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Subverting the Academic Language Hegemony: Implementing Language Architecture and Similar Pedagogies

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Subverting the Academic Language Hegemony:
Implementing Language Architecture and Similar Pedagogies

By

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A capstone submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Masters
of Arts in Education

Hamline University

Saint Paul, MN

August 2022

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I dedicate this project to my family for all their support and love that got me here, to my husband for his patience and love that helped get me through, and to all school staff and students that have been fighting for our collective dream of a better world. Thank you.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Language is a gift. It allows us to exchange information, connect with others, and much more. Learning a new language can be a difficult but often rewarding task because it allows us to communicate with more people than ever before. I have personal experience with this process as my first language was Spanish and I began to learn English at the age of five. My family is originally from Ciudad Juarez, Chihuahua in Northern Mexico. When my father graduated with his veterinary degree, my mom and dad had the opportunity to live where he worked: on a ranch in Texas. It was both an opportunity and an escape from the quickly rising violence in Juarez, driven by sexism, government corruption, and drug cartels.

In this chapter, I will continue to talk about my experience as a multilingual (ML) student as well as my perspective as an English language teacher. I will also talk about what influenced my passion and curiosity for my research questions: *why should English language teachers utilize language architecture and what can that implementation in the secondary classroom look like?* I focused on secondary classrooms because that is where I have the majority of my English language teaching experience. The purpose of this capstone is to both explore these questions and the new methods of language architecture so that we can use them to better support multilingual students. I will publish my findings in this paper and on its corresponding website, which will be able to serve as a resource for all secondary teachers but especially for English language teachers.

Context

Language can be an important marker of culture and identity. My parents did not want me or my sisters to lose our Spanish, which happened to other family members and to many other immigrant kids for many different reasons. Because of this, at home we only spoke Spanish, although both of my parents worked hard to become fluent in English. I am very grateful for their foresight and for their work to keep us connected to our roots. I began to learn English in kindergarten while still in Texas. Most of the school day was in Spanish, as that is what everyone spoke, and we had time in the day dedicated to learning English. The next year, we moved to Minnesota, and I went to a majority Latine (a gender neutral spelling of Latino/a) elementary school.

The entire school day was in English, and I was placed in English-language services. I still have one vivid memory of being loudly corrected on my mispronunciation of Arkansas. I was able to exit multilingual services in the third grade. For the rest of my schooling, which continues even today, I have struggled a lot with what is called academic language (AL). Academic language can be defined as the specialized language and language structure used by the academy (Cummins, 2000).

I imagined that my struggle came from not having the opportunity to learn academic language skills in my first language (L1). Since the majority of my schooling was in English, I had to learn these skills in my second language (L2). Research has shown that academic language skills learned in the L1 transfer easily to the L2 (Cummins, 2000). I have often needed teachers to further break down complex language or concepts for me because I could not understand them in the initial explanation. I have learned to ask for help and clarification, but at times, teachers would only repeat the

confusing jargon without fully breaking it down into more familiar words. Occasionally, in these situations, I would give up and move on, hoping it would not affect me in the long run. Other times, I would try my luck with Google instead.

Similarly, non-fiction reading has been very intimidating for a long time because I find that I often run into the same issue, but I cannot ask the author to break it down. I have no choice but to read slowly and turn to dictionaries or the internet to explain confusing concepts so that I can continue reading and learning. This effort can be very time-consuming and tiring. I am a student who was, and is, very motivated to both do well in school and learn, but the AL often made me have to overcome an extra language hurdle in order to understand.

Considering what I have learned from English language teaching (ELT), I could say that all of us who have struggled with academic language have simply needed better explicit teaching of AL. The mental conflict that I still had was that I did everything right as a multilingual student, but it still never felt like enough. I was motivated, a good listener, and I absorbed all the information I could from school and even taught myself academic skills at home. Even so, I continued to feel incompetent in the face of academic language. Writing essays was often the most tiring assignment because I spent a lot of time crafting the AL.

There was a lot I did know. I knew what it meant to “sound educated,” but when I wanted to learn for the sake of learning, academic language was often incomprehensible to me when I encountered it. Even though I loved school, this struggle, among others, made every year more and more exhausting and life-sucking. When I read the article "Why science's universal language is a problem for research," I found other people that

shared this experience. Dr. Monseratt Lopez, a McGill University biophysicist from Mexico, said that "Reading a research paper [in English] would take me a whole day or two as opposed to a couple of hours [in Spanish]" (Huttner-Koros, 2015, n.p.). I was not alone; this was a global problem.

I have had a lot of wonderfully passionate and engaging teachers in my life. Part of my motivation to become an English language teacher was to better understand academic language, and I also wanted to inspire my fellow immigrants in the same way teachers in my life inspired and guided me. The only way that my community, and many other communities, have been able to survive and succeed is by caring for and supporting each other. Immigrating to a new country is something that takes a lot of bravery and support to successfully accomplish. From being able to communicate with others to gaining better employment opportunities, learning English becomes integral to everything. Now that I am a teacher, I often see my own struggles reflected in my students.

This paper will use the term "global majority" to refer to people of color as it is a more empowering way to refer to us (Campbell-Stephens, 2021). I have worked with global majority students for four summers, worked at a preschool for a semester, and have worked at a secondary school for three years. Many of the students that I have worked with are brand new to the country, known as "recently arrived English learners" (RAELs). Because I am bilingual, I have had the privilege of acting as a bridge for students that also speak Spanish, which happened to be the majority of the RAELs in the high school. Some of the students are also considered Students with Limited or Interrupted Formal Education (SLIFE), meaning that they have not been in school for two

or more years. I have worked with a couple of SLIFE students who struggled to read and write in their L1. For all of the RAELs, the majority of their classes are in English with support from paraeducators.

There is not a perfect way to structure an English language program, but in this current program, RAELs are expected to simultaneously learn English, acquire academic language skills they may or may not have acquired in their L1, and learn the concepts required of them in order to graduate. I have observed that many students come into the program very motivated to learn and slowly lose that motivation when faced with this monumental task.

I have also worked with students that are at a more advanced level of English proficiency, and the majority of them expressed low motivation for school, struggled to ask for help, and passively engaged with new concepts. I saw many monolingual secondary students also exhibit these behaviors, but I wonder how much the language barrier and feelings of confusion in class impact this reaction. This is not to say that students cannot do hard things, but I want to ask what we can do to better support these students with this task as a community.

Rationale

In my licensure program, I began learning about language architecture and raciolinguistics. Immediately, I knew that this was the perspective that I had been missing. Language architecture talks about using all the languages that students know to engage with new concepts and reach content standards, moving away from academic English being the only legitimate way to express knowledge (Flores & Rosa, 2015). In ELT, we often refer to a student's L1 as their home language. Language architecture

advocates for doing away with this distinction by having students use all of their prior knowledge and their full identity, so they can learn with their full selves (Babino, 2022). Instead of coming from a deficit mindset, where we see students as lacking, what if we had an asset-based mindset, where students' full knowledge base is acknowledged? I wonder how this mindset change would impact the motivation that all students, not just multilingual students, have towards school.

Raciolinguistics is the lens that language architecture is based on, and it is the study of how language, race, and power interact (Flores, 2019). The entire reason that English language teachers have a profession is tied to raciolinguistics. The reasons why speaking English gives economic opportunities and why a lot of people migrate to the United States are tied to the history of colonization. It is imperative that we, as English language teachers, understand this history to truly understand the present. This history will be further explored in Chapter Two.

The more I learned about these concepts, the more curious I became about how to implement them in the secondary classroom. Explicitly teaching academic language did not seem to be sufficient for myself or for my students in order to facilitate learning for everyone. I wanted to continue to explore these ideas and move them from theory to practice. This is where the research questions came from.

