will be detailed further in the section on coursework. Culturally and linguistically diverse teachers' experiences need to be acknowledged and valued by their teacher preparation programs and the schools in which they teach. However, this must be done in ways that honor these teachers and do not exploit them (Takimoto Amos, 2016).

When examining the developmental process of the white participants, my findings again diverge from most extant research which finds that white teachers rarely position themselves as having ethnicity or reflect on the impact that their whiteness has within the structures of education (Ajayi, 2011; García-Nevarez et al., 2005). All of my white participants positioned themselves, to some degree, as ethnic individuals from the dominant group who could use their privilege to advocate on behalf of their students. This is consistent with Morgan's (2004) study detailing his journey as a dominant culture individual in an ESL teaching program, but is rarely seen in other research. The white participants cited a variety of pathways in which they developed this perspective. Andrew's pathway included seeing how his adopted sister's Asian ethnicity changed her experiences, coupled with courses focusing on understanding ethnicity in the context of United States history. Katherine and Erica cited discussions within multiethnic friendships, and Mariana described how white teachers of her Spanish language classes modeled entering into a new culture. Tina and Naomi had the lowest sense of their own ethnicity, and they described significantly more relationships with multilingual friends who were also white and often prestige bilinguals, or those who speak multiple dominant national languages. Teacher preparation programs and schools cannot determine what types of friendships individuals have, but could find ways to deepen the relationships between classmates or staff in order to foster more consistent cross-ethnic conversations. However, caution must be taken that CLD

individuals are not required to take on the role of educating their colleagues on ethnicity and white privilege (Borrero, et al., 2016).

The Impact of Coursework

Participants who completed their endorsement coursework at Wheaton College cited the theoretical frameworks presented within this coursework as having an impact on their beliefs about multilingualism and the use of additional languages. The theoretical frameworks within the Wheaton College endorsement program are consist with those used in this study, specifically García's (2009) dynamic bilingualism, which emphasizes the integrated and dynamic nature of language development and use. However, Angela, the one participant who completed her coursework after graduation, described having to resist the strong language separation ideologies that were presented in her endorsement program. This confirms findings that the theoretical orientations of a teacher preparation or professional development program have a strong impact on the formation of beliefs and attention should be focused on these theoretical orientations (Higgins & Ponte, 2017; Safford & Kelly, 2010; Varghese et al., 2005). Solano-Campos and collaborators (2018) remind us that it is not enough to focus on the orientations of one course, but to take into account the entirety of the program.

Six of the nine participants commented specifically on how the close cohort that was formed with the students completing the endorsement courses provided space to hear from each other and learn from peers whose experiences were different, yet who were learning the same information in class. The interaction of the context and participants within it, again brings out the need for a sociocultural framework for teacher preparation. The creation of new systems, blended from the diverse perspective of students and instructors allows for the development of new hybrid practices (Pennycook, 2007). The cohort provided them with a group in which they

could process their out-of-class experiences using the meta-language from courses to name and discuss those experiences. Katherine articulated how the combination of metalanguage and a cohort impacted her:

If I hadn't had people to process through [those experiences] with verbally, I don't think it would have been as meaningful...Being able to attach language, and specific language to what was happening was really helpful. Without the classes, I wouldn't have had the schema to think through the experiences.

This is a theme that is not seen consistently within existing literature on the development of LRT, though many studies do include the benefits of having a metalanguage when processing experiences with language and culture (Higgins & Ponte, 2017; Kasun & Saavedra, 2016; Pavlenko, 2003; Wright-Maley & Green, 2015). Studies of in-service teachers often do examine this in relationship to supporting or changing teachers' beliefs within on-going professional development (Borrero, et al., 2016; Fitzgerald, 2017; Hopkins & Spillane, 2015). The reflective process of teaching lends itself to the continuation of these experiences, if teachers are provided with the needed metalanguage and have a consistent network in which to do so.

The final theme that emerged in connection to coursework and other professional development was the difficulty participants had in taking theoretical orientations and general strategies and implementing them as specific strategies within their classrooms. While not all participants struggled in this area, seven of the nine mentioned it as a factor in some form. This is a consistent finding in teacher development research (Borrero, et al., 2016; Nilsson, et al., 2016). Participants cited both a lack of knowledge of strategies and an inability to take those they knew and fully implement them within their specific context (Bacon, 2018; Fitzgerald, 2012; Gainsburg, 2012). All of the participants had completed eighteen credits worth of coursework

focused on language development, and everyone but Naomi had engaged in in-service professional development focused on supporting emergent bilinguals, yet the overwhelming majority felt somewhat unprepared to use multilingual strategies in their specific classrooms to the degree they wished to. This speaks to a number of factors, including what was covered in their coursework and in-service sessions, yet it also reflects the need for more contextualized, specific professional development that is targeted to individuals' specific contexts.

The Role of Context on Beliefs and Practices

As described in the literature review and detailed in the findings in Chapter 5, teachers never implement their beliefs and practices in a vacuum; they are always embedded within a context. The three key themes that emerged in relation to context were perceived practicality, the policy context, and specifically, the role of teacher teams within the policy context.

Perceived Practicality. Within the theme of perceived practicality, there were two sub-themes: student language and administrative demands within their school. For the teachers in multilingual contexts, the number of languages represented within their student population was seen as a constraint to full implementation of LRT because they had neither the proficiency, nor the resources to support all of the languages. Additionally, teachers often cited literacy-focused activities and found them difficult to utilize when students were limited in their additional language school-based literacy skills. While these constraints feel very significant to the teachers, they reflect theoretical orientations which tie to older versions of multilingual pedagogy (Hornberger, 2002). These orientations lead teachers to feel responsible for the initiation of strategies and rely on traditional school-based practices with fixed perspectives of language usage (García & Wei, 2014). However, some participants relied more heavily on strategies which allowed the dynamic use of language, made use of multimodal resources, and sought community

resources for language support and development. These practices align with current multilingual pedagogy, and teachers were able to utilize these practices with any language (Lotherington & Jenson, 2011). Many teachers described a mix of these strategies and orientations, confirming that teachers often hold conflicting orientations and enact practices which do not fully align with stated beliefs (Shin & Krashen, 2009). Some of these gaps or misalignment can be attributed to participants' stated lack of knowledge of a variety of strategies. The desire to learn and try out additional strategies was expressed by all participants, yet they felt there was no time to do so.

