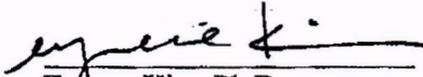
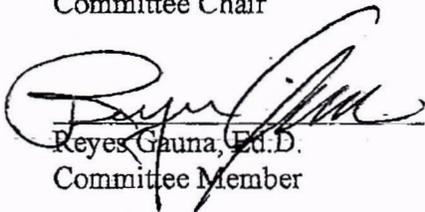


ACCEPTANCE

This dissertation, MEETING THE LINGUISTIC NEEDS OF ENGLISH LEARNERS THROUGH THE TEACHING AND LEARNING CYCLE, was prepared under the direction of the candidate's Dissertation Committee. It is accepted by the committee members in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education in the School of Education, Concordia University Irvine.



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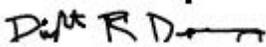


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MEETING THE LINGUISTIC NEEDS OF ENGLISH LEARNERS THROUGH THE
TEACHING AND LEARNING CYCLE

by

Annita McManus-White

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ABSTRACT

Though there is a great deal of research concerning second language instruction, the same cannot be said of research meant to guide the design and delivery of instruction for English Learners and how teachers' perceptions of their effectiveness can influence their daily instructional practices. Through this mixed method action research study, the author examines the impact that training, practice, and support with the teaching and learning cycle has on educators' instructional practices for ELs. Teachers' beliefs and methods were analyzed using both a presurvey and postsurvey and through observation before and after training, practice, and support with the teaching and learning cycle. The author of the study worked with a large urban school district located in the Central California Valley, which has approximately 10,000 EL students. A total of 33 K-12 teachers participated in a Likert-type survey, professional learning focused on the teaching and learning cycle, follow-up support, and other observations. This study concludes that, once these teachers were trained and supported in the teaching and learning cycle, they found it to be an invaluable instructional model for English Language Development. These teachers then relied more heavily on various language acquisition instructional strategies, which created more language-learning opportunities for their EL students. As a result, teaching background knowledge, learning about text types, jointly constructing texts together, and opportunities for students to speak in class all increased while student distractions decreased. The overall findings of this study demonstrate that, when supported at the district and site levels with professional learning and a universal belief in language acquisition for ELs, teachers provide more language-based instruction for their English Learner students.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

When bilingual education began in the 1960s, teachers were given only vague directives such as “speak in Spanish” or “they will catch on” (Téllez, 2004, p. 1). At that time, the standard practice for instructing English Learners (ELs) was for districts to use their resources to teach educators Spanish so that they could communicate with their students. Discussion about teacher preparedness regarding ELs began in the 1990s and remains a topic of debate today; continuous data suggests that English Language Development (ELD) teachers are unprepared for linguistically diverse populations and so resort to short-term solutions.

Téllez (2004) investigated the preparedness of teachers working with ELs by examining research on the following components of ELD instruction: the current conditions, general studies on teacher quality, preservice teacher education, in-service teacher education, standards for ELD teachers, policy issues, and linguistic knowledge. Additionally, the author investigated seven teaching strategies designed to assist EL students in becoming proficient in the English language.

Since Téllez’s (2004) work, the notion of collaboration through Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) has gained significant attention and become linked with instructional practices for ELs. Through the work of Vargas (2012), it is apparent that teachers’ perceptions of ELs and ELD instructional practices—along with the teachers’ ability to differentiate instruction for ELs—also impact how educators perceive the effectiveness of PLCs.

Vargas (2012) utilized an effective framework, questionnaires, focus groups, interviews, and classroom observations for his research. Through this process, five themes emerged: (a) participants held their ELs in high regard, (b) participants acquired new knowledge, (c) participants utilized their unique experiences and new strategies and information within their

classrooms that allowed them to differentiate, (d) a culture of appreciation emerged, and (e) every teacher needed the opportunity to collaborate to share ideas.

Other researchers, such as Saunders et al. (2013), found that, despite growing numbers of ELs and a growing awareness of EL instruction, little was known about the effects of such instruction. Thus, Saunders et al. (2013) reviewed several studies involving teachers, ELs, and instructional practices, and they developed 14 recommendations for instructing ELs. The studies researched indicated how educators might provide effective ELD instruction in a portion of the school day separate from the core subjects. Saunders et al. (2013) produced 14 ELD guidelines from the research considered. The guidelines consisted of four groups: (a) global policy, (b) organizational guidelines, (c) curricular focus guidelines, and (d) and instructional guidelines.

Group One, according to Saunders et al. (2013), addresses global guidelines such as state, district, and school commitments to ELD instruction. The authors state that ELD instruction is necessary, it should continue until the student is proficient in English, and ELD is most effective when it is a district priority. Group Two recommends dedicating a separate block of time each day to ELD. Group Three focuses on curricular guidelines, including syntax, morphology, and vocabulary; an emphasis on academic as well as conversational vocabulary; and incorporating reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Group Four recommends the following guidelines: planning for ELD instruction that focuses on specific language functions, English-language development with primary language support, interactive activities, corrective feedback from instructors, and implementing communication and language-learning strategies.

Although there is extensive research covering second language instruction, the same cannot be said of English Learner instruction. As Saunders et al. (2013) reported, many studies relevant to ELD instruction cover peer interaction, language use, and proficiency, but few

examine the instruction itself and its effects, and even fewer are examined through the lens of an educator.

Statement of the Problem

According to the California Department of Education (CDE), in the 2015-16 school year, approximately 1.374 million English Learners attended California public schools, constituting 22.1% of the total enrollment. Of those, 73% of English Learners are enrolled at the elementary level, and 27% are at the secondary level. Olsen (2010) explains that 59% of secondary school ELs are Long-Term English Learners (LTELs): English Learners who have been in United States schools for more than six years and have not achieved English proficiency. Olsen reported further that one out of three EL populations in California are comprised of 75% or higher LTELs. When students do not meet proficiency in the English language, they cannot reclassify as English proficient. Thus, it is recommended that ELs have 30 minutes per day of ELD instruction in grades K-6, and 50 minutes per day in grades 7-12. That is, unless a parent submits the paperwork required to opt his or her child out of ELD instruction.

Though a parent may choose to opt out of EL services, their student remains an EL by state standards and is recorded as an EL in all subsequent data until the student reclassifies as English proficient. Additionally, the student's progress or lack of progress is reevaluated each year, and it may be recommended that the student should return to an ELD course. ELD instruction is not inherently harmful, but it does take up a portion of a student's day that could be spent participating in another course or enrichment program. In some districts, especially at the secondary level, it becomes difficult for students to take desired electives such as Advancement Via Individual Determination (AVID) or a world language course when enrolled in ELD classes

year after year. There is not enough room in many students' schedules to take all of the courses required for graduation along with desired electives and advanced placement classes.

High dropout rates and low graduation rates present additional challenges for ELs. According to the CDE (2014), ELs have the lowest graduation rate of all student subgroups; only 69% of ELs graduated in 2014-15 statewide. In contrast, 17.6% of ELs and 11% of migrant students dropped out of school, but this data does not consider other EL dropouts who were unaccounted for. One might ask how this could happen. Parents of English Learners do not send their children to school expecting them to fail or drop out. Many parents have risked their futures and livelihoods to give their children educations in the United States. They never dreamed that their children would fail.

According to Dr. Lori Olsen in *Reparable Harm* (2010), by definition, ELs enter school lacking the English skills necessary to access the core curriculum, and the sheer number of LTELs at the secondary level illustrate that something has gone wrong. She elaborates further that many students do not receive language development programs, curriculums are poorly-designed, language development program models leave much to be desired, and many of these programs are simply inconsistent. The category of "Received no language development program at all" (p. 15) reveals that many classrooms across all program models provide little to no ELD instruction. The California Department of Education Compliance Reviews (2007) demonstrates that a lack of ELD instruction is among the topmost non-compliance issues. This begs the question: why do teachers often overlook ELD instruction?

As detailed by Téllez (2004), Vargas (2012), and Olsen (2010), ELD instructors are more than willing to serve their students' needs, but often feel ill-equipped to fully understand the specifics of language acquisition, leading them to fall back on "just good teaching" strategies.

These educators are under the impression that the English language arts curriculum—as well any instruction under the heading of “English”—is the same as teaching ELD (Olsen, 2010). For example, with a lack of specific guidelines, many teachers believe that implementing word walls, vocabulary lists, dictionary work, and frontloading vocabulary meets the needs of ELs. Olsen notes that it appears as though LTELs have been unable to reclassify because they received no ELD instruction, but were instead taught mainstream English with no accommodations or strategies to help them gain proficiency. With so many teachers unable to provide appropriate ELD instruction, coupled with weak ELD program design at the district and site levels, the overall picture is grim. ELs become LTELs as they leave elementary school and transition into the higher-grade levels. Many elementary teachers who are unable to lead their students to English proficiency believe that their students will have more opportunities to become proficient at the secondary level

As Olsen (2010) explained, much has gone wrong for students receiving no language development programs at all. Inferior curriculums, weak language development program models, and inconsistent programs have led to an increasing number of LTELs at the secondary level. This inevitably contributes to ELs having a higher non-graduation rate than other subgroups.

Purpose of the Study

Other researchers, such as Saunders et al. (2013), note that research investigating the effects of EL instruction has been scarce. This is not to be confused with research on second language instruction, of which there is a great deal. As Saunders et al. (2013) explain, few studies analyze teacher perception of designated ELD and integrated instruction and the effects this has on such instruction.

Designated ELD instruction is the appointed time during the elementary and junior high levels when teachers focus specifically on language acquisition for their EL students.

Designated ELD at the high school level is relegated to a single, required course that all EL students must take each day until they become Reclassified Fluent English Proficient (RFEP).

Integrated instruction involves combining the core curriculum with language acquisition strategies, granting EL students full access to their educations. At the K-12 levels, all core classes require integration. In other words, courses such as algebra, science, and world history must implement language acquisition into their lessons to accommodate EL students.

However, many teachers are unaware of their linguistic responsibilities, and the few who are aware are not always able to incorporate language acquisition strategies into their lessons. Many educators claim that they are not language teachers and that the responsibility lies with intervention teachers, tutors, afterschool programs, and English teachers. Thus, they default to “good teaching strategies” in the hopes that this will somehow meet the needs of their EL students.

The purpose of this action research study is to explore the relationship between the implementation of English Language Development and teacher perceptions of ELD, taking into account any prior training, professional learning, or mentoring that the teacher has received regarding instructional planning. This action research study will also consider how teacher perception is influenced by the teaching and learning cycle—as well as the instructional approaches and strategies within that cycle—and the global guidelines at the district and site levels, as outlined by Saunders et al. (2013).

Significance of the Study

This action research study provides a timely and relevant snapshot of the current reality of K-12 teachers who have ELs and LTELs enrolled in their classes and must integrate appropriate language acquisition strategies to accommodate them. Unfortunately, California currently faces a teacher shortage, and many of these teachers are unprepared to manage the responsibilities of their positions. Additionally, a common trend in California schools is to place the most qualified and experienced teachers in advanced placement and honors classes since they are perceived to have less discipline and management issues. Many veteran teachers believe they should be rewarded with such courses after their many years of service, but the reality is they are needed most in the more instructionally-challenged classes. Thus, the trend continues of often inexperienced and underprepared teachers designing and implementing instruction for ELs who require much more than that to become English proficient.

This study provides a framework for assessing both K-12 English Language Development and integrated teachers' perceptions of ELD. This study also examines how an intensive professional learning series utilizing the teaching and learning cycle via the four-week EL Summer School, when coupled with various support methods—such as a lesson study which includes instructional planning, demonstration of strategies, team-teaching, and debriefs—affects classroom instruction and teacher perception of said instruction. Data collected from the study provides evidence of before-and-after teacher perceptions, use of specific language acquisition instructional methods, and teacher efficacy (Saunders et al., 2013).

The study took place within a large urban district with 40,000 students in grades TK-12 and approximately 10,000 ELs at 54 total sites with four comprehensive and four smaller specialty high schools. As such, the data will be relevant to any California school districts that

are also evaluating the success of their ELs and are considering what instructional methods, professional learning experiences, and district and site-wide practices can be implemented to improve ELD.

The researcher has served as a classroom teacher, Peer Assistance and Review (PAR) consulting teacher, instructional coach, and instructional specialist all within District XYZ over the past 25-year period. ELs have been a focus of her work in various capacities. Currently, as an instructional specialist in the Language Development Office, her diverse district serves approximately 10,000 EL students per day. At the K-12 levels, students receive their protected ELD time each school day in addition to integrated instruction. Over 60% of secondary EL students are LTELs, and most have been in District XYZ since kindergarten.

As an instructional specialist, the researcher's primary objective is to provide professional learning and continued support to K-12 designated and integrated teachers focusing on the teaching and learning cycle, which emphasizes language acquisition and the functions of language so that students can better understand their content courses. Ultimately, the overreaching goal is for EL students to achieve proficiency in English and become Reclassified Fluent English Proficient (RFEP). Teachers of ELs face considerable uncertainty through changing state and federal mandates, nonexistent or impractical curriculums, high turnover rates, and a lack of instructional direction and support, all of which can lead educators to believe that efforts to instruct ELs are ineffective.

As with many professions, the field of education is laden with acronyms and unique terminology that is scarcely used in other professions. The relevant terms are defined below.

California English Language Development Test (CELDT): According to the California Department of Education (2015), the California English Language Development Test (CELDT)

is given as an initial assessment to newly enrolled students whose primary language is not English, and as an annual assessment to English Learners enrolled in transitional kindergarten through grade 12 in California public schools. The CELDT began phasing out of use in the spring of 2018.

Designated ELD: Designated English Language Development is dedicated or protected time during the regular school day where teachers use the CA ELD standards to help ELs develop their English skills (California Department of Education, 2015).

English Language Proficiency Assessment for California (ELPAC): In 2018, the California Department of Education transitioned from the CELDT to the English Language Proficiency Assessment for California (ELPAC) as the new state English language assessment. The ELPAC is aligned with the 2012 California English Language Development Standards and is divided into two segments: the initial evaluation and the summative assessment (California Department of Education, 2017).

English Learner (EL): An English Learner (EL) is a student who studies English as a second language and has not yet become Reclassified Fluent English Proficient (Olsen, 2010).

Integrated ELD: Integrated ELD instruction is when teachers of ELs apply the CA ELD Standards in conjunction with the CA Common Core State Standards (California Department of Education, 2015).

Long-Term English Learner (LTEL): An English Learner who has been in US schools for more than six years without gaining sufficient English proficiency to reclassify (Olsen, 2010).

Reclassified Fluent English Proficient (RFEP): Students who have demonstrated their proficiency in English through the CELDT or ELPAC in addition to a second indicator determined by their districts. RFEPs no longer participate in ELD classes. Their academic

progress in English language arts is monitored for two additional years. If an RFEP fails to advance, other interventions may be implemented to meet his or her learning needs (California Department of Education, 2010).

Teaching and Learning Cycle (TLC): The teaching and learning cycle is a four-part instructional method which includes building students' content knowledge, teaching them about the text types they are studying, and jointly constructing texts before independent writing. Several instructional strategies are embedded within the four parts of the cycle (Gibbons, 2008).

Research Questions

The following research questions were drafted to determine if teacher perception of EL instruction affects their instructional practices, and if support through the teaching and learning cycle affects this perception over time.

1. How does training in the teaching and learning cycle affect teachers' instruction and the use of language acquisition strategies?
2. How does ongoing classroom support affect teachers' ability to create oral language opportunities for students?
3. Does the presence or lack of presence of district and site-level commitment to language acquisition influence teacher-created opportunities for writing language?
4. Does the presence or lack of presence of district and site-level commitment to language acquisition influence teachers' efficacy towards their instruction for ELs?

Theories of Practice

Upon introduction of the 2012 California English Language Development Standards, the state finally acknowledged that many ELs do not receive the support necessary to progress in language development and other academic subjects, which gives rise to the Long-Term English

Learner (LTEL) phenomenon. Olsen (2010) reported that these students are fluent in conversational English but are challenged by academic English, making their coursework considerably more difficult. It is unfortunately common for ELs to plateau at the social level of English for several reasons. First, when an EL student reaches this level of language proficiency, the adults who interact with this student may overlook the signs of a language discrepancy. In classes where students communicate with peers and teachers on a more casual level, the language deficiencies might even go undetected. Second, it is not until close examination of the EL student's reading, writing, listening, and academic speaking skills that the gap appears. Third, teachers are uncertain how to help their students advance beyond this plateau; it is at this point that ELs must engage with the nuances of language to achieve professional, academic English. When students plateau in their language development, especially if this plateau lasts for several years, state and federal agencies may question why so much funding has not produced more significant results.

This study employs two theoretical frameworks that address the language acquisition and teacher self-efficacy components of this process. The first of these is Halliday's theories of language acquisition, which focuses on the function of language as a process of making meaning over the course of several decades. As he states, "the distinctive characteristic of human learning is that it is a process of making meaning—a semiotic process; and the prototypical semiotic form of human semiotic is language" (Halliday, 1993, p. 93). Upon launching the Language Development Project as a national curriculum in Australia in 1977, Halliday proposed adopting a threefold perspective of "learning language, learning through language, learning about language" (p. 113). His framework is the foundation in the later works of several researchers, including Spycher (2007) and Spycher and Linn-Nieves (2014), who are among the first in California to

approach teaching ELs using the TLC, which contains all of Halliday's recommendations about learning a language.

The TLC Model, the second of the aforementioned pedagogical frameworks, demonstrates that teaching ELD is not merely the teaching of material through reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Instead, students are introduced to a variety of critical texts. These texts are not lengthy, but are rigorous enough to begin development of a student's content knowledge for a given subject. This study is grounded in the TLC Model and follows the TLC figure following this discussion. Step one is building content knowledge; step two is learning about the text type of the current content; step three is jointly constructing texts together; and step four is independently writing texts.

Building content knowledge can be accomplished through dedicated inquiry, observations, predictions, close reading, charting, and pictorial input (Spycher & Linn-Nieves, 2014). In general, teachers are accustomed to building content knowledge in their classrooms. What differs here is the variety of resources that can be used to build content knowledge beyond reliance on the textbook. The authors then advocate for the practice of instructional approaches and strategies such as text reconstruction, text deconstruction, collaborative sentence reconstruction, and verb charts. These methods allow the students to become experts on the language associated with particular text types. It is at this point in the TLC that instruction has failed to meet the linguistic needs of ELs. K-12 teachers commonly overlook the types of language present within the texts they are covering since teacher exposure to these instructional practices is rare.

After students become experienced with these learning methods, they are ready to begin jointly constructing texts with their teachers and peers. This is another area in the TLC that is

either overlooked or misinterpreted by teachers. In this phase, students collaborate to construct sentences and paragraphs using their knowledge of the relevant content and text type. Many teachers believe they jointly construct texts with their students, but most are simply modeling their own, already proficient writing styles and leaving little to no room for student experimentation and comprehension. It is only through these joint efforts that students can make this process their own so that, when they are tested in their abilities to construct paragraphs independently, they will be experienced enough to do so. The students will then have all the experience necessary to independently write journals, essays, and on-demand writing and editing assignments. No other study has shown a direct link between the teaching and learning cycle and teachers' perceptions of their effectiveness in working with ELs.

When teachers ignore any of the steps leading up to independent construction, students will not be successful. Teachers often move directly from instruction to independent writing, leaving many students uncertain how to begin. This contributes to the plateau phenomenon.