In the schools I have worked at, I have seen the number of multilingual students increase dramatically. I have also seen this increase echoed in many other surrounding school districts. In the entire nation, the number of culturally and linguistically diverse students has increased greatly, and 53% of US elementary and secondary students in the 2018-2019 school year were global majority students (Schaeffer, 2021). As many schools

become more multilingual and multicultural, we need to make sure that we are teaching multilingual students in the absolute best way that we can. Not just because of the impact on graduation rates, but simply because all students deserve a quality education.

Summary

In this first chapter, I introduced my research questions, I addressed the context from which my curiosity is based, and I provided the rationale to explain why this topic is important for the field. Teaching requires the skill of making concepts easier to understand, and language architecture is one important way that we can explore how to do so. I asked the questions: *why should English language teachers utilize language architecture and what can that implementation in the secondary classroom look like?* This curiosity came both from my own experience as a multilingual student and from my seven years of working with global majority/multilingual students. The research questions are important for the field of English language teaching because of its connection to raciolinguistics and our responsibility to have an asset-mindset approach. I will also be creating a website that explores practical ways to apply language architecture.

In Chapter Two, I will explore what role racialization has in the history of linguistic discrimination as well as the history of English language teaching within the United States to give context to where we are today. I will then explore the full definitions of both academic English and language architecture, as well as various implementation strategies for language architecture.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

Introduction

This chapter will provide context in order to answer the research question: *why should English language teachers utilize language architecture and what can that implementation in the secondary classroom look like?* This chapter will examine the research on the history of discrimination against multilingual people, as well as on the history and usage of academic language in English, and on the newly established theory of language architecture within English language teaching (ELT). A range of research concerning this question has been included in this chapter, and the research will inform the website.

It is exceedingly necessary for there to be a thorough analysis of why English speakers, especially teachers, value academic English over other forms because of its emphasis in both society and classrooms. The goal of teaching academic language is most often to help multilingual students be successful in school and to provide them with the greater financial and social opportunities mentioned previously. Pedagogical (the study of teaching strategies and methods) and andragogical (the pedagogy of adult education) decisions that English language teachers make should be based on solid research that analyzes the impact they have on students of all ages.

Fuller and Wardhaugh (2015) stated that linguists do not believe that any variety of language (e.g. African American English, Spanglish, Standardized American English etc.) is inherently superior to any other because all languages “adequately serve the needs of those who use them” (p. 339). They go on to say that certain varieties of a language are

perceived as better because of social factors; often because they can provide their speakers with opportunities within education, employment, and social mobility. This perception is especially evident through the use of academic language. Davila (2016) describes this as “hegemony of Standard Edited American English (SEAE)” or the belief that SEAE is the only correct language variety based on ideas of superiority and correctness, and so it should be the common variety for schools, businesses, and public announcements (p. 128-129).

Motha (2014) asked a critical question in *Race, Empire, and English Language Teaching*, “How do teachers support their students’ access to privileged forms of English while maintaining a critical eye toward the legacy of colonization and racialization in which the profession is embedded?” (p. 2). This question connects to the reasons why English language teachers should use language architecture, and the context behind these reasons will be explored in this section.

History of Discrimination

This section will explore the history of the lens known as raciolinguistics, the history of English language teaching within the United States, and what research says about economic opportunities for multilingual people. It is vital to explore this history and research to establish the context for academic language and language architecture.

Raciolinguistics

Alim, Rickford, and Ball (2016) started their book, called *Raciolinguistics: How Language Shapes Our Ideas about Race*, by talking about why former President Barack Obama was called “articulate” by some during his time as President to explain what raciolinguistics means. President Obama is skilled at knowing when to employ his

“linguistic resources,” including Standardized American English and African American English (Alim et al., 2016). His knowledge and use of Standardized American English/academic language surprised people to the point that many of them commented on the fact. People had not expected him, as a Black person, to have the education and finesse with this variety that he has, though there is a long history of Black scholars who have the same ability. Rosa (2019) titled his book *Looking Like a Language, Sounding Like a Race* because of this assumption of a connection between generalized appearance, often based on race, and specific languages or dialects.

An important part in the development of racism, created as a justification for colonization and transatlantic enslavement, was the classification of language varieties into a hierarchy (Rosa & Flores, 2017; Von Esch et al., 2020). In what is now known as the United States, people who had spoken their own languages for years had to learn the colonial languages, often without access to formal education because the colonizers forbade it for enslaved peoples (Motha, 2014). As people mixed what they already knew with the colonial language in order to function in their newly imposed societies, creolized languages and dialects that we now associate with specific people groups (e.g. African American English) were created.

Others, like many Indigenous children to what is currently known as the United States and Canada, were forced to learn English in residential schools (Parks Canada, 2020; Montgomery & Colwell, 2020). The goal of these schools was cultural genocide: to assimilate the Indigenous children by forcing them to learn English, and so they were punished if they spoke their own languages (Montgomery & Colwell, 2020). Forced

language learning was used as one of the many tools for assimilation and cultural erasure (Von Esch et al., 2020).

European colonizers used the gap between the dialects and the colonial languages as a way to enforce dehumanization, justify enslavement, and later explain away racial inequality (Motha, 2014; Ramjattan, 2019; Rosa & Flores, 2017). They also associated certain languages with nation-states (English for England) for unity, and therefore needed to create centralized systems that defined their correct use (Spanish Royal Academy). This standardized language is associated with colonial power and whiteness (Von Esch et al., 2020). Every citizen then needed to learn this language in order to properly participate in the state, and those who refused or who spoke an “incorrect” version were an affront to society (Rosa & Flores, 2017). Colonizers described indigenous languages as being incapable of expressing the complex perspectives they believed were represented by European languages (Veronelli, 2015). Related to this, if academic English is considered superior and is kept within formal education, then the incorrect forms of English are therefore languages of the uneducated (Motha, 2014).

The present is no exception to utilizing a flawed measuring stick. Henrich, Heine, and Norenzayan (2010) pointed out that Western, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, and Democratic (WEIRD) populations have formed the basis of a significant majority of behavioral and psychological claims. The majority of this research has included primarily undergraduate college students in North America as subjects, and this is where many universalized behavioral science claims have come from. Claims such as the perception of specific visual illusions and spatial cognition have been universalized to all humans,

when in reality only a very small percentage of humans were included in the research, and further research found these generalizations to be faulty.

Henrich, Heine, and Norenzayan (2010) compared several people groups to see if generalizing behavior from the WEIRD group was useful, and they discovered that culture and environment have a large influence on behavior that these generalizations failed to account for. In the same way that the original studies erased the cultural perceptions of the rest of the world, raciolinguistic ideologies erase the cultural perspectives present in language by forcing everyone to speak and see the world in the same way (Motha, 2014).

In this context, the importance of the study of raciolinguistics is clear as it continues to affect the global majority of people today. Raciolinguistics is defined by Alim, Rickford, and Ball (2016) as the critical analysis of language, race, and power around the world. People are forced to assimilate and learn the “correct” English in school, often at the detriment of their other linguistic resources. Then, there are those who are surprised when this is done successfully, as if it were rare or impossible. The history of raciolinguistics gives us an insight to unspoken rules and assumptions within English language teaching today, and highlights the importance of awareness when creating the future of the field.

History of Multilingual Education

Because of this history, raciolinguistics has had a historical impact on multilingual students and their education. Within the United States, various laws and legal settlements have been put into place to counter the discrimination against multilingual students. Many of these settlements came to be because of the multilingual families and advocates

who sued schools and states in order to demand better education for their students (Ruiz Bybee et al., 2014). The experiences between students in English language programs and Black students not in English language programs are connected within this advocacy and in having many linguistic resources (Alim et al., 2016). Despite many Black people having a rich linguistic background in African American or Black English, Black students are frequently rendered invisible in multilingual education (Sung, 2018). Explicitly including students that speak Black English in the definition of multilingual is a step towards rectifying this.