Research into teacher implementation of new or different pedagogy consistently notes teachers' feeling that there is no time to do so (Bacon, 2018; Borrero, et al., 2016). This is often connected to the pressure they feel to cover curriculum (Fitzgerald, et al., 2019) and the pace at which courses need to move (Gainsburg, 2012). This was strongly confirmed by the majority of the participants, who often connected this pressure to do more with limited time to being first or second year teachers and simply "trying to survive and figure it all out," as Ruthie stated. Tina specifically felt this time pressure due to the scripted curriculum and district-mandated math and literacy blocks. Phoebe and Andrew felt this at the middle school level. Phoebe felt this pressure due to the quick rotation of elective courses, and Andrew felt the pressure was due to the amount of material he was expected to cover in the general education social studies classes. However, Katherine and Angela had found ways to integrate more dynamic language practices within their core curriculum. While they still felt there was much to cover, they expressed that some of the main strategies they used (primarily contrastive analysis and cognate identification) supported a deeper understanding of their content and flowed within the daily routine of the classroom. When teachers deeply understand the goal of a pedagogical orientation and can see integrated

models of it, it can become a natural part of their teaching practices and concerns for time are reduced (Borrero, et al., 2016).

Interactions of Policy Mechanisms. Policy, both formal and informal, has a strong impact on any context at multiple levels. While policy is often set at a certain level, how it is carried out is influenced by the interactions of multiple levels (Hopkins, 2016; Leung, 2012). I will discuss the findings within the levels that have primary decision-making influence, while acknowledging that all the processes and decisions are connected.

Constraints at the Regulative Level. Besides Mariana, who felt supported by the district's language program choice, all other participants cited the regulative level as producing primarily constraints to the implementation of LRT. This could be due to the fact that while English development is required, multilingual LRT is not required by national policy nor state policy beyond Illinois' mandatory bilingual programs. This means that other policies interact to promote or restrict its implementation. One national and state-level policy that several participants cited as restrictive were standardized assessments and the culture of assessment. For Diana and Angela, that came in the form of English-only testing of their bilingual students. For general education teachers, they expressed feeling pressure to prepare students well for standardized assessments, and English language development teachers echoed the same feelings toward the standardized English assessments. If governmental policies are more often restrictive than supportive, teachers must learn to teach in ways that work within existing frameworks or subvert them. Greater attention must also be paid to changing policy in ways that align with research-based practices for supporting CLD students.

Decisions made at the district level were also cited as generally constraining teachers' implementation of multilingual strategies, or at best neutral. As mentioned above, Mariana is the

main exception to this finding. Her district had chosen to implement a two-way dual language program in Spanish. Andrew expressed mixed feelings about district choices. He was aligned with the district's ELD department and their promotion of additional languages; however, he felt constrained by the requirements of the middle school social studies curriculum and the amount of material that needed to be covered. Tina expressed the most frustration with district curricular choices, which included scripted curriculum and mandatory literacy and math blocks. In conversation during the interviews, several participants reflected on how they wanted to develop more strategies that could be embedded within existing curriculum, so they could find ways to work both within and around the mandated requirements. As noted in the section on time, some teachers had found ways to do that, but even then they wished for more purposeful engagement with language. While teachers' implementation can be examined at the individual level, the district frameworks in which they teach have to be considered in order to create a holistic picture of how they are reconciling their belief and practices.

The final theme within the regulative level is the ways in which districts modeled the value of multilingual resources and the inclusion of additional languages. For most participants, this was mixed. The provision of translated materials for families was the strategy that was most consistently mentioned. This is one area where multilingualism is required by policy, as districts are required to send home communication in languages that parents comprehend. Yet, even with this federal requirement, all six of the non-bilingual teachers mentioned that translation occurred unevenly or only in Spanish, even though multiple additional languages were spoken by families. Interpretation services were generally provided for conferences, but were also irregularly available then and largely absent at other times, like informational meetings. Multilingual and/or translated resources were even more rare, except in instances of required bilingual programming.

However, several teachers did mention the use of multilingual technology due to the devices students were provided. While multilingual pedagogy was not the initial goal of becoming one-to-one schools, teachers saw it as a support provided by the district. Teachers need to be better prepared and supported to implement pedagogical approaches which are not required nor exhibited within the official structures of their districts.

Complexities at the Normative Level. The role of the normative mechanisms in creating beliefs and practices is large (Chesnut, 2015). For my participants, they cited normative mechanisms as the biggest factors in supporting or constraining their multilingual practices.

Similar to the district level, participants felt that the allocation of multilingual resources and modeling of LRT had an impact on institutional norms and expectations among staff; however, there was variation across buildings. The bilingual teachers - Diana, Angela, and Mariana - saw consistent modeling of the use of Spanish for written and spoken communication. Andrew, Erica, Tina, and Naomi saw consistent attempts within their buildings, but the number of languages often limited how fully the building carried this out. Phoebe and Katherine saw it more frequently ignored by their administration, especially in additional events like back to school night and other informational meetings. Similar patterns occurred with resource allocation, with strong support for the Spanish language, especially at lower elementary levels, but lesser support for lower incidence languages. This modeling set the tone for the whole building and seemed to align with more consistent positive attitudes toward the inclusion of additional languages within the school.

This alignment of attitudes toward additional languages could also be seen in the philosophies through which language programs were implemented. While Mariana, Diana, and Angela were all in schools with different program configurations, the philosophies felt within

their implementation had a large impact on the level of Spanish usage within the classroom. For Diana, she chose her current school because she did not align with the district's overall preference for transitional bilingual programs. This school had chosen to phase into a dual-language model; however, she felt torn because as a fourth grade teacher, she would be waiting two more years for the program to reach her, and she felt she lacked resources to integrate more Spanish into the classroom. While Angela also disagreed with transitional models, she felt aligned with her school because the philosophy of implementation was one which promoted continued use of Spanish, even after the end of the official program. Within English language development programs, there are not official names for programs which have more multilingual philosophies, so teachers have a harder time vetting the program from outside of the context. Only Erica's department chair had a stated multilingual approach to English development, but even then, the prevailing attitudes of long-term teachers and the greater school served to constrain Erica's full implementation of all the multilingual strategies she had knowledge of. The rest of the teachers focused more on the attitudes of colleagues than of any official program policy. The influence of informal norms is something that is difficult to prepare teachers for and difficult for them to go against, especially when they are beginning teachers (Eddy Spicer, 2013). This is even more true when engaging with colleagues in collaborative relationships.

The Influence of Teacher Collaboration. While instructional coaches, professional learning communities, and other forms of teacher collaboration are currently very popular and seen as highly valuable to teacher development (Galey, 2016; Penner-Williams, et al., 2017; Russell, 2015), they were very mixed in their support of participants' implementation of LRT. Research notes that while these forms of support can help develop desired beliefs, they can also

serve to limit or contradict teacher beliefs (Tschannen-Moran, et al., 2014). This is due to goals that might conflict with or take precedence over an individual teacher's goals.

The feeling of being limited by collaborative relationships was especially true with Tina. She had the most structured collaborative relationships, a teaching team that co-planned all instruction, and a weekly PLC with this team as well as an instructional coach for literacy. While these relationships made sure that she was in sync with the other grade level teachers and was analyzing data related to students' literacy development, she felt unable to be creative in her teaching and extremely limited in the time she had to try out other teaching practices, especially multilingual strategies. Phoebe also felt very constrained by her team. While they did not co-plan instruction because they each taught a different elective, they did co-plan the overall exploratory program. Phoebe was frustrated that they could not even get alignment on the stated standards for which they would be assessed as teachers, let alone begin a discussion on the use of additional languages, especially due to their overall negative perspectives toward their inclusion.