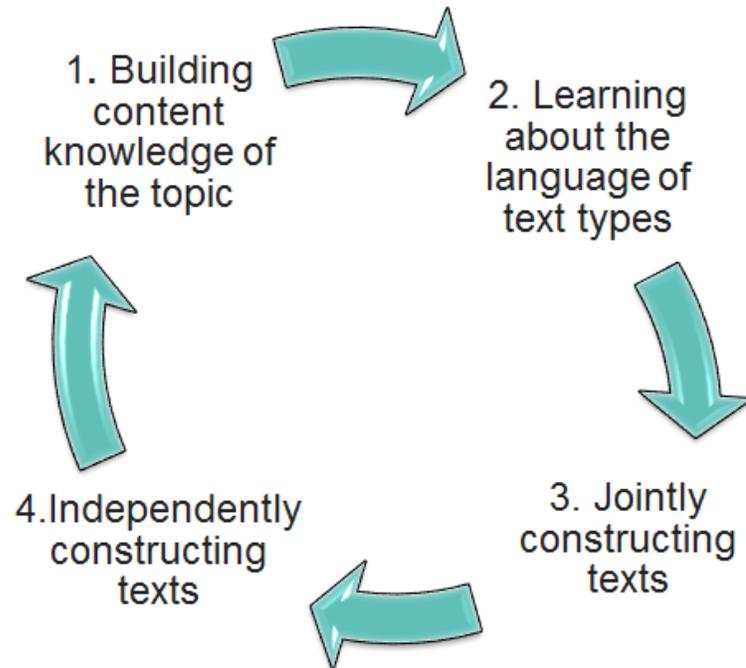


Figure 1. The teaching and learning cycle (Spycher & Linn Nieves, 2014).

Theoretical Framework

The examination of teacher self-efficacy, based on Bandura's social cognitive theory (1997), includes four expectations: (a) mastery experiences, (b) physiological and emotional states, (c) vicarious experiences, and (d) social persuasion. Teacher efficacy is the teacher's assessment of his or her ability to effectively instruct a class (Bandura, 1997). For example, if a teacher is successful in mastering a task, this will build self-esteem and increase self-efficacy. Likewise, a failure or sense of failure will undermine self-efficacy.

Limitations

The study has the following limitations:

1. District XYZ hired 250 new teachers for the 2017-18 academic year. Many do not have credentials and are working towards emergency credentials.

2. District XYZ is experiencing a shortage of substitute teachers, making it difficult to offer professional learning during contractual hours.
3. There is a high turnover rate for the teachers, making it difficult to build capacity as an organization.

Delimitations

The delimitations utilized in the study were designed to better understand the relationship between teacher perceptions of their EL instruction via the teaching and learning cycle (Spycher & Linn-Nieves, 2014) and the presence of Saunders' (2013) global guidelines at the district and site-levels. Only teachers in District XYZ who have ELs in their K-12 classes participated in the project. The exclusive use of District XYZ's teachers did not allow the researcher to explore the perceptions of educators from other districts.

Assumptions

This study includes the following assumptions:

1. The participating teachers responded to the survey by indicating their perceptions of teaching ELs.
2. The participating teachers understood the terminology associated with ELD programs and curriculums.
3. The data collected measures the knowledge, skill levels, and perceptions of the teachers' abilities to work efficiently with ELs to gain proficiency in the English language.
4. The interpretation of the data accurately reflects the perceptions of the participants.

Organization of the Study

This study contains five chapters. Chapter 1 includes the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the significance of the study, the definition of

terms, the theoretical framework, research questions, limitations, delimitations, and assumptions of the study. Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature, which includes ELD guidelines, professional development for teachers, principal leadership, teacher efficacy, and the phenomenon of LTELs. Chapter 3 describes the methodology used for the study along with the procedure for selecting participants, instrumentation, the collection of data, and data analysis. Chapter 4 reveals the study's findings, including testing the research questions and data analysis for the three research questions. Chapter 5 provides a summary of the study, discussion of the results, implications of the findings for practice, and recommendations for further research and implementation.

Researcher's Perspective

As an educator with more than 25 years of experience in a large urban district with thousands of ELs at both the elementary and secondary levels, the focus of effective instruction has long been a personal priority. Seeing the data of ELs plateauing in their progress at the social level of English proficiency, and noting the number of ELs who entered the district as kindergarteners and graduate high school still as ELs has caused the researcher to consider the effectiveness of ELD instruction. Additionally, after working with teachers and administrators of ELs, finding no one who felt secure with their instruction for ELs, and often finding only teachers who were able to state that ELs needed "good instruction," the researcher continued seeking answers. After searching for an instructional answer for years, and then herself being exposed to professional learning with the TLC, the researcher wondered if this could be a possible solution to California's crisis of EL students not reaching English proficiency.

With little relief in sight for ELs, the exploration and consideration of Spycher and Linn-Nieves' TLC (2014) for future linguistic advancements for K-12 ELs is a worthy endeavor.

Considering teachers' perceptions of their instructional effectiveness as they are exposed to the TLC will offer insight into better meeting the instructional needs of ELs (Saunders et al., 2013). The implementation of TLC and ELD guidelines will provide a clear framework for districts and sites to pair with timely, relevant content in both designated and integrated ELD courses.

Summary

As Téllez (2004) reports, when bilingual education was born in the 1960s, teachers were given only vague directions such as “speak in Spanish,” and professional learning involved sending teachers to Mexico to learn Spanish. Additionally, bilingual and newcomer classes were often relegated to the back of high school campuses in rundown portables. These practices continued for over 30 years.

The issue of teacher quality for ELs was not raised until the 1990s, and it is still relevant today. The data shows a history of both underperforming ELs and unprepared teachers working with those ELs. Consequently, districts and sites with fewer solutions often resort to quick fix strategies.

Vargas (2012) contends it is apparent that, even when schools work towards creating professional learning communities, many teachers still believe their efforts to meet the needs of their EL students are ineffective. Districts across the nation have invested hundreds of thousands of dollars in the PLC process—from training their teachers to redesigning schedules—for more collaborative time, yet the uncertainty still remains.

Other researchers, such as Saunders et al. (2013), have explained that, though a great deal of awareness has been raised about ELs and their needs, little research has been focused on the effects of instruction on ELs, emphasizing the uncertainty of what instruction ELs require.

Instead, Saunders et al. offer guidelines for districts and sites regarding what useful instruction for ELs could look like.

Olsen (2010) alerted the entire academic world to the plight of LTELs by highlighting the sheer number of them at the secondary level, and many of them have attended Californian schools for their entire academic careers. She outlined the causes as a lack of ELD services, poorly designed curriculums, and teachers who mean well but are nonetheless underprepared.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides the rationale for investigating the relationship between teachers' perceptions of ELD effectiveness, their instructional choices, and how the district and site-levels of commitment to ELs appear to educators. As Saunders et al. (2013) and Olsen (2010) reported, there are numerous studies of ELD instruction which examine such aspects as peer interaction, use of language, and proficiency; but far fewer examine the instruction itself and its effects, and even fewer are concerned with teacher perception.

According to the California Department of Education (2014) and Californians together (2017), ELs come to California schools from across the world—even from California. They arrive from diverse backgrounds, socioeconomic statuses, levels of English comprehension, immigrant experiences, and cultural backgrounds. Olsen (2010) noted that students do not enter kindergarten believing that they have years of struggling ahead of them, possibly even their entire K-12 experiences. Likewise, parents of ELs do not take their children to the first day of kindergarten imagining they will fail to become proficient in English during their projected thirteen years of public school. How well a teacher can support the diverse needs of these students depends significantly on their knowledge of cognitive development, native language literacy, the phenomenon of LTELs, and the application of designated and integrated ELD core courses within the classroom.

ELs often spend years in classes without receiving any EL services, and if a student does receive EL services, they may be from teachers without the preparation, support, or strategies to address their needs (Téllez, 2004; Vargas, 2012; Olsen, 2010). Secondary education teachers generally specialize in specific core subjects and are unused to handling ELD (Olsen, 2010). Consequently, few teachers feel they have the tools, skills, or preparation to meet the needs of

their EL students (Olsen, 2010). Therefore, this study will examine the relationship between teachers' perceptions of their capacities to teach ELs and their exposure to professional learning over time. Does a teacher's perception of his or her ability to teach ELD and integrated classes affect the instruction? Do exposure, training, practice, and follow-ups regarding ELD strategies and integrated courses affect teacher perception of their instruction? Does the presence or non-presence of the guidelines provided by Saunders et al. (2013) affect teachers' perceptions of their ELs and the instruction they deliver?

The following is a review of the literature pertinent to the EDD candidate's study: teacher preparation, professional learning, teacher perception, ELD instruction, and LTELs. Chapter 2 is organized into six sections: (a) global guidelines, (b) organizational guidelines, (c) curricular guidelines, (d) instructional guidelines (e) teacher efficacy, and (f) teacher support.

Teacher Efficacy

Researchers agree that teachers enter the profession with the best intentions, but are unprepared to effectively teach ELs and are overwhelmed by the demands of their class sizes, the lack of resources provided by the district and school site, and the students' diverse range of English comprehension (Goddard et al., 2000; Olsen, 2010; Soto 2012). The California Department of Education (2012), with the adoption of the ELD standards, has responded by recommending that districts embed one course, Designated ELD, that specifically focuses on ELD while also attempting to incorporate Integrated ELD experiences within all core classes. This is a positive step, but hardly enough to meet the specific needs of ELs or their teachers (Olsen, 2010; Soto, 2012). Most states do not require any certification for teaching ELs, and both preservice and professional development are required to improve instruction and student achievement.

Gandara et al. (2005) stated, “although empirical studies are limited, we do have some knowledge of the kinds of preparation that teachers need to be successful with linguistic minority students, based on qualitative studies and expert opinion (p. 3). When Gandara et al. (2005) and Gibbons (2008) found that the most successful EL teachers are those who can efficiently communicate with students and parents, and who have the skills to teach the mechanics and nuances of language for different contexts and purposes. The authors also note that these teachers possess a sense of self-confidence in their abilities to teach ELs (Gandara et al., 2005; Goddard et al., 2000).

In the research of Gandara et al. (2005), nearly 530 teachers responded to the online or paper-and-pencil study. One of the more significant findings was that “the more preparation that teachers had for working with ELs, the more likely they were to cite challenges involving shortcomings in instructional programs and resources for these students” (p. 10). Gandara et al. (2005) also found that higher preparation for teaching English Learners equaled greater teacher confidence. Specifically, there was a difference in self-rated ability between teachers with a Bilingual California Language and Development Credential (BCLAD) and those without special certification, though neither a California Language and Development (CLAD) nor a BCLAD were statistically significant in every area of instruction (Gandara et al., 2005). The researchers further explain that teachers who underwent any professional development that focused on increasing skills for teaching EL students rated themselves significantly higher in these categories than teachers with no such training, further supporting the work of Cantrell and Hughes (2008). The survey data indicates that professional events of this sort make a difference in teacher confidence when educating ELs.

Goddard et al. (2000), along with Prelli (2014), who advocated providing support for all staff, also examined collective teacher efficacy. Specifically, Goddard et al. (2000) noted that the perceptions of teachers in a school that the efforts of the faculty, as a whole, will have a positive impact on students. Bandura's (1977, 1986, & 1997) social cognitive theory is a unified theory of behavioral change. Goddard et al. (2000) describe social cognitive theory as a means of explaining how people exercise some level of control over their own lives. Central to the exercise of authority is the sense of self-efficacy: the "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute a course of action required to produce a given attainment" (Goddard, 1997, p. 3).

Goddard et al. (2000) reported that the significant influences on efficacy beliefs are assumed to be the attribution, analysis, and interpretation of the four sources of information about efficacy as described by Bandura's (1986, 1997) social cognitive theory. These four sources are: mastery experience, physiological arousal, vicarious experience, and verbal persuasion. Additionally, Goddard et al. (2000) reveal another layer of consideration to Olsen (2010) and Soto's (2012) work on the state of teachers being overwhelmed by instruction for ELs. Goddard et al. (2000) explained that teachers do not feel equally effective in all teaching situations. Teacher efficacy is context-specific. "Teachers feel efficacious for teaching particular subjects to certain students in specific settings, and they can be expected to feel more or less efficacious under different circumstances" (Goddard et al., 2000, p. 483). Because collective teacher efficacy beliefs shape the normative environment of a school, they have a strong influence on teacher behavior and, consequently, student achievement (Goddard et al., 2000). Based on self-efficacy theory, the authors suggest that, when collective efficacy is high, teachers in a school believe they can reach their students and that they can overcome harmful external influences. Given these beliefs, teachers are more persistent in their efforts, they plan

more, they accept responsibility for student achievement, and they are not discouraged by setbacks and failures.

Goddard et al. (2000) and Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk-Hoy, and Hoy (1998) explain that, at the center of theoretical rationale—which illustrates the relationship between teacher efficacy and student achievement—is Bandura’s (1997) theory of triadic reciprocal causation, which indicates that collective teacher efficacy affects the overall effort that individual teachers put forth. In short, collective teacher efficacy is an extension of personal teacher efficacy. Guskey (1984) and Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) explained that higher teacher efficacy was related to more positive instructional experiences versus negative experiences.

Building on the framework of Goddard et al. (2004) and Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), Prelli (2014) noted a critical threat to teacher efficacy. Prelli (2014) asserted that an increase in the number of ELs within a certain grade level or content area could disrupt the efficacy of the staff. Prelli’s (2014) quantitative study included 93 grade-level teams with 306 teachers within 15 schools. It was conducted to determine what behaviors a leader could implement to improve collective teacher efficacy within a school site.

Prelli (2014) and Goddard et al. (2004) found four methods to improve collective efficacy. The first concept, mastery experiences, ensures that workers are recognized for their successful work. Therefore, an effective leader must provide the necessary support and resources to facilitate success within the school. The second method is vicarious experience: watching others perform the task. Prelli (2014) elaborated on the work of Goddard et al. (2004) and noted that a leader might improve collective efficacy by utilizing social persuasion: sharing stories of past successes. Lastly, leaders might also encourage joy and excitement for the successes experienced at work to improve morale.

Hoy and Woolfolk (1993) and Prelli (2014), like Goddard et al., (2004), provided options for administrators to consider as they determine methods to improve schools. The researchers recommended that, when a team or faculty evinces concerns about their abilities to be successful with all students, a leader might consider, among other strategies, providing support for all staff. According to the researchers, a teachers' confidence is directly related to his or her sense of how the administrator deals with district superiors on behalf of teachers so they can develop and influence student learning. The support and feedback of administrators has been shown to have a high correlation with collective teacher efficacy (Goddard et al., 2000).

Goddard et al. (2012) further expound that it is essential to provide feedback and employ collaborative strategies to develop leadership teams within the school community. This feedback and sense of support by the organization helps teachers to develop the best strategies for all learners, which, in turn, improves collective teacher efficacy (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993; Goddard et al., 2000).

Classroom Support

Researchers have demonstrated that coaching for increased teacher efficacy—both self-efficacy and instructional efficacy—was an essential component to various educational reforms, including No Child Left Behind, Reading First, and Early Reading First (Cantrell & Hughes, 2008; Sailors, 2008; Shidler, 2008). Additionally, educational leaders seeking to improve teacher performance have also incorporated coaching into the methodology (Shidler, 2008). Shidler examined the relationship between hours spent coaching teachers in content instruction and student achievements. The coaching practice within the study included balancing time between four components: (a) instruction for specific content, (b) modeling techniques and instructional methods, (c) observing teacher practices, and (d) consulting for reflection.

Shidler (2008), as well as Cantrell and Hughes (2008), conducted a longer-term study over one to three years exploring the effects of long-term professional development on instruction and teacher efficacy. Shidler (2008) included over 300 children in 12 Head Start classrooms in various elementary schools. Over those three years, teachers attended college courses on emergent literacy. Shidler (2008) explained that teachers also participated in approximately 40 hours of classroom instruction and “after each session, coaches visited the classroom and emphasized the learning in the coursework as well as model practices that support instruction in emergent literacy, supporting the transfer of theory to practice” (p. 455). In the second year of the study, the coaches spent more time in the classrooms with the teachers, coaching on the instruction of literacy as well as general teaching matters. In year three, coaches spent less time in the classroom than in year two, but more than in year one. Shidler (2008) reported that it is vital to improve teacher efficacy: “to do so, coaches need to focus on specific content, model techniques and instructional practices, observe teacher practices, and dedicate consultative hours to working with teachers when children are not present in order to better facilitate reflection” (p. 459). Shidler (2008) further advised, “instructing teachers in a content area, while facilitating and supporting new practices, enables teachers to move theory into practice.”

Supporting and adding an additional layer of information to Shidler (2008), Sailors (2008) illustrated that updated policies have elevated coaching into a favorable model of professional development. Schools and districts now hire literacy and math coaches to implement new practices and support teachers with instruction, improving teacher efficacy. Cantrell and Hughes (2008) investigated the effects of yearlong professional development with coaching for 6-9th grade teachers exploring the relationship between teacher efficacy and content

literacy approaches. This study utilized surveys, participation in professional development, interviews, and instructional observations.

Cantrell and Hughes (2008) found “significant improvements in teachers’ personal and general efficacy for literacy teaching and in teachers’ collective teaching efficacy” (p. 97). Additionally, “teachers who demonstrated higher efficacy before participating in professional development were more likely to implement the recommended content literacy practices,” (p. 97). Guskey (2002), like Cantrell and Hughes (2008), noted that, when teachers feel they do not have the knowledge or skills to deal with specific situations, their sense of efficacy for that situation can decrease and they are less willing to implement literacy instructional practices. Likewise, Guskey (2002) explained that, while teacher efficacy may increase student achievement, student achievement may improve teacher efficacy. Additionally, Cantrell and Hughes (2008) and Guskey (2002) explained that when teachers implement new practices, their senses of efficacy will drop as they struggle in the early stages, but will rise again as they gain proficiency.

Cantrell and Hughes (2008), like Shidler (2008), included teachers who participated in professional development focused on providing teachers with literacy techniques to improve student reading. The participants also engaged in a weeklong summer institute, two follow-up meetings, and in-class coaching. Cantrell and Hughes (2008) concluded from their research that coaching has the potential to support the development of teachers’ efficacy as they implement new programs or strategies, but explain that while “rigorous research studies on coaching are scarce, scholars have recommended providing coaching support for teachers for many years,” (p. 108). This study, along with others, affirms the importance of dedicating time to support

teachers' beliefs that they can make a difference in student learning, regardless of perceived barriers (Shidler, 2008).

Overall, the examination of teacher self-efficacy, based on Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory, includes four sources of efficacy expectations: mastery experiences, physiological and emotional states, vicarious experiences, and social persuasion. Bandura illustrated that mastery experiences are potent sources of efficacy. When applied to teaching, teacher efficacy is the teacher's assessment of his or her capability to organize and execute teaching and learning processes (Bandura, 1997). For example, if a teacher is successful in mastering a task, this success will build self-esteem and increase self-efficacy; likewise, a failure or sense of failure will undermine that belief of self-efficacy (Hoy & Woolfolk, 1993; Goddard et al., 2000).

Past practices for K-12 students and teachers have shown that districts often seek a quick fix by purchasing new packaged programs, virtually ignoring the work of Bandura (1997). These actions ultimately lead to additional senses of failure because the programs do not address the specific language needs of ELs (Olsen, 2010; Prelli, 2014).