Ruiz Bybee, Henderson, and Hinojosa (2014) described the history of bilingual education in the United States. They describe how, in the early 1800s, many communities were multilingual, as immigrant groups settled homogeneously and were taught multilingually. It was not until the 1900s that “English-only” education spread in order to assimilate the constant stream of new immigrants. Between the 1920s and 1960s, “sink or swim” English immersion policies were the norm, meaning everything was in English without explicit language education and students had to adapt to survive. There were a few moves towards progress during this time (Ruiz Bybee et al., 2014). The most notable case was *Meyer v. Nebraska* (1924), which removed the English-only requirement from private schools, allowing multilingual education in these select institutions.

Some time after, the Civil Rights Act (1964) set a minimum standard for quality education, which led to the Bilingual Education Act (1968) as an amendment to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1965). The Bilingual Education Act established a policy for bilingual education for socioeconomically disadvantaged multilingual students by allocating money for innovative programs (Ruiz Bybee et al.,

2014). It also recognized the various educational disadvantages faced by multilingual students, including segregated public schools that focused on teaching English but had less funding, underqualified teachers, and fewer resources. In 1974, *Lau v. Nichols* found that providing multilingual students with the same exact education as mainstream students should not be the goal, and that to achieve equity, students needed to receive remedial English instruction.

Sung (2018) talked about a landmark court case known as the Ann Arbor Decision (1979), where the judge ruled that the district was violating federal law by not fairly recognizing the home language of the eleven Black students within their education. Teachers at Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. Elementary School sent forty teachers to a professional development about African American English (Fiske, 1981). Because of *Castañeda v. Pickard*, in 1981, the “Castañeda test” was established where all English language teaching programs had to be based on sound research, receive sufficient resources and personnel to be successfully implemented, and be evaluated to gauge effectiveness (Ruiz Bybee et al., 2014).

In 1996, the Oakland school district in California passed a resolution to improve the education of Black students, which included declaring African American English, previously known as Ebonics, a language (Los Angeles Times, 1996). This was done to use bilingual instruction, that uses students’ L1 to teach them academic/standardized English, for Black students who’s L1 is Black English. After a nationwide misunderstanding because of media slander, the Oakland school district removed the language portion from their resolution (Hobbess, 2017).

No Child Left Behind (2001) and the Every Student Succeeds Act (2015) both provided greater funding for English language teaching programs and required that multilingual students meet state educational standards, but they lacked funding for bilingual education (Mitchell, 2016). Blum (2016) brought attention to the achievement gap discourse that is currently prevalent within the education system. Blum (2016) pointed out that remedial programs often blame the linguistic practices of children and their families for these gaps, like the “thirty million word gap” between predominantly low-income communities of color and middle and upper-class white communities. These programs also create a no-excuses perception, meaning that the onus for failure is on the children because they have presumably been taught what they need to “succeed.” This perception ignores the socio-economic policies that play a big role in that success (Blum, 2016).

Multilingual education has come a long way to meet students where they are in order to address their educational needs and protect multilingual students from the discrimination of the past, but there is still more growth needed. This history helps to orient the first part of the research question: *why should English language teachers utilize language architecture?* Students have long been prescribed the “correct” English throughout the history of language teaching within the United States. This prescription has been done in order to maintain systems of oppression and not to liberate students (Motha, 2014). One of the reasons for teaching multilingual students academic/standardized English is for promised economic and social opportunities, the next section will explore the research related to this claim.

Workplace Discrimination Against Multilingual People

In this society, the low socioeconomic status of many multilingual people has been blamed on a perceived inherent language deficiency and on the fact that many do not speak the “correct” variety of English that will grant them social mobility (Blum, 2016; Flores, 2019). Awareness of raciolinguistics ideologies is needed within English language teaching, considering students are being taught this colonial language because of the unspoken promise of social mobility (Motha, 2014). Related to this, Flores (2019) talked about how:

Raciolinguistic ideologies were foundational to European colonialism and continue to be used to justify the continued maintenance of white supremacy by suggesting that the roots of racial inequalities lie in the linguistic deficiencies of racialized communities and *that the solution to these racial inequalities is to modify their language practices.* (p. 24)

Flores (2019) used “racialized” to emphasize that race was a project imposed upon global majority people during the creation of white supremacy. The impacts of this project are alive and well. Research analyzing the realization of social mobility after racialized people changed their language practices fails to support it. Ramjattan (2019) talked about difficulties that multilingual people face in the job market. In his analysis, he defined “aesthetic labor” as the manner in which employers either hire specific employees or demand changes of existing employees so that they sound and look more appealing to customers (Ramjattan, 2019). Whiteness in all its forms—in language and in appearance—is seen as neutral and is therefore more appealing (Ramjattan, 2019).

For example, in their experiment with managers from the US, Timming (2017) found that when the managers were listening to voice recordings of five foreign-accented people's interviews, they rated the British and American accents as more employable than the Chinese, Indian, and Mexican accents. Ramjattan said that, "Even when it is not physically visible, race may still determine the value of voice" (Ramjattan, 2019, p. 728).

It is well known within the field of English language teaching that after the critical period, ending around ten to fourteen years old, it is not likely for a multilingual student to not have an accent in their L2, as the brain gets rid of neurons it does not need to maximize efficiency (Dollman et al., 2019). Lippi-Green (2012) discovered that people from the global majority with accents are generally perceived as being unable to speak specific language varieties, such as academic English, well, regardless of their actual tested proficiency.

Other instances of raciolinguistic discrimination include Japanese American English speakers being denied English language teaching positions in Japan, even though they had all of the qualifications, when unqualified white teachers with lower English proficiency were given those positions (Fujimoto, 2006). As Ramjattan (2019) emphasized, this critique is not to say that the white teachers with accents did not deserve those jobs because of their accents, but instead that racialization has a big impact on who is considered to be an expert in English. Motha (2014) asked the reader to think of an English-speaker and critically engage with the image that came to mind, acknowledging that most everyone carries this bias. Flores and Rosa (2015) labeled this phenomenon as a part of raciolinguistic ideologies, which continually see racialized people as inherently linguistically deficient in academic English, even when they sound just like white people.

As people from the “Global North” (colonial nations such as England and the United States) found out that many customer service call centers were moved to India, their expectations of service shifted (Mirchandani, 2012). Call center employees have had to reduce their Indian accents to reduce complaints of callers not understanding them, but they can also be discouraged from using academic English with callers. Ramjattan (2019) explains that “even though they are expected to embrace white linguistic norms, they should never show complete mastery of these norms” and that this is because employees should “not threat[en] the (linguistic) superiority of the western caller” (p. 733). This could be the answer to why some people are surprised at President Obama’s linguistic resources and mastery.

This promise of social and economic advancement was labeled by Wee (2003) as “linguistic instrumentalism” and Kubota (2011) found that geography and gender were better predictors of economic success than academic English proficiency. As Baron (2005) said, even if a multilingual person speaks standardized English without fault, those who wish to discriminate against them will find another way to do so.

The false promise of social mobility connected to English cannot be disconnected from the English-teaching industry that makes a lot of money from this promise (Motha, 2014). According to Meticulous Research (2020), the global English language teaching market is expected to hit \$54.92 billion by 2027 based on growth trends. Now that the context and reality that multilingual students and English-language teachers find themselves in has been explored, the question still stands: what is the best way to help combat these harms and truly empower multilingual students? To answer this, the traditional pedagogical route of academic language will be analyzed first.

Academic Language

The theories and ideas of prominent authors from either side of the discourse on academic language will be explored. This section will first explore the establishment of academic language as the basis of English language teaching. Then, the positive and negative aspects of academic language teaching will be described, as well as its impact on students.

In the United States, English language teaching programs focus heavily on teaching multilingual students the academic English used in schools and beyond, as academic language is very prominent throughout content areas. One of the first to distinguish academic English from non-academic English was Cummins (1979, 1999, 2000), who labeled the former as “Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency” (CALP) and the latter as “Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills” (BICS).