On the other hand, Angela felt supported by her grade level and K-4 bilingual team, as they all worked with the same translanguageing approach and promoted the use of Spanish in all contexts. Diana also felt supported because she was able to meet with the bilingual instructional coach, whose goal was to increase the use of bilingual strategies within the school. Erica, Andrew, and Katherine all had less formal team structures, which included some co-planning of shared courses and program planning for the content department. They felt a mix of overt pushback against multilingual pedagogy and the pressure of assumed English-only norms, even when those were not directly stated. The overt pushback generally came in response to suggestions for the incorporation of additional languages, either from the participants or other initiatives within the school. This reflects the research finding that teachers can commonly state

general value for students' additional languages, while actively working to limit their use in the classroom (Pettit, 2011).

For novice teachers, the importance of navigating the power dynamics and expectations within a team is especially salient (Eddy Spicer, 2013; Young, 2006). Several participants wondered aloud whether they would feel more comfortable pushing against norms once they had a bit more experience, but were also afraid that they would become so influenced by the norms by then that they would no longer want to push. In response to this situation, several mentioned a desire to seek additional networks that would support their interest in multilingual pedagogy and help develop their skills in a deep and enacted way, rather than simply in words (Borrero, et al., 2016). They imagined such communities to be a group of individuals focused equally on a common goal rather than formalized, top-down assigned teams with power dynamics based on experience (Lee & Shaari, 2012).

Glimpses of these goal-focused communities were seen in some participants' lives. Katherine and Erica, both mentioned how connections outside of their school context had been helpful in the expansion of their use of multilingual strategies. Erica specifically mentioned attending conferences hosted by the state bilingual education organization and how hearing from others about their practices provided ideas and strengthened her belief in the possibility of their use. Katherine specifically mentioned having friends, who were also alumni of WheTEP (some of whom may have been other participants), with whom she talked, sharing ideas and brainstorming solutions for the complexity of implementing specific strategies in their own contexts. Lee and Shaari (2012) frame these types of networks as communities of practice, stating that they provide a "basis for exploratory inquiry and authentic learning" (p. 458) and that they can play a role in the development of teacher identity based on the community's focus.

Teacher Identity

Through all the experiences they described, participants' identities were being formed, shaped, stretched, and solidified. Our identities are formed in context and are ever changing as we encounter new ideas and engage new contexts (Ajayi, 2011), co-creating with others and the environment (Wegner, et al., 2002). The participants detailed how their identities were shaped by experiences within social contexts and by sociocultural assumptions before arriving at college. They were further shaped by their choice to complete the ESL/Bilingual endorsement and the knowledge and relationships gained through that program. They concurrently had additional experiences outside of the classroom, which informed their evolving perception of self and others. Finally, they entered schools (and many re-entered the second year in new roles or switched schools) in which they were given job titles that may or may not have aligned with what they perceived their role to be and were positioned as novice members. As the identity development pre- and during college has been addressed above, I will focus on the formation within their school context.

Teachers' professional identity development, especially in regards to their work with emergent bilinguals is tied to their roles within the policy environment of their team and school (Chesnut, 2015). All of the participants strongly identified as teachers of emergent bilinguals and CLD students, even when they were not in official bilingual or ELD positions. Some of this could have come from the fact that, during the interview, we were meeting to talk specifically about how they supported CLD students, but the demographic section of the survey was at the beginning and teachers were asked to mark their role before entering the body of the survey.

Naomi and Erica were fulltime ELD teachers, so their stated identity matched their job title. However, they also claimed it in a way that they contrasted with other teachers, even other

ELD teachers, within their building, emphasizing their desire for the holistic, multilingual development of their students. Mariana identified as a bilingual teacher, even though she had recently resigned due to a family relocation and was not sure if or where she would be teaching next. Diana and Angela marked themselves on the survey as bilingual teachers, though the official TBE program ended in third grade and they were both fourth grade teachers. While all of Diana's students spoke some level of Spanish, a third of Angela's students were monolingual English speakers and her classes were a purposeful mix of monolingual and bilingual students, but she framed all her actions through the bilingual teacher identity. Diana and Angela framed their identities consistently through their strong identification with their bilingual, bicultural students and not simply with who was currently assigned to their classroom.

For those who taught in general education, their identity framing had a lot to do with student advocacy. While Andrew's role was half general education and half ELD, he only marked ELD on the survey, though the prompt instructed respondents to mark all that applied. When speaking about his roles outside of the classroom, they were all connected to the ELD portion of his job. Phoebe and Katherine did not have ELD anywhere in their title, but they strongly identified as teachers of emergent bilinguals and CLD students, especially in contrast with their colleagues who also had an ESL endorsement, but seemed to have not allowed the coursework to change their beliefs and practices. In this process, the identity formation seems to be both proactive and reactive. Tina initially identified the least as a teacher of emergent bilinguals, but through the course of the interview began to do so more strongly, framing it as something she deeply valued but seemed to have forgotten in the context of her first year of teaching.

When framed in relationship to students, participants generally expressed their identities in proactive language, with references to initiating, reaching out, and engaging. When framed in relationship to colleagues, participants generally expressed their identities in reactive language, whether they felt aligned with or disconnected from them. For those who were aligned (Angela, Mariana, Diana), they referenced similarities in action and beliefs, interconnectedness, and support. For those who felt disconnected from their colleagues, they referenced contrasts in backgrounds, differences in beliefs and action, and disconnect. Some, like Naomi and Tina, used this language, even while often affirming the collegiality and praising the dedication within their team and building. This may be because, while they recognized key differences, they did not want to highlight them in order to not rock the boat and disrupt the collegiality (Chesnut, 2015), especially as the newest members of their community.

Limitations

With the small number of participants, the generalizability from this study is limited. However, as Yin (2017) notes, case studies are “generalizable to theoretical propositions and not to populations” (p. 20). This *analytic generalization* allows for the “corroborating, modifying, rejecting, or otherwise advancing theoretical concepts” referenced in the design of the study or advancing “new concepts that arose” (Yin, 2017, p. 38). This study has primarily served to do the former, building upon and adding nuance to existing research from within the unique context of alumni of a small liberal arts program.

An additional limitation of this study is not having observed teachers and instead relying on self-reporting of types of strategies and frequency of implementation. This was exacerbated by the limitations arising due to the global pandemic and the lack of access that teachers had to their classrooms during the timeframe of the study. For the majority of the participants, I could

not conduct interviews in their classrooms, nor have them collect classroom artifacts. This became especially salient when considering whether culturally and linguistically diverse teachers hold themselves to a higher standard in relation to perceptions of what is “enough” use of students’ additional languages. The trustworthiness of self-reporting can be improved by the use of multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 2017), the use of the survey and multiple ways of asking about the same topics within the interview. As acknowledged in Chapter 3, I have played many roles in the lives of the participants. Due to this, they may have felt a desire to please me in their responses. The inclusion of nine participants sought to minimize the impact of this in the overall findings.