Furthermore, money is often devoted to professional learning for teachers who work with ELs, but the training provided is typically a one-time experience where K-12 teachers sit in a room for several hours to simply hear about these strategies. They are then expected to return to their busy classrooms and implement these strategies in isolation without the coaching recommended by Goddard et al. (2004), Prelli (2014), and Shidler (2008). As illustrated by Olsen (2010) and Soto (2012), teachers are often unsure if they are implementing language acquisition strategies correctly and are concerned how this might affect their EL students, which leads to further experiences of defeat, leading to a lowered sense of self-efficacy.

Global Guidelines

Just as other researchers have noted (Goddard et al., 2000; Olsen, 2010; Soto 2012), teachers enter the profession with the best intentions, but they are often worn down by the demands of their class sizes, lack of resources, the students' diverse range of English comprehension, and inadequate preparation to meet the needs of this specific student population. In response to its large EL population, the State of California (2011) has implemented one course that focuses specifically on ELD in addition to integrating ELD into teacher preparation requirements. Soto (2012) regards this as a positive step, but hardly enough to address the specific needs of ELs or the demands that teachers experience when teaching them. The author further notes that most states do not require any certification for teaching ELs, and both preservice and professional development are required to facilitate instructional and achievement change.

Soto (2012) contended that all teachers need focused, sustained, and aligned professional development once they enter the field. If they receive little to no training beforehand, as noted by both Soto (2012) and Wei et al. (2009), it is imperative that they receive professional learning once they are in the field. Soto (2012) references *Learning Forward*:

Teachers are not getting adequate training in teaching special education or limited English proficiency students. More than two-thirds of teachers nationally had not even one day of training in supporting the learning of special education or EL students during the previous three years. (Wei et al., 2009, p. 6)

Soto (2012) and Soto-Hinman and Hetzel (2009) explain that teachers would benefit from a series of courses and experiences that would sensitize them to the needs of ELs. *Learning Forward* recommends that teachers receive fifty hours of such learning to develop the skills

needed to succeed with ELs. Thus, Soto (2012) explains that professional education must be ongoing, focused, and aligned—not continually changing as administrators and curriculums come and go. Teachers also need time to practice these skills so that students can optimize their learning.

Saunders et al. (2013) and Olsen (2010) agree that surprisingly little research examines the effects of instruction on English Language Development. “Since the Supreme Court’s 1974 *Lau v. Nichols* decision affirming that English learners must be guaranteed a ‘meaningful education,’ controversy over bilingual versus English-only education has dominated research and policy discussions of ELs” (Saunders et al., 2013, p. 13). Saunders et al. (2013) claimed that it is problematic to examine useful guidelines for K-12 ELD instruction in US schools since so little research on it exists. Therefore, in the absence of a comprehensive body of research, the field of ELD instruction has been driven mostly by theory.

The result is a large body of accepted practices that are not supported by research. For example, teachers, theorists, and researchers have realized that exposure and interaction might help promote fluency and communicative competence, but they are not sufficient for native like proficiency (Saunders et al., 2013). Therefore, teachers are left to doubt their abilities to lead their EL students to academic English proficiency (Goddard et al., 2000; Olsen 2010; Saunders et al., 2013). Helping ELs succeed academically is doubtlessly the most challenging and the most necessary goal in recent English Learner research (Saunders et al., 2013).

To this end, Saunders et al. (2013) developed four main headings for guiding instruction within an ELD program. Saunders et al. (2013) and Olsen (2010) advocated that providing ELD instruction in any form is more beneficial than not providing it. Furthermore, second-language instruction—designed to teach specific aspects of the second language—is more effective than

methods such as exposure-only, minimally-focused instruction, and minimal exposure. Students who received concentrated second-language instruction made more than five times the gains of students who did not.

Furthermore, ELD instruction should continue until ELs attain advanced proficiency (Olsen, 2010; Saunders et al., 2013). Saunders et al. (2013) explained that English Learners usually need four to six years to achieve what is considered *early advanced* proficiency (level 4, where level 1 is beginner and level 5 is advanced). However, only 50% of ELs reach an advanced level of proficiency by 5th grade. Average oral English proficiency approached the native like threshold. Progress from level 1 to level 3 is typically rapid, but slows significantly from levels 3 to 5. Olsen (2010) and Linn-Nieves (2018) agree by reporting that many ELs plateau at the middle level and never advance. Supporting Olsen's (2010) claims, Saunders et al. (2013) explained that it is evident through studies that allowed for comparisons with native English-speaker norms that the gap between ELs and native speakers widened across grade levels. Thus, it becomes more challenging for middle and high school teachers to meet the needs of EL students who have plateaued at the intermediate level.

According to Saunders et al. (2013), the likelihood of establishing and maintaining a successful school wide and district wide ELD instructional program is more likely when both the school and the district make it a priority. Prelli (2014) along with Saunders et al. (2013) agreed there is some consensus in the world of research that what is emphasized by the district and the school will shape what teachers do and what students learn. Saunders et al. (2013) cited two studies that found high-achieving California schools with large EL populations:

At the school level, according to administrators, there was a school-wide focus on ELD and standards-based instruction; shared priorities and expectations regarding the

education of ELs; and curriculum, instruction, and resources targeted at them. District administrators cited a shared vision and plan for EL achievement and professional development, resources, and school and classroom organization to support achievement. (p. 17)

Adding to Saunders et al.'s (2013) idea that Global Guidelines influence educators' perceptions, delivery of instruction, and the results of student success, Wiseman and McKeown (2010) investigated the ability of a leader to extract and multiply the intelligence that already exists within an organization. Wiseman and McKeown explored the phenomenon of leaders who drain the knowledge and competence of an organization. As with the districts and sites that make ELD instruction a priority in their communities, the same concept is found in *Multipliers*. Here, Wiseman and McKeown analyzed why some leaders, referred to as Multipliers, can create genius throughout their organizations and accomplish more with fewer resources. Others—Diminishers—eradicate the talent in the room by shutting down the organization members as they bask in their own intelligence.

Wiseman and McKeown (2010) analyzed data from 150 leaders and found that Multipliers cultivate two times the proficiency from their organization members than Diminishers do. And, in addition to harnessing the potential and intelligence that their employees already have, Multipliers also foster growth beyond the talent that was already there. It comes as no surprise that organization members report increased intelligence and productivity under the leadership of Multipliers. Wiseman and McKeown (2010) report that the logic is in multiplication, just as Prelli (2014) also noted by growing the skills of a site's own staff. Instead of pursuing linear growth by adding more resources, leaders should seek to multiply their organization's effectiveness by fostering and cultivating the talent and potential that is already

present. Leaders who pursue this methodology believe (a) most people in an organization are underutilized, (b) all capability can be leveraged with the right leadership, and (c) intelligence and capability can be multiplied without requiring a more significant investment (Wiseman & McKeown, 2010). How, then, might a site leader's management style influence a teacher's perception of his or her capabilities when facing the demanding needs of his or her EL students? According to the author, if a Multiplier leads a site, teachers will be twice as productive and feel more capable and empowered to teach their EL students.

Additionally, authors Dolson and Massey (2011), like Saunders et al. (2013), noted there is a lack of guidance in ELD instruction. These authors specifically cite the California State Board of Education (CSBE) and the CDE for not providing clear, consistent, research-based guidance to school districts regarding the implementation of the most effective ELD programs. Dolson and Massey (2011) argued there are several legal issues currently influencing this subject. For example, according to Dolson and Massey (2011), several CDE administrators were reluctant to highlight any research that might reveal shortcomings in the state's programs for ELs. Also, the CSBE consistently supports the idea that ELs are best aided when placed in mainstream core classes using mainstream English texts regardless of the ELs' lack of English comprehension. Dolson and Massey (2011) explained how the CDE and the CSBE have neglected to create their official guidelines regarding the role and potential of bilingual programs for meeting the needs of ELs within a district. According to Dolson and Massey (2011), state law and ELD research disagree.

Dolson and Massey (2011) reported that the CDE failed to fulfill its obligation to assist educators in coordinating research-based practices and state policy to address the needs of their ELs. Consequently, districts must work within the constraints of opposing views from research

and state policy. For example, California state law expects ELs to become proficient in English in only one academic year despite the plethora of research to the contrary. English Learners require anywhere from two to seven years to become proficient in English because there are several factors that influence the language development process, such as schooling experience, language aptitude, and socio-economic status (Dolson & Massey, 2011; Krashen, 1989; Olsen, 2010). Additionally, state law obstructs the districts' abilities to offer alternative bilingual programs despite that the research demonstrates that there are no grounds to support one program design over another.

Districts and schools deal with the increasingly challenging task of leading ELs to English proficiency within the constraints of the law and insufficient resources (Dolson & Massey, 2011; Goddard et al., 2000; Olsen, 2010; Soto, 2012). The authors feel obliged to assist educators who face the challenge of educating ELs, so they must make decisions based on the best available evidence (Dolson & Massey, 2011). The authors explain that their decision-making is based on their best judgment regarding the practical implications of current research, differentiating between sometimes-conflicting reports, and suggesting programmatic options that are most closely aligned to relevant research (Dolson & Massey, 2011).

Both Dolson and Massey (2011) and Olsen (2010), offer a program design that is the best available response to the linguistic, educational, socio-cultural, and psychological needs of ELs. They suggest a framework that includes dynamic ELD, sheltered content, and primary language and mainstream English instruction, which should all be organized and delivered according to the students' proficiency levels. They also advocate that core instruction should be accompanied with elements such as cooperative strategies, cultural competence and awareness, longer instructional time, and home-school collaboration. By using available research and being

provided with the necessary resources and support, educators should be able to implement programs that allow ELs to gain language development and access to grade-level core material (Dolson & Massey, 2011).

Along with challenges due to a lack of guidelines from the CDE and CSBE, districts and sites also face several obstacles, according to Dolson and Massey (2011) with further support from Olsen (2010). First, it is difficult to retain highly effective and trained teachers. Second, there is a lack of bilingual educators to provide primary language support. Third, high turnover rates in administrators at both the site and district-levels lead to a lack of trust from teachers. Fourth, home to school collaboration and community relations are neglected. Fifth, there is a lack of formal support for educators regarding coaching and professional development. Lastly, there is a lack of district policies and school plans to support comprehensive programs for ELs. The result is a creeping mediocrity in program implementation, which leads to unsatisfactory results for ELs.

Organizational Guidelines

Inspired by her EL parents, Soto (2012) demonstrated the organizational inequalities of educating ELs in her research. According to Soto (2012), the inequities experienced by her mother over fifty years ago continue today. Soto (2012) revealed the same sense of urgency seen in Olsen's (2010) work regarding LTELs in the United States. Just as Soto's mother was educated under such an unproductive curriculum that drove her to enroll in night classes, ELs face the same curricular shortcomings today (Soto, 2012). This curriculum will not give them the rigorous, academic, vocabulary-rich language that is requisite for college and the careers beyond (Soto, 2012).

Soto (2012) also reported that ELs have historically been silent and invisible; teachers often believe that ELs cannot do more than what they demonstrate through their limited language skills. This has led to a pandemic where one-third of California school districts have 75% of their students classified as LTELs (Olsen, 2010). Soto (2012) and Olsen (2010) warned other states to be aware of this crisis to prevent it from spreading to their own districts. Soto (2012) promoted EL shadowing, a strategy for experiencing a day in the life of an EL while explicitly observing the speaking and listening. EL shadowing is a professional development design where a teacher observes one EL student for an entire day. Soto reported that this is a powerful way to shed light on the specific linguistic and cultural needs of ELs. When shadowing is combined with follow-up professional development, educators can begin creating equity and systematic instructional access for ELs.

Soto (2012) introduced the EL shadowing project to create a sense of urgency around the needs of ELs; her goal is for this practice to be integrated with the teacher credentialing process and within professional development systems. Soto (2012) and Olsen (2010) agree with the different types of ELs in the classroom: (a) highly-educated or undereducated newcomers from their home countries; (b) LTELs who have been in the US for six years or longer; and (c) ELs who are progressing through the language development sequence. Soto referenced Olsen's (2010) claim that it is imperative for professional development to be tailored specifically to the needs of ELs at the school site. If most ELs are midrange, which is extremely common in California schools, then the shadowing experience should be focused on midlevel students. Soto (2012) illustrates that this practice will bring to light the needs of students at this proficiency level while encouraging all teachers at the site to focus on this one type of student, and not the entire EL population. Teachers will feel less overwhelmed if they can focus on one community.

Soto (2012) explained the shadowing project allows the organization—whether it is by district, county office, school site, or grade level—to focus on the specific needs of an EL through the lens of one child. Soto (2012) detailed how these systems do not have the opportunity to reflect on their practices and focus their efforts in just one direction. Thus, the EL shadowing project is the vehicle that provides that opportunity. It requires only two days for shadowing, which then allows for focused professional development along with follow-ups to address the linguistic and cultural needs so that ELs can progress in attaining linguistic proficiency (Soto, 2012). Previously, Barnett (1985) detailed the same conclusions as Soto (2012) by using principals in a shadowing project. According to Barnett (1985), “The research Schmoker (2006) conducted employed a variety of data collection strategies; the two main methods were shadowing and reflective interviewing” (p. 174). Participants were provided with shadowing instructions that emphasized how to take accurate, descriptive notes and how to assume a non-threatening stance during shadows (Barnett, 1985). Barnett (1985) explained that, since principals are often isolated in their own schools, they are unable to witness how other administrators handle common occurrences. However, through the shadowing process, according to Barnett (1985) and Soto (2012), principals gain new insights just the same as educators who shadow an EL student over a period of time.

Soto (2012) and Barnett (1985) noted how participants in their shadowing projects changed their views from these experiences. Soto (2012) explains that this can be the first step in creating systematic change, which will assist teachers in building their perceptions of their abilities to achieve success with ELs. Focusing on one student who represents many others will grant teachers the confidence to take control in overwhelming situations so that they can effectively improve their instructional methods.

Alford and Nino (2011) and Soto (2012) highlighted the organizational inequities of preparing teachers to work with ELs. Though the growth of the EL population has been seven times higher than the rate of students in general, many teachers are unprepared to meet the needs of their EL students. Alford and Nino (2011) report that new teachers emerging from teacher preparation programs are continuing the trend of not understanding how to respond to the diverse linguistic needs of their students. While principals seek teachers who tolerate late hours, they also require knowledge and skills in content and language acquisition to teach ELs effectively. In their book, Alford and Nino (2011) build a bridge between relevant research and implementing systems that lead to building capacity, promoting effective instructional strategies, and continuing teachers' learning through professional development. The authors identify the single most powerful trait of schools that have had exemplary recognition on state's accountability measures. All teachers at these sites are English as a Second Language Certified (ESL), use ESL strategies, and monitor their results.

Alford and Nino (2011) report teachers with even a slight amount of knowledge in the second language acquisition process are better suited to address the needs of their EL students than those with none. This is essential knowledge for all teachers who are new to teaching ELs, and they must be given the opportunity to practice with support from instructional leaders, whether that happens in a teacher preparation program or by a site administrator. However, Hillock (2009) adds another dimension to Alford and Nino (2011) by placing some responsibility of learning on students, and not solely on the instruction provided by teachers. Hillock (2009) explained that "If the teacher is the only one who counts in these matters, then perhaps one practice, method, or paradigm is no better than any other. But if the learning of students counts,

then there can be no question that some methods, practices, and even paradigms are better than others” (p. 27).

As in any functioning organization, the role of the leader is vital, and the same is true for principals as leaders of their schools. According to Alford and Nino (2011), the most challenging step in building a school’s capacity for reclassifying ELs is not the dissemination of knowledge to staff members, but helping them develop and adjust their skills as they implement their new knowledge. Alford and Nino (2011) also note that it is critical for the school culture that the staff does not blame the students for their lack of proficiency. Alford and Nino (2011), along with previous research by Peterson (1986), agree that the principal must work diligently with faculty members to build their confidence to efficiently respond to the diverse needs of their EL students.

To build this confidence, the authors defined the Spanish word: *confianza*. It means trust, mutual respect, comfort, familiarity, and understanding based on experience, which leads to confidence in oneself, in the other person, and in the relationship (Alford & Nino, 2013). *Confianza* in professional development means that the principal has confidence that the teachers will implement the skills necessary to meet the needs of their EL students. Likewise, the faculty must have confidence in the principal to lead them and provide the resources required to allow efficient instruction (Alford & Nino, 2013). Schlechty (2008) emphasized that school leaders must find solutions to more complex challenges to create an environment in which all students can succeed. Principals are the catalysts for positive change for parents, students, community members, and the faculty (Peterson, 1986; Alford & Nino, 2013).

Curriculum Guidelines

In addition to global, organizational, and instructional guidelines for creating and sustaining effective ELD programs within a district and site, there are curricular guidelines that must also be employed. Saunders et al. (2013) recommend that curriculum and instruction should emphasize both academic and conversational language. Instruction should incorporate the four domains of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. Saunders et al. (2013) and Umansky and Reardon (2014) also recommend that English should be used the majority of the time in the classroom with primary language support used strategically. Umansky and Reardon (2014) found that students reclassified more quickly in non-dual immersion and bilingual schools, supporting the findings of Saunders et al. (2013).

Saunders et al. (2013) reported that most of the existing research and evidence of explicitly teaching language forms originates from studies involving college and adult students. The authors emphasize that these research projects have been narrow in scope and examine only one feature of the language. Virtually no research exists for the secondary level (Olsen, 2010; Saunders et al., 2013). One can speculate that this might be because only vague guidelines of ELD curricular options have been provided by the CDE, leaving little for researchers to utilize with confidence (Saunders et al., 2013)

Instructional Guidelines

Multiple researchers have urged for change in EL instruction (Calderon & Minaya-Rowe 2011; Olsen, 2010; Soto, 2012; Tellez, 2004). Olsen (2010) and the CDE (2018) highlighted the majority of teenagers are not new to the country but have often been enrolled in US schools since kindergarten; 80% of these students were born in the United States and are second to third generation immigrants. Tienda (2007) noted that the EL population continues to grow in US

schools with projections that Latinos will continue to have the highest birthrates when they are the majority in most states and most schools. Calderon and Minaya-Rowe (2011) added that older ELs face even more significant challenges based on the higher cognitive demands of having to read, write, and comprehend rigorous content knowledge and demonstrate their proficiency in critical examinations. The authors note that ELs have neither the time nor the skills to catch up to their peers or compete academically (Calderon & Minaya-Rowe, 2011)

Calderon and Minaya-Rowe (2011) argued that preventing ELs from becoming LTELs begins in kindergarten. Schomker (2006) and Spycher and Linn-Nieves (2014) agreed that ELs require the capacity to read something, talk to someone about it, and write about it, which necessitates a content-rich curriculum for all students. Calderon and Minaya-Rowe (2011) investigated a report produced by the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth, where 18 researchers spent three years identifying studies that met their strict criteria. They studied 1,800 publications, with 300 matching their standards, and identified seven significant findings. Significant to the research of this dissertation is the conclusion that, “regardless of the program type (English as a Second Language (ESL), transitional bilingual, or dual language), what matters most is quality of instruction,” (p. 7).