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency is defined as the language skills needed to understand and use academic English in order to complete cognitively demanding tasks within education (Cummins, 2000). This means that CALP includes the ability to read and write in different academic genres, like scientific reports or argumentative essays. Also, it means the student will be able to understand and read metacognitively, with an awareness of the thought processes of reading (Cummins, 2000). Standardized English is a variety of English that has been regulated and is the language that is most often used in schools and proficiency assessments (Bex et al., 1999). In other words, academic language is standardized English.

Cummins (1999, 2000) said that some important aspects of CALP include the factoring in of the amount of information that needs to be processed at the same time or in close succession to be able to do the academic task and the use of higher-order thinking skills. The texts within academic language are defined as highly structured, the manner of speaking is slow and methodical, and the language includes content-specific terminology and complex sentence structures (Schleppegrell, 2004). In contrast, non-academic languages lack this terminology and complexity.

Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills

Cummins (1982, 1999, 2000) argued that multilingual students learn Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) quickly, as it is the everyday language, and then slowly learn CALP through intentional language instruction. BICS takes about two years to learn, and CALP takes about five to seven years (Cummins, 1999). Roessingh (2005) also explained that this dichotomy is like an iceberg, with BICS above the water and CALP below the surface. Cummins (2000) explained that the main difference between the two is that "Considerably less knowledge of language itself is usually required to function appropriately in interpersonal communicative situations [BICS] than is required in academic situations [CALP]" (p. 35).

Another way to define academic English is through the lens of the elaborated and restricted code by Bernstein (1971). Academic language is defined as elaborated code because it is complex, explicit, organized, formal, expresses universal meaning, and is used by people who are not familiar with each other or are culturally different (Bernstein, 1971). Colloquial language is then restricted code because it is simple, implicit, disorganized, choppy, and informal and is used by people with similar cultural

backgrounds or who know each other well (Bernstein, 1971). Bernstein (1971) believed that the elaborated code explains meanings and definitions better than the restricted code, and so he suggests that people should “preserve public language usage but also create for the individual the possibility of utilizing a formal language” (p. 54).

Positives

When Cummins introduced BICS and CALP in 1979, he revolutionized English language teaching. Aukerman (2007) stated that the positive legacy of this theory is twofold. Teachers previously misdiagnosed advanced-level multilingual students with a learning disability because they could speak English fluently but were still not doing well in school. Teachers now recognize academic language as a major factor in academic difficulties because students can show BICS but not yet show CALP. Another positive aspect is how first language (L1) development is tied to second language (L2) acquisition. Cummins (2000) argued that the development of CALP in the L1 transfers to the L2 and makes that process easier. Therefore, it is now much less likely for students to be discouraged from speaking and developing their L1s.

Cummins has spent the last 40 years refining, adding to, and responding to critiques of the BICS/CALP theory. He made the important distinction that his aim was not to create “an overall theory of language but... a very specific conceptual distinction which had important implications for policy and practice” (Cummins, 1999, p. 4). Another key point made by Cummins (1999) that is often forgotten is that BICS being developed first followed by CALP is not a part of the theory; it is simply that one tends to develop faster based on context.

Cummins provided a roadmap for teachers and students to follow within English language teaching. For him, academic language proficiency means “the ability to make complex meanings explicit in either oral or written modalities by means of language itself rather than by means of contextual or paralinguistic cues such as gestures and intonations” (Cummins, 2000, p. 59). These cues that Cummins refers to are circumlocution—using known words to describe a forgotten or unknown word—and body language. Both are often used by people learning a new language. In order to reach this proficiency, he advises that academic content be integrated into language instruction, which many English language teaching programs and classrooms reflect today.

Negatives

Cummins’ BICS and CALP theory has not gone without critique since its inception. Cummins (2000) states that learning “from experience and action” is very different from learning that comes “from texts and teachers” (p. 65). This is due to the fact that CALP relies heavily on what Snow et al. (1991) call “decontextualized language,” meaning “language used in ways that eschew reliance on shared social and physical contexts in favour of reliance on a context created through the language itself” (p. 64).

However, Aukerman (2007) points out that CALP cannot be decontextualized since it relies heavily on the social rules of classrooms and schools. According to Klinger and Huang (2006), these rules can lead to frustration for multilingual students when they have to learn a new set of social educational rules that are different from the ones they grew up with. These include the vocabulary of the classroom, when students are expected

to speak and when to listen, and the importance of the physical space of the classroom for learning (Klinger & Huang, 2006).

These academic social rules are based on white social rules of appropriateness for academic settings, as expressed by Flores and Rosa (2015). They state that even when global majority students learn academic English and perform all of its social rules, therefore emulating a white student, they will continue to be racialized and will never be seen as equal to a white student as looked at through the white gaze.

A longstanding theory within Black scholarship, Toni Morrison described the white gaze as “the little white man that sits on your shoulder and checks out everything you do or say” (Barajas, 2019, p. 1). Rosa and Flores (2015) added to the understanding of the white gaze by talking about the “white listening subject,” the white judge of language. This is not necessarily an individual, as it is most often a systemic evaluation of global majority people. The white listening subject theory echoes the findings about racialized English language teachers being constantly judged and not being seen as experts in their field. Instead, multilingual teachers and students who achieve academic English proficiency are viewed as simply better than other global majority people who have not (Flores, 2019).

This systemic white listening subject is what decides expertise and proficiency, and it has made academic English the bar for everyone to reach. This is true world-wide, as scientists who want to publish globally influential work need to publish in English (Hwang, 2005). Huttner-Koros (2015) cites many of the issues with English being the global academic language. Some of these issues are that the majority of papers in non-English-speaking countries are published in English (40 to 1 in the Netherlands) and

world-wide researchers have to engage with information in their L2, while L1 English-speaking researchers are at a distinct advantage (Huttner-Koros, 2015). In their article, Von Esch et al. (2020) point out that a biased degree of esteem is given to academic work published in English. This is what Phillipson (1992) called “linguistic imperialism,” as it impacts the global academic sphere as well as contributes to the extinction of other languages and widens economic gaps.

One of the reasons that white middle and upper class students tend to do better in school compared to non-white and lower class students is that they already speak the standardized language used in schools, while global majority students have to play catch up (Flores & Rosa, 2015). Therefore, it is implied that the problem is what global majority students lack instead of what the educational system lacks, and since schools have focused on teaching multilingual students the foundations of academic language, they have had less time to practice critical thinking skills (Mehta, 2018).

Because of this disparity, many Black students not in English language (EL) services are forced to face an often unaddressed language obstacle. Sung (2018) brings up how non-EL Black students who speak African American English are forgotten about in bilingual education programs. They are expected to know academic English, though they come from a different language background, and any academic failure is blamed on anti-Black sentiments such as lack of motivation or low cognitive ability (Sung, 2018).

MacSwan (2020) questioned why academic language is valued as more cognitively demanding or complex than other varieties of English, like African American English. He says that the “focus on the discourse and structural characteristics of [academic English]...convey the impression, wittingly or not, that there are special

‘cognitively demanding’ features of [academic English] that are absent from out-of-school varieties” (MacSwan, 2020, p. 32). He questioned the benefit of labeling language varieties as “smart English” and “ignorant English” when all communities have their own jargon (MacSwan, 2020). Flores (2019) brought up the point that during a baseball game, people use content-specific terminology and that he has seen youth use complex sentence structures when discussing Pokémon card trades. Aukerman (2007) also pointed out that regular events like how to speak about death with a child and how to express one's point of view within a conflict can be very cognitively demanding without the use of academic language.

In a response to academic English being labeled as succinct while non-academic English is labeled as long-winded, MacSwan (2020) also mentioned that “it is not difficult to imagine a spoken academic lecture that is highly repetitive, redundant, and wordy, or a non-academic text, such as a crowd-sourced gaming manual or hip hop lyric, that is perfectly concise” (p. 32). MacSwan (2020) says that African American English and other varieties are just as complex and cognitive as academic English. Labov (1970) similarly critiques Bernstein’s elaborated and restricted code by saying that a large quantity of adjectives and adverbs does not equal quality of message. Instead, it can make the message harder to learn and understand.