While I had hoped to triangulate participants’ self-reports by collecting samples of classroom resources and student work that demonstrated the inclusion of additional languages, the bulk of the interviews took place after the COVID-19 pandemic began. At that time, my participants were not allowed into their classrooms, and therefore did not have access to examples of completed student work or classroom materials. Not observing in the classroom also meant that I did not get to observe any of the teachers’ contexts in order to gain a deeper understanding of the interaction patterns of their school community. In future research, I plan to include observations, and hopefully collaborate with teachers to design and carry out research together within their classrooms.

Implications

Despite the aforementioned limitations, the findings do suggest several implications for preservice teacher preparation, in-service teacher development, and future research.

Implications for Teacher Education

With the documented value of personal experiences engaging non-dominant language and culture, more opportunities for experiential learning should be embedded within teacher preparation programs. While not all students may have the ability, due to time and finances, to spend an extended period of time living outside their home culture, opportunities for such experiences should be regularly presented. In addition, short term and course-embedded opportunities can make an impact as well (Palmer & Menard-Warwick, 2012). The emphasis that participants put on long-term relationships also needs to be considered. Any steps that programs can take to connect students with community members outside the institution in order to form bi-directional relationships would increase the chance of these long-term relationships forming. While many programs include service requirements or school-based internships, these often keep the focus on the preservice teacher as a service provider and not a recipient of knowledge from the students and their families.

Teacher education programs also need to closely examine the theoretical frameworks which guide their thinking and instruction. In order to form cohesive beliefs and orientations within preservice teachers, they need a cohesive framework that is reinforcing the value of additional language use at every step of their preparation. The coursework should also include space for discussion of identity (Morgan, 2004; Varghese et al., 2005). The majority of the participants cited how conversations around ethnic and linguistic identity within their coursework helped them to make sense of prior experiences and reframe negative perceptions they had internalized about themselves, in the case of CLD individuals, and others, in the case of dominant culture individuals.

At the methods stage of coursework, students need to be exposed to a wider variety of multilingual strategies and see them enacted within a variety of contexts in order to have an increased chance of transfer to their future contexts. Since the number of teachers who are enacting this in the classroom is limited, programs cannot rely on the expectation that students will see strategies modeled in their practicum placements. Therefore programs need to develop creative ways for their students to access contexts in which multilingual pedagogy is being enacted.

Finally, teacher preparation programs need to think proactively about how to assist students in developing networks that they can maintain once they are in their actual teaching contexts. Many participants felt their commitment to LRT had gotten lost in the stress of figuring out teaching and desired a network of like-minded individuals who could help remind them of their commitment and support their implementation (Borrero, et al., 2016). A few had maintained friendships with people from their program and were able to informally network, but they still desired something more structured. This proactive networking could help prepare students for contexts in which there will be a lack of positive beliefs and collective efficacy around their implementation of LRT and potentially help negate the impact of negative beliefs they may encounter in their teaching context (Tschannen-Moran, et al., 2014). Developing an alumni network would allow for novice teachers to connect to teachers in similar contexts with more experience and be mentored by them. Programs can also introduce students to professional networks, like teacher organizations, that promote the use of additional languages while they are still in college, in hopes that they will be able to maintain and deepen those connections after graduation.

Implications for Teacher Development

Although there is much concern about the lack of enacted pedagogies, there is encouragement that this is not necessarily due to a lack of beliefs, but a lack of concrete strategies to enact these beliefs. It is helpful to remember that teachers' beliefs and practices evolve separately, yet interdependently; therefore the fact that there are beliefs that do not yet appear in their practices may represent a natural part of teacher development (Tschannen-Moran, et al., 2014). Phoebe, Naomi, and Tina felt the most constrained in their implementation and had the lowest score for practices, but were adamant that they wanted to change this fact and felt they could with support. This highlights the value of capitalizing on the flexibility of novice teachers, who still hold on to beliefs, but who also now understand the complexity that can come with enactment (Gainsburg, 2012; Varghese & Snyder, 2018).

The type of professional development (PD) that was most valued by participants and supported by additional research is that which is contextualized and on-going (Penner-Williams, et al. 2017; Russell, 2015). This was often valued when done in collaboration with their team. However, it should not be assumed that existing on-going collaboration and PD will support teachers in the implementation of LRT; it may in fact be diminishing it. The theoretical assumptions and pedagogical expectations of all the development initiatives a teacher is involved in must be considered when seeking the best way to support the implementation of multilingual pedagogy.

Teachers desired opportunities to try out methods instead of merely observing them in order to help them visualize the full implementation (Fitzgerald, et al., 2019; Gainsburg, 2012). These could be opportunities to do something themselves within a workshop-type situation or assistance in trying it in their own classroom with the opportunity to reflect on it afterwards. The

finding that participants were often focused on their ability to use strategies that were guided by them and not students suggests the need for mentoring for the release of authority in the classroom. This mentoring may be especially salient in beginning years of teaching when teachers are still working to establish their general authority in the classroom.

Implications for Research

While not the focus of this study, the power of collaborative relationships arose as a key theme for all participants. There is an existing base of research around the impact of teacher teams and collaborative structures, especially formal professional learning communities (PLCs). There is much focused on the role of PLCs in enhancing culturally responsive teaching and instruction for English language development; however, there is limited research on the role of teacher teams and other collaborative structures within schools in supporting or constraining the use of multilingual pedagogy. Research is especially limited in exploring the impact collaborative relationships have on language attitudes and the use of LRT when the focus of the collaborative relationship is not directly connected to the support of emergent bilinguals. Additionally, more research needs to be conducted that explores the role of teachers' networks, whether within their school or outside of it, in developing collective efficacy around the implementation of multilingual pedagogy.

For future research of my own, I hope to expand the methods to include teacher observation, and ideally, collaborative projects with teachers to develop and implement multilingual strategies for their specific context, much like Nilsson, et al. (2016) were able to do as they coached a first year teacher in her implementation of culturally responsive teaching in an English language classroom. Due to our existing relationship, many of the interviews for the current study ended with requests for resources and reminders of strategies we had discussed in

courses. I would like to explore how on-going collaboration with these teachers and other alumni of the endorsement program could increase the level of implementation for individuals and across the alumni network.

Conclusion

As I, and others, continue to investigate what supports and constrains teachers from enacting their beliefs, it is important to consider the following factors. We must value existing experiences and create space for ongoing experiences outside of the classroom that provide real-world context for the concepts and theories which are presented and promoted within teacher preparation and professional development programs. We must deeply analyze the assumed theoretical frameworks of those programs to ensure that they are consistent across instruction and reflected in the resources used. We must also create space for participants to dialogue with each other about the connections they see between life and theory. This is especially important in the area of identity, for teachers aware of their own identities and grounded in their identity as responsive teachers are most likely to enact the beliefs they profess.