Calderon and Minaya-Rowe (2011) reported that the quality of instruction that a school obtains is highly dependent on the school leader. The principals set the culture for continuous professional learning on a timetable and determine the speed of change. LTELs have become disillusioned experts in reading their teachers’ attitudes and dispositions towards them; it will take genuine care and concern to bring them back (Olsen, 2010; Calderon & Minaya-Rowe, 2011). Calderon and Minaya-Rowe (2011) offer several recommendations for administrators to consider when hiring ELD teachers, all stressing that these teachers must have completed ESL

literacy courses and possess a commitment to the vision and goals of the chosen educational program. Research shows that, regardless of the plan of instruction, teacher effectiveness has the most significant impact on student learning (Darling-Hammond, 2009; National Reading Panel, 2000; Wright, Horn, & Sanders, 1997). As teachers learn, so do their students (Calderon & Minaya-Rowe, 2011).

Like other authors, Calderon and Minaya-Rowe (2011) and Peterson (1986) reported that quality instruction is inextricably linked to the site leader. For meaningful progress to occur on campus for ELD, the site leader must create a culture of teachers working together for the advancement of their ELs. This culture includes professional development, planning time, analyzing instructional practices, and reviewing work together. The principal must evaluate the professional development needs of the staff, provide capacity-building, implement reform initiatives with appropriate use of resources, and continue to monitor the process (Calderon & Minaya-Rowe, 2011).

Calderon and Minaya-Rowe (2011), as well as Cammarata and Tedick (2012), consider that content teachers do not know how to teach grammar, writing, or vocabulary and often feel uncomfortable doing so. Teachers cannot teach and assume EL students will learn. As Cammarata and Tedick (2012) report, teachers' practice of balancing content and language is a complicated struggle that involves understanding the relationship between language and content.

Calderon and Minaya-Rowe (2011) recommend following the model of how ELs learn conversational English: through context-embedded opportunities. When this process occurs in content-embedded subject areas, EL students are more prepared with the necessary vocabulary to succeed. All core teachers who have EL students must be involved in this process and receive the required professional development to integrate academic vocabulary, reading comprehension,

and literary development for the courses they teach, or there will never be sufficient instruction for ELs. Gibbons (2002), being more specific than Calderon and Minaya-Rowe (2011), proposes that teachers should keep three principles in mind as they embed greater focus on language in their instruction: (a) move from whole to part, (b) move from meaning to form, and (c) move from familiar to unfamiliar.

Zacarian and Hayes (2012) and Olsen (2010) also report the rapidly growing numbers of ELs in our schools. While the total population in the United States is approximately unchanged, the public school community of ELs is increasing at a rapid pace, climbing from 3.8 million in 1990 to 11 million in 2009; the greatest challenge at these schools is determining how to educate beginning-level ELs. Zacarian and Hayes (2012) focused on three types of beginning EL students that differ based on their experiences. The first type has had school experience in their home countries that are comparable with American public schools. The second has had little to no previous educational experience. And the third has fled from trauma and violence in their home countries. Zacarian and Hayes (2012) explained, “The goal of our book is to help preservice teachers, administrators and others who are just starting to work with this population...to build a classroom environment where ELs and their families can be engaged and flourish” (p. 1).

Based on over 60 years of combined experience in working with ELs, providing teacher training, writing, and researching, the authors present a framework that encourages examining the larger picture while also detailing compelling models of instruction (Zacarian & Hayes, 2012). Attention is given to the three types of beginning EL students described above, along with realistic expectations and descriptions of how to build an effective yet rigorous instructional program based on what students can accomplish. Zacarian and Hayes (2012) and Guskey (1986)

also provide detailed descriptions of the types of professional development that a preservice teacher with beginning ELs should receive. Guskey (1986) focuses on teacher change specifically through staff development programs.

There are various forms of professional development that range from college workshops to short two-hour seminars, and it is crucial for teachers working with beginning-level ELs to receive professional development (Guskey, 1986; Zacarian & Hayes, 2012). They describe effective professional development as including a comprehensive, sustained, and intensive approach. However, Zacarian and Hayes (2012) also caution that teachers range from those who are still in preservice programs to veteran teachers who have taught for several years. The authors recommend observational activities, which they explain have been highly encouraged by Calderon and Minaya-Rowe (2011). The author details that “observational protocols have been identified as a helpful means of understanding the practice of teaching as well as what is working and what needs strengthening” (p. 111). Observations are beneficial to study the profession of teaching and to closer analyze how teachers improve student performance, develop their classroom instruction, and make data-driven decisions (Zacarian & Hayes, 2012).

Sousa (2011), a brain research expert, combines current research on how the brain learns a language and offers strategies for K-12 teachers to facilitate this process. The author stresses that there are several books available to teachers that offer strategies, but provide little understanding of the ELs’ needs. Sousa (2011) and Damasio and Damasio (1992) argue that teachers need the science behind the knowledge that underlies their instructional decisions. Sousa (2011) examines the following: (a) why young children learn languages so quickly, (b) how learning a language is harder after age five, (c) methods to develop ELs’ listening and speaking skills in English, (d) recognizing and addressing obstacles to learning English, (e)

effective strategies for teaching reading, writing, math, and science to English Learners, and (f) the basics of an effective EL program. Likewise, Damasio and Damasio (1992) examine targeted areas of the brain that produce specific language, such as nouns and verbs.

Sousa (2011) and Damasio and Damasio (1992) detail pertinent information that unprepared teachers will not be familiar with, such as the reality that, on average, ELs may take two years to become fluent in interpersonal communication, but five to seven years to acquire academic English (Sousa, 2011). ELD Teachers have challenging careers that demand that they deliver content in a manner that EL students can understand. It is easy for a teacher to seek instructional strategies while neglecting the students' linguistic and learning needs, much like driving a car without knowing the rules of the road (Sousa, 2011). Therefore, teachers must be aware of the science behind their instructional decisions.

According to Téllez (2004) and Calderón, Slavin, and Sánchez (2011), with the introduction of bilingual education in the 1960s, teachers received vague instructional directives such as “speak as much English as possible [and] they’ll catch on” (Téllez, 2004, p. 1), but no such clarity has emerged over the past 60 years. In the 1960s, the common practice was for districts to teach teachers Spanish to communicate with their students. The issue of teacher quality for ELs was not raised until the 1990s; it continues to be discussed as continuous data suggests that ELD teachers are unprepared for their positions and are forced to resort to short-term strategies. Téllez (2004) investigated the preparedness of teachers working with ELs by examining the research on the following components of ELD instruction: the current condition, general studies on teacher quality, preservice teacher education, in-service teacher education, standards for ELD teachers, policy issues, and linguistic knowledge. He also investigated seven

teaching strategies that have been proven to be effective in assisting EL students to become English proficient.

Téllez (2004) discovered that ELD teachers in California receive little professional development in content and language instruction, and the National Center for Educational Statistics (1998) reported that EL teacher quality requires significant retooling. Gandara et al. (2005), supporting the work of Téllez (2004), conducted an extensive study involving over 5,000 teachers in California which found that teachers had minimal professional development opportunities focused on working more effectively with their EL students. Gandara et al. (2005) revealed that teachers lacked the necessary resources for their students and often found it difficult to communicate with parents. Teachers felt underprepared and doubted their abilities to work with ELs. McClesky and Waldron (2002) added that teachers have always been troubled by their lack of knowledge in dealing with students who represent special needs groups.

Olsen (2010) sounded the most significant alarm concerning the unfavorable position of ELs in California schools today. López, McEneaney, and Nieswandt (2015) and Olsen (2010) reported that, even though this is a period with significant investments and full access to the curriculum for ELs, there has been disappointing progress in closing the achievement gap for ELs, including in California. Olsen's (2010) report is intended as a wake-up call to everyone involved in California education, from educators to policymakers, bringing to light that there are students in the state's high schools who are preparing for graduation but have been ELs since they entered the same district as kindergarteners and are still not proficient in English.

Olsen (2010) is a respected educator and researcher and is viewed by those in the EL field as California's expert. She is a major contributor to the newly-launched State of California EL Roadmap (2017) and is a vital member of Californians Together. She clearly and concisely

leads one through her study by sharing how ELs become LTELs, the characteristics of an LTEL, how they are currently served, and what strategies are the most effective. Her report collected data from 40 districts that included over 175,000 LTEL secondary students in California. Her works stand as an authority on the status of the state's EL students, the programs that serve them, and what has proven to yield positive results. Her research provides a clear view of the challenges that new ELD teachers face and how underprepared ELs are when they enter the profession.

Olsen (2010) details five significant findings with support from the works of Calderon and Minaya-Rowe (2011), Soto (2012), and Tellez (2004), whose own works detailed the same findings that Olsen (2010) succinctly outlined. First, 59% of secondary school ELs are LTELs. Second, most districts lack the means of defining, identifying, and monitoring LTELs. Third, ELs become LTELs throughout the course of their educations. Fourth, as secondary students, LTELs share a set of characteristics that describes their overall profile. Fifth, few districts have formal programs for LTELs. Olsen offers a comprehensive plan for secondary school LTELs that details courses, placement, and systems. However, Olsen (2010) stresses that what occurs inside the classroom is equally as crucial; teachers must be able to utilize appropriate instructional strategies while engaging in careful analysis of the language demands of the content.

Gibbons (2008), a founder of the teaching and learning cycle, and a keystone to Spycher and Linn-Nieves' (2014) work, addresses the intellectual practices of middle school ELs in science classes. Science, history, and social science courses are frequently challenging for ELs because they present them with rigorous content that is often inundated with domain-specific vocabulary while they are still striving for English proficiency. Gibbons begins with the premise

that all learners benefit from high-challenge, high-support classrooms where recurring intellectual practices are present.

This project was a collaborative effort between the University of Technology, Sydney, and the Multicultural Programs Unit in the NSW Department of Education and Training. Five EL classrooms that were characterized as intellectually challenging were involved; the goal was to observe how day-to-day learning was conducted. Gibbons (2008) reports that a significant rationale for conducting the research grew out of a previous project that explored the nature of scaffolding and the belief that ELs can thrive in high-challenge classrooms given appropriate teacher expectations, scaffolds, and learning tasks. The focus was on the teachers, the scaffolding they provided, the learners, and their levels of engagement with the tasks. Gibbons (2008) reported that the research was framed around two questions: “What are students doing when they are engaged in intellectually challenging learning? That is, what are the recurring intellectual practices that can be observed in the enacted curriculum?” and “How do teachers support EL students to participate in these intellectually challenging learning contexts?” (p. 5).

These school-based projects analyzed how learners responded to the instructional challenges in the areas of science, English, math, and music. These projects were planned during the professional development; teachers focused on preparing for intellectual quality by including such strategies as backwards mapping, essential questions, and conversations—all instructional strategies that support ELs in their quest for language proficiency (Halliday, 1993; Linn-Nieves, 2018; Sycher & Linn-Nieves, 2014). Gibbons (2008) reports that the resulting data included approximately 80 hours of classroom-based video footage, including interviews with teachers and students, with 60 hours transcribed; members of the research team took field notes during classroom observations. One significant outcome of this collaboration between teachers and

researchers is that the teachers witnessed themselves as not only exploring issues around intellectual quality in their classrooms, but also becoming participants in their own intellectually challenging learning. The typical research projects that the participating teachers developed for the students to use resembled real-world tasks that experts in the fields would have to employ. Students were treated as apprentices in the discipline rather than as a passive audience to a lecture. This instructional practice of involving students in the language-learning process replicates the student involvement also found in the TLC (Spycher & Linn-Nieves, 2014).

On the final day of professional development, the teachers were asked a question that resembled the inquiry at the beginning of the process: “What does intellectual challenge require students to do/be?” The teachers’ responses demonstrated a greater depth than before; their answers considered a mental challenge and their knowledge of critical ideas developed through the project. The responses also suggested the new level of importance that the teachers placed on how they use and understand language with their EL students. Researchers noted the extensive use of guiding texts, which allowed the students to talk aloud and engage in collaboration with others to prepare them for future tasks. Gibbons (2008) also noted the dialogue between teachers and students, which allowed for the explicit teaching of disciplinary-related language and literacy, which fully supports the TLC model (Spycher & Linn-Nieves, 2014).

Gibbons’ (2008) contributions have been invaluable to this project. Her overview of the variety of obstacles that all ELs experience in California high schools is indispensably relevant and support the work of Olsen (2010). The introduction of new state frameworks finally incorporates ELD into both science and social science. Gibbons’ (2008) interviews with teachers

and students are vital for conducting case studies. In particular, her use of pre- and post-interviews has benefited both the researcher and the teachers involved in the study.

Administrators have long been considered the instructional leaders of their schools (Barnett, 1985; Peterson 1986). But this sentiment is challenged at many large elementary and comprehensive high schools with so many students, staff members, parents, and day-to-day and long-term tasks to attend to. In schools such as these, leading site instruction can easily be relegated to a lesser priority, especially in more challenging areas such as instruction for ELs and LTELs as also noted by Olsen (2010). Quinn and D'Amato Andrews (2004) conducted a qualitative study with 180 new teachers. In the wake of a teacher shortage and the heavier demands placed on teachers with standards-based education, it is increasingly important to retain new teachers to ensure that they become experienced veterans, rather than choosing to leave the profession. Thus, the purpose of this study was to compare the support that first-year teachers perceived was provided by their principals to the total amount of support they believed they received (Quinn & D'Amato Andrews, 2004).

With the current teacher shortage, many districts in California are hiring hundreds of new and often non-credentialed teachers to fill their vacancies. District XYZ has hired over 250 non-credentialed teachers for the 2017-18 school year. Likewise, In Quinn and D'Amato Andrews' (2004) study, 189 new teachers were surveyed in a large urban district with 60,000 students. Of these, 57 teachers were interviewed by phone. An overwhelming number of teachers reported that they did not feel prepared to follow the school's procedures and provide for their students' instructional needs. As one interviewee explained, "The district and school assume that teachers know more than they did" (Quinn & D'Amato Andrews, 2004, p. 166).

Additionally, Chinstein, Ogawa, and Speiglmán (2004) explored the possibility that state educational policies—involving accountability and instructional reform—and school conditions interact with teachers' personal and professional backgrounds to shape two tracks of new teachers who reinforce existing educational inequities. The first track of teachers is comprised of those who are prepared, supported, and remain in the teaching profession. The second track of teachers, due to a lack of support and preparedness, leave the field of teaching.

Information provided by teachers who were hired after the school year already began—a common practice in areas of higher need—reported an even more significant need for support.

Researchers Quinn and D'Amato Andrews (2004) and Gandara et al. (2005) explained that the results of their qualitative study indicated that schools and principals need to devote more time to orientating new teachers. The principal's role is crucial; teachers who believe they have supportive principals also perceive they are receiving support from their colleagues. The authors' findings suggest that there is a correlation between principals and their staffs; if a principal supports first-year teachers, their staff is more likely to support new teachers as well. Quinn and D'Amato Andrews (2004) reported principals have many important responsibilities, and the most important of these in the midst of a teacher shortage is providing support to their new teachers.

Contradictory Findings

As Kuhn (1970) explained, “normal science is a process of puzzle solving in which part of the task of the scientist, in the case of the teacher, is to discover the pieces and then fit the pieces together” (p. 5). Some pieces of the EL language acquisition puzzle have been set in place, others have been placed and then removed, and others are still missing. One piece that was in place for many years but has since been removed is that of Skinner (1953), who believed

that language acquisition is a series of rules, lists, and charts that are methodically enforced. Skinner's view of learning included operant conditioning through a detailed program of reinforcement. This view is in direct opposition to that of Halliday (1993), who views language as interactive and personal. Halliday relates functions of language to distinct interpersonal experiences such as apologizing, asking for help, confirming, correcting, giving advice or commands, and making small talk. Skinner (1957) insisted that the scientific method was necessary when examining human behavior, meaning only observable behaviors could be used when collecting data to be analyzed, recorded, and measured. Thus, studying the process of language acquisition using Skinner's methods could not take into account teacher efficacy, perceptions of instruction, or the internal process of a student learning a language.

Another approach, community language learning (CLL), is an additional puzzle piece that has been discarded in the field of language acquisition. La Forge (1971) encouraged language instruction where students were encouraged to experiment verbally. They could emit any language attempts they desired within the classroom. Learners were encouraged to respond to one another with the belief that they would eventually acquire independence and fluency. While verbal communication is encouraged within the classroom, several language acquisition researchers have advocated for a more structured approach to learning language through such models as the TLC (Spycher & Linn-Nieves, 2014; Gibbons, 2008).

Some researchers were harshly critical towards strategy-based research and claimed that it was poorly-designed and lacking in research (Dornyei & Skehan, 2003; Dornyei, 2005, 2009). In contrast, Spycher (2007) and Spycher and Linn-Nieves (2014) advocated for an instructional framework with strategies embedded within the instructional approaches.

Gap in Literature

The literature review reveals the presence of gaps, the most significant of which being the lack of an instructional framework available for educators to use with their EL students. Aside from the TLC model (Spycher & Linn-Nieves, 2014), it is difficult for a language practitioner to find available resources to assist them in providing language acquisition instruction to a growing population of EL students. Gibbons (2008) and Halliday (1993) addressed this issue with a universal focus, which is certainly valuable in the language acquisition puzzle. However, there are many pieces missing, note Téllez (2004), Vargas (2012), and Olsen (2010), in courses such as science, history, and math, to name just a few. Teachers of subjects such as these are extremely limited in terms of the research that they can reference to assist them in instructing their EL students.

The researcher observed a general lack of research involving well-prepared professional learning for teachers followed by immediate practice and support in the area of language acquisition. Aside from the work of Spycher and Linn-Nieves (2014) and Linn-Nieves (2018), there is ample room for future research in this area. Clearly, this study was an opportunity for teachers to experience professional learning, practice, and support in the area of language acquisition, but this is only one group of ELD teachers among thousands.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Educational researchers have had an increased interest in the mixed method design because it is perceived to maximize the strength of a study while minimizing its weaknesses (Makel & Plucker, 2014). The primary goal of this educational mixed method action research study is to understand the relationship between teacher perceptions of their effectiveness in ELD before and after exposure to the TLC Model, and the degree to which the global guidelines outlined by Saunders et al. (2013) are applied at the district and site-levels. Using a multisite action research design, the researcher explored teacher perceptions and the presence of these global guidelines within K-12 core and ELD courses in District XYZ via surveys, observations, and professional learning opportunities. Purposeful sampling was possible as a result.

Action research often emerges from a persons' work, and it provides a framework to systematically examine challenges within a practice-based setting (Lochmiller & Lester, 2017). The authors explain that this type of research has grown in popularity in the field of education; educators have long complained that traditional research is difficult to pursue in classrooms and other school settings. Other studies (Kennedy, 1997) note that teachers have long frowned upon traditional research for not applying to the context of their classrooms and the difficulty of adapting results into their daily practices.

Action research is an appropriate methodology for this study as Calhoun (2002) explains this type of research can be a combination of individual teacher research, collaboration between teachers and administrators, or school wide action research involving a combination of site level stakeholders. Lochmiller and Lester,'s (2017) *Inquiry Cycle* detail the format of this study: (a) identify a problem of practice; (b) identify current understanding of the topic; (c) develop an

intervention; (d) implement the intervention in practice; 9e) assess whether the intervention impacted the individuals or organization.

In this action research study, the problem of practice was identified as teachers' perception of their effectiveness as an EL teacher providing instruction for ELs. Next, teachers' current understanding of their perceptions of their instruction were captured through a survey while the actual number of instructional strategies they utilized in class with their EL students were noted. Next, the intervention in the form of a two-day professional learning experience was introduced to the participating teachers. Teachers then had the opportunity to implement the intervention over the course of a four-week summer program with EL students. Finally, the impact of the intervention was captured through a post survey and post observation noting the changes in teachers' perceptions about their instruction and the actual number of instances they put into practice specific language acquisition learning strategies and instructional approaches. Thus, this study explicitly demonstrates Lochmiller and Lester,'s (2017) *Inquiry Cycle* of an action research study.