Thompson and Watkins (2021) found in their article three important points: academic language proponents were very quick to accept it; the functions of academic language can be accomplished with non-academic language; and that academic language could actually be dysfunctional in schools. They analyzed three examples that other scholars used to prove that academic language was necessary for schooling because it

was more concise, efficient, and precise. In each of the examples, Thompson and Watkins (2021) pointed out that when looked at as objectively as possible, those claims did not hold up as the academic language was often longer, more ambiguous, and more confusing than the non-academic text. Thompson and Watkins (2021) concluded that:

Once we uncover the language ideological processes of naturalization behind [academic language], we can begin to ask how schooling might incorporate other language practices such that schooling is not merely an exercise in elitism, classism, and racism (p. 571).

Flores (2019) has two main critiques of academic language. The first critique is that, under the current framing of academic language within ELT, teachers are asking students to undo their own oppression by changing their language (Flores, 2019). The second is that he claims BICS and CALP are not separate parts of language development but are instead intertwined with one another. This is similar to the theory of translanguaging, which means using all language resources together in order to communicate (Garcia & Wei, 2014). This, in essence, allows multilingual students to be and express themselves fully. Home languages should not be left at home (Babino, 2022).

Flores (2019) called academic language a raciolinguistic ideology because it is based on colonial history, when colonizers began to police the language of global majority people and devalued the complexity of their native tongues. Fuller & Wardhaugh (2015) talk about the impact that academic language has on global majority students when they say that students are very aware of the cost of speaking academic language. It can mean “almost certain alienation from their peers without necessarily acceptance by social superiors” (Fuller & Wardhaugh, 2015, p. 344). This is what Fuller

& Wardhaugh (2015) define as “linguistic insecurity.” In contrast to this, they also mention how people find solidarity, self-expression, and identity within their communities' language varieties.

Language Architecture

Given the connection between the history of raciolinguistics and academic English, a search for new pedagogies for English language teaching is critical. These new pedagogies should be student-based, healing, humanizing, and liberatory (Safir et al., 2021). One such liberatory pedagogy is language architecture (Flores, 2019). This section will define and explore the positive and negative aspects of language architecture. Other related pedagogies will be explored later in the chapter as well.

Language architecture is defined as the skill of engineering a language for specific purposes (Flores, 2019). In his article, Flores (2019) pointed out that a lack of academic language often gets blamed for academic difficulties when a lack of L1 support, poverty, xenophobia, racism, or more may not have even been considered or addressed. He also states that additive approaches to language education miss the mark altogether. Additive approaches are language teaching methods where students can use their home language variety in school, with the end goal of using the home language to help students learn academic language (Cummins, 1979).

The impact of additive approaches is twofold. The home languages are seen as a means to an end, instead of as a language that connects students to their roots, and this solution continues to separate “good” racialized students from “bad” ones based on their language use. Good students understand and use academic English, while bad students do not. This understanding is measured through standardized testing. They empower only

the “good” students who will continue to uphold the academic system and do not get to the root of the issue (Flores, 2019). Language architecture rejects the goal of using anything to get to academic language proficiency in the end. Flores (2019) makes it clear that language architecture is not additive; instead it is based on seeing all language varieties as legitimate and aligned to content standards. Expressing mastery of the content standards in any language is language architecture.

Positives

Along with mastering standards, Flores (2019) says that the goal for educators should be to develop “new listening/reading subject positions that recognize the complex linguistic knowledge that their students have developed as part of their lived experience and make this central to the work that they are doing in classrooms” (p. 24). Multilingual students are already very aware of language because of their everyday experiences with multiple languages and multiple audiences (Garcia & Wei, 2014). The students are not the ones who are lacking within this perspective, and the teacher’s role is to create lessons that build on prior knowledge and to use home languages and comprehensible English to learn the content language. As Aukerman (2007) points out, languages, and learning in general, are highly based on context, prior knowledge, and recontextualizing, meaning how students learn through “socially meaningful participation” (p. 9). She emphasizes that bringing in the prior knowledge and lived experience that all students have should be the basis of education.

Flores (2019) argues that the language varieties that all students already have are rich and complex enough to meet all of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) and any other state standards. He says that the standards do not require mastery of academic

language; they require students to have metalinguistic skills in manipulating language for distinct objectives (Flores, 2019). Language architecture acknowledges that multilingual students already understand the relationship between meaning and language choice because of the “knowledge that they have gained through socialization into the cultural and linguistic practices of their communities” (Flores, 2019, p. 25). Academic language is not the only way to access cognitively demanding concepts. All languages can and should lead the way.

Because of the cultural context of schools being places for assimilation, the ideas that tend to be analyzed are white cultural ideas. In reflecting on past teaching experiences, Babino (2022) suggested that what is lacking is the system, not the students. Standardized testing is written with the monolingual, monocultural white student in mind, and everyone else is meant to emulate them if they wish for academic success. The WIDA (formerly World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment) Can Do descriptors, which help to explain what a multilingual student will be able to do within the classroom based on their English language proficiency, are set in comparison to what a monolingual English-speaker can do. Level 6 is reaching *native-like proficiency*. Whiteness is framed as a prize and a goal (Gerald, 2020).

Also, consider the racial make-up of those at the top of the achievement gap and those at the bottom (Babino, 2022). Discussions on closing the achievement gap are about moving global majority students to the level of white students. In response to this pressure to emulate white students, Friere (1970), in *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, said, “No pedagogy which is truly liberating can remain distant from the oppressed by treating them as unfortunates and by presenting for their emulation models from among the

oppressors. The oppressed must be their own example in the struggle for their redemption” (p. 54).

The goal of language architecture is very much in line with the goal of culturally sustaining pedagogy. Paris and Alim (2014) say that the goal of culturally sustaining pedagogy is “not ultimately to see how closely students could perform white middle-class norms but to explore, honor, extend, and problematize their heritage and community practices” (p. 86). Students can use the analytic skills that they have learned in school to analyze, sustain, ameliorate, and contribute to their own cultures and communities. Both culturally sustaining pedagogy and language architecture propose having students bring their cultural ideas and background knowledge into the classroom as ideas worthy of learning from. This includes “transnational digital literacies, social networking literacies, hip-hop literacies, resistance literacies, critical global literacies, racial literacies, and biliteracy” (Babino, 2022, p. 30).

Language architecture takes full advantage of bringing prior knowledge into the classroom, which has been long found as one of the best ways for students to internalize content (Hailikari et al., 2008). Cummins (1996) said that when students’ cultural knowledge, languages, and experiences are not found in school, “[e]verything they have learned about life and the world up to this point is being dismissed as irrelevant to school learning,” and with few points of connection, the students inevitable disengagement is labeled as lack of effort or ability (p. 2-3). In relation to this, language architecture gets rid of the notion of a *home* language because a student's full language repertoire is welcomed in the classroom and is essential to their learning (Babino, 2022). Babino (2022) argues that once students are assessed through a multilingual instead of a

monolingual lens of growth, then their strengths are equally identified along with their areas for growth.

Just as academic language proficiency is not the way for students to escape oppression, language architecture is not either. Rather, language architecture and similar pedagogies are methods of empowering students and school staff. Through this empowerment, they can create sanctuaries from systemic oppression (Love, 2020) and dream of the new world that will replace those systems (Freire, 1970). This systemic oppression will take a lot more than a change of pedagogy to dismantle, but these pedagogies are a necessary step in the long struggle for liberation.

Negatives

One of the critiques of language architecture is that because academic language has had so long to be implemented, it will be too much of a change and an added strain on already overworked teachers to implement this change. Because language architecture is so new, there are currently no curriculums based explicitly on it as there are for academic language. Language architecture asks that not only students bring their full selves into the classroom, but that teachers do so as well. The implementation section of this chapter will include various ways that teachers can slowly replace old lesson plans with new student-centered and student-honoring ones.