Additionally, we cannot discount the role of context. Too often teachers' beliefs and practices are studied in isolation, as if they are an island unto themselves. However, this has never been the case and is even less so in the era of de-privatization of practice. Using a systems perspective, as detailed by Hopkins (2016), can make visible the levels of policy mechanisms which impact a teacher's practice. Preparing teachers for the reality of these systems and creating space for networking with like-minded people, inside or outside of their context, can provide a network of support, resources, and strategies that teachers can use to advocate for change if they find themselves in systems which constrain the enactment of their beliefs.

From my own journey of becoming a linguistically responsive teacher, to preparing future teachers to teach in responsive ways, I feel as if this study has been two decades in the making. As I learned so much about language and multilingualism from my middle and high school students, I have now been able to learn more about the complexity of implementing LRT in a variety of contexts from my former college students. It is my hope that knowledge gained through this study will serve to assist me in better preparing my future students. While I have done additional study and research, the questions I have asked, and the motivation to continue asking them, have always been based on student interactions. This is the joy of learning from and alongside your students.

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Appendix A: Survey Instrument**Beliefs and Practices Around Language Use and Development****Demographics (8 items)**

1. What gender do you identify as?
 - ☐ Female
 - ☐ Male
 - ☐ Option not listed (please write in)
2. With what race or ethnicity do you identify? Check all that apply
 - ☐ African-American, African, African-diaspora
 - ☐ American Indian or Alaskan Native
 - ☐ Asian
 - ☐ Caucasian/White
 - ☐ Latino/a
 - ☐ Middle Eastern
 - ☐ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
 - ☐ Option not listed (please write in)
3. How many years of teaching experience do you have?
 - ☐ 0
 - ☐ 1
 - ☐ 2
 - ☐ 3
 - ☐ 4
 - ☐ 5
 - ☐ Over 5
4. What position do you currently hold? Check all that apply.
 - ☐ Grade level classroom teacher
 - ☐ Bilingual classroom teacher
 - ☐ English language development specialist
 - ☐ Literacy specialist
 - ☐ Special Education
 - ☐ Option not listed (please write in)
 - ☐ Not currently teaching
5. Grade level(s) currently teaching – check all that apply

<input type="radio"/> Kindergarten	<input type="radio"/> 7th
<input type="radio"/> 1st	<input type="radio"/> 8th
<input type="radio"/> 2nd	<input type="radio"/> 9th
<input type="radio"/> 3rd	<input type="radio"/> 10th
<input type="radio"/> 4th	<input type="radio"/> 11th
<input type="radio"/> 5th	<input type="radio"/> 12th
<input type="radio"/> 6th	<input type="radio"/> Not currently teaching

6. What certifications do you hold? Check all that apply.
 - ☐ Elementary
 - ☐ Middle School
 - ☐ High School
 - ☐ English Language Specialist
 - ☐ Bilingual Specialist
 - ☐ Administrative
 - ☐ Guidance Counseling/Social Work
 - ☐ Special Education
 - ☐ Additional content area (please write in)
7. What is your highest level of education completed?
 - ☐ Bachelor's Degree
 - ☐ Bachelor's + additional coursework, certificates, or endorsements
 - ☐ Master's Degree
 - ☐ Master's + additional coursework, certificates, or endorsements
8. What is the average percentage of English Learners you have in your classes?
 - ☐ 0-10%
 - ☐ 11-25%
 - ☐ 26-40%
 - ☐ 41-60%
 - ☐ more than 60%

You are now entering the main body of the survey

In the following items, the use of the phrase “Home Language” is meant to indicate languages students speak or are exposed to within their homes and communities. This term could be considered similar to the following: first language, L1, heritage language, mother tongue, languages other than English, etc.

These terms all have their difficulties in classifying the dynamic language practices of multilingual communities. However, in order to discuss the concept of multiple languages, one must be chosen. This survey has chosen home language.

Beliefs about the use of multiple languages in the classroom (30 items)

There are differing beliefs and perspectives on the use of additional languages in the classroom. This survey seeks to catalog these, not to evaluate the responses of individuals. We also recognize that there are many factors that contribute to an individual's perspectives and practices. There is space at the end of this section where you can expand upon your perspectives, if you wish to.

For the following items, please mark how much the statement reflects your beliefs about language and its usage in various contexts. "Strongly agree" indicates that the statement highly matches your beliefs.

Language in Society

8. High levels of bilingualism can result in higher development of knowledge or mental skills.
9. It is important that people in the United States learn a language in addition to English.
10. English language learners should be encouraged to speak English whenever possible (at school, home, social gatherings, etc.).
11. Encouraging the children to maintain their home language will prevent them from fully acculturating into this society.
12. English-speaking children should be given an opportunity to learn an additional language.
13. It is valuable to be multilingual in our society.

Language in Families

14. The maintenance of the home language is key to maintaining connections within the family.
15. Home language maintenance is the responsibility of parents.
16. Parents are not doing enough to support their children in learning English.
17. Parents do not seem to care about their children's maintenance of the home language.
18. Teachers, parents, and schools need to work together to help students learn English and maintain their home language.

Language in School

19. Schools should be invested in helping students maintain their home language.
20. The use of languages other than English in the classroom builds all students' general language understanding.
21. Having an English Learner in the classroom is detrimental to the learning of the other students.
22. Teachers should not allow English Learners to speak their home languages in the classroom.

23. The use of languages other than English in the classroom will create division among students.
24. Frequent use of the home language deters students from learning English.
25. Learning subject matter in the home language helps an English Learner learn subject matter better when he/she studies it in English.
26. If students develop literacy in their home language, it will facilitate the development of reading and writing in English.
27. Developing students' additional languages is valuable, but it's too complicated to do in school.
28. Teachers should encourage students to maintain their home language.

Language with Students

29. Proficiency in the home language helps students in their academic progress.
30. Proficiency in the home language helps students in their social development.
31. The teaching of languages other than English in schools elevates the self-confidence of the students who speak those languages.
32. The maintenance of the home language is important for the student's development of his or her identity.
33. The use of multiple languages at school will decrease a student's ability to develop academically.
34. The use of a language other than English at school will keep a student isolated from classmates.
35. Students often become confused when trying to navigate the use of two (or more) languages in one context.
36. The inclusion of home languages in the classroom will improve the level of cultural understanding toward the communities that speak those languages. ^[L]_{SEP}
37. Students value their home language and culture.
38. OPTIONAL: Is there anything else that you would like to share about your beliefs and perspectives surrounding the use of multiple languages in the various contexts listed above?

Classroom practices which utilize additional languages in the classroom (25 items)

The ability to use additional languages in the classroom is impacted by content area, grade level, and school policy factors. The following questions seek to document practices and not to judge respondents on whether or not they implement them. There is space at the end of the section to elaborate, if you wish to.