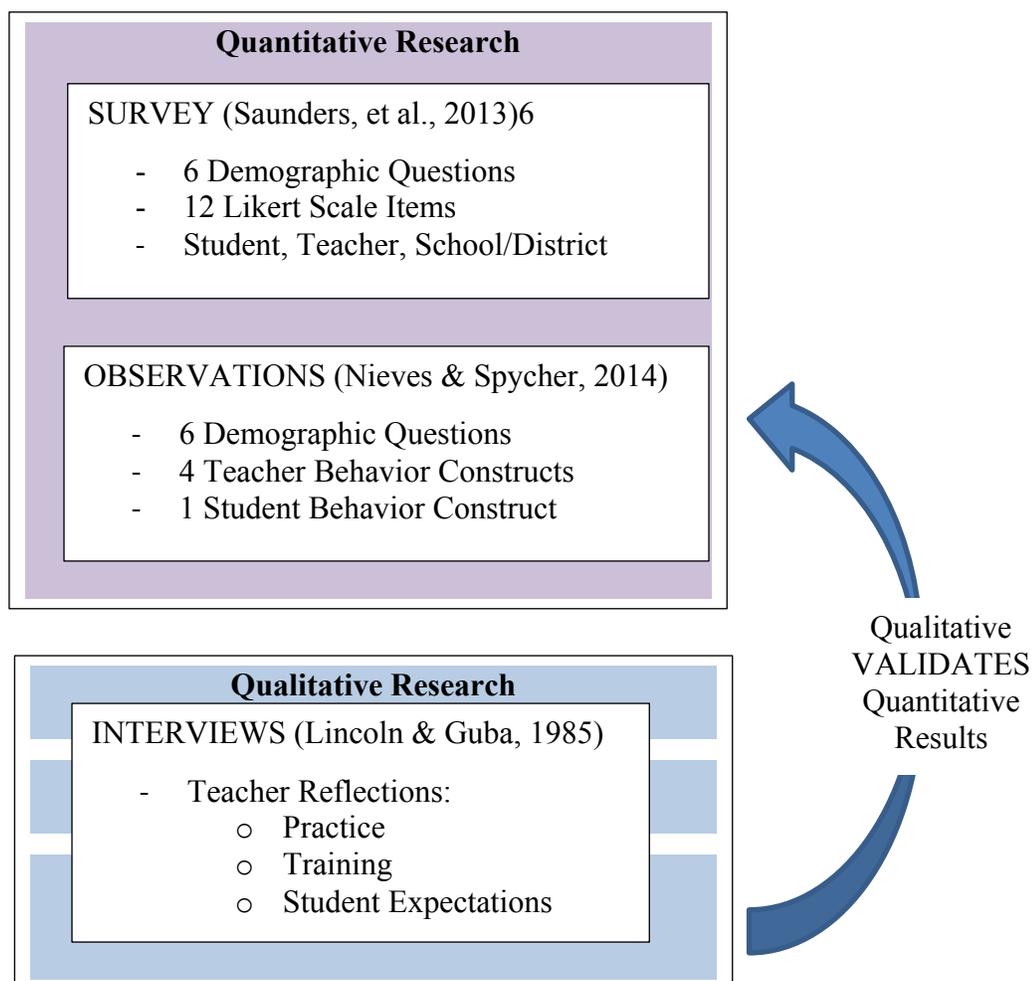


Figure 2. Mixed method research design (White, 2019)

As Lochmiller and Lester (2017) noted, there are many approaches that fall under the umbrella of action research. Researchers (Calhoun, 2002; Mertler, 2014; McIntyre, 2008; Stringer, 2014; McNiff, 2013) explain that there are numerous terms used to explain the different levels of action research depending on if it is focused on the classroom, school, or district. In the case of this research study, as Lochmiller and Lester (2017) explained, the researcher selected a problem in the field of practice and used the research process to pinpoint and execute a possible solution.



Figure 3. The action research cycle (Lochmiller & Lester, 2017).

This research could not have been possible without the participation of teachers from District XYZ, as well as other educators who provided professional learning opportunities for the participants. This group of teachers and students was fortunate enough to be led by Karin Linn-Nieves, contributor to the California ELD Standards and Framework and co-designer of the TLC (Spycher & Linn-Nieves, 2014).

The researcher is an instructional specialist in District XYZ and had access to all classrooms, teachers, and student data within the district. All students within this district, including ELs, are accustomed to outside district personnel visiting and observing their classrooms. Additional researchers, who are also instructional specialists within the district, also observed during the project. The researchers facilitate professional learning for all teachers involved in the teaching and learning cycle (Spycher & Linn-Nieves, 2014) as it relates to language instruction for EL students throughout the school year. Since the instructional specialists have professional working relationships with several of the participating teachers, trust has been established through previous collaborations and learning sessions. Instructional specialists are technically teachers and work within a teacher's contract; however, job

requirements such as observing other teachers, providing feedback, and leading learning sessions often place instructional specialists in the administrative realm. Thus, securing teachers' trust and respect is an ongoing process and will continue to be so throughout this project. The researcher maintained an ethical and professional conduct exhibited in the past with teachers, administrators, and site and district personnel with the intention of anticipating every possible scenario that may cause some concern.

Preserving the confidentiality of the teachers' responses and actions is of the utmost importance to the researcher. They will be discussed only with the participating teachers unless permission is granted to share the findings by name with the group. However, the participants will be informed in a timely manner of the findings, trends, and analyses of the data. Since many have invested time, resources, and energy into this project, their contributions were honored with relevant and timely information to assist them in their teaching careers. All materials were stored in a secure location for the required amount of time as prescribed by the American Psychological Association (2010). At the end of the study, all surveys and data will be destroyed.

The existence of prior relationships between the district officials and administrators made it easier to establish contact with the teachers. To gain the teachers' consent, the researcher explained the purpose, the time requirements, the instruments involved in the study, and how the data will be used in the future. These requirements and the security measures employed were explained in the Participant Consent Form (Appendix B). The teachers were informed of the surveys and observations conducted before the study began during the regular school year, and then again during the summer program. The study began after the teachers signed the consent forms.

Intensive training sessions were conducted on two Saturdays during the regular school year, where all participating teachers were introduced to the teaching and learning cycle and other instructional strategies within the model. The teachers were also introduced to the summer curriculum, which is a four-week unit of study.

Selection of Participants

Summer 2018 marked the second summer school experience designed specifically for ELs within District XYZ. In summer 2017, District XYZ piloted an EL summer school for grades 3-8; approximately 300 students from across the district attended the month-long program. There were 20 elementary school teachers involved from across the district, ranging from first-year teachers to veteran teachers with 20 or more years of experience. All were chosen through an interview-and-select process, and all had some experience working with ELs, but not all of them had experience with designated or integrated ELD. There was no minimum requirement for experience in working with ELs since the program provided a complete unit of study, instructional approaches and strategies, and professional learning to implement all components of the study.

By summer 2018, the included grade levels were expanded to K-12. Approximately 600 students and 24 or more teachers from throughout District XYZ are expected to attend the four-week program. Again, the teachers were provided with instructional material and strategies using the TLC.

All students enrolled in the four-week program were ELs from District XYZ, where 69.9% of students are socio-economically disadvantaged, and 30% of the student population is comprised of ELs. All sites within District XYZ have a student population that is approximately

65% Hispanic, 10% Black, 8% Asian, and 5% Caucasian. Additionally, 51% of students speak English as their primary language, whereas 41% speak Spanish as their primary language.

Instruments

The study incorporated a two-pronged approach using an implementation tool and a participating teacher survey. The researcher addressed the qualitative research questions through a presurvey and postsurvey designed by her to record the teachers' perceptions of their progress given the training and support they'd received. The presurvey investigated the following:

- Teachers' prior experiences with language acquisition training
- Teachers' current understanding of the linguistic needs of ELs
- Teachers' prior experiences with ongoing support after attending an EL-based professional learning experience
- Teachers' current perceptions of their effectiveness in instructing ELs on language acquisition

The postsurvey at the end of the four-week summer program investigated the following:

- Teachers' current understandings of the linguistic needs of ELs
- Teachers' perceptions of how ongoing support throughout the summer school affected their instruction
- Teachers' current perceptions of their effectiveness in instructing ELs on language acquisition

For the purposes of this study and continued progress in District XYZ, the researcher developed an implementation tool to observe elements of the TLC model that are either visible on the classroom walls and within teachers' lesson plans, or which are being utilized during classroom instruction. The implementation tool was designed to record instances of (a)

educators teaching background knowledge, (b) teaching about text types, (c) jointly constructing texts, (d) independent writing, (e) oral production, (f) student engagement, and (g) student distractions.

This implementation tool was designed to serve multiple purposes. First, it measures the degree to which ELD strategies are used during instruction and how engaged the students are with the material prior to the four-week summer program. Second, it will serve as a record of the instructional practices employed throughout the summer program. District XYZ will adopt the implementation tool for continual use to capture snapshots of classroom instruction when administrators, specialists, and teachers visit to observe the instructional trends.

A survey was developed to gather data on the teachers' perceptions and was piloted with two different groups of educators. The first pilot involved five educators who were all K-12 teachers within District XYZ and who all had experience with EL students. One survey question was refined based on the responses of these teachers. The second pilot involved eight K-12 educators from District XYZ, making for a total of 13 participants in the survey process. The teachers were asked to respond to the survey questions and offer any feedback to improve the wording for reliability and validity.

Validity and Reliability

Participant interviews at the end of the study were collected from some of the teachers. This qualitative component of the study serves as substantive evidence that further supports the quantitative evidence that is the focus of the study. These qualitative findings are shared in the form of teacher comments and quotes that are placed throughout the Data Analysis and Conclusions section to serve as additional evidence of quantitative data that emerged from the study.

Additionally, for validity and reliability the studies (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Saunders, 2013; Spycher & Linn- Nieves, 2014) were purposefully applied. Lincoln & Guba (1985) assert that a study must be trustworthy and trustworthiness is established by the following according to the authors: (a) credibility, (b) transferability, (c) dependability, (d) conformability. Both instruments, the survey and the observation tool meet Lincoln and Guba's (1985) criteria as trustworthy and credible as the researcher created them, peer validated by colleagues in the field, and field tested by educators within the district. Additionally, the implementation instrument is transferable to actual practice within the district, as it will be used as a tool for future classroom visitations. The quantitative aspect of the two instruments provides neutrality for researcher bias when analyzing the data.

Saunders et al., (2013) provides validity and reliability to the survey (Appendix C) as the survey questions are based on their findings which conclude there are 14 ELD guidelines that districts, sites and teachers should implement in order to provide the optimal learning environment for EL students. The 14 guidelines can be divided into four groups: (a) global policy, (b) organizational guidelines, (c) curricular focus guidelines, and (d) and instructional guidelines. The survey was created using Saunders et al., (2013) four group findings as the foundation of all survey questions. Lastly, Spycher and Linn- Nieves (2014) provide validity and reliability to the implementation tool (Appendix D) as this tool is based on their research of the TLC, which is supported, by additional research from Haliday (1993) and Gibbons, (2008).

Researcher's Position

Watt (2007) defines reflexivity as the ability of the researcher to account for his or her own potential assumptions and biases by thoroughly understanding the process. Thus, the researcher opted to use instruments to measure participants' behaviors and thoughts, rather than

relying on her own assumptions. The researcher is able to remain objective using primarily statistical tools to analyze data. As Eisner and Peshkin (2000) described, “validity in qualitative research has been defined as the degree to which the scholar’s account aligns with or matches the participants’ reality” (p.180). Accordingly, the focus of this study is quantitative so that the researcher is not prone to subjectivities or biases that can be present in action research using only qualitative analysis. Qualitative contributions, such as teacher input during interviews, further validate quantitative results.

Data Collection

Prior to the four-week summer school program, the researcher acquired permission from the school administrators to perform the study (see Appendix A). Another permission form was given to the participating teachers (see Appendix B). Since a strong, professional relationship already exists between the teachers and administrators in District XYZ, acquiring permission and gaining access is not anticipated to be a challenge. Researchers surveyed the participating teachers using Appendix C, which was designed to record the teachers’ perceptions of how effectively they instruct their EL students in light of the training and support they have received thus far. Next, the implementation tool (Appendix D) was utilized when visiting all participating teachers’ classes to note the extent to which language acquisition strategies and lesson plans were employed prior to the start of summer school.

After the participating teachers were surveyed and observed, they had the opportunity to participate in two full days of professional learning, where they were introduced to the TLC and how it applies to the language acquisition process for ELs. Each of the four components of the TLC is host to specific linguistic strategies and instructional approaches that will be modeled for the teachers to analyze and collaborate on. The teachers will also be introduced to the units of

study that were used during the four-week summer program and become familiar with how the TLC was utilized.

Throughout the K-12 summer program, the participating teachers were visited and supported by the researcher and two other instructional specialists from District XYZ for modeling, co-teaching, and collaboration. The researcher and the two other instructional specialists have received the same level of TLC training over the past year, in addition to cowriting ELD units of study that used all components of the TLC, piloting units of study in eight high school ELD classes in District XYZ, and presenting these studies at the California Association for Bilingual Education (CABE) in March 2018. At the end of the project, the teachers were surveyed and observed using the same tools.

Data Analysis

The following statistical analyses will be utilized within the study:

1. Descriptive Statistics: Examining demographics (categorical data) and predictor variables; Likert Scale questions (interval data).
2. Descriptive Statistics: Comparing means via t-test; observation of data from pre- and post-observations.

As Creswell (2017) reports, data must be decoded, organized by themes, and then interpreted. The survey data will be interpreted at both the interval and categorical levels by utilizing descriptive statistics. This will make it possible to compare both the outcome variables and the predictor variables; data will be interpreted to determine if there are differences between various demographic categories and observed instructional practices.

Ethical consideration is of the utmost importance to the researcher. Issues as complex as those in this study require disclosure and the presentation of multiple perspectives, rather than

simplifying what the participants felt and experienced. To this end, numerous physical and electronic files were created to record the survey and observational data, and they were kept in a secure and locked location.

The researcher took notes and implemented a coding system to track any emerging information, culminating in a codebook of common keywords and themes. Creswell (2017) explains this as researchers interpreting the data to make sense of the “lessons learned,” as described by Lincoln and Guba (1985). Researchers require both critical and creative faculties to decipher meaning from the emerging patterns, themes, and categories (Creswell, 2017). It is at this point that statistical analysis methods such as ANOVA are applied.

Creswell (2017) suggests seeking peer feedback on initial interpretations. The other instructional specialists within District XYZ will be able to provide feedback to ensure that the researcher is clearly articulating the patterns within the data. The researcher also presented the findings to the participating teachers as a focus group to ensure accuracy and credibility (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The participants agreed that the findings were valid. For two full days before the summer program began, and for two hours after the students left each day, the teachers had the opportunities to debrief each other and collaborate on common lessons, projects, and assessments. Patton (2011, 2015) suggests that a study is more likely to be supported and the findings more likely to be used when the participants are involved.

Expected Outcomes

This study provides a framework for assessing ELD and the teachers’ perceptions of their integrated instruction for EL students, how this can change over the course of a month of intensive professional learning, and the effects this will have on classroom instruction and the teachers’ perceptions of that instruction. Additionally, the data collected from the study will

provide evidence of the teachers' perceptions, instructional practices, and efficacy both before and after the study (Saunders et al., 2013). The participating K-12 ELD and integrated teachers reported a positive shift in their perceptions of their instructional effectiveness after they were exposed to the strategies within the TLC.

This project hypothesized that teachers would, possibly for the first time, be able to confidently offer their EL students more than a general graphic organizer or word wall in the hopes that the students would comprehend and internalize the language. Now, the hypothesis suggests that teachers would be able to lead their students through an instructional series that focuses on the four components of the teaching and learning cycle (Spycher & Linn-Nieves, 2014). This would allow students to understand the pieces within the text type that will eventually lead them to deconstruct and reconstruct the language as they become proficient in listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

Summary

Chapter 3 presented the methodology and the goals of the research project. The selection of the participants is detailed, as is the validity and reliability of the researcher, the instructional support, and the instruments involved. This chapter also introduced the method and tools used by the researcher to analyze the surveys and collect observational data pertaining to the teachers' perceptions of their instructional effectiveness.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The intent of this study was to investigate the influence of the K-12 teachers' perceived effectiveness in teaching ELD and integrated ELD both prior to studying the teaching and learning cycle, and after experience with professional learning and coaching. This was achieved by examining their quantitative and qualitative responses through classroom observations, and a survey. Primarily the focus of this study is quantitative in nature, however, qualitative data in the form of participant's responses and quotes are included in this chapter and serve as additional support for the quantitative results which emerged. The qualitative results, which are the participants' responses, generated themes that support the quantitative findings and are embedded within the description of those findings. This chapter demonstrates results to the following research questions:

1. How does training in the teaching and learning cycle affect teachers' instruction and the use of language acquisition strategies?
2. How does ongoing classroom support affect teachers' abilities to create oral language opportunities for students?
3. Does the presence or lack of presence of district and site-level commitment to language acquisition influence teachers' efficacy towards their instruction for ELs?
4. Does the presence or lack of presence of district and site-level commitment to language acquisition influence teacher-created opportunities for writing language?

Participant Demographics

In total, 33 presurveys, 33 postsurveys, 21 pre-observations, and 33 post-observations were included in the analysis. The study took place during a four-week summer program. Most of the participants were female (26 out of 32, or 78%). The two largest groups in the study were

between ages 31-40 and 41-50, each representing 28% of the total participants within the study.

The largest group of participants were Hispanic/Latino (40%), the second-largest were of European descent (21%), and three other ethnicities were represented. English was most participants' primary language (59.3%), while Spanish was the second-highest (29%).

Table 1

Demographic Data of Teacher Participants

Demographic		Count	%
Gender	Male	7	21.9%
	Female	25	78.1%
Age	21-30	5	15.6%
	31-40	9	28.1%
	41-50	9	28.1%
	51-60	8	25.0%
	61+	1	03.1%
Ethnicity	European	7	21.8%
	African American	5	15.6%
	Filipino	1	03.1%
	Hispanic/Latino	13	40.6%
	Asian	6	18.7%
Undergraduate Major	Business	3	10%
	Language	5	16%
	Liberal Studies	9	30%
	Science	5	16%
	Social Science	10	30%
First Language	English	19	59.3%
	Hmong	1	03.0%
	Spanish	9	28.1%
	Tagalog	2	06.2%
	Vietnamese	1	03.0%

Quantitative Data Analysis and Survey Results

The four research questions were answered through pre- and post-surveys and analyzed through pre- and post-observations to identify shifts in instruction once teachers had been trained in the TLC framework. The researcher employed comparison of means t-tests to identify the differences between teachers' perceptions of their instruction for English Learners and their observable instructional practices both before and after the study.

The survey was comprised of twelve items organized into three topical areas with two to three items each: classroom influence on ELs (classroom emphasis), school site emphasis on ELs (site emphasis), professional learning and ongoing support (support), and teacher feelings of efficacy (efficacy). All items provided closed-end, selected response options organized on a five-point scale: (5) *Completely Agree*, (4) *Agree*, (3) *Somewhat Agree*, (2) *Disagree*, and (1) *Completely Disagree*. All items were positively phrased (e.g. "I am an effective EL instructor...").