The 1996 Oakland school district decision to declare Black English a language is very much in line with language architecture because of the emphasis on acknowledging the complexity and value of it, minus the end goal of additive bilingualism. Many people during this time hated this decision, including Reverend Jesse Jackson and poet Maya Angelou (Los Angeles Times, 1996). They both strongly disagreed with the decision

because they said it would discourage Black students from learning the standardized English that could bring them opportunities. Similarly, in a TED talk, Arthur (2017) recounted a traumatic experience with the police where her ability to speak standardized English was one of the ways she was able to appear less threatening and it saved her life. Though it is very true that the ability to speak academic/standardized English has real benefits, it puts the onus of reducing discrimination on the people being discriminated against instead of on the people discriminating (Flores, 2019).

Another critique of language architecture is that students, teachers, and schools continue to be evaluated based on standardized testing, and so using language architecture could lower test scores because academic language would not be the main objective. Babino (2022) points out that these tests have done more harm than good and advocates for making changes with the agency that teachers do have. This can mean implementing language architecture as much as possible in their own classrooms and on their own tests, listening and responding to students and families, and advocating for needed changes in order to reduce harm and create schools where all students can thrive.

Implementation

This section will address the second part of the research question and explore how people have implemented language architecture practices in their classrooms. The first step of implementation is doing the work to change mindsets. Everyone has been socialized within a raciolinguistic world, and so everyone perpetuates it without realizing it. Dr. Daniel Tatum's (2021) analogy of the conveyor belt for anti-racism states that unless people are actively working against racism, everyone, regardless of race, continues to move towards it. An important part of this research is positioning identities within a

raciolinguistic and anti-racist lens. This necessary process is done to become aware of where everyone needs to listen more and where people can share their lived experiences and be listened to.

Language Architecture

In his article, Flores (2019) gave the example of a lesson based on language architecture in a first and second grade classroom. Although it is an elementary example, it can still be transferred to a secondary lesson. The example serves to explain one way of guiding metalinguistic awareness of a text in English and Spanish. After the class read the mentor text together, they wrote a story together and talked about when they would intentionally use Spanish, just as the mentor text did.

The goal was for students to recognize the language architecture and translingual skills they already use every day and transfer those skills to close reading and author's craft, which are essential in the creation of their identity as writers (Flores, 2019). This was also an example of using a "mirror" from the Bishop's (2015) mirrors, windows, and sliding glass doors theory. Students can have a chance to not only see themselves reflected in their literature, but can analyze it and synthesize it with their own experiences. Students can feel empowered by the skills they have learned outside of the classroom as they are important in building their identity as scholars. Flores (2019) said that this empowering message is in contrast to academic language seeing their home languages as "a bridge at best or a barrier at worst" (p. 28).

Mehta (2018) described the use of a mentor text within a secondary setting where they used Bloom's taxonomy as a web rather than as a ladder. The mentor text was a Ta-Nehisi Coates essay concerning the debate about acceptable circumstances to use the

“N” word. In lessons developed over multiple days, the class learned annotation skills when they deconstructed the essay paragraph by paragraph, had a discussion on the topic, learned about implied thesis statements, and wrote their own essays on the topic. The teacher brought in a topic that was relevant to the students and was able to acknowledge the critical thinking necessary in the discussion that students were already familiar with.

Critical Language Awareness

Critical language awareness is where students and teachers can analyze language choices as well as different language varieties to understand the relationship between power and language (Fairclough, 1992; Flores, 2019). Thompson and Watkins (2021) suggest that critical language awareness could be an answer to the dilemma of whether or not to teach multilingual students academic language. On one hand, teaching academic language continues the elitist and racist tradition. On the other hand, not teaching academic language at all could disadvantage students in the current system of education.

Teachers can teach academic language through a critical lens while working for change, which subverts the academic language hegemony and emphasizes the importance of the linguistic resources of students (Alim et al., 2016). Seltzer (2019) does this by creating roleplaying assignments where students act out situations like job interviews, and then they discuss and compare that language use critically. Awareness is the first step in dismantling dehumanizing systems and practices. Both Flores and Seltzer point out that students are already having complex metalinguistic conversations on their own; teachers just need to recognize this and foster it.

Liberation Literacies

In order to fight against this academic language hegemony, Lyiscott (2017) talked about how she centers Black textual expression through Liberation Literacies (Lyiscott, 2017). She describes this pedagogy as focusing on five things: achievement, awareness, agency/access, actualization, and action. This pedagogy has high expectations, encourages critical thinking, teaches the truth about the relationship between language and power, and emphasizes Black cultural ways of being and knowing. Lyiscott said that an important part of achievement is accessing the institution as well as the students to make sure everyone is reaching the standards of equity.

One of the ways to practice liberation literacies in the classroom includes fostering awareness of both students and educators by having students participate in a Literate Identity Assessment (Lyiscott, n.d.). For the assessment, they would name three places they spend the majority of their time in and describe how they use language in those places. Because "every literacy practice is a unique container of culture, history, and identity," teachers can honor Black students by centering Black literacy practices (Lyiscott, 2017, p. 52).

Street Data

The most important part of implementation is the continued exploration of what a school could be. Instead of looking at multilingual students from the perspective of white listening subjects, teachers can evaluate students from an asset-based mindset and value them for their full selves and their full potential. In their book, *Street Data*, Safir et al. (2021) talked about a very practical approach to increasing student agency that aligns

well with language architecture. They said that in order to increase student agency, success criteria needed to include it.

When creating rubrics, teachers should make sure that there is measurable evidence of agency within the four domains of identity, belonging, mastery, and efficacy (Safir et al., 2021). Under identity is a sense that the students' ways of being, knowing, and learning are valued. For belonging, the students can see themselves in the curriculum, and they feel seen and loved. Mastery is building knowledge as well as being able to demonstrate it, and efficacy is when students feel like they can make a difference. Student agency being included within the success criteria is one of the parts of what Safir et al. (2021) call the pedagogy of voice.

Language architecture is a big mindset shift within education that aligns with other forms of liberatory pedagogy. All of them are based on rehumanizing our students, seeing them as people instead of objects (Friere, 1970). Moving from soul-crushing, conformist education to life-giving, liberating education can help everyone move from surviving to thriving (Love, 2020).

Summary

A change in pedagogy becomes increasingly necessary as more and more students will fall outside of the white monolingual norm. Only 47% of elementary and secondary students were white in the 2018-2019 school year, while 79% of teachers in the United States were white in the 2017-2018 school year (Schaeffer, 2021). In this chapter, the reasons behind the need to consider language architecture theory were explored, including the acknowledgement of the history of raciolinguistics as well as the present reality, and pedagogies that work towards the holistic acknowledgement of multilingual

students. Language architecture has important connections with prior knowledge theory, culturally sustaining pedagogy, and critical language awareness. It is ultimately a change in pedagogical mindset for teachers, students, schools, and systems.

In Chapter Three, we will explore the theories and process behind the website that I created as a response to the research questions: *Why should English language teachers utilize language architecture and what can that implementation in the secondary classroom look like?* This website will be a resource that teachers can use in order to begin and continue the implementation of language architecture.

CHAPTER THREE

Project Description

Introduction

The field of English language teaching is continually evolving in order for us to best serve our students. The field also has a connected history with colonization and racism that must be acknowledged in order for us to be honest about why English is so valued in our society and why academic English is valued even more so. Being honest about history and honoring students for their whole selves is where anti-racist teaching can find a solid foundation and where our field can do right by our students.

I fully acknowledge that Cummins' (1979) BICS, non-academic language, and CALP, academic language, helped to move the field forward from misdiagnosing students, but we must continue to push forward and dream about what is possible. I know that the majority of teachers believe in doing work that honors students; I just ask that we all wade into the uncomfortable so that we may create better classrooms, better schools, and a better society.

In this chapter, I will address how the website will respond to the questions: *why should English language teachers utilize language architecture and what can that implementation in the secondary classroom look like?* I will do this by speaking about my social position, the overview and rationale of the project, how people can provide feedback to assess the effectiveness of the website, the intended setting and audience for this resource, and finally, by speaking about the timeline of the project.

Positionality

For my research, I want to keep in mind the lens through which I see the world so that I can be mindful of my gaps in understanding. When I acknowledge my experiences, I can intentionally seek out information from people with different experiences so that my research is much more well-rounded.

Since my research is about multilingual students, academic language, and language architecture, it is helpful that I was, and in many ways still am, a multilingual student. Global majority people, who do not always get taught academic language explicitly, would also benefit from language architecture, so I am making sure to read linguistic analysis from Black and other Brown scholars. Because I come from an immigrant Mexican experience, I want to also include other immigrant groups and non-immigrant groups' experiences into my analysis. As I am now a teacher and an authority figure, I want my project to be based on student-centered and liberating strategies that may be more difficult to implement, but much more effective and honorable to students.

Overview of Project and Rationale

I applied what I have learned from my research to a website about language architecture and its implementation. The website has broken down what I have learned about the critiques of academic language and additive linguistic perspectives, and I provided various strategies that teachers could implement in their classrooms. My goal was to make the website user-friendly so my audience could easily digest the information about the importance of liberating strategies and make it a place where they can find practical strategies to begin implementing them.

I decided to go with a website because it is a resource that teachers can come back to when they are planning their lessons. Some of the strategies include a bigger emphasis on mirrors, windows, and sliding glass doors (Bishop, 2015) through using a bilingual mentor text to write bilingual stories (Flores, 2019), fostering critical language awareness (Fairclough, 1992) through role-playing to examine the differences between conversations with friends compared to those during job interviews (Seltzer, 2019), and emphasizing prior knowledge (Hailikari et al., 2008) through changing success criteria to include students' ways of being, knowing, and learning (Safir et al., 2021).

The underlying research behind how I structured the website can be found in *The modern practice of adult education: andragogy versus pedagogy* by Malcolm Knowles. Andragogy is pedagogy for adults, or the study of adult learning. The mission of adult education is to meet the needs and goals of individuals, institutions, and society. In comparison to pedagogy, andragogy focuses more on encouraging different levels of self-direction, pulling from people's rich and diverse experiences, and emphasizes experiential learning. It also emphasizes that teachers must make clear the "needs to know" and that programs should be organized around life application and competency development so people can easily apply things they learned today to tomorrow.

It is important for teachers to, first, "expose the learners to new possibilities for self fulfillment" and then "clarify their own aspirations for learned behavior" to set students up for learning (Knowles, 1970, p. 58). A website is a great place to put all of this into practice because it is the most self-directed option that gives all teachers the freedom to mix their experience with the language architecture suggestions. I made the website very easy to use and broke down the knowledge into what is most important. The

learning is also experiential through the myriad of videos included which has many different experts relaying information on the topics.

In the rest of the chapter, I will address the specifics of the project. In the assessment section, I will address how the audience can provide feedback for the website. The setting section will address the context of the website. Under the intended audience section, I will speak about who the website was created for, and for the timeline section, I will explain the steps in making the website a reality.

Assessment

Feedback is essential in order to assess the effectiveness of the website and the information. In order to do so, I created a section for feedback on the website, which is present at the bottom of every page. Readers can submit clarifying questions and design feedback directly to me so that I can continue to improve the site. It's important to listen to the voices of teachers and other readers in order to get multiple perspectives to continue learning and improving.

Setting

The setting of my project will be the high school that I work at. For the 2022 school year, 18.8% of the student body was Black, 15.3% was Latine, 8.4% was Asian, 7.3% identified with two or more races, 0.3% was Native, 0.1% was Pacific Islander, and 49.8% was white. The majority, if not all, of the students I work with are within English language services, who make up 6.5% of the student body. Multilingual students are students that speak more than one variation of English or more than one language. This includes students that speak Black English, Spanglish, and other variations.

I chose secondary because I have the most experience working in a high school. I have worked at the high school that I am currently at for three years now as a paraeducator, cultural liaison, and as a teacher. Through this experience, I have seen many students that are new to the country in high school. They are expected to do well in classes that are chock full of academic language when academic language in a new language is said to develop in five to seven years (Cummins, 1979). I have seen over and over the frustration, eventual apathy, and learned helplessness that a lot of students fall into. I have also seen various students that come from places that speak English as their primary language, like Liberia, and how it affects them to be placed in English language services.

Through language architecture, we are not lowering the standards. Instead, we are saying to students that they already have what it takes to reach them and that they are not deficient in the knowledge needed to be successful in school. Academic language echoes the banking model of education; the idea that all knowledge comes from teachers, and students' minds are simply passive storage for it (Friere, 1970). Just as Friere (1970) believed that education could be liberatory, language architecture and similar pedagogies agree that we all learn from each other, and the way to learn is through valuing what students bring into the classroom.

Intended Audience

The intended audience is all secondary teachers, especially English language teachers, who work with multilingual students and want to learn practical ways to honor them and remove barriers to their learning. The intended audience is heavily influenced by the setting, and so the information will reflect the specific high school that I work at,

but will be understandable enough to extrapolate to anywhere. The audience does go beyond just English language teachers because, in essence, all teachers are English language teachers to all students, no matter the content area.

Timeline

In developing the project, I needed to create a website outline that includes the context of raciolinguistics, positives and negatives of academic language, reasoning behind language architecture, and implementation strategies and ideas that can be applied to any content area. Then, I needed to find a website platform that is easy to navigate. I chose Wix. After that, I put the outline onto the website itself and published the website. The outline took about two weeks to complete, and building the website itself took about three weeks.

Summary

In this chapter, I addressed how I responded to my research questions via the project. Something that language architecture needs is more movement from theory into practice. In order to implement it successfully, the audience must fully understand what it is and why it is important. After that understanding is developed, the website will also include practical ideas to move toward a language architecture framework of English language teaching, regardless of content area.

This chapter explained what the website project looks like. I also addressed the research that supports the use of a website, as well as the setting, participants, and timeline for the website. In Chapter Four, I will reflect on the process that it took to create the project, as well as on what I have learned from the research. I will also address the possible implications of my work and its benefits to the field.

CHAPTER FOUR

Conclusion

Reflection

Throughout this capstone project, I have explored the questions: *why should English language teachers utilize language architecture and what can that implementation in the secondary classroom look like?* The purpose of the project is to provide educators with a new perspective on education that focuses on acknowledging the past while working to heal and rehumanize students and staff. This is how we can create better worlds within schools so that we can then create better societies.

The history of English language teaching, and education generally in the United States, is fraught with raciolinguistic ideologies. In order to create the schools we want to work, teach, and learn in, we need to become aware of this history and then dismantle these ideologies. As Gerald (2020) says, decentering whiteness in English language education is worth the risk. Through my seven years of working with young people, I have witnessed both how soul-crushing school can be and what incredible healing and true learning can look like. This is why I felt it was necessary to create a website that explains the need for this change as well as how we can begin to implement it in schools.

In this final chapter, I will reflect on what I have learned through the process of completing this project because what I have learned will be very beneficial as I continue my career in education. I will also review which parts of the literature review were the cornerstones of my work. Next, I will explore both the implications and the limitations of this research and speak about possible future research in this area. Lastly, I will express

how I will communicate and use my results and name the benefits this project has for the field of English language teaching.

Major Learnings from the Project

This capstone journey has been both challenging and very rewarding. The challenging parts included the constant feedback loop of researching, organizing, writing, and synthesizing, which repeated throughout the project. Because of this, I was able to internalize various writing and researching skills that I have learned in different classes. I have grown a lot through this process in both my abilities and my confidence. At the beginning of this journey, we reviewed different capstone projects to get a sense of the different elements we would need to complete. At that point, I felt very intimidated, but it really proves that anything can be done step by step. I learned a lot about what I am capable of and about my passion, which will guide me in my career.

Through the research, I also learned a lot about how I can better practice anti-racism every day. I learned a lot about the connection between language and racism within the United States, especially about the historic and present impact of English language teaching. I look forward to putting the different pedagogies in the implementation part of this capstone paper into practice. It makes a lot of sense looking back, but it was a revelation to make the values of student agency and cultural wealth into criteria for success. As I continue to unlearn and combat anti-Blackness, I've also learned more about African American English, both how the language works and its deep cultural meaning.

This project pushed me to become a better writer and a better thinker. I am proud of all of the work that I put into it because it feels like I got out what I put in. I care a lot

about this topic, and so that care helped to carry me through the long days and nights. The research aspect was especially challenging at times, but there were various important sources that I found which proved central to my work.

Reviewing the Literature

I am blessed to be able to stand on the shoulders of great scholars, whose work guided me throughout my project. The first I want to mention is Dr. Suhanthie Motha, who wrote *Race, Empire, and English Language Teaching: Creating Responsible and Ethical Anti-Racist Practice*. Her book was a great help in explaining the colonial history behind English language teaching and raciolinguistics, as well as answering many questions I had about my topic. I needed to lay out this colonial history to explain why academic language is racist, as there were a lot of parallels between what European colonizers said about non-European languages and academic and non-academic language discourse.

Another of these scholars is Dr. Nelson Flores. I referenced his 2019 journal article “From academic language to language architecture: Challenging raciolinguistic ideologies in research and practice” a lot because he has directly addressed academic language and responded with a possible step forward. He clearly laid out various critiques of academic language, as a continuation of racist policing of “incorrect” languages and as an unnecessary classification as all languages are used for cognitive purposes (Flores, 2019). It was integral to my project that I not only brought up these important critiques but that I was able to present alternatives. Language architecture was an important starting point. From there, I was able to look for other similar pedagogical approaches that supported the same goal, including Dr. Jamila Lyiscott’s liberation literacies, Shane

Safir and Dr. Jamila Dugan's pedagogy of voice, and Norman Fairclough's critical language awareness.

Both Flores and Dr. Jonathan Rosa were the ones who originally inspired me to pursue this topic, after I read their 2015 journal article "Undoing appropriateness: Raciolinguistic ideologies and language diversity in education." This article explains the concept of raciolinguistics and its connection to education. They also laid out some of the historical beginnings of raciolinguistics within the United States. This helped me organize how I wanted to explain this information on my website. I started with this historical context to better understand the impact of academic language.

A fourth scholar that highly influenced my work was Dr. Alexandra Babino and her chapter "Enacting a raciolinguistic perspective for the 'new mainstream' in literacy classrooms" in the book *Handbook of Research on reconceptualizing preservice teacher preparation in literacy education*. Babino's work helped me to further understand and better explain the importance of language architecture. Among these are criticisms of the concept of home languages and demonstrations of how standardized testing compares students to the typical monolingual middle-class white student (Babino, 2022). These ideas were helpful in the section of my project where I provided both possible critiques of language architecture and also responded to them. The work of these scholars had a big impact on me and my project. I had to learn a lot about this topic in order to be able to explain it succinctly through my website, and I thank them and everyone else I cited in this paper.

Implications

Because of my identity as a Brown multilingual teacher within the field of English language teaching, my goal for this project was to show monolingual people some of our perspectives. English teaching is a loaded subject for many of us. It has been a mentally and emotionally violent experience for many of us. My goal as a teacher is to work with students and other educators to stop this violence, to foster healing, and to create opportunities for an education that liberates (Friere, 1970).

The current system of English language education needs an overhaul. I have heard many English language teachers say that academic language teaching would help all students do better in school. Looking at this through a raciolinguistic lens could help us see that more students than not do not speak standardized/academic English at home, and so this becomes a barrier at school. One possible step forward could be that schools work to teach academic language to all students through Critical Language Awareness as work is done to undo its hegemony in schools and institutions. Along with that, all teachers could encourage students to use, analyze, and learn from all of their linguistic resources through all kinds of liberation pedagogies.

I hope that people learn about the work of our academic ancestors, like Friere and Morrison, and that we can honor their struggle and learn from their wisdom. Though these ideas may feel new, I, for one, have only started learning about them recently. This work has been done for a long time before us. My hope for this work is that people humanize each other, and especially that we humanize those that have been historically othered. For decision makers, I hope that mindsets can change about multilingual students so they are seen as people and not projects. I also hope that more people join us

on this journey to change the school system and begin by implementing many of the liberatory pedagogies mentioned in their classrooms.

Limitations

There are a few limitations to my research. Research for language architecture and similar pedagogies is still fairly new. On the other hand, academic language has been researched for about 40 years. Because of this, people may be skeptical about language architecture. More research regarding student input is especially needed. Though English language teaching is world-wide, everything I wrote about is from the perspective of the United States and should be interpreted as such. Learning English as a foreign language is a very different experience, and those scholars have their own opinions and interpretations.

Future Research

Based on my research on this topic, I have various future research recommendations. The first would be to research the impact of liberatory pedagogies in the classroom, including what difference they make through surveys of students. This would be very useful because, as adults, we can often talk all day about what we believe would be best for students. What we really need to do is listen to them. A possible way to do this would be to pick one of the pedagogical methods, say pedagogy of voice, and include it in a secondary curriculum. Following each unit, students would complete surveys that compared how they learned in the past to how they learned in the previous unit and solicited anonymous feedback. This feedback could let us know if we are truly on the right track and in what ways we can improve.

Another research recommendation would be on how to translate these pedagogical methods into school-wide changes. These pedagogical approaches ask us to be critical of so-called objectivity and tradition if they do not honor all students and to change our measures of success to reflect our values. It would be very interesting to see how that could be reflected in how teachers interact with each other, how administrators interact with teachers, and so forth. What would a school look like if the measures for success were agency and action instead of standardized test scores? I look forward to the research that will come in the coming years as more and more people become aware of the importance of this topic. In order to facilitate this awareness, I will also talk about how I will share and use my project.

Communicating Results

The website platform that I used for this project is Wix, which makes it easily shareable and accessible. I plan to share this website with my English language teaching colleagues to use and share as they see fit. They can both learn about this topic and put the implementation recommendations into practice. My project will also be available through Hamline's Digital Commons for future educators to reference. I also plan to use what I have learned and the pedagogies I have recommended in my own teaching, as I truly believe in this work. I am excited for the challenge of implementing these changes in the upcoming school year.

Benefits to the Field

The various benefits of this capstone project are the following. Through learning, we can better acknowledge the history and impact of English language teaching. This knowledge of impact comes from truly listening to multilingual students and educators,

especially Black students and educators, who have often been rendered invisible within this conversation. Students tell us all the time that the current school system is not working, through their behaviors and sometimes with their words. I do not blame them whatsoever for hating school. We need to listen to them because that hatred can teach us a lot about where we need to change. To start with, academic language has long been a gatekeeping strategy for education, one that we should no longer support. Instead, let us celebrate all knowledge so that we can learn how to make a better world.

Summary

In this chapter, I have addressed new learning from my capstone journey that started with the questions: *why should English language teachers utilize language architecture and what can that implementation in the secondary classroom look like?* I have reflected on this process, reviewed what literature greatly influenced my work, talked about the implications and limitations, suggested future research, spoke about how I would share my work, and discussed what benefits this could bring to the field.

Conclusion

This process to complete both my capstone and my master's has been a needed journey. I am both happy to have been able to do this and happy that I have finished. As I think about everything that led me here, I often think about my time in English language services and how much that impacted me both positively and negatively. I keep that in mind because it is my goal to get to the root of issues so that future students and educators can have more positive experiences and fewer negative ones. Together, we can create a better learning experience and a better world.

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