For the following items, please mark how often you engage in the specific practices listed. "Consistently" indicates that this is an ongoing part of your classroom practices. "Rarely" indicates that it happens once or twice a year, or is not an ongoing practice.

Classroom Culture Practices

- 39. In class, I have my students share their home culture.
- 40. In class, I have my students share their home language.
- 41. I tell my students that at school we must focus on English, even though their home language is important.
- 42. I ask students to prioritize school culture over their home culture while at school.
- 43. I talk to my students about how important maintaining their home language is.
- 44. I praise children for knowing another language and culture.
- 45. I make an effort to learn phrases in my students' home languages.
- 46. I encourage English-monolingual students to gain a knowledge of an additional language.

Classroom Teaching and Learning Practices

- 51. I display multilingual print (posters, lists of similar words, or other visuals) in my classroom.
- 52. I allow students to use bilingual dictionaries or translation devices.
- 53. I have home language materials available for students to read.
- 54. I allow students to use their home language when completing class work or assignments.
- 55. I pair students with speakers of their language in order to support each other during classwork.
- 56. I tell students they must not speak in a language other than English while working in groups.
- 57. I create classroom projects which encourage the use of languages other than English.

- 58. I create times when students can teach each other words or phrases of their home languages.
- 59. I allow students to use their home languages in order to demonstrate academic skills they are not able to in English.
- 60. I allow students to use their home languages, even when they could complete a task in English.

Home and Family Connections

- 61. I have classroom communication (newsletters, announcements) translated into the home languages of my students.
- 62. I have students (or their families) complete a language survey so that I know which languages are used by their families.
- 63. I encourage parents to use their home language with their children.
- 64. I advise parents to help their children learn to speak English faster by speaking English in the home.
- 65. I provide a list of resources (online or offline) that have home language materials for students and parents to use.
- 66. I encourage students and parents to use their home language to discuss school topics at home.
- 67. I invite parents into the classroom to share their home language with the whole class.
- 68. OPTIONAL: Is there anything else that you would like to share about the use of multiple languages in the classroom?

Background Experiences (8 items)

In order to examine what factors may work together to influence teachers' beliefs and practices, we would like to ask a few about background experiences connected to language and culture.

This is the final section!

- 69. Where have you received professional development in English language teaching or working with English learners? Check all that apply.
 - ☐ I haven't received any professional development in these areas
 - ☐ University/College coursework at the undergraduate level
 - ☐ University/College coursework at the graduate level
 - ☐ In-service professional development (district seminars, classroom coaching, etc.)
 - ☐ Personal research or development (additional readings, coursework, etc.)
 - ☐ Other - please write in

86. How many times have you traveled internationally?

- ☐ Never
- ☐ One time
- ☐ 2-5 times
- ☐ 6-10 times
- ☐ more than 10 times

87. How long have you resided in a country other than the United States?

- ☐ I have lived only in the United States
- ☐ 3-6 months
- ☐ 6-12 months
- ☐ 1-4 years
- ☐ 5-10 years
- ☐ more than 10 years

88. How proficient are you in a language or languages other than English?

If you speak more than one additional language, mark the level for your most fluent additional language.

	Fluent	Proficient	Conversational	A few phrases	No additional language proficiency
Listening					
Speaking					
Reading					
Writing					

89. If you marked any level of fluency above, please list the language(s) below.

90. Which of your family members uses languages other than English on a regular basis?

Check all that apply.

- ☐ None
- ☐ Spouse/Partner
- ☐ Children
- ☐ Parents
- ☐ Siblings
- ☐ Extended family (grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins)

91. How long have you been in a context where you spoke a language other than English in your daily life?

- ☐ I do not speak a language other than English
- ☐ I have never used my additional language(s) consistently in daily life.
- ☐ 3-6 months
- ☐ 6-12 months
- ☐ 1-4 years
- ☐ 5-10 years

- more than 10 years
92. How long have you spent in a community where multiple languages were used around you in daily life? Please consider the community practices, even if you didn't speak all of the languages which were used.
- I have never been in a context where multiple languages were used in daily life.
 - 3-6 months
 - 6-12 months
 - 1-4 years
 - 5-10 years
 - more than 10 years
93. OPTIONAL: Are there any other key events or experiences which have shaped how you view and utilize language in general and its use in the classroom?

Thank you so much for your completion of the survey. Your response is greatly appreciated! If you would be willing to participate in a follow up video-recorded focus group discussion, please provide your name and email address below. In providing this information, your response will no longer be anonymous to the researcher. However, the information will remain confidential and no names or identifying information will be included in any publications or presentations based on these data.

Not all who provide their contact information will be contacted for the focus group, as a maximum of 10 will be selected.

Name

Email

Appendix B: Interview Protocol

1. Is there any clarification or elaboration you would like to make about any of your responses to the survey?
 - a. *If more guidance needed:* Any clarifications on the language beliefs section? On the teaching practices section? On the prior experiences section?
2. How have you seen your beliefs or practices in relation to students' additional languages change as you have gone through your professional career – from college preparation until now?
3. What would you identify as the catalysts for those changes?
4. You indicated that you frequently implement _____ practices in your teaching. Please elaborate about what those specifically look like in your classroom.
5. What would you consider to be the main reason as to why you choose to incorporate these practices?
6. *For those with a gap between beliefs and practices:* What would you identify as some of the key factors for the gap between your beliefs and the practices you are able to implement?

Appendix C: Participant Survey Scores

Participant	Andrew	Angela	Diana	Erica	Katherine	Mariana	Naomi	Phoebe	Tina
Total Score	168 76.36%	179 80.45%	154 70.00%	168 76.35%	169 76.81%	177 80.45%	127 57.72%	143 65.00%	132 60.00%
Society 6 items	21 (87.5)	22 (91.67)	21 (77.38)	21 (87.5)	21 (77.38)	21 (87.5)	20 (83.33)	21 (87.5)	18 (75)
Families 5 items	15 (75)	17 (85)	14 (70)	16 (80)	16 (80)	13 (65)	12 (60)	13 (65)	15 (75)
School 10 items	33 (82.5)	36 (90)	32 (80)	32 (80)	36 (90)	35 (87.5)	29 (72.5)	33 (82.5)	32 (80)
Students 9 items	32 (88.89)	27 (75)	29 (80.56)	31 (88.57)	30 (83.33)	31 (88.57)	25 (69.44)	33 (91.67)	28 (77.78)
Beliefs Total 30 items	101 (84.17%)	102 (85%)	86 (71.67)	100 (83.33%)	103 (85.83%)	100 (83.33%)	86 (71.67%)	100 (83.33)	93 (77.5%)
Class Culture 8 items	24 (75)	24 (75)	23 (71.88)	24 (75)	26 (81.25)	28 (87.5)	15 (46.88)	19 (59.38)	18 (56.25)
Teaching & Learning 10 items	28 (70)	31 (77.5)	23 (57.5)	28 (70)	23 (57.5)	29 (72.5)	11 (27.5)	17 (42.5)	13 (32.5)
Family Connections 7 items	15 (53.57)	20 (71.14)	22 (55)	16 (57.14)	17 (60.71)	20 (71.14)	15 (53.57)	7 (25)	8 (28.57)
Practices Total 25 items	67 (67%)	75 (75%)	68 (68%)	68 (68%)	66 (66%)	77 (77%)	41 (41%)	43 (43%)	39 (39%)

Total percentage score was calculated by adding up the total raw score and dividing by 220, the total possible.