Table 2

Mean and Median Pre- & Postsurvey Responses (N=33)

Responses	Pre Mean	Post Mean	Pre Median	Post Median
School emphasizes academic language	4.09	4.09	4	5
Class emphasis on academic language	4.34	5	4	5
School-wide global understanding that ELD is necessary	3.65	4.81	4	5
Teachers given enough guidance about ELD	3.81	4.75	4	5
Teachers given appropriate training for ELD	2.88	3.4	4	5
Teachers given ongoing support for ELs	3.45	3.45	5	5
Teachers given enough resources for ELs	3.31	4.56	3	5
Teachers given sufficient Professional Development for ELs	3.75	4.75	4	5
Do I create opportunities for language in my classroom	4.31	4.56	4	5
Do I create opportunities for written language in my classroom	4.21	4.81	4	5
Do I use visuals in my classroom	4.03	4.84	4.84	5

Survey Question Results

The participants' responses for questions one, four, five, six, seven, and eight showed no significant differences between the pre- and post surveys, but standard t-tests were issued to describe these differences regardless. The questions included: (1) *My school emphasizes*

academic language as well as conversational language incorporating the four domains of reading, writing, listening and speaking, (4) Currently, I am given sufficient instructional guidelines (e.g., working on the four language domains), (5) I have received appropriate training in EL instructional strategies, (6) I receive ongoing instructional support from administrators, coaches, and specialists, (7) I receive sufficient instructional resources from my site, and (8) I currently receive sufficient professional development in EL instruction.

Instruction-Based Survey Question

The participants' responses to question number two, "*In my classroom, I emphasize academic language as well as conversational language incorporating the four domains of reading, writing, listening and speaking,*" illustrated a significant difference between the pre- and postsurvey. An independent-samples t-test was performed to determine if the training, support, and four-week summer program affected the teachers' beliefs that a school emphasis in academic language made a difference in their perceptions of their ELD instruction. There was a significant difference in the scores for the presurvey ($m = 09, sd = 89, n = 32$) and the scores for the postsurvey ($m = 4.69, sd = 69, n = 32$) conditions: $t(62) = 2.97, p = 0.004$.

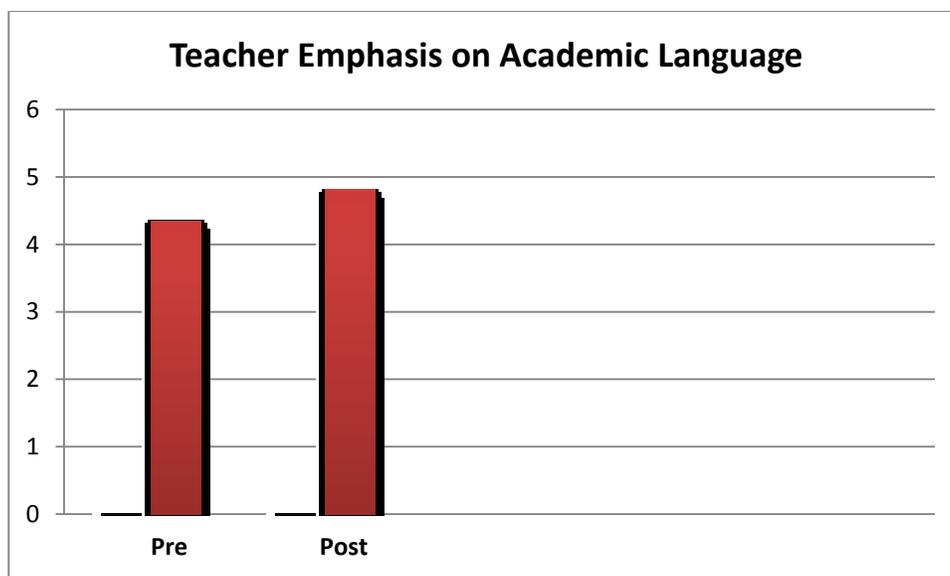


Figure 4. Teacher pre- and postsurvey emphasizing language in classroom.

The participants' responses to survey question number three, "There is a school-wide global understanding that ELD is necessary and required until an EL reclassifies," yielded a significant difference between the scores for the presurvey ($m = 04, sd = 0.95, n = 32$) and the scores for the postsurvey ($m = 4.8, sd = 0.64, n = 32$) conditions: $t(62) = 2.97, p = 0.00017$.

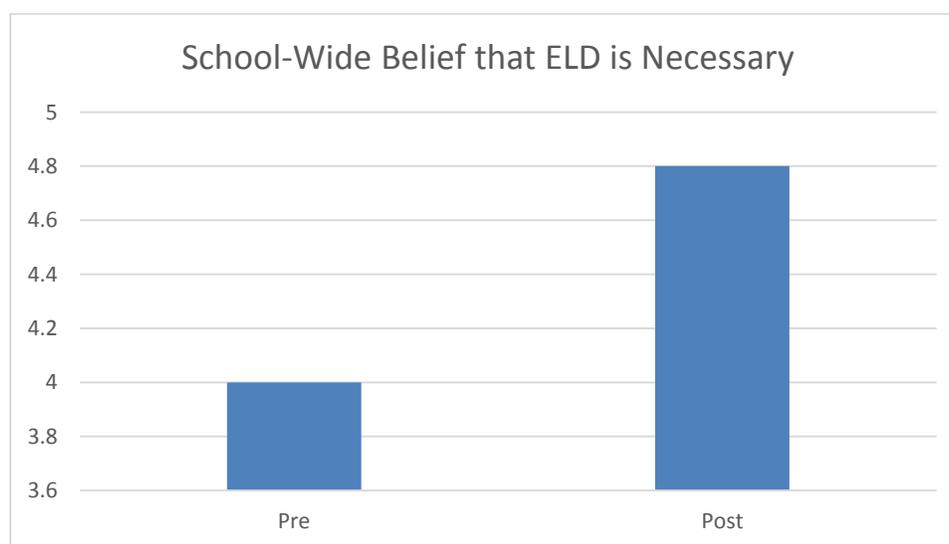


Figure 5. Teacher belief in site-supported ELD instruction.

The participants' responses to question number 11, "*In my classroom, students have many opportunities to produce written language,*" also yielded significant differences between the presurvey and postsurvey, as indicated by an independent-samples t-test designed to analyze the teachers' abilities to create writing opportunities for their EL students. There was a significant difference in the scores for the presurvey ($m = 4.2$, $sd = 0.75$, $n = 32$) and the scores for the postsurvey ($m = 4.8$, $sd = .39$, $n = 32$) conditions: $t(62) = 2.97$, $p = 0.002$.

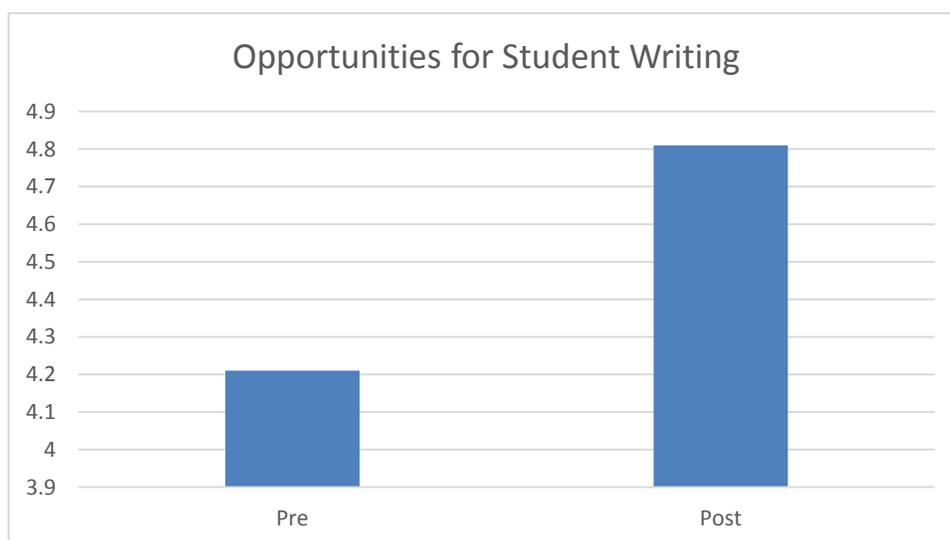


Figure 6. Teacher-created opportunities for student writing.

The participants' presurvey responses to question number 12, "*My room is full of visual representations and supports for student learning such as anchor charts, student work, etc.*" demonstrated a meaningful difference when paralleled to the postsurvey response, according to an independent-samples t-test. There was a significant difference in the scores for the presurvey ($m = 4.0$, $sd = 0.96$, $n = 32$) and the scores for the postsurvey ($m = 4.8$, $sd = 0.39$, $n = 32$) conditions: $t(62) = 4.44$ $p = 0.00004$.

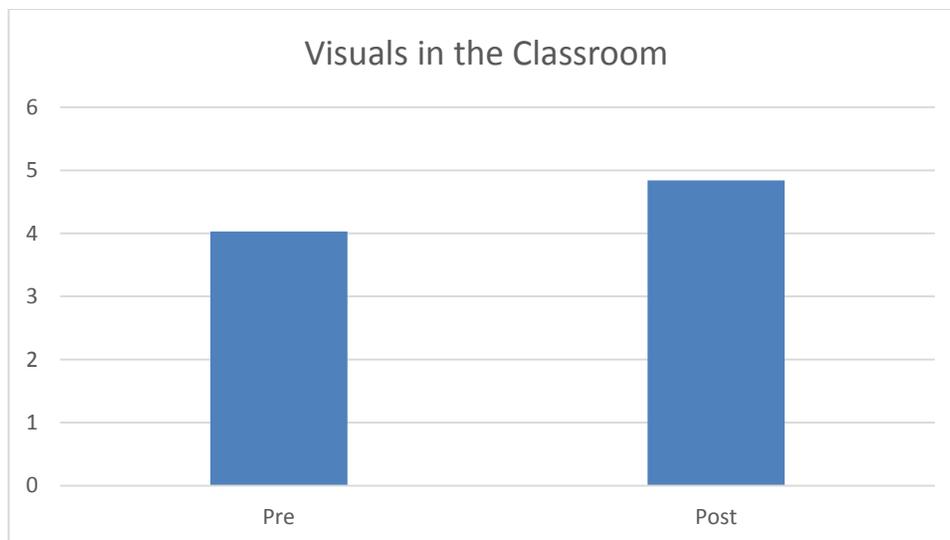


Figure 7. Frequency of use of visuals with EL students.

Teacher Effectiveness Survey Questions

The participants' responses to question number nine, "*I am an effective EL instructor,*" were analyzed by an independent-samples t-test, which found a significant difference in the scores for the presurvey ($m = 3.8$, $sd = 0.80$, $n = 32$) and the scores for the postsurvey ($m = 4.6$, $sd = 0.56$, $n = 32$) conditions: $t(62) = 4.7$, $p = 0.00002$.

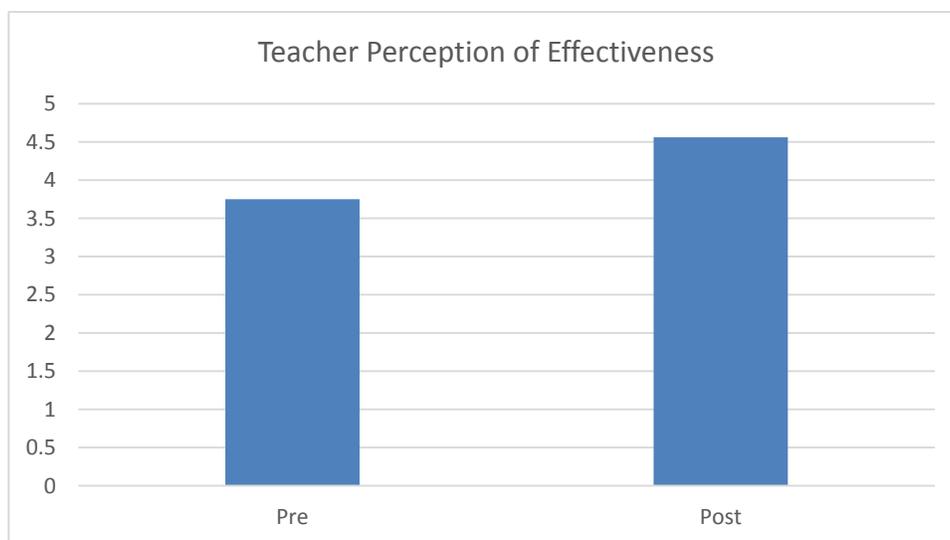


Figure 8. Teacher belief of effectiveness as a teacher of EL students.

The participants' responses to question number ten, "*In my classroom, students have many opportunities to produce oral language (e.g. speak out in class),*" were also analyzed by an independent-samples t-test, which demonstrated a significant difference between the presurvey ($m = 4.3, sd = 0.69, n = 32$) and the postsurvey ($m = 4.8, sd = 0.47, n = 32$) conditions: $t(62) = 3.3, p = 0.0013$ bn.

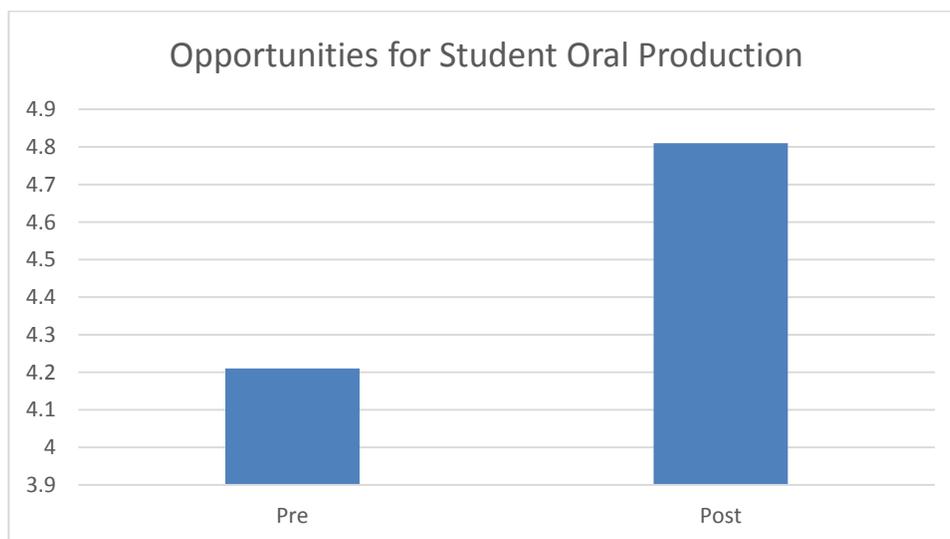


Figure 9. Teacher-created oral language opportunities for EL students.

Observation Results

The researcher also developed an implementation tool to identify which elements of the TLC model are either visible on the classroom walls and within teachers' lesson plans, or are utilized during classroom instruction. The elements of the TLC include: (a) background knowledge, (b) learning about the text type, (c) jointly constructing texts as a class or in small groups, and (d) independent construction of text. The implementation tool was also used to measure student engagement and student distractions. It was used both prior to the four-week summer school program and in its final week. Standard t-tests were employed to analyze the

differences in the teachers' instructional practices both prior to and after receiving training and support in the TLC model.

Table 3

Mean and Median Pre- and Post-Observation (N=33)

Element	Pre Mean	Post Mean	Pre Median	Post Median
Background	.12	.5	0	0
Learning about Text Type	.19	1.2	0	1
Joint Construction of Text	0	.5	0	.5
Independent Construction of Text	.09	.18	0	0
Student Oral Production	2.3	18.4	0	18.5
Student Distraction	1.1	.96	0	1

Background Knowledge

Utilization of the pre- and post-observation implementation tool revealed significant differences in the instruction of background knowledge. An independent-samples t-test demonstrated a significant difference between the pre-observation ($m = 0.13$, $sd = 0.34$, $n = 31$) and the post-observation ($m = 0.50$, $sd = 0.95$, $n = 32$) conditions: $t(61) = 2.0$, $p = 0.04$. After the summer school program ended, one teacher shared, further validating the quantitative analysis:

We have all been exposed to the idea that activating background knowledge is a good thing to do for students; but, it was quite eye opening to see the difference that purposefully activating students' background language knowledge can make in an ELs language acquisition.

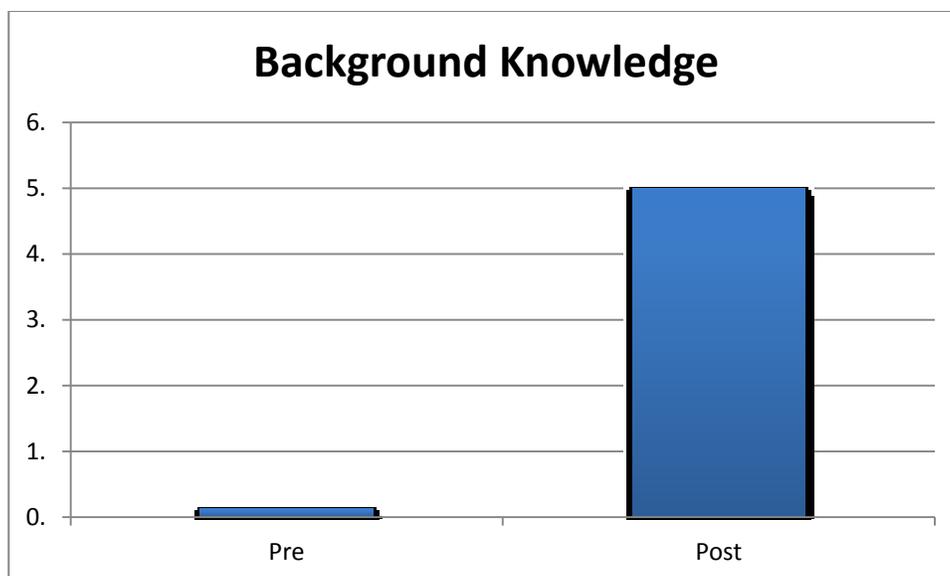


Figure 10. Teacher-created background knowledge opportunities.

Learning about the Text Type

The second element of the TLC that was observed both pre- and post-training was learning about the text type. An independent-samples t-test was performed to determine if the training, support, and four-week summer program affected the teachers' abilities to teach EL students about the text types they studied in the classroom. There was a significant difference between pre-observation ($m = 0.19$, $sd = 0.54$, $n = 31$) and post-observation ($m = 1.2$, $sd = 0.97$, $n = 32$) conditions: $t(61) = 5.1$, $p = 0.0000006$. One participating teacher's qualitative summary validates the statistical data:

As a high school ELA teacher I always assumed that all students should instinctively know what language should be used in different situations and settings. During this program I learned that ELs, and most likely all students benefit from explicit instruction and practice with language that is associated with certain text types. It should not be a mystery to students.

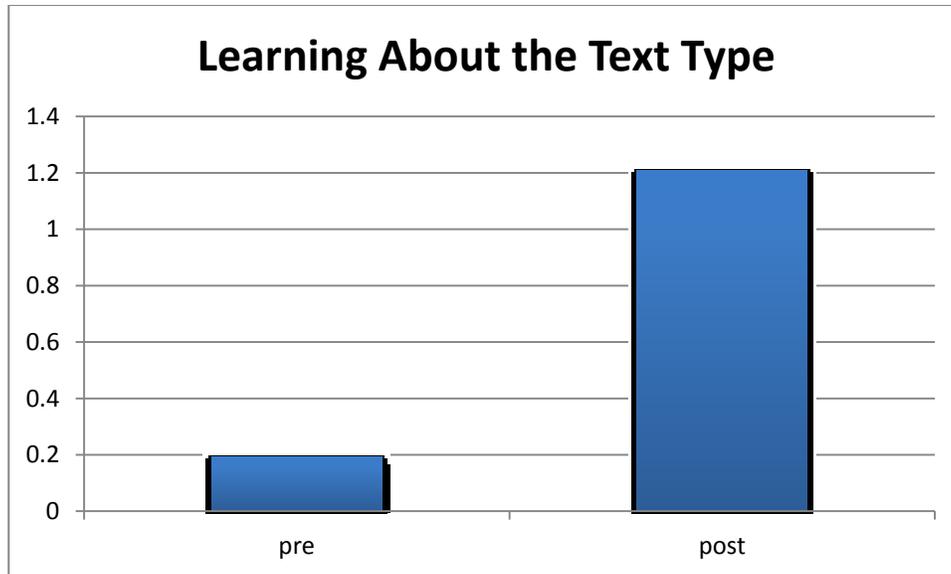


Figure 11. Teacher-created learning about the text type.

Jointly Constructing Texts

The third element of the TLC that was observed both pre- and post-training was the practice of students jointly constructing texts before doing so independently. An independent-samples t-test revealed a significant difference between pre-observation ($m = 0$, $sd = 0$, $n = 31$) and post-observation ($m = 0.50$, $sd = 0.50$, $n = 32$) conditions: $t(61) = 5.4$, $p = 0.0000006$.

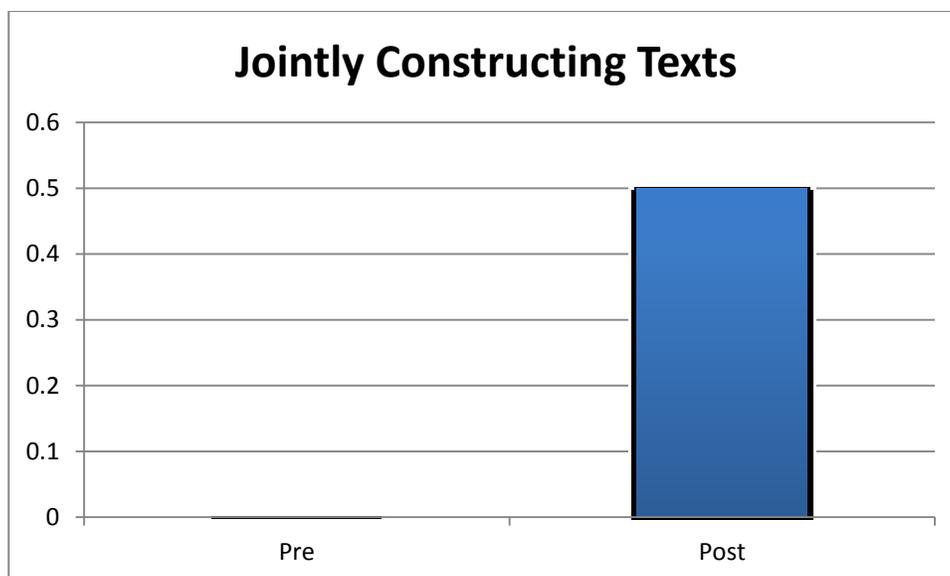


Figure 12. Teacher-created opportunities for ELs to jointly construct texts.

Independently Constructing Texts

The fourth element of the TLC, the frequency of students independently constructing texts, was also noted during the first and second observations. An independent-samples t-test found no significant difference between the pre-observation scores ($m = 0.09$, $sd = 0.30$, $n = 31$) and the post-observation scores ($m = 18$, $sd = 0.39$, $n = 32$) conditions: $t(61) = 1.0$, $p = 0.31$. These results demonstrate the common tendency of teachers to have students construct texts independently before allowing them to do so with others. One participating teacher confessed, “I am guilty of going straight from Background Knowledge to asking my students to independently construct texts. I totally skipped teaching them about text types or having them jointly construct texts together first.” Thus, qualitative data validates the quantitative analysis.

Student Oral Production

The fifth element of the TLC, the number of instances that students produced oral language, was also observed. An independent-samples t-test revealed a significant difference

between the pre-observation ($m = 2.3$, $sd = 5.7$, $n = 31$) and the post-observation ($m = 18.4$, $sd = 7.7$, $n = 32$) conditions: $t(61) = 9.3$, $p < 0.05$.

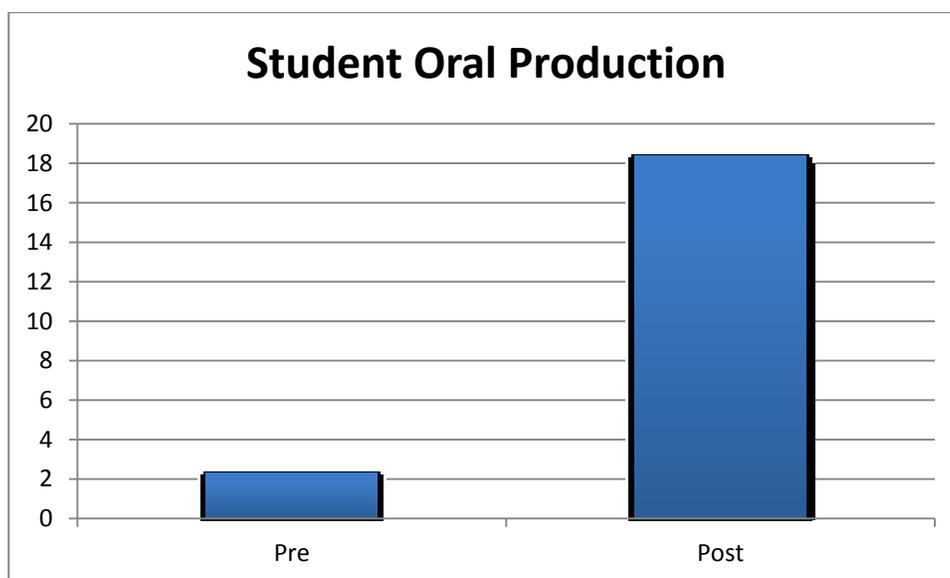


Figure 13. Teacher-created opportunities for ELs to produce oral language.

Student Distraction

The final element calculated during both the pre- and post-observations was the number of student distractions during instruction. An independent-samples t-test found no significant difference between the pre-observation ($m = 1.1$, $sd = 1.9$, $n = 31$) and the post-observation ($m = 0.96$, $sd = 1.0$, $n = 32$) conditions: $t(61) = 0.58$, $p = 0.56$.

Emerging Themes

Several emerging themes materialized through the data analysis of the survey and implementation tools.

1. After experiencing the TLC's professional learning, practice, and support, the teachers gained more confidence in themselves and in the instruction that they provided for their EL students.

2. Language opportunities for ELs increased in the areas of speaking and writing within the classroom.
3. EL students had more opportunities to work collaboratively before working independently.
4. Teachers used more visuals during instruction.
5. Teachers realized that their EL students were capable of more rigorous work when provided with appropriate language instruction.

Qualitative analysis supports the themes from the quantitative analysis.

Summary of Qualitative Findings

A recurring theme emerged from the teacher interviews: the realization that language instruction needs to be specific for EL students. Assumptions abounded that EL students would somehow discern the nuances of the English language. Teachers had several realizations that language instruction needs to be specific, regardless of whether they are building background knowledge, teaching about a specific text type, or instructing students to write.

Teachers commented that their instruction in the past must have been extremely confusing to their EL students. They added that they felt more confident after training in the TLC framework, and that it was rewarding to be involved in a teaching community where everyone shared the same pedagogy and beliefs regarding their EL students.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This chapter will summarize the study, discuss the findings, share the implications for future practice, and make recommendations for further research, all in the hopes of promoting more effective English Language Development by using the TLC framework. This chapter will also offer synthesized statements to illustrate the outcomes of this study and how it can be utilized to better meet the language acquisition needs of the nearly 1.5 million ELs in our California schools (Olsen, 2010).

As Dr. Lori Olsen explained in *Reparable Harm* (2010), ELs, by definition, enter school lacking the English skills necessary to access the core curriculum, and the sheer number of LTELs at the secondary level indicate that something has gone wrong. Olsen further details that many students receive no language development program at all or otherwise endure poorly-designed curriculums, weak language development program models, and inconsistent programs. From Olsen's (2010) category of "Received no language development program at all" (p. 15), she reports that little to no ELD instruction is present in many classrooms across all program models. Therefore, this study illustrates that the consistent use of the TLC pedagogical framework provides not only ELD instruction, but effective ELD instruction.

Discussion of Findings

Four research questions were investigated in an effort to understand if the implementation of the TLC framework, supplemented with support and practice, would improve teachers' language acquisition instruction for their EL students. The study focused on one urban school district located in the Central Valley. The chosen school district has approximately 10,000 English learners. A total of 32 teachers participated.

Research question one: How does training in the teaching and learning cycle affect teachers' instruction and the use of language acquisition strategies?

Table 4

Instructional Shifts in ELD

ELD Instructional Type	P Value	Change in Observed Behavior
Background Knowledge	.04	.13
Teaching about Text Type	.0000006	.19
Jointly Constructing Texts	.0000006	.50
Student Oral Production	p<0.001	18.4
Student Distractions	.56	.96

Soto (2012) notes that all teachers require professional development and professional learning that is focused, sustained, and aligned—not constantly altering as curriculums and administrators come and go. Soto emphasizes that teachers need time to practice these skills to improve student learning.

The training, support, and practice complemented by the TLC model provided teachers with the tools necessary to provide more language-centered instruction for their EL students. All participating teachers increased their use of language acquisition strategies, including (a) teaching background knowledge, (b) teaching about the text type, (c) jointly constructing texts, (d) creating writing opportunities for their EL students, and (e) creating oral language production opportunities for their EL students.

To that end, this study demonstrates that, when teachers are given professional learning and support, their instructional practices for ELs—including building content knowledge, teaching about the text type, jointly constructing texts, student oral production, and student writing production—are optimized to greatly increase language acquisition. Clearly, teachers felt more confident in their instruction for ELs as they have a strong instructional pedagogy as the foundation of their instruction for ELs. If the TLC framework is firmly in place, teachers' are empowered instructionally to better meet their students' language acquisition needs. Thus, training and use of the TLC, allows teachers to experience success with their ELs and not be solely reliant on administrators and purchased curriculums.

Spycher's STEAM book (2019) features a chapter by Linn-Nieves (2019), in which she details the four-week summer school program where the study was conducted. Linn-Nieves notes:

...the TLC acknowledges that although students must know enough about the topic to have something to write about, much more goes into writing than just content knowledge. Students also need abundant practice to understand how English works in different ways with different text types and in different content areas. (p. 168)

According to Linn-Nieves (2019), teachers set the stage during background building for all subsequent learning, and texts are selected carefully with a critical view towards writing (p.160). She further elaborates that teaching about the text type is the most important step of the writing process, but also the most overlooked; it is the critical stage where students discover how to compose their own writing. This study corroborates that observation. Before becoming familiar with the TLC, the educators involved frequently overlooked teaching about the text type.

Similarly, this study found that jointly constructing texts was also rarely utilized prior to TLC involvement, but was applied much more frequently by the end of the summer program. This finding is not surprising as years of visiting classrooms, participating in instructional walks, and mentoring new teachers has demonstrated that it is a common practice for teachers to move straight from direct instruction to asking the student to write independently. Perhaps a teacher will model writing, but this is not a joint collaborative effort, but simply the teacher demonstrating their own proficient writing.

Linn-Nieves (2019) states that, despite this crucial stage's necessity for helping older students to become independent writers, it is only rarely implemented. This is a process wherein teachers and students construct texts together. Specifically, the teacher acts as scribe while leading the class in analyzing the text type and structure.

One summer program teacher explained, "The strategies that I am now using in the classroom are amazing and really help the students, so learning them has been such a great asset." Another commented:

I feel like my pedagogical practices in the past may have been very confusing to the students at times and boring. Now I'm more confident that my lessons are more engaging to the students. I also know that I would be able to use the strategies I learned across multiple academic curricula.

Research question two: How does ongoing classroom support affect teachers' abilities to create oral language opportunities for their students? The study illustrates that professional learning support and teacher implementation of the TLC exceedingly increased students' oral language production within the classroom. In fact, student oral production demonstrated the most observable shift in instructional practices of teachers for creating these opportunities, and

for students in meeting this rigorous expectation. From the entirety of the research questions, the question involving the speaking domain demonstrated the greatest statistical effect.

If students are to learn how to speak a new language, they need to have opportunities to speak language within the classroom; however, many teachers are afraid to offer this opportunity to students, as they fear losing control of the students. Also, many teachers are not aware of how much they monopolize class time by talking at length, which allows students little time to practice their oral language skills.

Additionally, the teachers reported in interviews that, by increasing student oral collaboration, the students' writing also improved. The teachers created 18.4 opportunities within an observation period for their EL students to create oral language, in contrast to 2.3 prior to TLC training. This is an increase of 16.1 or 700%.

Through the classroom visits, the work with new teachers, and participating in instructional walks, it is evident that teachers often do not realize how frequently they talk in class and how rarely students are given the opportunity to speak to the class, a small group, or a partner. Additionally, some teachers are wary of offering students verbal opportunities for fear of losing control of their students' behaviors. For teachers beginning to provide more verbal exercises for their students, it is critical to be prepared and have planned, meaningful opportunities for their students to speak in class.

Linn-Nieves (2019) notes the importance of teachers planning language acquisition approaches that include opportunities to learn and discuss information in meaningful ways that also “generate enthusiasm and a sense of purpose for the unit of study” (p. 169). Likewise, Soto (2012) reports that ELs have historically been silent and invisible since teachers often believe that ELs cannot do more than what they demonstrate through their limited English skills.

This study radically dispels common misconceptions that ELs inevitably remain silent in rigorous classroom settings as they lack the language skills to contribute to the academic conversation. ELs have the potential to excel when they are given opportunities to learn background knowledge about a subject and the text type utilized within the text; their language confidence increases to a level where they have access to creating and offering input to the oral language opportunities in the classroom.

Research question three: Does the presence or lack of presence of district and site-level commitment to language acquisition influence teacher-created opportunities for writing language? It was evident that the professional learning, support, and utilization of the TLC increased teacher-created writing opportunities for students in class. Based on interviews with participating teachers, the training and site support equipped them with strategies for increasing student writing productivity. Explicitly, this study demonstrates that when equipped with language acquisition strategies, teachers are able to create numerous writing opportunities for their EL student beyond the norm of only assigning independent writing. Instead, teachers are now utilizing multiple joint construction writing opportunities as an entire class together and in small groups within the classroom before they ask students to write independently.

Alford and Nino (2011) contend that teachers should teach not only content, but also language concepts, including pre-teaching and reinforcement. As this study demonstrates, prior to the TLC training, the teachers involved created fewer writing opportunities for their students when compared to after the training.

According to one teacher, “The training gave me strategies on how to take text and break into its mostly simplest form, such as using a Notice & Note Chart.”

Another stated:

The students need scaffolds in place to assist them instead of teaching over them where they are lost in the language. In order to meet their needs, the visuals act as scaffolds that give access to the language to meet the standards.

Another teacher reported, “The training and level of support has given me the tools to teach my students how to write while also relaying to them the information they need.”

As Saunders et al. (2013) advocate, providing ELD instruction is more beneficial than not doing so. They explain that second-language instruction, designed to teach specific aspects of the second language, is more effective than conditions such as exposure only, minimally-focused instruction, and minimal exposure. Students who received concentrated second-language instruction made more than five times the gains of students who did not. After this study trained teachers with the TLC in a setting committed to language instruction, they created significantly more opportunities for their students to produce both oral and written language.

As one teacher in the summer program stated:

Before I would cringe when giving writing assignments because I knew it wouldn't reflect a very high quality of work, and even worse, I didn't have the knowledge to help my students improve. The training gave me strategies on how to take text and break into its mostly simplest form; once the text was dissected I learned further strategies and techniques to help them create better academic sentences. The importance of having the students constantly talking about the text to each other and in their assigned groups was something that was stressed and that I learned was very beneficial. Never had I thought of giving the students scripts to use when answering questions or giving feedback.

Another teacher explained:

...prior to exposure to the TLC I thought that modeling my own good writing was what students needed to see before they would be able to write on their own. Clearly, allowing students to jointly construct texts together is a more effective strategy to produce student writing.

Research question four: Does the presence or lack of presence of district and site-level commitment to language acquisition influence teachers' efficacy towards their instruction for ELs? The two-day professional development prior to the four-week summer school session answered this question in the positive. Saunders et al. (2013) corroborate that establishing and maintaining a successful district-wide and school-wide ELD program is more likely when both the district and school site make it a priority. One summer school teacher noted, "I had the opportunity to be immersed in these oral language production strategies thanks to the summer school program. Without this exposure and practice, I would have continued with my previous practice of striving for a quiet classroom."

The evidence and testimonies conclude that, when teachers are granted learning opportunities, support, and practice, they are more confident in their instruction and utilize language acquisition strategies more frequently to benefit their EL students. Additionally, teachers demonstrated confidence in utilizing instructional practices that go against previously held beliefs that a silent classroom is a controlled learning environment that benefits students, when in reality a silent classroom is a difficult setting for ELs to acquire language.

As Goddard et al. (2000) report, consistently with social cognitive theory, the major influences on efficacy beliefs are assumed to be the attribution, analysis, and interpretation of the four sources of information about efficacy. Bandura (1986, 1997) describes these as: (a) mastery experience, (b) physiological arousal, (c) vicarious experience, and (d) verbal persuasion. They

explain that teachers do not feel equally effective in all teaching situations because teacher efficacy is context-specific. Since collective teacher efficacy beliefs shape the normative environment of a school, they have a strong influence on teacher behavior and, consequently, student achievement. One teacher participating in the summer school testified:

The only training I have received regarding instruction for ELs is from this summer program and I have been teaching ELs for eight years. This is the first time I have been involved in a teaching community that believes ELs need specialized language instruction until they reclassify.

Consequently, this study demonstrates that, when teachers feel supported by their site and district in their instruction of ELs, they utilize the TLC, which increases their sense of language acquisition effectiveness.

Based on self-efficacy theory, the authors suggest that, when collective efficacy is high, teachers in a school believe they can reach their students and that they can overcome harmful external influences. These beliefs inspire persistence in teachers; they plan more thoroughly, they accept responsibility for student achievement, and temporary setbacks or failures do not discourage them. All of this was evident in the four-week summer program. Thus, these findings give administrators one solution to improve student achievement: raising the collective efficacy beliefs of their site staff (Goddard et al., 2000).

By experiencing success while utilizing the TLC in this study, teachers experienced the same success in their classrooms with their EL students, an area not commonly known for widespread success. This supports Bandura's claim that mastery experiences are potent sources of efficacy: "when applied to teaching, teacher efficacy is the teacher's assessment of his/her capability to organize and execute teaching and learning processes" (Bandura, 1997). Therefore,

when a teacher in the summer program mastered a task such as teaching about the text type or jointly constructing texts, this success increased their self-esteem and self-efficacy and they were more inclined to include these strategies in their instructional practices.

TLC Training, Support, and Practice Leads to Language Acquisition Opportunities

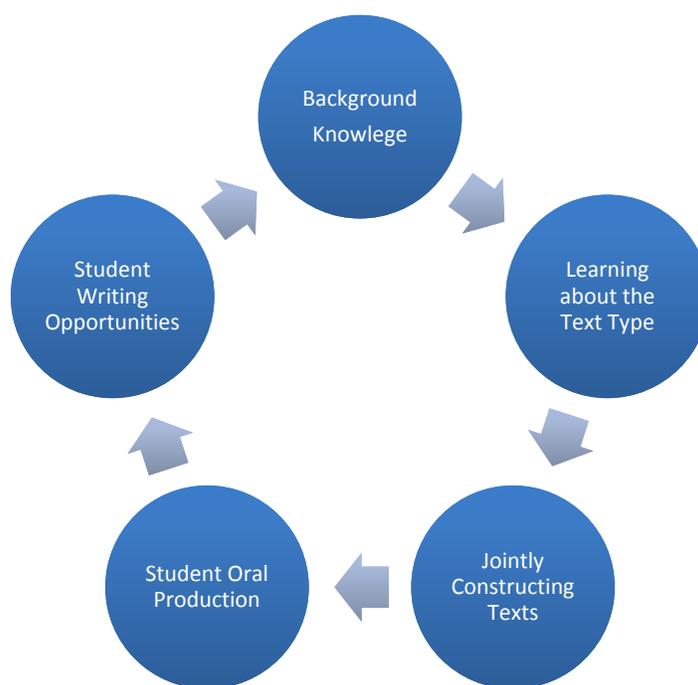


Figure 14. Outcomes of training, support and use of TLC.

Implications for Practice

With 1.2 million ELs and two-million reclassified ELs currently attending California schools, it is clear that instruction focused on language acquisition is the most effective approach. When forced to consider the realities of the current teacher shortage, the historical practice of placing the newest and least-experienced teachers in ELD classes, and educators commonly altering instructional focus and initiatives with unproven strategies in the hopes of improving test scores, it is unsurprising that California faces widespread teacher retention issues.

Additionally, teachers receive mixed messages when they are pressured to increase EL performance with only minimal support, guidance, and curricula.

This research attempted to determine exactly which district and site supports allowed teachers to feel successful with their ELD practices and how training in the TLC affects this instruction. The data indicates that some areas, such as the availability of instructional guidelines, resources, and the amount of professional learning did not yield significant differences in the pre- and postsurveys. In other words, the teachers believed both pre- and postsurvey that they received ample resources and support. They realized only after the study concluded just how severely their instruction had been lacking in regards to language acquisition.

There was also no significant difference in the pre- and post-observations of independent writing, meaning the teachers assigned independent writing just as frequently both before and after the training. This is not a surprising outcome; prior to the TLC training, teachers historically transitioned immediately from teaching background knowledge to independent writing, skipping both the instruction about the text type and the opportunity to jointly construct texts. Even Linn-Nieves (2019) reports that it is not until students have had multiple opportunities to analyze mentor texts to understand their purpose, structure, and language features; to deconstruct and reconstruct those texts; and to write and edit collaboratively through joint construction that they are significantly better prepared to write independently.

The first research question—which focused on the difference between teachers' instruction and the use of language acquisition strategies before and after the TLC model—showed a dramatic increase. With the EL students in content classes for 80% of the day and in an ELD class for 20% of the day, it is evident that language acquisition instruction must be present in all core classes throughout the day. This study demonstrates that, when teachers are

trained in the TLC framework—even in as little as two days of professional learning—and receive support from both their site and district, this provides a dramatic increase in language acquisition opportunities for the EL students.

Three of the four areas of the TLC saw more significant application by the teachers after practicing these language acquisition strategies. These three areas are (a) teaching background knowledge, (b) learning about the text type, and (c) jointly constructing texts. As noted earlier, only the practice of independent writing experienced no dramatic changes, but students were considerably better prepared for this task by the end of the summer program.

This increase in teaching background knowledge, teaching about the text type, and jointly constructing texts indicates that teachers sensed their instructional practices once lacked something crucial. They knew that their students needed to write in order to improve, but were unaware that ELs have to be specifically taught the nuances of the English language. Introducing the TLC model led to significant improvements in this regard.

The TLC is not a boxed curriculum that will become obsolete with the advancements of technology and time. It is a guiding framework that is available to all teachers of ELs at no cost. There are no texts or anthologies to purchase. Only a few books or pieces of text are necessary to teach language. Content is required, but the focus is the text type within the content, so only small financial investments are necessary to acquire text. For older students, non-fiction articles can be utilized at no cost. Training in the TLC and follow-up support is the only financial resource required. Many urban districts already have these training supports in place via instructional coaches, instructional specialists, and teachers on special assignment. Perhaps some districts can utilize these positions in a Training of Trainers (ToT) model to train and support teachers with the TLC.

It also stands to reason that including TLC training in the induction process might contribute to solving California's teacher shortage and low teacher retention rates.

Another method to expose new teachers to the TLC is through teacher credentialing programs. The state of California requires that all new teachers complete a teacher credentialing program; without doing so, they can only work for two years using an emergency credential. It would be invaluablely beneficial for California's EL students if all the new teachers were trained with this framework and its strategies. EL instruction would become more equitable and consistent across the state. The TLC framework could be easily implemented into the bilingual education course, which is required in all teacher-credentialing programs in California. Including the TLC into this course would provide actual instructional practice instead of simply the history of bilingual education.

As Téllez (2004), Vargas (2012), and Olsen (2010) have detailed in their individual research, teachers of ELs desire to provide them with the educations that they deserve, but these teachers are often unable to fully understand the specifics of language acquisition and merely fall back on "just good teaching" strategies. They are under the impression that the English language arts curriculum, as well as any teaching they do under the heading of "English," is the same as ELD (Olsen, 2010). Adding the TLC framework to the induction process might better equip new teachers to provide ELs with effective instruction, thus contributing to increased teacher retention.

In light of large urban districts always scrutinizing their expenditures on EL populations and being scrutinized by both state and federal agencies in regards to funds reserved to raise the achievement levels of ELs, implementing the TLC is an affordable, effective option for these districts. While some might claim they cannot implement the TLC because they have recently

spent millions of dollars on a new ELA or ELD curriculum, these purchases are not a roadblock to using the TLC. The framework can be easily integrated into the newly-purchased curriculum. Additionally, the size and structure of a district should not be an obstacle for implementing the TLC; since it applies to all grade levels from K-12, any district within that range can implement this framework with any additional content or previously purchased box curriculum.

Future Research

The findings of this study warrant consideration of replicating it on a larger scale to further unveil the impact of TLC training and support with a larger sample of teachers and students, or perhaps even an entire school site. There are numerous possible combinations to explore. For example, two or more school sites could be compared; one could use the TLC framework as the other continues with its current curriculum and instructional norms. Another possibility might be utilizing new publisher-created materials that have been recently adopted by many districts and sites throughout California. One site could integrate the TLC with the new curriculum while a second school would use only the new curriculum. This type of study could easily be expanded beyond two sites to cover multiple sites with similar student populations. Evidently, the only limitations to future research are those that the researcher would impose.

If time was not a factor in a future study, it would be beneficial to include the new California ELPAC assessment that all ELs within California take each spring to determine English proficiency. The results are available each August. Future researchers could examine the possible impact that exposure to the TLC framework may or may not have on an EL student's performance in this examination.

With considerable sums of money recently spent on updated publisher-created curriculums, school districts and the state will closely review ELPAC scores and other indicators

of EL progress. Depending on how these EL students perform, a more widespread approach to utilizing and studying the effects of the TLC model could be a reality in the near future.

Conclusion

The findings of this study fill a void of research. It details what strategies can be used effectively with ELs as they acquire language while working towards English proficiency. This study also reveals that, through professional learning, support, and utilization of the TLC, there was an increase in educators' beliefs in their effectiveness as teachers of language acquisition. It is often the case that sites and districts attempt to help their ELs gain English proficiency by searching for a new curriculum or another initiative. This study unveils the simplicity of providing teachers the support they need in their instruction of ELs.

A positive correlation between training, support, and practice with the TLC was exhibited as well. The most significant progress was made in teaching background knowledge, teaching about the text type, jointly constructing texts, and creating written and oral language opportunities for EL students.

The findings of this study warrant further reflection on how to improve the design and delivery of professional learning and support opportunities for K-12 teachers of ELs as they work towards reclassifying them as Reclassified Fluent English Proficient. As Dr. Lori Olsen notes in *Reparable Harm* (2010), much has gone wrong; many EL students receive no language development program at all, poorly designed curriculums, weak language development program models, and inconsistent programs. The results of this study shed light on past instructional methods that can be corrected across California with the adoption and support of the TLC pedagogical framework.

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APPENDIX A

**Application to Conduct Research
in the Stockton Unified School District**

Fall 2018 Application, Deadline October 1, 2018



NONDISCLOSURE AGREEMENT

It is understood and agreed to that the Discloser and the Recipient would like to exchange certain information that may be considered confidential. To ensure the protection of such information and in consideration of the agreement to exchange said information, the parties Annita McManus ("Individual"), who is an employee, consultant or student of _____ ("Organization"), and the Stockton Unified School District ("District") agree as follows for the purpose of conducting research (Name project here):

Duration- This Agreement shall be in force for the duration of the research from date 5/18 to 5/19

This Agreement may be terminated without cause of any kind by the District provided written notice of the termination sixty (60) days prior to the effective date of the termination. Neither party shall be liable to the other party for any costs, losses or damages resulting from such termination.

Confidential Information- "Confidential Information" means written, graphic, electronic or pictorial information or material and the medium in which it is contained that the District, in its judgment, would reasonably consider as being confidential.

- Individual's Obligation -**
- A. Individual agrees that the Confidential Information is to be considered confidential and proprietary to the District and Individual shall hold the same confidence and shall not use the Confidential Information other than for the Purpose of Agreement.
 - B. Confidential Information furnished in a tangible form shall not be duplicated by Individual except for the Purpose of Agreement. Individual shall return all Confidential Information received in tangible form, including all copies, reproductions or other media containing such Confidential Information upon completion of all work associated with the Purpose of Agreement or immediately upon request of District.
 - C. Individual agrees to not reveal any individually identifiable information. Further, Individual agrees to not make any disclosure or publication whereby the data furnished by or related to any particular person, school, or the school district could be identified.
 - D. Individual agrees to immediately notify District of any breach of this Agreement.
 - E. Employees or consultants from Company designated above who are granted access to Confidential Information by Individual shall abide by the Obligations of the Individual.

Governing Law and Equitable Relief - This Agreement shall be governed and construed in accordance with the laws of the United States and the State of California and Individual consents to the exclusive jurisdiction of the state courts and U.S. federal courts located there for any dispute arising out of this Agreement. Individual agrees that in the event of any breach or threatened breach by Individual, District may obtain, in addition to any other legal remedies which may be available, such equitable relief as may be necessary to protect District against any such breach or threatened breach.

<p>Individual <u>[Signature]</u> Signature</p> <p><u>Annita McManus-White</u> Printed name</p> <p><u>Annita McManus White</u> Printed name</p> <p>Instructional Specialist Title</p> <p><u>3/12/18</u> Date</p>	<p>Stockton Unified School District <u>[Signature]</u> Signature</p> <p><u>[Signature]</u> Printed name</p> <p><u>Acting Assistant Superintendent</u> Title</p> <p><u>3/13/17</u> Date</p>
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APPENDIX B

Teacher Consent Form for Participation in a Research Study
Concordia University

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Annita McManus-White under the supervision of Dr. Eugene Kim, Executive Director Master of Arts in International Studies Degree Program, Concordia University Irvine. The Institutional Review Board, Concordia University Irvine, in Irvine, CA, has approved this study.

Purpose:

As Olsen (2010) explains, much has gone wrong from students receiving no language development program at all, poor designed curriculum, weak language development program models, and inconsistent programs which has led to an increasing number of Long Term English Learners (LTEL) at the secondary level, which statistically leads to a higher non-graduation rate for English Learners (ELs), versus other subgroups. Although there is a great deal of research on second language instruction, there is a smaller amount of research to guide the design and delivery of instruction for ELs and how their teachers' perceptions of their own effectiveness can influence their daily instruction. As Saunders (2013) explains, few studies focus on teacher perception of English Language Development (ELD) and integrated instruction and the effects of this instruction.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between teacher perceptions of their instruction for their EL students, and how that perception of instructing ELs may change after being exposed to specific language instructional approaches as historically teachers have only been given vague instructional guidelines to use with their EL students. Additionally, the study will determine how participants regard their instruction of ELs such as if participants acquired new knowledge, and how participants utilized their new knowledge within their classrooms, which allowed them to better meet the language acquisition needs of the EL students.

The following research questions are addressed to determine if teacher perception in regard to their instruction of ELs, effects their instruction and if exposure and support with the Teaching and Learning Cycle (Linn-Nieves & Spycher, 2014), and the specific instructional approaches and strategies effects this perception over time.

1. Does a teacher's perception of their own effectiveness of teaching ELD and integrated courses effect their instruction?
2. After receiving training and support with the Teaching and Learning Cycle (TLC), does a teachers' perception of their instructional effectiveness change?
3. Do the presence or lack of presence of Saunders (2013) ELD guidelines influence teachers' perceptions of the instruction they deliver?

Description:

The primary goal of this case study is to understand the relationship between teacher perceptions of their effectiveness in instruction for their EL students both before and after experience with the TLC Model. The study will utilize surveys, observations and professional learning opportunities. Purposeful sampling will be possible as a result of the selection of K-12 teachers drawn from both elementary and secondary sites.

To begin the project, prior to the start of the four-week summer school program, the researcher will gain permission from teachers to participate in the study by having them read about the study and fill out the consent form (see Appendix B). Since a strong professional relationship is already in place with teachers, acquiring permission and gaining access is not anticipated to be a challenge. Researcher will survey the participating teachers using a survey, which was designed to capture the teachers' perceptions of their own effectiveness of instructing ELs given the training, and support they have received to date.

Next, the Implementation Tool, will be utilized when visiting all participating teachers' classes prior to the start of summer school to note the level of language acquisition instructional approaches and strategies that are evident within the actual classrooms, lesson plans, and utilized during the classroom visit.

After participating teachers have been surveyed and observed, they will have the opportunity to participate in two full days of Professional Learning where they will be introduced to the TLC and how it applies to the language acquisition process for ELs. Within this cycle, several language acquisition instructional approaches and strategies will be shared so that they can be incorporated into instruction. Instructional approaches and strategies will be modeled and teachers will have time to debrief and collaborate in regard to language acquisition. Teachers will also be introduced to the units of study that will be used during the four-week summer program so that they can begin to become familiar with how the TLC is used within the unit.

Once the four-week K-12 summer program begins, participating teachers will be visited and supported by researcher in the form of modeling, co-teaching, and collaboration. Support and coaching will be available to teachers throughout the four-week program. At the end of the project, teachers will be surveyed and observed using the same instruments.

Participation:

Summer 2018 marks the second summer school experience designed specifically for ELs. In summer 2017, an EL summer school for third-eighth grades was piloted. Approximately 300 third-eighth grade students from across the district attended the month long program. There were 16 elementary teachers from across the districts that were chosen through an interview and select process to be involved in the summer program.

For Summer 2018, the included grade levels have been expanded to include K-12th grades. Depending on student participation numbers, there will be 24 or more teachers teaching in the four-week program. Teachers were provided with units of study that are designed using the TLC and all of the instructional approaches and strategies associated with the four elements of the cycle. These teachers will be chosen through an interview and select process. There is not a

minimum requirement of experience working with ELs for participating teachers since the summer program will be providing teachers with a complete unit of study, instructional approaches and strategies along with professional learning to implement all components of the unit of study.

Data will be collected from participating teachers within this group. Both the teachers and the students will represent several elementary and high schools.

Anonymity:

Coding of all responses obtained from the teacher surveys and classroom visit implementation tool will ensure anonymity.

Duration:

The majority of the study will take place during the four week EL summer program where you will be providing instruction. In addition to the four weeks of the summer program, there are two days of professional learning that will take place prior to the summer program, which are required component of teaching within the program. A pre and post survey will also be administered at the beginning and end of the study, which takes approximately fifteen minutes.

Risks:

Potential risks may include discomfort towards the coaching or team teaching process if this is new to you or you have had a negative experience in the past. However, all rules and regulations set forth by the National Institute of Health and Extramural Research will be adhered to minimizing risk. No identifiable information will be used to reference the district, teacher, or school participating in the study. No student data will be collected and all subjective data will be shared with participants. Also, teacher participants could view researcher as an administrator; therefore, other Instructional Specialists within the district will conduct surveys and observations.

Benefits:

There are several potential benefits to being involved in this study and to conducting this study:

1. Teachers who are involved will have the opportunity to metacognitively think about their instruction and their EL students.
2. Teachers will be exposed to the Teaching and Learning Cycle (Spycher & Linn-Nieves, 2014), which is a specific language acquisition cycle to be used with EL students. For too long English Language Development classes have been simply another version of an ELA class with little to no emphasis on language instruction. Thus, this form of instruction will be beneficial to all teachers who work with ELs.
3. Study could potentially demonstrate that teachers' perceptions of teaching ELs improves after being exposed to specific language instructional approaches since historically teachers have only been given vague instructional guidelines to use with their EL students.

Contact:

If you have any questions or concerns about this study or if any problems arise, please contact Annita White, Instructional Specialist at 916-289-6892. If you have any questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant, please contact the Concordia University Institutional Review Board irb@cui.edu.

Results:

At the completion of the study and data analysis, the results can be obtained at the Language Development Office: 1545 Saint Mark's Plaza, Stockton CA 95207

Confirmation Statement:

I have read the information above and agree to participate in your study.

I have read this consent form and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. I give my consent to participate in this study. A copy of this consent form will be given to you.

Signature _____ Date: _____

Printed Name: _____

The extra copy of this consent form is for your record.

APPENDIX C

Survey

Name: _____
 Age: _____
 Gender
 Male
 Female
 Other _____

Ethnicity:
 European-Descent
 Asian-Descent
 African-Descent
 Latin-Descent
 Other _____

Undergraduate Major: _____

First Language: _____

Directions: Please answer the questions based on your experiences as a teacher with students who are English Learners.

	Completely Disagree				Completely Agree
1. My school emphasizes academic language as well as conversational language incorporating the four domains of reading, writing, listening and speaking.	1	2	3	4	5
2. In my classroom, I emphasize academic language as well as conversational language incorporating the four domains of reading, writing, listening and speaking.	1	2	3	4	5
3. There is a school-wide global understanding that ELD is necessary and required until an EL reclassifies.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Currently, I am given sufficient instructional guidelines (e.g., working on the four language domains).	1	2	3	4	5
5. I have received appropriate training in EL instructional strategies.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I receive ongoing instructional support from administrators, coaches, and specialists.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I receive sufficient instructional resources from my site.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I currently receive sufficient professional development in EL instruction.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I am an effective EL instructor.	1	2	3	4	5
10. In my classroom, students have many opportunities to produce oral language (e.g., speak out in class).	1	2	3	4	5
11. In my classroom, students have many opportunities to produce written language.	1	2	3	4	5
12. My room is full of visual representations and supports of student learning such as anchor charts, student work, etc.	1	2	3	4	5