Raw score is listed first and percentage in parentheses.



**Approval Notice
Initial Review – Expedited Review**

June 21, 2019
Sara Vroom
Curriculum and Instruction

**RE: Protocol # 2019-0543
“Leveraging Language: Teacher-Identified Influences on Their Use of Linguistically Responsive Teaching”**

Dear Ms. Vroom:

Members of Institutional Review Board (IRB) #2 reviewed and approved your research protocol under expedited review procedures [45 CFR 46.110(b)(1)] on June 21, 2019. You may now begin your research.

Your research meets the criteria for approval under expedited review procedures [45 CFR 46.110] Category: 5, 6, 7

Please note the following information about your approved research protocol:

Please note that investigator training for Paola Zitlali Morales will expire on 22 December 2019 and she will no longer be eligible to supervise or conduct research after that date unless or until her training is updated.

<u>Protocol Approval Date:</u>	June 21, 2019 - June 20, 2020
<u>Approved Subject Enrollment #:</u>	150
<u>Performance Sites:</u>	Wheaton College, UIC
<u>Sponsor:</u>	None
<u>Research Protocols:</u>	

- a) Leveraging Language: Teacher-Identified Influences on Their Use of Linguistically Responsive Teaching; 06/04/2019
- b) Leveraging Language: Teacher-Identified Influences on Their Use of Linguistically Responsive Teaching; Version 2; 06/12/2019

Documents that require an approval stamp or separate signature can be accessed via [OPRS Live](#). The documents will be located in the specific protocol workspace. You must access and use only the approved documents to recruit and enroll subjects into this research project.



Recruitment Materials:

- a) Focus Group Recruitment Email; Version 2; 06/12/2019
- b) Survey Recruitment Email; Version 2; 06/12/2019
- c) Eligibility Checklist (no footer)

Informed Consents:

- a) Leveraging Language; Version 2; 06/12/2019
- b) Survey Consent; Version 2; 06/17/2019
- c) A waiver of documentation of consent (electronic signature/no written signature obtained) has been granted for the online survey under 45 CFR 46.117(c) for this minimal risk research
- d) Exceptions to informed consent for the purpose of screening, recruiting, or determining eligibility of prospective subjects has been noted under 45 CFR 46.116(g)

Please remember to:

→ **Use only the IRB-approved and stamped consent documents when enrolling new subjects.**

→ Use your **research protocol number** (2019-0543) on any documents or correspondence with the IRB concerning your research protocol.

→ Review and comply with the [policies](#) of the UIC Human Subjects Protection Program (HSPP) and the guidance [*Investigator Responsibilities*](#).

Please note that the UIC IRB has the right to ask further questions, seek additional information, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

Please be aware that if the [scope of work](#) in the grant/project changes, the protocol must be amended and approved by the UIC IRB before the initiation of the change.

We wish you the best as you conduct your research. If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the OPRS office at (312) 996-1711 or me at (312) 996-2014. Please send any correspondence about this protocol to OPRS via [OPRS Live](#).

Sincerely,

Sandra Costello
Assistant Director, IRB # 2
Office for the Protection of Research Subjects

cc: Paola Zitlali Morales (faculty advisor), Curriculum and Instruction, M/C 147
Kimberly A. Lawless, Curriculum and Instruction, M/C 147

Sara J. Vroom Fick, Ph. D.

EDUCATION

Ph. D. Curriculum and Instruction: Literacy, Language, and Culture, August 2021

University of Illinois at Chicago, Chicago, IL

Dissertation: Leveraging Language: Teacher-Identified Influences on Their Use of Linguistically Responsive Teaching

M. A. Intercultural Studies and TESOL, December 2012

Wheaton College Graduate School, Wheaton, IL

Additional emphasis: Cross-Cultural Human and Community Development

B. A. English as a Second Language Education, May 2000

University of Northwestern-St. Paul, St. Paul, MN

Second Major: Bible; Minor: Spanish

ADDITIONAL CERTIFICATIONS

State of Minnesota Teaching License, English as a Second Language, kindergarten – 12th grade

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Assistant Professor, Education Department, July 2020 – present

Wheaton College, Wheaton, IL

Coordinator of the undergraduate ESL and Bilingual Education endorsement program: consult with TESOL director to set course plan to meet state licensure requirements, develop new courses as needed, establish school district partnerships for practicum placements, supplemental advisor for endorsement students

Courses taught: Teaching Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Students, Theoretical Foundations of Language Acquisition, ELL Methods for Content Area Teachers, English Grammar for Teachers
Placement Coordinator and supervisor for Cross-cultural Tutoring and ESL Specialist practica
Supervisor for Elementary Methods & Student Teaching

Visiting Instructor, Education Department, August 2013 – June 2020

Wheaton College, Wheaton, IL

Coordinator of the undergraduate ESL and Bilingual Education endorsement programs

Instructor for courses within the Education and Applied Linguistics Departments

Placement Coordinator and supervisor for tutoring and ESL practica. Student teaching supervisor.

Textbook Series Project Manager, November 2011 – December 2013

Passport to Adventure English Language Textbook Series, Purposeful Design Publications

Managed communication flow between authors, editors, and designers. Organized audio recordings: recruited and scheduled musicians and voice talent, coordinated with producers, scheduled studio time.

English Language Program Director, August 2009 – June 2011

International Christian School of Vienna, Vienna, Austria

Developed departmental vision and goals, maintained K-12 curriculum continuity within the program and alignment to general education curriculum, provided training and assistance for general education teachers, managed department budget, administered entrance assessments and met with placement committee.

English Language Teacher, August 2006 – June 2011

International Christian School of Vienna, Vienna, Austria

Taught middle school beginner and high school intermediate/advanced English Language classes. Classes taught: MS EL Language Arts, MS EL Science, MS EL Social Studies, MS EL Bible, HS EL Language Arts
Additionally, taught general curriculum high school classes in Public Speaking and American Literature.

English Language Teacher, August 2001 – June 2005

Como Park Senior High School, St. Paul, MN

Taught beginner through intermediate English language classes for immigrant and refugee students with a content area focus. Classes taught: Beginner Literacy, Beginner Science, High Beginner Social Studies, Intermediate Literacy-Language Arts.

English Language Teacher, Aug. 2000–June 2001

Hayden Heights Elementary/Hazel Park Middle School, St. Paul Public Schools, St. Paul, MN

Taught 3rd grade pull out EL groups in the morning, collaborating with grade level team to support language development. Taught middle school content-based classes in the afternoon. Classes taught: Beginner Writing, Beginner Social Studies/U.S. History, Intermediate Health.

AWARDS & GRANTS

Globalization of the Curriculum Grant, Wheaton College, April 2021

Awarded \$4,000 to increase curriculum library resources in Mandarin, Korean, and Spanish to better support the Bilingual Education Endorsement program.

Wheaton College Alumni Association Faculty Grant, academic year 2016-2017 – present

Grant awarded for tuition costs for the completion of terminal degree

Globalization of the Curriculum Grant, Wheaton College, April 2018

Awarded \$2,400 to increase library resources in children's fiction and non-fiction literature representing diverse characters, contexts, and languages. Completed in conjunction with student research group.

Norton Award in Intercultural Studies, December 2012

Wheaton College Graduate School, Intercultural Studies Department

PUBLICATIONS

Vroom, S. & Seaman, A. (2014). Cross-cultural perspectives on teaching English as a foreign language to children: A multinational survey. *TESOL Journal*, 5, 3, 465-489.

Vroom, S. & Seaman, A. (2014). *Passport to Adventure: Explore C Level Student Book, Teacher Book, Blackline Masters*, Audio CDs. Colorado Springs: Purposeful Design Publications.

Markley, H.; Sappington, K.; & Vroom, S. (2012). Writing skills: Exploring cultural influences and classroom applications, *ITBE Link*, Spring 2012 issue.

INVITED PRESENTATIONS

Disrupting Monolingual Perspectives & Practices. Literacies@Chicago Super Saturday. Chicago, IL, March, 2020.

Disciplinary Literacy: Connecting Content Area Teachers to Academic Language Development. Illinois Multilingual Conference, Oakbrook, IL, December, 2019.

Multilingual Magic: Developing linguistically inclusive practices. Literacies@Chicago Super Saturday, Chicago, IL, March 2019.

Vroom Fick, S. & Pacyga, J. *Developing culturally sustaining practices with classroom literature*. Leaders in Reading Network Spring Development Day, St. Paul, MN, May 2018.

PRESENTATIONS

Researching teaching practices in context. UIC College of Education Research Day, Chicago, IL, February 2021.

Vroom Fick, S., Dahm, B., Heidick, E., & James, A. *Quality control: Using culturally and linguistically responsive criteria to evaluate classroom literature*. Multilingual Illinois, Oak Brook, IL, December 2017.

Helping parents support their children's language development.
ESL Ministry Conference, Chicago, IL, September 2017.

Vroom Fick, S. & Tandriarto, T. *Giving voice to students' identity development*.
Multilingual Illinois, Oak Brook, IL, December 2016.

Incorporating worldview into English language teaching.
ESL Ministry Conference, Chicago, IL, April, 2016.

Vroom, S., Machado, E., & Park, J. *Biliteracy development in multilingual general education classrooms*.
Literacy Research Association Annual Conference, Carlsbad, CA, December 2015.

Jonas, S. & Vroom, S. *Socio-emotional learning for refugees: Yale's RULER curriculum and gender*.
Multilingual Illinois, Oak Brook, IL, December 2015.

Seaman, A. & Vroom, S. *Techniques for teaching English to younger children throughout the world*.
International TESOL Convention, Toronto, ON, March 2015.

Being a Bridge: Using ESL to connect the cultures of your students and native English speakers.
ESL Ministry Conference, Chicago, IL, April 2014.

Vroom, S. & Seaman, A. *Writing and recording original audio tracks for authentic listening*.
International TESOL Convention, Portland, OR, March 2014.

Lesson planning and vocabulary instruction.
EFL Teachers' Conferences, Surabaya & Jakarta, Indonesia, August 2012.

Markley, H., Pierson, C., Sappington, K. & Vroom, S. *Writing skills: Exploring cultural influences and classroom applications*. Illinois TESOL-BE State Convention, February 2012.

Teaching language through content: Supporting the success of ESL students in content classrooms.
International Christian Educators' Conference, Kandern, Germany, April 2010.

ADDITIONAL PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES

Program/Curriculum development, International Christian School of Vienna, Nov. 2007 – June 2009
Designed and implemented a content-based intensive language program for middle school beginners.
Further developed intermediate and advanced language programs for middle school and high school.
Aligned ELL 6-12 curriculum to general education 6-12 curriculum and standards.

Cooperating teacher, Northwestern College Education Dept., St. Paul, MN, August 2003 – June 2005
Supervised pre-service teachers in multi-cultural observations, instructional methods practicum, and student teaching placements at Como Park Senior High School.

ELL Pathway development, St. Paul Public Schools, Como Park Senior High School, 2004 – 2005
Worked with school and district administration to develop an effective pathway for ELL students to transition from adapted to mainstream classes. Assisted in creating a graduation plan that allowed students to fulfill all school credits and meet state standards within a similar time frame as English speaking students.

Minnesota Basic Standards Writing Test Practice scorer, St. Paul Public Schools, April 2004/2005
Scored the 9th grade Basic Skills Test writing practice test for St. Paul Public Schools. Trained in test expectations, scoring methods, and rubric adherence.

Curriculum development, St. Paul Public Schools, May – June 2004
Member of the district-wide senior high ELL team focused on aligning existing district curriculum with Minnesota State Standards.

Integration Grant Partnerships, East Metro Integration District, Spring 2003 and 2004
Co-facilitated EMID grants enabling students from Como Park (urban) and Roseville (suburban) high schools to work collaboratively on multicultural projects based in literacy and art development.

PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

Literacy Research Association

National Association of Bilingual Education

International TESOL

Illinois Association of Multilingual Multicultural Education

Illinois TESOL-BE

English Learners Advocacy Council in Higher Education (IL)

COMMUNITY AND PROFESSIONAL SERVICE

Puente del Pueblo, Education Consultant: collaborate with director and other full time staff for ongoing improvement of tutoring and educational services, train summer volunteers in preparation for working with bilingual students, train summer interns in classroom management strategies and language development.

Wheaton College Office of Community Outreach, Education Liaison: work with the Partnership Coordinator and student coordinators of community-based tutoring programs to improve procedures and develop skills in students volunteering in academic tutoring contexts

Wheaton College HNGR Program, interviewer for student application process, mentor and faculty visitor

UIC-LLC Doctoral Program, graduate student mentor for incoming doctoral students, guest speaker at first year Professional Seminar

Literacy Research Association, Conference Presentation Reviewer: Area 8. Literacy Learning and Practice in Multilingual and Multicultural Settings

World Relief DuPage/Aurora, volunteer in various areas

LANGUAGES

Spanish: intermediate level fluency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing

German: intermediate level fluency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing