School of Education Student Capstone Theses and Dissertations

School of Education

Summer 2019

The Roles And Identities Of English As A Second Language Teacher Leaders

Madeline Benson
Hamline University

THE ROLES AND IDENTITIES OF

ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER LEADERS

by

Madeline L. Benson

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

Hamline University

Saint Paul, Minnesota

August, 2019

Primary Advisor: Michelle Benegas
Secondary Advisor: Amy Stolpestad
Peer Reviewer: Jenny Leroux

I extend the sincerest thank you to my cohort. This capstone was fueled by your snacks, support and encouragement. Thank you to my Capstone Committee. Michelle and Amy, I am humbled by the way that you fostered my leadership. Jenny, I aspire to your level of leadership in our field. A special thanks to the ELM coaches who participated in my study. Learning from your experiences was inspiring. I believe that your voices are important and that you are shaping ESL leadership. Lastly, to Michael for your patience. Thank you for being my biggest supporter through this process.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

In the year 2011, shortly after deciding to pursue elementary education during my undergrad, I added a minor in teaching English as a second language (ESL). At first, my primary goal in adding the minor was to become more marketable as I sought a job in an increasingly competitive market. My other goal was to become better prepared to teach English learners (ELs) as a classroom teacher. What I had not anticipated was the passion I would develop for language and language learning. Throughout my studies, I became fascinated by second language acquisition research and professional learning. My passion for the field of ESL has led me to my research questions:

1. After being trained as teacher leaders, do ESL teachers experience a shift in their professional role? If yes, how?

2. After being trained as teacher leaders, do ESL teachers experience a shift in their professional identity? If yes, how?

The goal of this chapter is to provide a rationale and a context for the study, including my experience as an educator. It will also provide an overview of the English Learners in the Mainstream (ELM) Project. To gain further understanding of the potential significance of the study, the importance of this particular question to the writer will be explored. Finally, the potential implications of this project will be discussed.

Rationale and Context for the Capstone Project

Before considering the experiences of teachers currently working in the field, it is critical to consider teacher preparation programs. According to García, Beatriz Arias, Harris Murri and Serna (2010) effective teaching is one of the most critical factors of

success for diverse students. Teacher preparation programs can aid in the development of effective teachers (García et. al, 2010). Darling-Hammond describes features common of successful teacher preparation programs which include:

> A common, clear vision of good teaching permeating all coursework and clinical experiences; curriculum is grounded in knowledge of child and adolescent development, learning, social contexts, and subject matter pedagogy, taught in the context of practice; extended clinical experiences are carefully developed to support the ideas and practices presented in simultaneous, closely interwoven coursework; and explicit strategies help students confront their own deep-seated beliefs and assumptions about learning and students and learn about the experiences of people different from themselves (as cited in García et. al, 2010 p. 135)

Darling-Hammond explains that highly successful teacher preparation programs integrate knowledge of working with ELs (as cited in García et. al, 2010). However, many teacher preparation programs lack explicit instruction that prepares teachers to work with diverse learners, including ELs (García et. al, 2010).

For example, in my undergraduate experience at University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire, the teacher preparation program included classes that focused on content knowledge and strategies for teaching various content areas, including social studies, science, language arts and math. We learned about the building blocks of special education including the legality, processes and some instructional strategies. Our coursework included courses specific to integrating art, music, technology and physical education into our practice. There was coursework that provided background on child

development and the history of education in the United States. Yet there was not one course dedicated to the needs of English learners (ELs). García et. al (2010) found that many teacher education programs do not include specialized preparation to teach ELs and that programs that incorporate preparation do so as a result of state and federal policy, which results in inconsistent preparation.

This lack of ESL preparation is problematic given the increase in the number of ELs nationwide, meaning that more and more, ELs are placed in classrooms with mainstream teachers (Correll, 2016, de Jong & Harper, 2005). As a result, de Jong and Harper (2005, 2009) assert that teachers spending the most instructional time with ELs are typically underprepared to tailor support for language development. This has led to the need for professional development that will help close the gap in ESL instruction. In order to prepare mainstream teachers currently working in the field to meet the needs of their students, Dabiri (2011) and Dekutoski (2001) note that professional development around ESL best practices is necessary. However, the preparation often results in teachers feeling inadequately prepared to support their ELs (Dabiri, 2011, Dekutoski, 2001). With this context and history in mind, it is possible to consider the aims of one University-affiliated program in addressing the current preparation gap.

This study aims to determine the experiences of the instructional coaches trained through the English Learners in the Mainstream (ELM) Project. To gather this information, the research will consider the experiences of ESL teachers who act as leaders, supporting their mainstream colleagues as part of the Hamline University ELM Project. For the purposes of this paper, the teacher leaders in question hold an ESL license and have received training through Hamline's ELM Project with the goal of

maintaining their role as full time teachers while working as a teacher leader. Although the definitions vary, this research will define teacher leaders as teachers who maintain teaching responsibilities while also assuming a leadership role within their school community (Wenner & Campbell, 2017). In this context, the teacher leaders support their colleagues through professional development, collaboration and peer instructional coaching. The goal of the ELM Project is to address the gap in preparation to support ELs among mainstream teachers while also elevating ESL teachers to harness their expertise.

Description of the ELM Project

The ELM Project (name included with permission) was created in affiliation with Hamline University and is funded by a grant from the United States Department of Education's Office of English Language Acquisition (OELA) (M. Benegas, personal communication, March, 2019). The grant will be supported from 2016-2021 and is intended to train licensed ESL teachers to serve as professional leaders in their schools. The ELM Project trains coaches from a variety of districts throughout the state in urban, rural and suburban settings. To begin, all coaches attend a two-day training in which they learn about supporting their colleagues through research-based instructional strategies, and develop an action plan that is relevant to their setting.

The purpose of the ELM project is twofold: to incorporate training for pre-service teachers and to support mainstream teachers currently working in the field. This project will consider the goal related to supporting mainstream teachers. In order to address the lack of training that exists in teacher education programs (Correll, 2016; de Jong & Harper, 2005, 2009), all teacher candidates at Hamline University are required to take a two-credit course that includes instruction on effective practices for ESL instruction to

use in their mainstream classroom. In order to reach the mainstream teachers already working with ELs, partnering districts send ESL teachers to receive training to serve as a leader by providing professional development and coaching. The ELM Project provides professional development, tools and ongoing support for partnering districts. The project recruits from a variety of districts throughout the state of Minnesota. All of the ESL teachers who are trained as ELM coaches attend training at Hamline and receive a graduate-level credit for their participation in the course. They also have the opportunity to receive clock hours that can apply towards licensure renewal. Other than receiving graduate credits and clock hours, coaches do not receive any monetary support for being an ELM coach.

After attending the training, the coaches are expected to create an action plan, meet with their administrator and recruit interested mainstream teachers to engage in a peer coaching relationship. The coaching relationships include pre and post observation meetings as well as observations by the ELM coaches. ELM coaches are also expected to lead six hours of professional development. While these expectations are outlined for all coaches, the coordinators of the project recognize the individual needs and contexts of participating school districts and have allowed for deviation from these expectations when necessary. The coaches are expected to use the non-evaluative observation forms, called the ELM Support Tool, provided by the program. To ensure the confidentiality of all participants and all coaches, the forms are submitted to the ELM coordinators without any personal information about the teachers or students.

In the first year of the project, the goal was to generate the content that would be used at the University and to design professional development, training and tools for use

by coaches. During the 2017-2018 school year, the ELM Project partnered with its first districts and began training coaches. As of August 2018, the third year of the project, the ELM Project has partnered with 22 districts and schools (including private and charter schools). In all, 125 ELM coaches have been trained. In 2019, three additional public charter schools and four additional public district partners were added. Another 81 ELM coaches were trained from existing and new partner schools as of April 2019. The schools that the ELM Project serves are diverse in nature and include charter schools, private parochial schools, large urban school districts and smaller suburban and rural school districts with both high and low incidences of ELs. In order to meet the diverse needs of their unique setting, ELM coaches are provided with tools and resources that can be used and adapted. For example, the ELM Project website includes presentations, videos and activities related to language instruction, trauma informed instruction, culturally relevant teaching, advocacy and assessment. ELM coaches are encouraged to choose the materials that are most relevant to their setting.

The ELM Project has expanded over the years. Each summer, the coordinators hold the ELM Institute which provides coaches opportunities to connect and continue their professional learning. They also started an ELM Principals' Institute, which is intended to support school and district level administration through further learning about the goals of the ELM Project and responsibilities of ELM coaches. With the background of the ELM Project in mind, it is possible to consider the implications of this work on the field of education.

Importance of Capstone Question to Researcher

The ELM Project holds potential to address some of the challenges faced by current ESL teachers. In December 2014 I graduated with two licensure areas, a license to work as an English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher and my elementary classroom license. The first three years of my career were spent working as an ESL teacher. During this time my mainstream colleagues expressed frustrations about their ELs. Frequent comments were "Their writing is nowhere near their reading." or "They don't know what to do after I've given directions!" or "They're just not making growth in reading, no matter what I try." In my experience, these comments seemed to be indicative of my colleagues' need for additional knowledge and skills for working with ELs. The teachers in my district are not alone in experiencing an influx in the number of ELs in their classrooms. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), the number of ELs in public schools has increased nationwide since 2000. In the NCES report titled *English Language Learners in Public Schools* (2019) 9.5 percent of public school students are identified as ELs with some states having as many as 21 percent ELs. According to the report, Minnesota is shown to have 8.2 percent of the overall population identified as ELs. Due to the rising number of ELs, de Jong and Harper (2009) found that ELs are being serviced more often in the general education classroom. However, de Jong and Harper (2009) have found that despite an increase in the population of ELs, there has been little change in the training to support ELs. Thus, the influx of ELs has contributed to mainstream teachers feeling underprepared, under-supported and unsure of how to proceed (de Jong & Harper, 2005).

During the 2018-2019 school year, I transitioned to a new role as a first grade classroom teacher. My classroom was made up of 23 students, ten of whom were ELs.

Given the high number of ELs in my room, an ESL co-teacher provided one hour of ESL service each day during our writer's workshop block, providing language support as we planned, taught, supported and assessed our students together. This was highly beneficial because my co-teacher and I observed that our ELs needed support to develop their English proficiency in writing.

Considering the various levels of language proficiency in my classroom, my ELs tended to perform below grade level expectations based on our district reading assessments, formative writing assessments and common math assessments. This means that I experienced, first-hand, the high needs of my students and the challenges related to supporting their language development. I was fortunate to have knowledge of the needs of ELs and recognize that many of my colleagues, who have between three and ten ELs in their classrooms, have not received explicit training to support them. This is a reality for many classroom teachers, demonstrating the need for further support in meeting the needs of the ELs while also accelerating their learning in order to close the achievement gap between ELs and non-ELs.

Potential Importance of the Capstone Question

The need for teacher professional development related to English language instruction is well-established in the research (Dabiri, 2001; Dekutoski, 2011; Fradi, 2012). The ELM Project is attempting to address these needs by providing professional development for mainstream teachers which is site-based and delivered by ESL teachers who work full-time in schools. The ELM Project is being externally evaluated through the Center for Applied Research and Educational Improvement (CAREI). One of the purposes of the evaluation is to consider the extent to which the ELM project has

implemented its model of training ELM coaches, whether the mainstream teachers involved have acquired the knowledge necessary to support ELs in their classrooms and the overall effectiveness of the program from the perspective of the ELM coaches (Dupuis, Peterson, Diamond, Weber, 2018). While the information gleaned in the report developed by CAREI provides recommendations related to the ongoing design and structure of the ELM Project, it has not yet examined the experiences of the ESL teachers who work as instructional coaches. Dupuis et al. (2018) found that 80% of their respondents felt that the project was somewhat or extremely effective in preparing them to work as instructional coaches. This indicates an effective program design but does not allow for further consideration of how the ESL teachers involved experience coaching their colleagues. A goal of this study is to address the gap in current research by examining how a leadership role may impact an ESL teacher's professional role and identity.

A handful of researchers have considered the roles of ESL teachers and their perceived levels of professionalism within the field (Bascia & Jacka, 2001; Harper, de Jong & Platt, 2008). The results of research conducted by Bascia and Jacka (2001) and Harper, de Jong and Platt (2008) indicate that ESL teachers often feel as if they are increasingly expected to do more with less. This includes providing professional support for their colleagues (Bascia & Jacka, 2001). Bascia and Jacka (2001) caution that the expectation to support colleagues exists in addition to teaching responsibilities and rarely comes with preparation and support on how to do so. One of the goals of this research is to consider the ESL teachers' identities as leaders after they have been prepared and positioned to serve in this capacity.

A small body of research has considered the relationship between ESL teachers and their mainstream colleagues. Arkoudis (2006) found that ESL teachers and mainstream teachers are increasingly expected to collaborate in order to best support their students. However, Arkoudis (2006) found that their collaboration is affected by a number of factors including educational background, professional experience, teaching philosophies and perceived positions of power. This is to say that the relationship between ESL teachers and their mainstream colleagues does not exist without challenges, with ESL teachers reporting challenges in their ability to positively impact instruction (Arkoudis, 2006).

Research related to the experiences of ESL teacher leaders has implications on the field of teacher leadership. The need for professional development related to ESL instruction is well-supported and becoming increasingly urgent (de Jong & Harper, 2005). The ELM model positively contributes to the gap in teacher preparation, with potential to further explore the use of teacher leadership as a means to support their mainstream colleagues. There is little research that addresses ESL teacher leaders. As a former teacher of ELs currently working as a mainstream classroom teacher, I have experienced first-hand the challenges and growing expectations faced by ESL teachers and mainstream teachers alike. Therefore, research that considers models for preparing mainstream teachers is necessary. Moreover, given the challenges faced by ESL teachers in the field, deeper consideration of how to equip ESL teachers to serve as leaders is important and urgent.

The purpose of this chapter was to present the research question and provide context necessary to frame the study. The upcoming chapter will include a review of the

pertinent literature including the current level of preparation for mainstream teachers in

supporting ELs, framing the need for professional development around the unique needs

of ELs. It will also consider instructional coaching as a method of professional

development by reviewing research related to teacher leadership. Research relevant to the

laws guiding ESL policy, training to work as an ESL teacher, as well as the unique role

of ESL teachers, will be considered. Framed in the context of the literature related to this

study, chapter three will include the research design and methodology. Chapter four will

present the results of the study. Chapter five will include a summary of the findings and

the implications of the study on the field.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

Chapter Overview

Due to rising numbers of English Learners in mainstream classrooms, mainstream teachers are increasingly called upon to meet the needs of their ELs. Correll (2016) explains that teachers must be adequately prepared if they are expected to do so. This research will use the term mainstream teachers to refer to content area teachers who are responsible for classroom instruction. Teachers who hold an ESL license and are responsible for the language instruction of their ELs will be referred to as ESL teachers. In the state of Minnesota, the number of ELs has increased by 300 percent in the last 20 years (English Learner Education in Minnesota, 2017). However, de Jong and Harper (2005) caution that teacher preparation programs frequently lack instruction related to the cultural and linguistic needs of ELs. This means that mainstream teachers enter the field largely underprepared to support the needs of ELs. Given that further professional development is necessary for teachers to support ELs and that ESL teachers are often called upon to do so, the goal of this study is to answer the research questions:

1. After being trained as teacher leaders, do ESL teachers experience a shift in their professional role? If yes, how?

2. After being trained as teacher leaders, do ESL teachers experience a shift in their professional identity? If yes, how?

This chapter will provide an overview of mainstream teacher preparation to support English Learners (ELs) and consider best practices in the instruction of ELs. An understanding of how mainstream teachers are prepared to teach ELs will give context to

the need for increased professional development. Next, the chapter will explore

instructional coaching as a model for professional development. The effectiveness of

using a coaching model, as well as factors that support and inhibit teacher leadership, will

be discussed. Finally, the chapter will present laws guiding English as a Second

Language (ESL) instruction, program models for instruction, and the roles and

responsibilities of ESL teachers.

Two Different Worldviews on Defining English Learners

Historically, the definition of English Learners has focused primarily on English

language proficiency. The Minnesota Department of Education defines ELs as follows:

(1) the pupil, as declared by a parent or guardian uses a language other than

English; and (2) the pupil is determined by a valid assessment measuring the

pupil's English language proficiency and by developmentally appropriate

measures, which might include observations, teacher judgment, parent

recommendations, or developmentally appropriate assessment instruments, to lack

the necessary English skills to participate fully in academic classes taught in

English. (English Learner Education in Minnesota, 2017, p. 3)

One of the defining factors is a skill deficit, focusing on what the students seemingly lack

the necessary English skills to do. Martínez (2018) explains how this definition can be

problematic because it affects the way that teachers and policy-makers view multilingual

learners. Martínez (2018) asserts that this definition normalizes monolingualism, even

though worldwide, bilingualism is the norm. He goes on to explain that the historical

definition of ELs separates ELs from the norm which contributes to the tendency to label

ELs "at risk" or "struggling" (Martínez, 2018). Martínez (2018) explains that the

traditional definition impacts teacher perceptions of ELs, which ultimately has an impact on federal legislation for this group of traditionally underserved students.

Martínez (2018) cautions that a deficit-based federal definition of ELs opens opportunity for negative rhetoric in the media, perpetuating the challenges faced by multilingual families. He argues that the tendency to focus on a lack of skills runs contrary to the current data-driven, strengths-based focus in education. Martínez (2018) notes that rather than considering the varied and diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds of students, we tend to see ELs as one group lacking the English they need to participate in schools. In truth, ELs have varying linguistic abilities, strengths, backgrounds and experiences (Martínez, 2018).

In 2003, WIDA was created in affiliation with the Wisconsin Department of Education. WIDA created the ACCESS for ELs test of English language proficiency. As of 2019, WIDA is a consortium of 40 states aiming to research and support the needs of ELs. WIDA supports a strengths-based approach outlined in their Can Do Philosophy:

> Linguistically and culturally diverse learners, in particular, bring a unique set of assets that have the potential to enrich the experiences of all learners and educators. As these young children and students learn additional languages, educators can draw on these assets for the benefit of both the learners themselves and for everyone in the community. By focusing on what language learners can do, we send a powerful message that students from diverse linguistic, cultural, and experiential backgrounds contribute to the vibrancy of our early childhood programs and K–12 schools. (The WIDA Can Do Philosophy, 2014, p. 1)

This viewpoint of ELs focuses on the assets and skills that multilingual learners bring to the classroom. It also calls on the need for teachers to recognize and view the diverse backgrounds of students more favorably. As educational professionals move toward viewing ELs using a more asset-based definition, newer, more effective strategies are required in order to improve instruction for ELs. The evolution of asset-based views of ELs has developed in parallel with researchers using the foundations of second language acquisition to design effective instructional strategies for supporting ELs.

This section will give an overview of the gap that exists in teacher education programs to support English Learners (ELs). First, it will provide an overview of the essential components of teacher preparation to work with ELs, which include second language acquisition, cultural considerations and effective instructional strategies. The second part of the section will include research that examines how a lack of preparation to teach ELs affects teacher perception of ELs. Lastly, this section will consider research that suggests how to best support in-service teachers with professional development. An understanding of the current level of preparation for mainstream teachers gives further context to the need for professional development for in-service teachers.

Best Practices in English as a Second Language Preparation

Existing research in second language acquisition (SLA) informs best practice in teaching ELs. In 2005, de Jong and Harper found that teacher education programs may present strategies that support ELs in the classroom but lack background in SLA. According to de Jong and Harper (2005) this lack of SLA knowledge can mean that teachers have little linguistic awareness and may not know the level of language required to participate in the classroom (de Jong & Harper, 2005). The authors maintain that

presentation of instructional strategies without knowledge of why and how these strategies support language learning can be detrimental. In their review of research, de Jong and Harper (2005) argued that while best practices in instruction often benefit ELs, high quality teaching practices are not enough to support the language development necessary for students to be successful in school.

ELs are more likely to deepen their understanding of content area concepts when teachers use strategies to scaffold instruction, such as pre-teaching concepts and supporting vocabulary instruction. These practices support the development of academic language which is defined as:

> Language used in the learning of academic subject matter in a formal school context; aspects of language strongly associated with literacy and academic achievement, including specific academic terms or technical language, and speech registers related to each field of study. (Genesee & Harper, 2010, p. 84)

While these practices support content learning, de Jong and Harper (2005) contend that these measures may not be enough to support the academic language development necessary for students to be successful in school. This notion is supported by others in the field (Fradi, 2012; Martin, 2016).

Background in SLA helps bring awareness to the linguistic demands faced by ELs and supports teachers as they design instruction tailored to the needs of their students. For example, de Jong and Harper (2005) explain how a child's literacy learning in their first language has been shown to positively support their reading development in a second language. The authors suggest that students who have developed literacy skills in their first language will develop reading skills in English more easily. Conversely, de Jong and

Harper (2005) note how students who have little literacy learning in their first language may need more intensive interventions. This example illustrates how various factors may affect a child's learning.

Without knowledge of factors that contribute to a child's linguistic development, Schulz (2017) explains that teachers may be underprepared to meet the needs of ELs. Additionally, when mainstream teachers lack knowledge on how to support academic language proficiency, Martin, (2016) suggests that they may default to some of the more commonly-known (and easily implemented) best practices for ELs like creating an environment where students feel comfortable and welcome. While this is a known best practice related to ESL instruction, Martin (2016) cautions that it neglects to acknowledge the complex academic and linguistic needs of ELs. A foundational understanding of SLA supports teacher learning about instructional strategies and helps teachers meet the needs of ELs in schools (Martin, 2016; de Jong & Harper, 2005). Limited knowledge in SLA is one of the challenges faced by current teachers of ELs. The upcoming section will address how teacher preparation impacts instruction.

Teacher Perception of English Learners

Another challenge faced by mainstream teachers is how their perception of language development is affected when they have not taken coursework related to best practices in ESL instruction. Schulz (2017) explains that many mainstream teachers lack the opportunity to work with culturally diverse students in their preservice teaching experiences. Schulz (2017) notes that the lack of experience with this population coupled with little background in SLA results in limited linguistic awareness. For these reasons, mainstream teachers are often ill-equipped to understand their students' language

development. According to Schulz (2017) a teacher's perception of their ELs' language abilities may be less rooted in an understanding of language proficiency and more based on assumptions.

For example, a teacher may describe a student as having "no language" or "zero English" when they are simply in the silent phase, a phase typical of students in an unfamiliar school setting (Schulz, 2017). Schulz (2017) cautions that when teachers describe students and their language proficiency this way, there is a risk of further perpetuating the deficit view of bilingual students. This means that a teacher's perception of an EL's ability may be impacted by their awareness of the cultural and linguistic experiences of ELs.

In addition to linguistic needs, ELs often face cultural barriers (Martínez, 2018). ELs represent a variety of cultural backgrounds and have varying levels of language proficiency (Martínez, 2018). However, the use of first language is often seen as proof of a deficit rather than a strength. For example, Martínez (2018) explains that many ELs code-switch, or switch between English and their home language within the same conversation. Many teachers see code-switching as a lack of proficiency, when in truth, researchers have found that code-switching is a characteristic of a highly skilled bilingual (Martínez, 2018). Moreover, Martínez (2018) states that code-switching has also been found to serve specific social functions and demonstrates the student's ability to skillfully hold a conversation. This example of how ELs may differ from their monolingual peers highlights the need for teachers to be aware of and sensitive to the cultural backgrounds and skills of their ELs. This notion is supported by others including de Jong and Harper (2005), Dekutoski (2011) and Martin (2016).

Multilingualism has been a controversial topic, and as such, de Jong and Harper (2005) and Martínez (2018) found that it is often approached as an obstacle. This view has led to laws that further perpetuate the deficit model of those who speak a language other than English. As previously stated, the state and federal definitions of ELs, such as the current definition of Limited English Proficient (LEP) designated by Minnesota, inform the lens with which policy makers and school leaders view ELs. For example, the state of Arizona enacted Proposition 203 in 2013 which declares that "all children in Arizona public schools shall be taught English as rapidly and effectively as possible" and requires that all children be taught in English only (Sec. 1.2). This proposition further perpetuates a deficit viewpoint of bilingualism, going so far as to assert that "Immigrant parents are eager to have their children acquire a good knowledge of English, thereby allowing them to fully participate in the American Dream of economic and social advancement" (Proposition 203, Sec. 1.6). This viewpoint fails to recognize the benefits of bilingualism and neglects the languages and cultures of the families affected by this proposition.

Martinez (2018) and de Jong and Harper (2005) argue that deficit views of multilingualism pose challenges for students who may be negotiating multiple identities, languages and cultures. The authors assert that the need for a safe space for multilingualism in schools is paramount. In order to adequately support the needs of ELs in the classroom, de Jong and Harper (2005) suggest that mainstream teachers benefit from training in SLA coupled with instructional strategies that support ELs. However, beyond these instructional needs, training must also call attention to cultural

considerations and the benefits of bilingualism (de Jong and Harper, 2005; Martínez, 2018). This is to say that ESL instruction goes beyond linguistic needs.

Considering that teacher education programs lack focus in these essential areas, it is known that very few teachers enter the field of education feeling adequately prepared to meet the needs of the ELs in their classrooms (Correll, 2016). In order to further understand their preparedness to teach ELs, Correll (2016) collected research to determine the teachers' perceptions of their preparation, the types of preparation they received, and how this level of preparation impacts their work with ELs. Correll (2016) asserts that there are two factors that contributed to their level of preparedness. First, an absence of coursework that addresses the needs of linguistically diverse students including elements of second language acquisition and academic language. Second, limited opportunities to work in settings with multilingual students during their pre-service teaching experiences (Correll, 2016). Correll's (2016) study supports the findings of others–a teacher's perceived level of preparedness to work with students has implications for their success (Dekutoski, 2011; Martin, 2016; Walker, 2014). A teacher's sense of preparedness to support student learning is an important factor in their teaching.

The results of Correll's (2016) study on mainstream teachers' self-efficacy suggest that teachers who felt less prepared to meet the needs of their ELs were less likely to implement the strategies and supports they had learned to improve instruction for ELs. Fortunately, the reverse was also true. Correll (2016) and Walker (2014) found that teachers who felt prepared to support the needs of ELs were more likely to

implement instructional strategies and supports for their students. Training is an essential component to a teacher's instruction.

These findings have important implications for mainstream teacher preparation programs. As argued by Correll (2016) a teacher's sense of preparedness plays an important role in their teaching. Dekutoski (2011) confirmed that prior coursework related to the unique needs of ELs supports teachers in using best practices for ELs. Additionally, teachers who have taken coursework related to best practices for English Learners approach the task of implementing strategies more favorably (Dekutoski, 2011). Dabiri (2016) and Dekutoski (2011) observed that teachers also report a sense of confidence in incorporating strategies after they had taken relevant coursework. For a population of students who face cultural and linguistic barriers, and one that tends to require higher levels of support in order to perform at grade level, Correll (2016) argues that teachers of ELs must be confident in designing instruction.

The review of mainstream teacher preparation suggests that many teacher preparation programs do not adequately prepare current mainstream teachers to teach ELs. This lack of preparation means suggests the need for additional training for teachers already in the field. A body of research (Dekutoski, 2011; Dabiri, 2011; & Fradi, 2012) looks at existing ESL training that intends to support mainstream teachers. Some of the key findings, elaborated in the next section, have determined that the quality, duration, and type of training have an impact on success, according the mainstream teachers who participated.

English as a Second Language Training for Mainstream Teachers

Dekutoski (2011), Dabiri (2011) and Fradi (2012) argue that although teachers benefit from training related to best practices in ESL instruction, training alone is not enough to ensure implementation. The findings of their work indicate that high quality training that is well-planned and engaging increased the likelihood that teachers would implement the strategies they learned. The findings also indicate that professional development needs to be purposeful and ongoing. A take-away from these three studies is that teachers benefit most when training is systematic and sustained.

However, Dabiri, (2011) identified one of the barriers to implementation of practices learned during professional development was a lack of ongoing support, especially after learning a high volume of content. In order to better prepare teachers to retain and implement what they learn, Dabiri (2011) states that teachers need time to process their learning and benefit from the opportunity to follow up with experts about areas of confusion. Teachers in this study reported that they would feel most prepared to teach if they were provided with ongoing support by trained experts. The results of these studies indicate that coaching, a model designed to be ongoing and job-embedded, serves as a supportive environment for teachers (Dekutoski, 2011; Fradi, 2012). Given the positive outcomes associated with systemic, sustained professional development, the use of school-based instructional coaching is promising. The upcoming section will review literature related to instructional coaching as a form of professional development.

Teacher Leadership and Its Effectiveness

Professional development is not new to the field of education. However, due to the call for increased accountability measures in public schools, professional development has evolved to include teacher leadership as a model for supporting teachers

(Wenner & Campbell, 2017). Teachers who assume leadership roles within their building have often supported instruction related to literacy and have been called literacy coaches, literacy leaders, and reading specialists. For the purposes of this study, the term teacher leader will be used. Teacher leaders will be defined as teachers who maintain teaching responsibilities while also assuming a leadership role within their school community (Wenner & Campbell, 2017).

Much of the literature around teacher leadership is informed by the experiences of instructional coaches supporting literacy instruction. This body of research will be used to support what is known about teacher leadership. The goal of this section is to provide an overview of the rise of teacher leadership in professional development, which has led to research that highlights its effectiveness. This section will also address the factors contributing to effective teacher leadership along with the challenges faced by teacher leaders, and current gaps in the body of research around teacher leadership.

Knight (2004), a pioneer in the field of instructional coaching, has led the shift over the past two decades from the model of professional development as a one-day workshop to coaching. Knight (2004) outlines some of a coach's responsibilities such as creating and delivering professional development in schools, collaborating with teachers to plan instruction and model best practices while teachers observe. Knight (2004) has found that instructional coaching is typically more effective than professional development conducted outside of the school setting.

According to Tolbert (2015), Knight (2004) and Walker (2014) teachers who have participated in coaching are more likely to implement instructional strategies compared to more professional development that exists in off-site settings. These findings have

implications for teachers of ELs who would benefit from professional development related to ELs' needs. Walker (2014) notes that off-site professional development is less effective than job embedded professional development. In order to provide teachers with high quality professional development, the field of education has been embracing coaching models which elevates teachers to be instructional leaders. This has led to an influx of research around teacher leadership. Best practices in instructional coaching will be considered in the upcoming section.

Tolbert (2015) explains that in its most effective model, instructional coaching includes planning, teaching, reflecting, and sharing instructional practices. In other words, coaches work closely with the teachers in their building in order to guide them through the various elements of their work with students. This means that day-to-day, coaches engage in a variety of practices described by Knight (2004), which include modeling lessons, working one-on-one with teachers, and providing whole-staff professional development. Three themes that emerged in the review of research on instructional coaching include the benefits of receiving individual support in-context, coaches acting as facilitators, and the importance of a relationship between coaches and teachers.

One of the commonly cited benefits of instructional coaching is the ability to provide individualized support that is directly applicable to a teacher's daily work. Tolbert (2015) concluded that all of the teachers who had participated in her study valued receiving professional development by instructional coaches. The teachers involved in the study explained that professional development that was embedded within their context improved their ability to design effective instruction. This notion is supported by

Mangin and Dunsmore (2015) whose research revealed that teachers said the most beneficial aspect of coaching was the ability to work with a coach on an individual basis. The authors go on to explain that individual coaching provides the most opportunity for teachers to change their practice because a coach's support can be tailored to the unique needs and challenges faced by the teachers with whom they work. When professional learning is geared towards the needs of the teachers, they are better equipped to utilize strategies in their daily instruction.

Another benefit of utilizing teacher leaders to support professional development is that they are positioned to act as facilitators of learning, providing ample opportunities for their colleagues to grow and learn. Mangin and Dunsmore (2015) explain that one of the patterns that emerged from their research was the role of a coach as a facilitator. In practice, this meant that the teacher leader engaged in reflective conversations with teachers, hoping to elicit the teacher's ability to problem solve. Mangin and Dunsmore (2015) found that coaches described their experience as, "...a very specific process focused on facilitating teachers' thinking to develop their capacity for problem solving" (p. 196). This meant that coaches asked questions about teaching that were intended to guide the teachers through the reflective process with the hopes that teachers would discover new ways to respond (Mangin and Dunsmore, 2015). This model is different from more traditional forms of professional development where the "experts" share knowledge and the teachers learn (Knight, 2004). In instructional coaching, the coaches and teachers co-construct knowledge.

Of course, constructing knowledge is a skillful act. Teacher leaders are most successful when they remain focused on the individual. Coaches must be sensitive to the

needs of the teachers with whom they work. Hunt and Handsfield (2013) found that coaching is less about fulfilling a specific set of responsibilities and more about navigating relationships in order to differentiate support. In other words, coaches must recognize that teachers may need different types of support and the most effective teacher leaders are sensitive to the needs of the teachers they support (Hunt & Handsfield, 2013).

One of the resounding themes that emerged in the review of the literature was the need for instructional coaches to build strong relationships with the teachers they support. Valles (2017) found that a strong relationship was found to be a critical factor in the success of a coach and that coaches who invest in their relationship with their colleagues find themselves more likely to make an impact on instructional practice. Valles (2017) found that the instructional coaches built relationships by clearly defining their role as a collaborator rather than an evaluator as a means to help teachers feel more comfortable working with a coach. Tolbert's (2015) work adds to the importance of the relationship between the instructional coach and the teachers, stressing the need for the instructional coaches to build trust. She explains that a relationship helps teachers become more invested in implementing new strategies into their instructional practice (Tolbert, 2015). In addition to helping teachers feel invested, Wiedlich (2017) explains that teachers feel more comfortable and open to the partnership if they felt valued and respected.

Since coaching is relatively new to the field, teachers and coaches alike may feel apprehensive. Castillo (2012) found that many teachers felt hesitant to enter into a coaching relationship. She explained some teachers were apprehensive because they thought that their performance would be evaluated by the coach while others felt that coaching would not positively impact their teaching. Wiedlich (2017) compared the

initial resistance to working with a coach to be similar to the beginning stages of any relationship, explaining that people naturally enter into relationships cautiously as they determine trust and intentions.

Since some teachers are hesitant to enter a coaching relationship, Wiedlich (2017) asserts that a coach's ability to build a relationship and establish trust played an important role in helping their colleagues feel more comfortable. While some teachers expressed initial concerns about working with a coach, Castillo (2012) found that their concerns dissipated as they engaged in the coaching process with a coach who established trust. Castillo (2012) explained that one way that coaches established trust was remaining neutral during coaching conversations. Another way that coaches established trust was by ensuring teachers that their conversations would remain private. Teachers felt more comfortable in their conversations with their coach, knowing that what they discussed would not be shared with other teachers or administrators (Castillo, 2012). The work of Castillo (2012) and Carrera (2010) confirm that trust, respect, and strong relationships are essential components of effective coaching.

One of the added benefits of a coaching relationship is the opportunity it provides for increased collaboration. In the era of accountability, Knight (2004) explains that teachers are finding it more necessary to work together to support student needs. As noted by Tolbert (2015), teachers who participated in a coaching relationship engaged in higher levels of collaboration with their instructional coaches. For example, teachers and coaches spent more time planning their instruction collaboratively with their coach (Tolbert, 2015). This means that coaching has been shown to impact teacher collaboration.

In addition to spending more time planning, coaches and teachers also experienced more frequent opportunities to reflect on their practice (Tolbert, 2015). Frequent opportunities to reflect on practice ultimately support teachers in becoming practitioners who are sensitive to the needs of their students. Increased collaboration, trusting relationships, and individualized support are some of the most commonly cited benefits of instructional coaching (Knight, 2004; Tolbert, 2015). However, the research on instructional coaching has also led to research on teacher leadership as a whole. Research around teacher leadership has revealed the factors that support and inhibit the model of instructional coaching.

Factors that Support and Inhibit Teacher Leadership

The growing body of research on teacher leadership has affirmed that elevating teachers as leaders holds promise. However, while many leaders who work as instructional coaches have seen success, their effectiveness can be affected by a variety of factors. This section aims to outline some of the factors that support and inhibit teacher leaders, using literature that considers the experiences of instructional coaches as a basis. Wenner and Campbell (2017) found that the following factors support effective teacher leadership: having a clearly defined role, receiving support from administration, and being provided external training and support to navigate the complexities of the coaching role. In part, it is the lack of the aforementioned factors that inhibit effective teacher leadership. For this reason, this section will consider each of the factors through the lens of supports and barriers.

Teacher leaders are expected to enact change within their buildings. At times they are expected to do so without a clear definition of their role (Wenner & Campbell, 2017).

Hunt and Handsfield (2013) note that much of the research conducted about instructional coaching focuses on the daily roles and tasks of a literacy coach, partly in an effort to bring clarity to the qualities of an effective instructional leader. Consequently, the literature review for this research relies heavily on the data related to literacy coaching, illuminating the need for further research on coaching teachers of ELs. These tasks should include activities directly related to instruction, such as planning with teachers, modeling in classroom, and preparing and leading professional development (Hunt & Handsfield, 2013). When teacher leaders are able to spend time fulfilling these roles, they can more directly impact the instruction in their building.

Outside of the tasks mentioned above, the daily tasks of instructional coaches often include other responsibilities like teaching reading interventions, covering a colleague's classroom when a substitute shortage arises, monitoring the hallways, and completing reading assessments with students (Hunt & Handsfield, 2013). Wenner and Campbell (2017) explain that teacher leaders benefit from having clearly defined roles that relate directly to school leadership. However, Hunt and Handsfield (2013) argue that the presence of a defined role must be coupled with time to fulfill the responsibilities outlined. Wenner and Campbell (2017) found that teacher leaders are most effective when they are afforded the time to lead, unaffected by outside tasks. Role definition therefore stands as a critical factor in the effectiveness of coaching.

Another critical factor of instructional coaching is the role of administration at the district and school level. In the context of the school setting, school districts often employ coordinators that oversee departments within their district. Administrative support includes implementation of the coaching model (Weidlich, 2013), autonomy (Wenner &

Campbell, 2017) and the creation of a supportive environment (Wenner & Campbell, 2017). Weidlich (2013) explains that principals are largely responsible for the implementation of a coaching model. He asserts that administrators must be clear in their purpose as they adopt new models of professional development. In other words, administrators need to clearly articulate their goals and hopes for teacher leadership. This may require conversations about how to best support their teacher leaders and staff (Weidlich, 2013). Administrators are most often responsible for defining the roles and outcomes for teacher leaders and doing so can have an impact on success (Weidlich, 2013). When teachers are elevated as leaders, they benefit from a clearly defined role.

Both teacher leaders and administrators benefit when coaches have uninterrupted time to accomplish their goals, granting coaches autonomy to enact change, and fostering a school environment that is safe and open to growth (Wenner & Campbell, 2017). Wenner and Campbell (2017) also identified the administrator as a critical player in creating a supportive school environment that encourages risk taking and a focus on growth. When coaches are afforded these supports, their experiences can be more effective. On the same note, a lack of supportive administration can inhibit a teacher leader's effectiveness.

Another critical factor in the experiences of teacher leaders was outside training and ongoing professional support. Wenner and Campbell (2017) point out that most teachers receive training to assume a leadership role through university programs or by attending outside professional development. In each of these scenarios, they must seek support outside of their school or district setting. This has implications for teacher leadership. Hunt and Handsfield (2013) explain that leadership roles are skillful positions

and that they are most effective when the coach are supported. However, Wiedlich (2017) asserts that instructional coaches do not always receive adequate training. This is despite the fact that proper training is essential and research finds that time invested in training a coach should be a high priority (Wiedlich, 2017). This suggests that there is a gap in the training of teacher leaders that relies heavily on outside settings. An increase in school and district training which supplements outside instruction may benefit teachers who are positioned to assume leadership roles.

Hunt and Handsfield's (2013) work on instructional coaching found that defined roles support effectiveness. However, training and support that focuses only on role definition neglects to acknowledge the presence of the power dynamic present in coaching and how it affects peer relationships (Hunt & Handsfield, 2013). Hunt and Handsfield (2013) emphasized that a coach's training should include support in navigating the complex emotional elements of their work. However, the authors caution that this area of focus is not always incorporated into a coach's training. Some of the emotional elements of coaching shared by Hunt and Handsfield (2013) have the ability to impact a coach's identity within a school. This means that further research related to identity may be necessary.

One of the realities faced by teacher leaders is a change in role as they navigate new responsibilities. Wenner and Campbell (2017) found that teachers who are positioned as leaders often have established relationships with their colleagues as peers. As they begin to assume a leadership role, some tend to work more closely with administration, which sometimes causes uneasiness among their colleagues (Wenner & Campbell, 2017). Wenner and Campbell (2017) assert that some teacher leaders find that

their relationships are negatively impacted because they are perceived to be an authority figure. Others do not experience challenges in their relationships (Wenner & Campbell, 2017). This is to say that teacher leaders experience their shifting role differently.

While there is literature that considers the roles of teacher leadership, the way that identity may impact teacher leadership is relatively underdeveloped. Rainville and Jones (2008) and Hunt and Handsfield (2013) maintain that identity and power play a part in teacher leadership. While these concepts relate to role, the two can be defined and considered separately. In their study of first year mathematics instructional coaches, Chval et al. (2010) assert that "The development of a coach's identity is shaped by the coach's expectations of his or her position and how these expectations are shaped through negotiations with others" (p. 211). This means that identity is impacted a teacher's experience and relationships.

Hunt and Handsfield (2013) explain that coaches, like anyone, experience multiple identities that may be affected by their "race, class, gender, age, religion, job assignments, parental status, and so on" (p. 53). In their study of literacy coaches, Rainville and Jones (2008) used the framework of situated identities. They explain that coaches adapt based on a variety of factors, which are defined by Gee (1999) as situated identities or "different identities or social positions we enact and recognize in different settings" (as cited in Rainville & Jones, 2008). With this in mind, it is understandable that coaches, who are often positioned as leaders within a building, experience shifts in their identities.

Rainville and Jones (2008) also considered the concepts of power and positioning of literacy coaches. They explain that a power dynamic is always present in a coaching

relationship, a notion supported by Chval et. al (2010). This comes into play as instructional coaches navigate relationships with their colleagues and administrators. Mangin and Dunsmore (2015) explain the complexity of an instructional coach's identity related to their ability to impact change:

> [Research on coaching] raises questions about how coaching can be framed to support both individual and systemic reform. At the heart of this challenge is the complex set of skills that instructional coaches must have to simultaneously build individual and systemic capacity for change. (p. 205)

This means that in order to impact change, effective instructional coaches must find the balance between their relationships, their positioning as an expert and their own experiences. In a role where they are expected to impart change and lead teachers to become more effective practitioners, coaches frequently lack the opportunity to examine how their own experiences impact their identity as a leader.

While the effectiveness of instructional coaching is supported by research, this research has also revealed factors that can facilitate and inhibit the experiences of teachers who are positioned as leaders. Included in these factors are clearly defined roles and the time to enact those roles, support from administration, and training to navigate the way that identity and power impact their work. The research has also revealed areas in which researchers can add to the current literature on instructional coaching.

Gaps in Research About Teacher Leadership

Teacher leadership and the model of instructional coaching remain relatively new to the field of education. Wenner and Campbell (2017) highlight the gaps in the current body of research around teacher leadership. Specifically, Wenner and Campbell (2017)

explain that research needs to be devoted to areas of teacher leadership as it pertains to supporting equity and diversity within a school. The authors acknowledge that much of the work on teacher leadership uses literacy coaching as a basis. The authors emphasized the need for research that considers the role that teacher leaders may have in addressing issues of equity within their school culture. One group of typically underrepresented students who could benefit from instructional coaching is ELs. While there is a growing body of literature supporting instructional coaching as an effective model for professional development related to literacy there is a gap in the literature related to coaching mainstream teachers who work with ELs (Castillo, 2012). Castillo (2012) found that teachers who had job-embedded professional development, like literacy coaching, ultimately incorporated best practices into their teaching. Since coaching provides support in a teacher's context, Carrera (2010) agrees that coaching holds promise for teachers to learn more about supporting the needs of ELs. She goes on to explain the importance of policies which support professional development to support the instruction of ELs.

Although there is evidence to link professional development and the implementation of effective instructional strategies, Wenner and Campbell's (2017) review of literature did not yield any findings that consider the direct impact of teacher leadership on student learning (Wenner & Campbell, 2017). Wenner and Campbell (2017) therefore identified the impact on student learning as a gap in the research around teacher leadership. In order to validate teacher leadership as an effective approach to support the needs of underrepresented students, further research must consider how this model impacts student achievement.

The purpose of this section was to consider teacher leaders as providers of professional development. A review of the literature on teacher leadership indicates that the instructional coaching model is an effective way to provide support for in-service teachers. A strong understanding of coaching as a model further situates the ELM Project, which provides professional development by elevating ESL teachers to assume leadership in their buildings. It is also necessary to consider the literature related to the roles and experiences of ESL teachers, as they are called to advocate for their students and provide support for their mainstream colleagues.

The English as a Second Language Teacher: Impact of Laws and Policies

This section will consider the expanding roles of ESL teachers. The recent influx in the number of ELs nationwide has led to an increase of teachers seeking licensure in ESL (de Jong & Harper, 2009). In recent years, researchers have studied this growing group of teachers who teach ESL. The purpose of this section is to provide background on the laws that guide ESL programming, commonly-used ESL instructional models, current approaches to ESL instruction and the changing roles of the ESL teacher. An understanding of the policies which further define ESL programs will provide context for some of the challenges faced by ESL teachers.

As the number of ELs increases, the roles and identities of the ESL teacher have changed. As a result of the increase in ELs, de Jong and Harper (2009) note that ELs are more frequently serviced in mainstream classrooms with less time allocated for ESL instruction. The landmark court case *Lau v. Nichols* (1974) ruled that providing equal materials is not enough to ensure English language development. The case resulted in the adoption of the Lau Remedies (414 U.S. 563, 1974). They state that schools must use

research-based methods for (1) identifying language skills of speakers of languages other than English; (2) designing instructional strategies; (3) determining students' readiness to enter into mainstream classrooms; and (4) creating professional standards for teachers of ELs. The Lau Remedies served as the foundation for ESL instructional design. However, the interpretation of these remedies along with federal mandates and resources remains varied (de Jong & Harper, 2009). A fundamental understanding of these landmark court cases is critical in framing the role of the ESL teachers in U.S. public schools.

One of the responses to the Lau Remedies is the creation of standards for teacher education. ESL teacher preparation programs have been guided by a set of standards created by the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) International Association. The 2018 standards outline the need for teacher preparation programs to prepare their teacher candidates to understand the complexity of language, cultural considerations, appropriate assessments for ELs, and the standards of professional conduct required for teachers of ELs. This includes the ability to support their colleagues to design effective instruction and recognize the challenges faced by ELs (Genesee & Harper, 2010). The 2018 standards were expanded to include standards related to collaboration with mainstream teachers and assuming leadership (Genesee & Harper, 2010).

According to the 2018 teacher standards, well-prepared ESL teacher candidates demonstrate the following (1) knowledge of language development; (2) knowledge of the impact of the various sociocultural elements that affect ELs; (3) the ability to design and implement effective instruction; (4) knowledge of interpreting and sharing the results of

assessments and issues that arise for ELs in assessments and; (5) effective collaboration with colleagues and the use of laws and policies that impact ELs.

These standards illuminate the breadth of knowledge expected of ESL teachers. Educational theory and practice are essential components of teacher preparation, while ESL teacher preparation programs contain these elements, they also include opportunities to consider the needs of their students and families through a particular lens (Genesee & Harper, 2010). According to the standards, ESL teachers are increasingly expected to support their colleagues in professional development, advocate for student needs, support content learning and language learning based on ESL policies. This means that currently, ESL teachers are faced with roles they may not have assumed before (Genesee & Harper, 2010, Valdés, Kibler, & Walqui 2014). The roles of ESL teachers have expanded.

Educational policies have an impact on the experiences of ELs within U.S. public schools. Historically, Harper, de Jong and Platt (2008) found that general education policies failed to recognize the needs of ELs. Most recently, the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), has led to the creation of policies that more directly support the needs of ELs and attempt to provide school districts with information on how districts can ensure they meet the needs of their ELs. In 2016, the *English Language Tool Kit* was created by the Office of English Language Acquisition (OELA) in hopes to help state and local agencies meet their legal obligations for ELs.

The Lau Remedies (1974) have provided a legal foundation for the instruction of ELs. The court ruling of *Castañeda v. Pickard* (1981) resulted in the *Castañeda Test* (1981) more clearly defined the requirements of ESL instructional programs. As a result, it is required that (1) programs are based on "sound educational theory," (2) programs are

implemented with appropriately trained personnel and "sufficient resources," and (3) the effectiveness of the program is reviewed regularly to determine success. The ruling serves as the primary method for determining the educational soundness of ESL programs. One of the shortcomings of the *Castañeda Test* is that it leaves the definition of sound educational theory, appropriately trained personnel and sufficient resources up to interpretation, resulting in a broader definition of how ELs can be served nationwide (*English Learner Tool Kit*, 2016).

In attempts to meet the needs of a growing population of ELs, some states including Texas, Florida, Utah, and California have opted to integrate ESL instruction into mainstream teacher preparation programs (Harper, de Jong & Platt, 2008). While mainstream teachers benefit from training to support ELs, mainstream teachers serve as the primary supporter of language needs. Harper et al. (2008) caution that in states where this is the case, ELs often receive little or no instructional support from an ESL teacher. Harper et. al (2008) emphasize the need for ESL teacher preparation programs to maintain the level of rigor required to obtain licensure and discourage the use of certificate programs that ask mainstream teachers to support the needs of ELs.

This sentiment is maintained and supported in the OLEA's *English Learner Tool Kit* which states that "In some instances SEA (school educational agency) endorsements or other requirements may not be rigorous enough to ensure that teachers of ELs have the skills to actually carry out the LEA's chosen EL program" (chapter 3, p. 1). In order to address the gap, a checklist is provided for use by school districts and agencies. Some of the items include the district's evaluation of teacher preparation and commitment to providing ongoing opportunities for professional development.

Harper et. al (2008) explain that the attempts to distill ESL instruction into a requirement for all teachers, at the expense of hiring ESL teachers to support ELs, further marginalizes ELs and their teachers. The authors outline two necessities for ESL teachers. The first is that they receive adequate preparation in their programs. The second is that they must maintain autonomy in order to make instructional decisions on behalf of their students (Harper et. al 2008). Understanding the unintended consequences of the broad definitions of ESL policy brings awareness to one of the key challenges faced by ESL teachers historically.

The following section aims to consider the programs most commonly used to address the needs of ELs. The following programs defined in the *English Learner Tool Kit* (2016) are deemed educationally sound under the first prong of the *Castañeda Test*: English as a Second Language (ESL), Structured English Immersion (SEI), Transitional Bilingual Education (TBE) and Dual Immersion. ESL and SEI are similar in that the primary language of instruction is English with occasional use of the students' first language. ESL Programs are defined in the *English Learner Tool Kit* as a:

Program of techniques, methodology, and special curriculum designed to teach ELs explicitly about the English language, including the academic vocabulary needed to access content instruction, and to develop their English language proficiency in all four language domains (i.e., speaking, listening, reading, and writing). (2016, Tool 3, p. 10)

SEI Programs are "designed to impart English language skills so that the ELs can transition and succeed in an English-only mainstream classroom once proficient" (2016, Tool 3, p. 10). Structured immersion is a model most commonly used at the secondary

level, with ESL teachers and mainstream teachers planning instruction and delivering content together or ESL teachers being "highly qualified" in a content area and teaching that content in a structured immersion setting.

There are key differences between ESL and SEI programs and TBE and dual immersion. In ESL and SEI, all instruction is in English and the end goal is that students become proficient in English as quickly as possible (English Learner Tool Kit, 2016). In contrast, TBE and Dual Immersion programs provide instruction in both languages. However, their end goals differ. The goal of TBE is for students to become proficient in English and instruction is provided only in English (English Learner Tool Kit, 2016). Dual immersion programs use both languages for instruction in the early years and transition to being primarily English for instruction (English Learner Tool Kit, 2016. While dual immersion programs do not always use the students' first language as a mode for instruction, bilingualism is the goal (English Learner Tool Kit, 2016). Therefore, dual immersion is unique in that it is the only approach with the goal of bilingualism.

One of the preliminary challenges faced by ESL teachers for providing language instruction is that currently ESL and SEI programs are the most commonly used (Leung & Lewkowicz, 2006). Leung and Lewkowicz (2006) assert that despite the research supporting bilingual programs like dual immersion or TBE, the majority of instruction in the U.S. uses English as the primary language for instruction. Leung and Lewkowicz (2006) caution that ESL or SEI programs are not designed to maintain, foster, or even use the student's first language in instruction. Suarez and Dominguez (2015) explain that ESL teachers find themselves torn between programs shown to most effectively support language learning, like bilingual education programs, and the preferred models of

instruction expected by districts and policy makers, or English only immersion programs. Recognizing the dissonance between the research supporting bilingual programs and the rarity of these programs provides important context to ESL service. Moreover, many ESL teachers recognize the benefits of bilingualism yet are not always afforded the time, resources, and models necessary to support bilingualism (Suarez & Dominguez, 2015). Knowing that ESL teachers are most often called to support language learning through the use of an ESL or SEI framework, this section will address some of the current tasks and roles of ESL teachers.

The Expanding Roles of English Language Teachers

This section will address the roles of ESL teachers and begin to explore the ways in which ESL teachers' roles impact their identities. For the purposes of this paper, role is defined as: "the function or position that somebody has or is expected to have in an organization, in society or in a relationship" (*Oxford Learner's Dictionary online,* n.d.). ESL teachers assume the following roles related to instruction: supporting the language needs of ELs, collaborating with colleagues and providing access to content learning. However, Bascia and Jacka (2011) found that ESL teachers have experienced an increase in the roles they assume outside of the instruction. These can include providing professional development, planning and coordinating programs related to ELs and assuming various duties throughout the school (Bascia & Jacka, 2011). These roles, as well as others, will be considered.

In addition to the roles that ESL teachers assume, the identities of ESL teachers will also be considered. For the purposes of this paper, identity is defined by Fearon (1999) as:

A set of attributes, beliefs, desires, or principles of action that a person thinks

distinguish her in socially relevant ways and that (a) the person takes a special

pride in; (b) the person takes no special pride in, but which so orient her behavior

that she would be at a loss about how to act and what to do without them (p. 11).

Fearon (1999) goes on to explain that the intersection of role and identity with the

following example:

Some identities or social categories involve both role and type. For example,

"mother" is a role, but nonetheless we expect certain beliefs, attitudes, values,

preferences, moral virtues, and so on, to be characteristic of people performing

the role of mother (p. 17)

While it is challenging to disentangle role and identity, the operational definitions of role

and identity present the distinction between the two by considering role as the functional

tasks that an ESL teacher leader is expected to enact. Identity will be considered as the

set of attributes and principles which guide the work of ESL teacher leaders. Hunt and

Handfield (2013) considered the identities of instructional coaches and assert that

coaches experience a variety of identities, explaining that:

A coach would never possess one static identity such as expert, co-learner, or

friend, but would interact with others based on a multiplicity of identities that

draw on, but are not fully determined by, a wide variety of social contexts (p. 53).

These findings support the definition of identity as a set of attributes--indicating that ESL

teacher leaders may experience a variety of fluid identities throughout their work.

One of the roles that ESL teachers assume most frequently is explained by Harper

and de Jong (2009) as supporting their students' language needs in the mainstream

classroom. They go on to explain that this type of instruction requires a higher level of collaboration and communication than traditional "pull-out" models of instruction on the part of the ESL teachers. In a pull-out model, the ESL teacher brings the students into a separate space in which they provide direct instruction to support language development (Harper & de Jong, 2009). One of the reasons that an in-classroom model is more challenging according to Harper and de Jong (2009) is that it also requires that mainstream teachers integrate and support language learning within their context. As discussed earlier, some mainstream teachers feel more prepared to do so than others.

Another role as described by Arkoudis (2006) explains that mainstream teachers and ESL teachers are increasingly expected to form a collaborative relationship. In order to best support their students, ESL teachers and mainstream teachers must communicate regarding content, language needs, and instructional strategies. This can cause teachers to enter into a challenging power dynamic (Arkoudis, 2006). She goes on to explain that one of the ultimate goals of a collaborative partnership is for ESL teachers to make suggestions about how the mainstream teachers can adapt their instruction to support the needs of ELs. At best, a collaborative relationship is reciprocal, with the mainstream teacher guiding the ESL teacher in designing content. However, this type of collaborative relationship assumes that ESL teachers have the power and authority to influence control over a mainstream teacher's instructional strategies (Arkoudis, 2006).

There is a small body of research that has considered collaboration between mainstream and ESL teachers. In a report by the TESOL International Association, Valdés et al. (2014) acknowledge that differences in status exist among ESL teachers and their mainstream colleagues. These power dynamics have been explored by Arkoudis

(2006) who asserts the need for both teachers to have a clearly identified role in the relationship. Namely, both teachers are responsible for instruction. For a relationship to be equal, the teachers need to recognize one another as professionals, each specializing in an area of expertise (Arkoudis, 2006). However, she explains that this alone is not enough to foster an effective relationship.

Another factor in the relationship between ESL teachers and their mainstream colleagues is the tendency for mainstream teachers to identify closely with their content areas. Arkoudis (2006) cautions that this knowledge of a content area does not necessarily mean that teachers understand how language is an integral part of all learning, especially content-specific learning. Arkoudis (2006) suggests another challenge exists in the way that teachers navigate instructional decisions. A teacher's instructional practice is impacted by his or her worldview. This means that both teachers must work to understand each other's pedagogical decisions. Once again, this requires that ESL teachers and mainstream teachers understand and respect their counterpart's expertise. While literature surrounding the relationship between ESL teachers and mainstream teachers exists, there is a need to further explore the increased use of collaborative relationships in education. It is also true that the continued power dynamic, which may occur across many relationships, could have an impact on the identity of ESL teachers. This is another currently under researched area.

Beyond their instructional roles, ESL teachers have experienced a change in expectations related to the way that they provide instruction. Bascia and Jacka (2001) explain that some ESL teachers are increasingly expected to support students' content learning and language development simultaneously. The authors assert that this means

that ESL teachers are often asked to teach curriculum rather than provide the type of language instruction that may build their student's language proficiency. Bascia and Jacka (2001) caution that this focus on content, coupled with the push for ESL teachers to provide language support in the context of the classroom, means that ESL teachers increasingly report that they do not feel that they are able to meet the linguistic needs of their students. This is due to a lack of time and limited space to support students.

ESL students need language support in order to perform at grade level in their academics. Harper and de Jong (2009) explain that this has led to a shift from ESL teachers as language and content providers to ESL teachers as interventionists. In their 2009 study, Harper and de Jong report that ESL teachers have shared frustration that the focus on reading instruction has affected their ability to provide language instruction to their students in each of the language domains, causing listening, speaking, and writing to suffer. Harper and de Jong (2009) caution that the expectation to support students in reading interventions becomes problematic when it impedes a teacher's ability to support the language needs of her students. This focus on intervention is one of the areas in which ESL teachers have been expected to shift their instruction.

In addition to experiencing new instructional roles, ESL teachers have also been called on to perform tasks outside of their daily roles in instruction. Bascia and Jacka (2001) explain that most ESL teachers have reported an increase in the number of out of the classroom tasks they were asked to complete. For example, providing professional development for their mainstream colleagues, planning and coordinating multicultural events and activities for families at their schools, and supporting families by providing resources such as translation or support accessing public services (Bascia & Jacka, 2001).

ESL teachers were also found to serve as a "fill in" to support the needs that arise, as explained by Bascia and Jacka (2001). These include working as substitute teachers for their mainstream colleagues and translating for students and their families. While these tasks are worthwhile and support a culturally responsive environment for ELs and their families, they take time away from direct instruction, ultimately having an effect on a teacher's ability to support her students (Bascia & Jacka, 2001). Tasks outside of instruction are another area in which ESL teachers experience expanding roles.

In addition to an increase in tasks and roles, Bascia and Jacka (2001) and Chien (2013) also note the tendency for ESL teachers to have compromised physical environment within the school. ESL teachers often work in small, shared office spaces or even hallways. The authors explain how the physical space in which teachers are expected to work has implications for teachers and students alike, with both parties experiencing marginalization. From physical space to instructional delivery, ESL teachers find themselves advocating for their needs and the needs of their students in order to provide effective instruction. The effects of marginalization over time ultimately impact the experiences of ESL teachers (Bascia & Jacka, 2001). This understanding of ESL teacher experiences relate to the roles of ESL teachers.

With a deeper understanding of how the roles of ESL teachers have shifted, it is possible to consider how the identities of ESL teachers may have been impacted. Currently, the identity of ESL teachers is a relatively under researched area. Froemming (2015) conducted a study to consider the perceptions of ESL teachers and their role within a school. After considering the perceptions of both mainstream teachers' perceptions of their ESL colleagues and ESL teachers' perception of themselves as

professionals, Froemming (2015) concluded that ESL teachers were seen as professionals but not as professional language teachers. In her findings, she notes that mainstream teachers often thought of ESL teachers as teachers who supported ELs or supported content rather than seeing them as teachers focused on language instruction and that school staff did not recognize or understand the role of ESL teachers and therefore may not have utilized ESL teachers for their expertise. These findings do not speak directly to the identities of ESL teachers but they do indicate the effects of marginalization on ESL teachers over time.

Suarez and Dominguez (2015) considered ESL teachers' professional identities given the realities of their work with typically underserved students. The authors discovered that one of the prominent characteristics of ESL teachers was the willingness to advocate on behalf of their students and families. The authors found that ESL teachers often employ their own personal agency in order to challenge district and school level decisions and policies (Suarez & Dominguez, 2015). This finding suggests that district and school policies may not always reflect the needs of ELs. This study, along with the work of Froemming (2015) illuminate the complex nature of working as an ESL teacher. As professionals, ESL teachers are constantly juggling the roles of supporting language development, building content knowledge and advocating for the needs of their students while also shaping their own identities as teachers of ELs.

Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to provide information relevant to the context of the study. First, research revealing the under preparedness of mainstream teachers to instruct ELs framed the need for mainstream teachers to receive professional development around ESL instruction (Correll, 2016; de Jong & Harper, 2005, 2009). The

next main topic sought to outline instructional coaching as high-quality professional

development (Castillo, 2012; Tolbert, 2015; Wenner & Campbell, 2017). Lastly, the

current laws guiding ESL instruction and program models were discussed along with the

current roles and identities of ESL teachers (Arkoudis, 2016; Bascia & Jacka, 2001;

Harper & de Jong, 2009). Understanding of the guiding principles of ESL instruction

frames the importance of this study, which aims to consider teacher leadership as a way

to approach the current gap in knowledge for mainstream teachers. The purpose of the

upcoming chapter is to introduce the research design and provide a rationale for the tools

used to collect the data. The methods for data analysis will also be outlined. Lastly, a

description of the participants of the study and limitations of the study will be addressed.

CHAPTER THREE

Methods

Introduction

In order to address the gap in mainstream teacher preparation to support English

Learners (ELs), mainstream teachers need to receive training (Harper & de Jong, 2009).

The English Learners in the Mainstream (ELM) Project is attempting to address the gap

by elevating ESL teachers to serve as leaders within their schools. The goal of the project

is to provide ESL teachers with the tools they need to provide professional development

and coach their colleagues. The purpose of this study is to gain insight into the questions:

1. After being trained as teacher leaders, do ESL teachers experience a shift

   in their professional role? If yes, how?

2. After being trained as teacher leaders, do ESL teachers experience a shift

   in their professional identity? If yes, how?

These questions will make it possible to consider the experiences of ESL teachers who

are positioned as leaders. The following chapter will provide a rationale for the research

design, outline the research design and explain the methods for data collection. It will

also contain information about the data analysis techniques, the participants and finally

share some of the limitations of the study.

Rationale for Research Design

In order to obtain a description of an ELM coach's experience, this research used

a qualitative design. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) explain that a qualitative approach can

be used to elicit individual stories and define qualitative research as research that is

"interested in *understanding the meaning people have constructed;* that is, how people

make sense of their world and the experiences they have in the world" (p. 15). Since this study relied on the experiences of coaches, a focus on meaning was imperative. The aim of this study aligns with the following characteristics of qualitative research including a focus on meaning and understanding as explained by the participants, as well as a deeply descriptive product discovered through an inductive process.

For this study, qualitative research held the most promise in discovering the experiences of instructional coaches. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) explain that the primary purpose of qualitative research is to gain insight into how a group of people describe their experiences. This aligns well with the overall purpose of the study—to further explore the roles and identities of coaches as they attempt to make an impact on mainstream teacher's instruction. Another reason that qualitative research is most appropriate for this study is because it yields richly descriptive information about an experience (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Merriam and Tisdell (2016) point out that the data collected in qualitative research typically contains direct quotations, allowing for the researcher to provide detailed descriptions of the experiences and phenomenon being studied. These detailed descriptions will aid the researcher in capturing the experiences of the coaches.

Lastly, qualitative research allowed the researcher to engage in an inductive process as described by Merriam & Tisdell (2016). The authors describe qualitative research as a process in which researchers use the data to inform their theories rather than deductively considering their hypotheses (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). As researchers collect data, Merriam and Tisdell (2016) explain how they use their "intuitive understandings gleaned from being in the field" (p. 17) in conjunction with their own theory base. The data collected was analyzed with the theory base shared in the literature

review, including best practices in instructional coaching and the need for mainstream teachers to receive professional development.

After the data was collected, the researcher considered how the data lead to insights into the coaching process. For these reasons, a qualitative study design provided the researcher an opportunity to find underlying common themes and experiences of ELM instructional coaches. Furthermore, the results of the study can be used to further inform educators as they strive to better prepare ongoing professional development for mainstream teachers of ELs. Next, the selection of the participants in this study will be described.

Sample Selection

This study used purposeful sampling, which is defined by Merriam and Tisdell (2016) as sampling that is "based on the assumption that the investigator wants to discover, understand and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned" (p. 96). The key criteria for recruiting participants was their participation in the ELM Project. In order to recruit participants, Michelle Benegas, the principal investigator of the ELM Project, sent a survey to the entire list serve. The survey explained the purpose of the research, its relation the ELM Project and the expectations for participation. The survey served as a data collection tool but also as a way to identify focal participants interested in being interviewed.

Several participants were interested in participating in an interview. For this study, three ELM coaches were interviewed. The researcher contacted three of the interested ELM coaches via email to schedule an interview. Originally, the hope was to interview coaches who were representative of a variety of school districts and grade

levels. However, due to limited time, the coaches were contacted prior to all of the survey results being collected. All of the coaches who were contacted indicated that they experienced a shift in role and identity after coaching.

The first coach who was interviewed, Alisha, worked as an elementary ESL teacher in a large school district in the metro area. She was trained to be an ELM coach in the spring of 2018 and had just completed her first year of coaching during the 2018-2019 school year. She and another teacher from her building were trained together and worked closely as they planned their professional development sessions. Both Alisha and her colleague coached five teachers from their building throughout the year. They provided two half-day professional development sessions with all of the teachers involved in the coaching process and conducted pre and post observations with the teachers.

The second coach who was interviewed, Katherine, had just finished her second year as an ELM coach. She also worked as an elementary ESL teacher in a large school district in the metro area. She was trained in the first cohort of coaches in spring 2017 and coached with a colleague from her building during the 2017-2018 and 2018-2019 school years. Similar to Alisha, she worked closely with the other ELM coach in her building. In the 2018-2019 school year, they presented two whole staff professional development sessions, shared professional development during professional learning community (PLC) meetings and conducted pre and post observations with the 20 teachers they coached. They each opted to coach 10 teachers throughout the year.

The third coach, Carrie, was a middle school ESL teacher working in a medium sized school district in the metro area. She was trained to work as an ELM coach in the

spring of 2018 and coached during the 2018-2019 school year. Carrie's model for coaching at the middle school level was different from the first two coaches who had worked at the elementary level. Carrie led a PLC that met weekly for the entire school year. The teachers who participated in the PLC had the opportunity to observe their colleagues throughout the year. She also coached three teachers who were involved in another PLC but were interested in receiving professional development around meeting the needs of ELs. In this role, she worked as a coach which meant that she met with teachers, observed them and had conversations about teaching strategies.

Methods for Data Collection

This research was informed using three research tools: a survey, one-on-one interviews and the data collected from two focus groups conducted by the CAREI evaluation report. The survey and interview questions are included in the index. The rationale for each of the data tools will be outlined below.

Survey. The survey allowed the researcher to collect data from a broad group of participants. Surveys take little time for participants to complete while also allowing a variety of data to be collected. The survey asked coaches about their length of time teaching and the year in which they received training to be an ELM coach. It also asked coaches to indicate whether they experienced a shift in role and identity with an opportunity to describe why.

Interview. The researcher also conducted three open-ended semi structured interviews. Qualitative interviews can have a variety of levels of structure and Merriam and Tisdell (2016) explain that semi structured interviews are conducted using an interview guide but allow questions to be asked flexibly. This type of interview is used

when specific data is required because it allows the researcher to adapt questions throughout the interview (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). A semi structured format allowed for the researcher to ask follow up questions that were more relevant for one coach's setting than another (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Since ELM coaches work within unique settings, the ability to reword and vary the order of the questions allowed for rich data collection.

Merriam and Tisdell (2016) suggest that new interviewers may benefit from conducting a pilot interview. A pilot interview allows the researcher to gain practice interviewing and consider the quality of the questions and the interview guide (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Since the researcher had limited experience interviewing, a pilot interview was conducted so that the researcher could refine the interview guide prior to conducting the interviews.

An interview guide was used to conduct the interviews. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) explain that interview guides support the interviewer, especially researchers new to interviewing. The interviews began by eliciting descriptions of each coach's work as an ELM coach. This included each coach's recruitment process, and their processes for coaching and providing professional development. This information framed the ELM coach's experiences in context. The subsequent interview questions were designed to elicit reflection about the coaching experience. Refer to Appendix A for the full list of interview questions.

All three interviews were held in person. Due to the high volume of content, the interviews were recorded. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) suggest that recording interviews allows for accurate transcription and provides the interviewer opportunities to improve

her technique. In order to obtain a clear recording, the interviews took place in a quiet environment. A quiet environment allowed for a clear recording, aiding in accuracy during transcription. Each interview was transcribed using *Transcribe* transcription software.

Focus Group Transcriptions. To meet the requirements outlined by the grant, the coordinators of the ELM Project work with an outside evaluation agency to collect data. Two focus groups were conducted as part of this research. The first focus group, conducted in August 2018 asked ELM coaches to consider their experiences as ELM coaches in the following areas: time to work with colleagues, professional development topics, changes in their own practice, feedback on the observation tool and their upcoming coaching plans. The second focus group took place in April 2019 and asked participants to consider the supports the coaches received in implementation, the impact of coaching on teacher learning, the impact of coaching on student learning and how each coach's identity has been impacted.

Data Analysis Techniques

Merriam and Tisdell (2016) assert that all qualitative research is inductive, meaning that researchers simultaneously collect and analyze their data in order to draw conclusions. For this reason, data analysis happened during research collection. Each of the interviews were transcribed by the researcher. After transcribing, the researcher began the process of coding which is defined by Merriam and Tisdell (2016) as "assigning some sort of shorthand designation to various aspects of your data so that you can easily retrieve specific pieces of the data" (p. 199).

Coding allowed the researcher to determine categories and index the information collected (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Early on in the process, this was open coding or writing notes or phrases in the margins of the interview transcripts. (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). After coding an entire transcript, the researcher noted similarities among the various codes, noting any themes that emerge. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) suggest that this type of continuous data analysis allows the researcher to maintain organization with a high volume of data. It also aligns with the inductive and comparative nature of qualitative research (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

This process continued with each of the subsequent interviews. After each interview was coded, the codes collected were compared to the other transcripts. The researcher maintained one document that contained the initial categories as described by Merriam and Tisdell (2016). The codes were used to determine potential categories within the data. After transcribing and coding all of the data, the focus was on categorizing the data or forming succinct categories, a process defined by Merriam and Tisdell (2016) as analytical coding. Analytical coding is based in meaning and requires the researcher's interpretation of the data (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). In a study focused on people's experience, analytical coding allowed the researcher to consider the data collected more deeply. This process included naming categories using the data collected and the research base used to inform the study (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Limitations

All research has limitations and this section will address the limitations of this research design. One of the limitations of this study was the lack of interview experience on the part of the researcher. There is much to be learned through the process of

interviewing another person. In order to gain additional experience, a pilot interview was conducted. However, the process of interviewing and analyzing data collected in an interview is improved with additional experiences to do so.

Another limitation of this qualitative study relates to the researcher's biases (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Merriam and Tisdell (2016) describe the researcher as the primary instrument for gathering data in a qualitative study. While qualitative data is typically rich in description, it is largely informed by the researcher's own background and experiences (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Therefore, it is important to expose some of the biases and experiences that might have informed the researcher's thinking. In this study, my own experiences with the ELM Project as a member of a participating district and a teacher working in a school with an ELM coach may have impacted my overall view of the project. In order to limit my perceptions, I conducted interviews with ELM coaches from outside of my school district and with whom I had no previous relationship. Lastly, my background as an ESL teacher may be another source of potential bias. My experiences have likely shaped my view of how ESL teachers are perceived which has the potential to influence my perceptions of the data.

Summary

The purpose of chapter three was to explain the rationale behind using qualitative research method as the manner for data collection. In order to better understand the setting and participants of the study, background information was included. An outline of the procedures and tools used in data collection as well as an overview of how the results will be analyzed to draw conclusions were presented. In chapter four, the results of the

study will be presented. In chapter five, the implications of this study as well as future

areas of research will be discussed.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results

Introduction

The English Learners in the Mainstream (ELM) Project has been created to address the needs of mainstream teachers regarding English as a Second Language (ESL) instruction. The goal of the project is to train ESL teachers to serve as leaders within their buildings. The purpose of this study is to gain insight into the questions:

1. After being trained as teacher leaders, do ESL teachers experience a shift in their professional role? If yes, how?

2. After being trained as teacher leaders, do ESL teachers experience a shift in their professional identity? If yes, how?

The goal of this chapter is to present the findings of this study and provide an overview of themes that emerged through analysis of the data. The following findings related to the roles of ESL teacher leaders will be presented: 1) ESL teacher leaders successfully assume the role of professional development facilitator and 2) ESL teacher leaders experience varying degrees of comfort in conducting coaching conversations. Then the findings related to identity will be presented: 3) ESL teacher leaders identify as collaborative facilitators of learning; 4) ESL teacher leaders identify as professionals.

English as a second language teacher leaders successfully assume the role of professional development facilitator

One of the roles that ESL teachers assumed successfully was that of a professional development facilitator. Several ELM coaches spoke about the professional development they provided with confidence. Based on the data, most ELM coaches

provided professional development with greater frequency than they had prior to working as an ELM coach, which is supported by the findings of Wenner and Campbell (2017) who found that teacher leaders often create and deliver professional development more frequently than their colleagues. Each coach provided professional development that was specifically related to the needs of their staff. In alignment with the design of the ELM Project, the content, frequency and setting of the professional development sessions varied. Regardless, all coaches had opportunities to develop their professional development based on the needs of their staff and continually support their staff to incorporate their learning into instruction. Professional development that is individualized and ongoing has been shown by Dabiri (2011) to be effective and well received by teachers. The upcoming section will share the ways that the coaches successfully assumed the role of professional development provider. As a result of their professional development, ELM coaches found that their colleagues developed a better understanding of the needs of ELs, strategies for supporting their ELs and showed that they were invested in supporting ELs.

The ELM coaches felt high levels of success in their professional development, sharing that it was individualized, engaging and impactful. Alisha and her coaching partner delivered their professional development over two half-day release sessions. They focused on using academic language in the classroom. Prior to leading their sessions, they surveyed their colleagues and considered the observations they held with each teacher. Using this information helped Alisha and her ELM coach partner ensure that their professional development was meaningful. She spoke of this in her interview, sharing that:

We don't want to make it so easy so it feels like, you know, all you need to do is

provide visuals for your EL students. But at the same time we don't want to make

it too hard to the point where teachers would say. "Oh, well, that's too much."

Alisha and her colleague felt that they were able to navigate the balance between

professional development that challenged and encouraged teachers. As a result, they

observed that their colleagues had a greater understanding of what ELs need and the roles

of ESL teachers. Alisha said the following about the professional development she

provided:

I feel like the ELM coaching has given a window into what ESL teachers do. Like

I remember at one point in one of our PD sessions, we were talking about

language objectives and one of the teachers looked at me and she was like, "You

do this all day long?" Yeah, this is what English teaching is. And she was like,

"Wow."

This moment, which shaped a mainstream teacher's understanding of language teaching,

is consistent with the findings of Harper and de Jong (2009) that mainstream teachers

have limited exposure to second language acquisition and best practices in language

instruction. The outcome of the professional development supports the findings of

Mangin and Dunsmore (2015) who found that teachers internalize their learning when

they receive ongoing professional development related to one topic.

The data collected suggest that mainstream teachers were invested in the

professional development provided by their ELM coaches because it was relevant to their

setting. Katherine felt that the professional development she provided through the PLCs

was "really tailor made" to each group of teachers. The idea of individualized

professional development is supported by Mangin and Dunsmore (2015) who highlight

the ability to personalize as one of the benefits of the instructional coaching model.

Katherine explained that she and her coaching partner always began with an activity to

"hook" the teachers--stating that she believed this increased their level of engagement.

She described one professional development session in which she and her colleague used

an activity where the teachers had to describe their morning without using the letter R.

She said that shortly into the activity she heard, "We get it!" from several colleagues.

Katherine also shared how the professional development she and her ELM coach

colleague provided was well received. She shared the story of one of her colleagues:

> Every time there was something [related to PD] he would run the other way and
>
> he came up to us after that first PD and he said it was the best one, the best PD he
>
> had ever gotten in 20 years. He said, "I'm about math and reading but I'm more
>
> about the emotional health of my kids. And this was really what I wanted to
>
> hear."

This story illustrates the power of the professional development that Katherine and her

colleague provided to their staff. Dekutoski (2011), Dabiri (2011) and Fradi (2012) assert

that professional development must be individualized, engaging and ongoing in order to

make an impact on teacher instruction. She shared that teachers frequently approached

her to share an activity they tried or ask for suggestions in areas where they were

struggling to engage their ELs. The experiences of Katherine and her colleague indicate

that teachers were beginning to implement what they learned in their instruction.

Carrie also found high levels of engagement and investment when she provided

her professional development in her weekly PLC meetings. She explained that she did not

provide any professional development to the whole staff, which she felt was beneficial. She explained that in her building, "Whole school PD tends to not go over well, even if it's really good. People tend to reject it just because they don't feel like it's personalized or they don't feel like it's relevant to them." This notion is supported by Wiedlich (2017) and Tolbert (2015) who assert that teachers more willingly participate in professional development when they can do so in a trusting environment where they feel their interests will be considered.

In addition to their experiences in structured professional development, several coaches noted an increase in opportunities to collaborate and support outside of their coaching relationships. In the survey, one coach said, "I feel more empowered as a teacher to provide informal support to teachers outside of my ELM partnerships." Alisha also experienced a shift in her level of collaboration. She explained that, "There does seem to be kind of a ripple effect happening that the teachers who participated in coaching this year, the feedback they left for us was that it was very positive PD." Specifically, after hearing the positive feedback, teachers who had not participated in coaching sought Alisha and her colleague out and asked if they could participate in ELM coaching during the next school year.

Through the experience of providing professional development to their colleagues, ELM coaches experienced a shift in their role as a facilitator of professional development. They experienced increased opportunities to provide professional development. They described their professional development as "effective", "powerful", and "tailor made". These findings support the benefits outlined in literature about instructional coaching (Knight, 2014; Tolbert, 2015, Mangin & Dunsmore 2015) which

indicate that teacher leaders have the opportunity to provide effective professional development because of their ability to provide relevant, ongoing support in the school setting. This coupled with the trusting relationship between coaches and their colleagues allows teachers to become invested in their learning and more likely to implement it into their instruction. While the findings of this study indicate that ELM coaches assumed the role of professional development facilitator successfully, there were several coaches who experienced challenges conducting coaching conversations. These challenges will be outlined in the upcoming section.

English as a second language teacher leaders experience varying degrees of comfort in conducting coaching conversations

One of the significant findings relates to the way that ESL teachers assume the role of coach through individual coaching conversations. The data indicates that some ELM coaches felt comfortable conducting coaching conversations while others chose not to engage in individual coaching. This section will outline the factors that contributed to whether or not coaches held individual conversations. It will also consider how the research about factors that support and inhibit teacher coaching may have contributed to the ELM coach's experiences.

The coaches who felt comfortable conducting individual coaching consistently described the reciprocal relationship they had with the teachers they coached. This is supported by Knight (2004) who asserts that coaches are facilitators, not experts. The experiences of some ELM coaches supported this as they noted how their own expertise, along with the expertise of the teachers they coached allowed them to learn together. That said, Hunt and Handsfield (2013) acknowledge the emotional elements of coaching,

explaining that the coaches must navigate a new role as coach and that some coaches are better equipped to do so than others. It is also supported by the findings of Wenner and Campbell (2017) who found that teacher leadership often disrupts the egalitarian culture common within schools. This may have been impacted the ELM coaches who did not feel comfortable engaging in individual coaching and, as a result, chose not to hold coaching conversations. The coaches who shared this experience did not point to some of the barriers previously discussed about instructional coaching, such as the lack of a clearly defined role or a lack of support from administration. Instead, they shared their own discomfort assuming the role of coach due to the emotional elements of their work as instructional coaches.

These findings rely heavily on data collected by two individuals but are worth considering given that their experiences seemed to impact their role as a coach. For the purpose of this study, role was defined as "the function or position that somebody has or is expected to have in an organization." It is possible that Alisha and Katherine's definition of an instructional coach included holding individual coaching conversations and that as such, they expected it would be part of their role. It is also possible that their experiences existed at the intersection of role and identity. As Fearon (1999) explains, when someone holds a certain role, "we expect certain beliefs, attitudes, values, preferences, moral virtues, and so on, to be characteristic of people performing the role" (p. 7) It is possible that Alisha and Katherine expected to feel confident and comfortable holding coaching conversations.

It is important to frame their experiences in the definition of teacher leader used in this research: teachers who maintain teaching responsibilities while also assuming a

leadership role within their school community (Wenner & Campbell, 2017). This definition is supported by others in the field, including Knight (2004) who describes the roles typically assumed by teacher leaders as modeling for teachers, providing professional development and collaborating with teachers to support instructional design. It was clear from the data collected that Alisha and Katherine engaged in these practices, noting an increase in collaboration with peers, feeling empowered to lead within their buildings while creating and facilitating professional development. This means that the absence of coaching conversations may not necessarily mean that they did not assume the role of a teacher leader within their buildings. However, while this is true, considering the factors that affected their experiences contributes to the small body of literature that speaks to the emotional complexities of coaching (Hunt & Handsfield, 2013). The emotional elements that affect coaches will be addressed further.

Alisha mentioned the impact of changing roles, which is supported by Hunt and Handsfield (2013), as one of the challenges coaches may face. Since Alisha knew all of the teachers she coached on a personal or professional level, they had high levels of trust. However, she also said, "It shifted the dynamic a little bit and sometimes I almost felt like it might be easier to coach someone who I didn't already have a pre-existing relationship with." As she spoke of this new dynamic, she expressed her own feelings of awkwardness around providing constructive feedback to her colleagues. Her experience is supported by Wenner and Campbell (2017) who explained that leadership roles often suggest that the teacher leader has higher levels of expertise and can be uncomfortable. Alisha acknowledged that this was her first year in this new role and hoped that as she

grew in her confidence she would also grow in her comfort as a teacher leader who held coaching conversations.

Katherine also experienced some of the emotional factors that can impact instructional coaches. She and her colleague chose to focus on the professional development based on the data they collected in their observations at the start of the year. Similar to Alisha, Katherine said that she felt guilty she had not coached individually. Katherine felt that coaching would have been valuable and added to her experience but that she did not feel prepared to do so. It is possible that her feelings of preparation were coupled with discomfort assuming a leadership role. As a result, Katherine and her colleague told teachers that they would not be holding individual coaching sessions from the start of the year. She worried that some teachers may have been thinking, "maybe she's feeling too awkward to coach me" or "I just didn't do well enough for her to even want to talk to me." Katherine's experience navigating these conversations with her colleagues are supported by Hunt and Handsfield (2013), who shared that instructional coaches must carefully balance their relationships as they experience a shift in power dynamic. The emotional impact of changing roles is well supported in the literature on instructional coaching and affected both Alisha and Katherine's experiences as coaches.

In addition to facing emotional challenges, Alisha and Katherine ability to assume the role of instructional coach seemed to be impacted by their identities as ESL teachers. Froemming (2015) found that ESL teachers are often seen as professionals but that their colleagues often misunderstand their role. Alisha explained how her identity impacted her role as a coach, saying that holding coaching conversations "Was probably more psychologically challenging than actually logistically challenging." When asked to

explain further, Alisha said that she knew that teachers were busy and that she often felt

guilty asking them to meet outside of their contracted hours. As a result, Alisha described

that she was "very delicate" in how she approached scheduling meetings, especially

given that the time required to meet would be unpaid. She shared that in her school, there

was perception that ESL teachers had the "easiest job in the school." Alisha worried that

asking for more time would perpetuate this perception, leading teachers to believe that

her role was easy. However, Wenner and Campbell (2017) assert that time to carry out

leadership responsibilities, such as meeting with colleagues, supports their effectiveness.

Katherine also experienced challenges related to identity. She explained that she and her

colleague were very careful to respect the expertise of their colleagues and that as such,

they began each of her professional development sessions by saying, "We're not here to

be the experts. We know you are the experts. We just have a little bit of information to

add to what you already know." Both of these examples highlight the impact that Alisha

and Katherine's professional identities as ESL teachers may have had on their ability to

coach. Their experiences are supported by Wenner and Campbell (2017) who found that

leadership tends to disrupt the egalitarian culture within schools. It is possible that

Katherine and Alisha recognized the culture and that their actions served as a way to

alleviate the discomfort of disrupting the norm.

Alisha and Katherine's approaches indicate high levels of respect for their

colleagues. It also indicates that they may have felt discomfort assuming the role of

"expert." Their experience is supported by Wenner and Campbell (2017) who found that

teachers leaders often experience a shift in their relationships and feel uncomfortable

being seen as an expert. The findings of this research add to the work of Wenner and

Campbell (2017) indicating that some ESL teacher leaders do experience discomfort assuming the role of an expert in their schools. This cautious approach to coaching fails to address what is likely a gap in understanding of how to meet the needs of ELs. It is well documented that mainstream teachers receive limited training to effectively support ELs (Harper & de Jong, 2009, Harper et al., 2001). Furthermore, Correll (2016), Dekutoski (2011) and Walker (2014) agree that a teacher's level of preparedness and familiarity supports their ability to design effective instruction. Regardless of the cultural norms of a school, the need for professional development is well established.

The data collected in this study indicated that ESL teacher leaders experience varying levels of comfort holding individual coaching conversations. The data indicate that the teacher leaders involved in this study experienced coaching differently, with some feeling comfortable and confident in their coaching while others did not engage in individual coaching. The emotional elements of changing roles impacted some of the coaches' comfort in holding one-one-one coaching conversations. Additionally, their comfort assuming their role seemed to be impacted by their identity. The upcoming section will consider the ways that ESL teacher leaders experienced changes in their identity.

English as a second language teacher leaders identify as collaborative facilitators of learning

One of the ways that ESL teachers described their shift in identity was through an increase in collaboration with their colleagues. ESL teacher leaders described themselves as collaborators and facilitators in both informal settings and in intentionally collaborative settings, such as in professional learning community (PLC) meetings. An

increase in collaboration among instructional coaches is supported in the literature. As Knight (2004) explains, a focus on accountability has shifted the culture within schools from closed doors to the expectation that teachers are planning instruction and reflecting together. This supports the findings of this research which also found that ELM coaches experienced more collaboration with their mainstream colleagues around instructional design and the needs of ELs.

As members of a PLC, Carrie and other ELM coaches found themselves acting as facilitators of knowledge. This aligns with the work of Mangin and Dunsmore (2015), who found that coaches often described themselves as facilitators rather than experts. This notion is well supported in the findings of this study. One of the coaches who responded to the survey said she felt that "Teachers understood that we were a team and it is both of our jobs to collaborate to help the EL students." Several coaches expressed similar experiences, noting that with teachers, they were beginning to have "a shared professional understanding of strategies" that had not existed before.

Several ELM coaches were explicit in talking about their role as a facilitator. Similarly, Carrie described herself as a facilitator in her role within her PLC, constantly reiterating how much she learned from her colleagues through their discussions and observations. She also explained that assuming the role of collaborator helped her become invested in deepening her own knowledge of best practices for ELs. She continued her professional learning while also "actively seeking out resources" for the teachers who were part of her PLC. Carrie's disposition as a facilitator and her own renewed sense of professional learning demonstrates the reciprocal relationship experienced by some coaches.

While these findings indicate that coaches identified as facilitators, there was also an indication that some coaches may have used their identity as facilitator to distance themselves from being an expert. For example, Katherine and her colleague said that in every training session they had with teachers, they always had a disclaimer that recognized the teachers' professionalism and expertise. It is possible that their disclaimer was a way to lessen their discomfort for straying from the egalitarian culture so typical in schools (Wenner & Campbell, 2017). Given this culture, it may be more comfortable for ESL teacher leaders to identify as a facilitator than as an expert.

ESL teacher leaders also shared that mainstream teachers more frequently approached them to share a strategy they had implemented, ask for feedback on a strategy they tried that had not worked, or to celebrate a success with one of their ELs. This is consistent with the findings of Knight (2004) and Tolbert (2015), who assert that one of the benefits of instructional coaching is its ability to increase collaboration among teachers. ELM coaches described that their collaboration was done informally and with greater frequency than they had experienced prior to coaching. Alisha explained, "I feel like we've both been consulted more than we have in the past." One of the ELM coaches said in her response to the survey that she experienced an increase in the amount of time working with teachers whereas before coaching, she worked more frequently with students. One coach described herself as a "sounding board." Another said that she felt teachers relied on her for support regarding ELs. ELM coaches also shared how affirming and empowering it was to collaborate with their colleagues. They noted that they became more confident giving advice and training their colleagues as a result of this increase in communication.

In addition to experiencing an increase in informal collaboration, some coaches also mentioned increased collaboration through professional learning community (PLC) meetings. Carrie's experience of working in a PLC helped her build collaborative professional relationships with the teachers she coached. This was clear as she described the PLC, "It's a really collaborative inspiring type relationship like it really felt like a true professional learning community." This is in contrast with PLCs she had been part of before which were formed by grouping similar grade levels or content area teachers together. She describes the difference, "They're not like a true PLC because in my mind a true PLC is based on a common professional interest and we'll just say science--all the science teachers might have different professional interests--so you're just trying to cobble something together." Carrie's sentiment is supported by the work of Tolbert (2015) and Knight (2004) who assert that coaching is more effective than traditional forms of professional development when it is specific, embedded and aligned with the needs and interests of the teachers.

However, it was also true that some teachers were less willing to collaborate than others. For example, Katherine explained that she and the other ELM coach in her building went to each of the PLCs in their building. Some teams were eager to ask for advice and suggestions while others were more hesitant. She attributed this to the different priorities' teams focused on and each team's perception of how necessary it was to learn about supporting ELs. Overall Katherine and her colleague did find that their work in PLCs brought high levels of collaboration.

After receiving training to work as coaches within their building, ELM coaches experienced a shift in their identity as a facilitator and collaborator. They found

themselves engaged in more time collaborating with colleagues, acting as a sounding board and resource. It was through these collaborative conversations that the ELM coaches felt like facilitators of knowledge, constantly learning and considering how to support their colleagues as they plan intentional instruction that supports the language development of their ELs.

English as a second language teacher leaders identify as professionals

One of the ways that ESL teacher leaders experienced a shift in identity was related to their sense of professionalism. Froemming (2015) found that mainstream teachers rarely understand the role of ESL teachers and as a result, may fail to recognize their expertise. In the survey, one coach explained that after working as an ELM coach, she felt "more like a resource, rather than just an extra teacher." She shared that prior to coaching, "Mainstream teachers along with the administration has a very difficult time figuring out what the role of the ESL teacher is in our school." The sentiment of feeling like an "extra teacher" is supported by the work done by Froemming (2015) who considered the perceptions of ESL teachers. She found that ESL teachers are often considered professionals but that their role as a language teacher was misunderstood, leading to the experiences such as the one noted earlier, as that of being seen as support staff rather than a language teacher. Katherine, one of the coaches who was interviewed, had a similar way of describing her own role, "I think it is very common for ESL teachers to feel… not included or what's the word I'm looking for? Shifted off to the side." Similarly, Alisha shared the following in her interview,

> I struggled with that identity a lot when I first came into the field because I felt
>
> like as an ESL teacher people did not understand the role or there was [sic] so

many misconceptions about the role. Like *Oh, you're a reading teacher*. No.

You're homework helper. No, not that either. *Oh you're here to do whatever I*

need you to do. Not that either. I teach language!

Carrie shared the same experience and described that she felt her colleagues saw her as

knowledgeable, but they sought her out more on a "case by case basis" when they needed

support as opposed to planning instruction.

As outlined by the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)

International Association teacher standards in 2018, ESL teacher candidates must

understand the following: 1) knowledge of language; 2) knowledge of sociocultural needs

of ELs; 3) knowledge of how to plan and implement instruction for ELs 4) knowledge of

assessments for ELs and 5) knowledge of how to collaborate with their colleagues.

Through the lens of these five standards, ELM coaches found that their colleagues

understood their own roles more deeply, leading to their own feelings of increased

professionalism.

One of the areas in which ESL teacher leaders found an increase in their

colleagues' understanding was through their increased understanding of language. As

stated by the first TESOL standard, ESL teachers must demonstrate knowledge of

English language structures, English language use, second language acquisition and

development, and language processes to help English Language Learners (ELLs) acquire

academic language and literacies specific to various content areas.

In addition to understanding language learning, standard three outlines the

responsibilities of ESL teachers related to language instruction:

Candidates plan supportive environments for ELLs, design and implement

standards-based instruction using evidence-based, ELL-centered, interactive

approaches. Candidates make instructional decisions by reflecting on individual

ELL outcomes and adjusting instruction. (p. 9)

These two standards outline the type of instruction ESL teachers provide for their

students and highlights the importance of language development. It is at the intersection

of these two standards that ESL teachers have reported challenges (Harper & de Jong,

2009) which is especially true related to reading instruction.

Many ESL teachers have reported spending more time supporting their students

through reading instruction (Harper & de Jong, 2009). Both Harper and de Jong (2009)

and Bascia and Jacka (2001) found that ESL teachers felt a focus on reading instruction

often interfered with their ability to provide adequate language instruction. This feeling

was expressed by one of the coaches. In her response to the survey she said: "ESL

teachers were seen as interventionists and my role was reduced to teaching reading. ESL

service is not an intervention, it is a federally-mandated right for all culturally and

linguistically diverse students that qualify for that service." She explained that after she

became an ELM coach, she felt that there was a greater understanding of language

instruction which supported her ability to service students beyond the domain of reading

which increased her own ability to design instruction and provide language support.

In addition to greater visibility to the type of language support ESL teachers

provide, ELM coaches also recognized greater recognition of the sociocultural aspects

that affect ELs. As Schulz (2017) and Martínez (2018) found, there tends to be a deficit

viewpoint around ELs, with teachers focusing on what ELs seemingly *cannot* do rather

than highlighting what they *can* do. One of the members of the focus group expressed a positive shift in her colleagues' view of ELs, sharing that:

> Over the course of the time, teachers were just starting to glimpse their students as what they are capable of… They might not be able to express themselves perfectly, but that with more tools added to their learning they could be more similar to what they expected in terms of the grade level standards.

This finding is significant as it highlights a new understanding of how to best support ELs. Dekutoski (2011), Martin (2016) and Walker (2014) concluded that a teacher's sense of preparedness to support ELs has implications for their effectiveness. The data indicate that mainstream teachers developed a deeper understanding of the linguistic needs of ELs. Long term, this has implications for their perceptions of ELs and the way they approach instruction for ELs.

In addition to recognizing the needs of ELs and how to support them, mainstream teachers also began to recognize the diversity that exists among ELs through their work with an ELM coach. One of the coaches from the focus group shared that her colleague had an "aha moment" saying, "Oh you mean not all ELs are the same?" This sentiment of seeing ELs as the same is supported by the work of Martínez (2018) who found the linguistic and cultural differences among ELs go largely underrecognized. Through learning about the language proficiency and cultural backgrounds of ELs, mainstream teachers began to see their ELs not as a group of students but as a group of individuals, whose experiences are impacted by a variety of factors.

In addition to increased visibility in their instructional roles and their impact on sociocultural needs, ESL teacher leaders also experienced an impact on their own

professionalism. Alisha, Katherine and Carrie, along with other ELM coaches mentioned the impact that their colleagues' perceptions had on their professional identity. Alisha explains, "I feel like at my school there's sometimes a misperception that ESL teachers have you know, the easiest job at the school and they're not working." This sentiment is supported by Valdés et. al (2014) who found that a difference in status exists among ESL teachers and their mainstream teacher colleagues. This difference in status along with the tendency for ESL teachers to compromise in the type of instruction they provide to students, tasks outside of their instructional role (Basica & Jacka, 2001) and in their physical environment (Chien, 2013) has the ability to impact identity overtime.

The TESOL teacher standards (2018) outline the following criteria for ESL teachers related to their professionalism and leadership, stating that ESL teachers should:

> Demonstrate professionalism and leadership by collaborating with other educators, knowing policies and legislation and the rights of ELLs, advocating for ELLs and their families, engaging in self-assessment and reflection, pursuing continuous professional development… (p. 11).

Based on these standards ESL teachers should be prepared to work as leaders and advocate for students and families. However, the work of Chein (2013), Harper and de Jong (2009), Froemming (2015) and Bascia and Jacka (2001) indicates that ESL teachers often feel that they are limited in their ability to assume leadership and advocate for students. Through their work with the ELM Project, coaches experienced a shift.

For example, prior to being trained as an ELM coach, Katherine had offered to lead whole staff professional development about strategies that would support the speaking needs of ELs but her principal said no. However, once she started working as an

ELM coach, she was afforded the opportunity to do so. The willingness to allow time for an ESL teacher to provide whole staff professional development indicates a change in the principal's attitudes toward ESL leadership in her building. Katherine shared that the ELM Project has "just really elevated EL teachers in each building in our district." She also spoke to the impact of this leadership beyond her building, sharing that she and her colleague was invited to attend district level meetings. After the meeting, the superintendent recognized the success of the professional development and asked, "How can we tap this person's expertise?" referring to Katherine and her colleague. This indicates that being trained as an ELM coach further allowed ESL teachers to assume leadership roles when they may have not been afforded the opportunity to do so.

The findings suggest that exposure to the practices that support language learning provides mainstream teachers and administrators a lens into the daily roles and expectations of ESL teachers. ELM coaches reported that mainstream teachers understood their role more deeply, recognizing their knowledge of language, ability to design instruction and advocate for ELs. The data collected indicates that when ESL teachers are positioned as leaders, their role and expertise have greater visibility. This benefits ESL teachers who may be afforded additional opportunities to support their colleagues and advocate for the needs of ELs.

Conclusion

The goal of this chapter was to present the findings of this research related to the roles and identities of ESL teacher leaders. The findings related to the roles of ESL teacher leaders were presented: 1) ESL teacher leaders successfully assume the role of professional development facilitator and 2) ESL teacher leaders experience varying

degrees of comfort in conducting coaching conversations. Then the findings related to identity were presented: 3) ESL teacher leaders identify as collaborative facilitators of learning; 4) ESL teacher leaders identify as professionals. In the final chapter, the implications of these findings will be discussed.

CHAPTER FIVE

Conclusion

Chapter Overview

The Minnesota Department of Education reports that in the past 20 years, the

number of English Learners (ELs) in the state has increased by 300% (*English Learners*

in Minnesota, 2017). This rapid increase has led to the need for mainstream teachers to

receive professional development to improve their understanding of language

development and to design instruction that would support their ELs. In order to fill this

need, the English Learners in the Mainstream (ELM) Project trains English as a Second

Language (ESL) teachers to serve as leaders. The goal of the ELM Project is to equip

ESL teachers with the training, tools and knowledge that they need to assume a role as a

peer coach within their building, all the while maintaining teaching responsibilities. The

main purpose of this study was to consider the following research questions:

1. After being trained as teacher leaders, do ESL teachers experience a shift
   in their professional role? If yes, how?

2. After being trained as teacher leaders, do ESL teachers experience a shift
   in their professional identity? If yes, how?

This final chapter will address how the findings from this research inform the work of

ESL teacher leaders. As with all research, this study has limitations and as such, it is

necessary to revisit the limitations of this study. Finally, this section will highlight

possible areas for future research.

When I sought to consider the experiences of ESL teacher leaders, I considered

my experiences, which revealed that my colleagues had little understanding of my role as

an ESL teacher, the process of developing a second language and ways to support ELs.

My experiences were supported by research. García et. al (2010) found that a teacher's

effectiveness is largely impacted by her experiences during teacher training. In the past,

teacher preparation programs frequently lacked explicit training to support ELs (García et

al., 2010) and opportunities to work with diverse learners (Schulz, 2017). This means that

there is a need to support mainstream teachers who are currently working in the field

(Martínez, 2018). Considering the increase in the number of ELs in Minnesota, the need

for professional development is timely and urgent (English Learners in Minnesota, 2017).

Reflecting on the roles and identities of English as a second language teachers

Throughout this research, I have learned that many ESL teachers experience

challenges similar to my own. As an ESL teacher, I balanced many roles. I attempted to

support content learning, provide instruction that supported language development,

collaborate with my mainstream colleagues, advocate for the language needs of my

students, administer assessments and support equitable communication with families. The

variety of roles that I assumed is supported by Basica and Jacka (2001) who considered

the expanding role of ESL teachers in their research and found that ESL teachers often

find their roles to be increasingly complex. The roles are also outlined by the 2018

TESOL International Association's teacher standards for ESL teachers.

In addition to balancing my expanding roles, I also struggled with my sense of

professionalism. Once again, my challenges were not unique and are supported by

research. The work of Froemming (2015) and Suarez and Dominguez (2015) highlighted

the complexities associated with teaching ELs, demonstrating the need for further

considerations of teacher identity. Through this study, my experiences have been supported by their findings related to ESL teachers and their sense of professionalism.

I hoped to consider how ESL teachers are impacted by training and support to work as leaders, knowing that they are so often called upon to do so when their colleagues may have little understanding of their expertise and role as a language teacher. Through my work, I learned that many ESL teacher leaders experience a shift in their professional role with success providing professional development and various levels of comfort in one-on-one coaching. The findings also indicate that when ESL teachers are positioned as leaders, they experience a shift in their professional identities, leading them to identify as collaborative facilitators of learning and as professionals.

As mainstream teachers learned more about language teaching and language learning, they began to understand what ELs need and proactively design their instruction to address those needs. All the while, the ESL teacher leaders were considering how their own knowledge and expertise had impacted these changes. I hoped to find that ESL teacher identities were positively impacted by a leadership role, with opportunities to expand their roles in a way that supports their feelings of professionalism. I expected to find that ESL teachers experienced a positive shift in their identity when they were positioned as leaders within their building. However, my findings suggest that the ESL teacher leaders who participated in this study experienced varying levels of comfort assuming the role of instructional coach. The variety of comfort levels that coaches experienced assuming one-on-one coaching seemed to be indicative of their identity as a professional and expert, revealing the need for ESL teachers to receive support assuming leadership within their buildings. It is also possible that their identities were impacted by

the egalitarian culture of schools, suggesting that all teachers are equal (Wenner &

Campbell, 2017). This finding, along with implications of this research, will be discussed

in the upcoming section.

Implications

The findings of this study have implications for ESL teachers who are positioned

as leaders in any capacity. While the ELM Project has implemented a model that

positions ESL teachers as leaders, many ESL teachers are increasingly called upon to

provide professional development and advocate for their ELs without such a program to

support them. Therefore, the implications of this study must be considered beyond the

scope of the ELM Project. This section will consider how leadership opportunities can

impact the identities of ESL teachers and how school or district support can foster

leadership among ESL teachers.

Leadership opportunities may impact the identities of English as a second

language teachers. This study contributes to the body of research which considers the

identities of ESL teachers. The data collected indicates that, when ESL teachers were

positioned as leaders, most reported a renewed sense of professionalism. The ESL

teachers who participated felt affirmed, recognized, empowered and understood as

professionals after being positioned as leaders. This data speaks to the success of the

ELM Project, which was designed in part to empower and support the expertise of

teachers already working in the field. It also reveals that even with such a program to

support them, some ESL teachers experience challenges related to their sense of

professionalism and struggle to fulfill their roles because their work and expertise is

largely misunderstood. This is supported by Suarez & Dominguez (2015) who found that

ESL teachers rely heavily on their self-advocacy to support their students. As a former ESL teacher who advocated tirelessly for myself, my students and their families, I struggled with my professional identity. My experience was shared by several ELM coaches whose mention of empowerment indicated that their professionalism had been impacted prior to working as an ELM coach. This finding is significant and highlights the impact of leadership on some ESL teachers. However, it is important to consider the challenges faced by some of the ESL teacher leaders.

In their review of teacher leadership, Wenner and Campbell (2017) found that teacher leaders experience the emotional complexities of their role differently. Their findings indicate that teacher leadership disrupts the hierarchical structure common within schools and that as a result some teacher leaders experience discomfort stepping into the role of expert. It is also possible that this experience, which is typical of instructional coaches, may be more challenging for ESL teachers to navigate given the challenges they experience related to their professional identities (Arkoudis, 2006; Froemming, 2015). While many of the ESL teacher leaders were confident assuming leadership, others experienced discomfort. It is possible that with further support navigating the emotional complexities of leadership, ESL teacher leaders would have more comfortably identified as experts.

District level leadership may be necessary to foster leadership among English as a second language teachers. The findings of this study indicate that ESL teachers may need support that fosters their leadership. Additionally, these findings suggest that there is a gap in the way that ESL teachers are supported. The 2018 TESOL Teacher Standards emphasize the need for ESL teachers to develop their leadership and

professionalism. The standard states that candidates must "Demonstrate professionalism and leadership by collaborating with other educators, knowing policies and legislation and the rights of ELLs, advocating for ELLs and their families, engaging in self-assessment and reflection, pursuing continuous professional development…" (p. 11). The inclusion of this standard indicates that ESL teacher preparation programs must include training that supports teacher candidates in developing leadership. To address in-service teachers whose preparation programs may not have emphasized leadership, the findings of this research suggest that there is a need for ongoing support. District level leadership must consider how they can be more explicit in fostering leadership among ESL teachers.

The findings indicate a gap in professional development that supports leadership. Ongoing professional support for ESL teachers should include opportunities to grow professionally, ensuring that teachers remain current in their knowledge of policies and laws that impact ELs along with new developments in instructional practice. In addition to training, the findings indicate that ESL teachers may not be afforded opportunities to assume leadership. Since several of the teacher leaders who participated in this study saw an increase in their involvement in school and district decision making, it is possible that ESL teachers are not represented to the extent that they could be in school and district leadership. Professional development and guidance from district level leadership may continue to foster leadership among ESL teachers, ensuring that ESL teachers can serve as stakeholders in decisions that impact ELs.

Given the challenges that ESL teachers are currently facing, it is possible that this type of support would require the support of educational policies. Unlike previous policies, ESSA includes the *English Language Tool Kit,* which is informed by current

research around multilingual students. In order to be support ELs, policies must continue to utilize current research related to multilingual learners (Harper, de Jong & Platt, 2008). The support of a policy could increase the likelihood that ESL teachers receive the ongoing support they need to assume leadership.

Limitations

As with all research, this study has limitations. One of the limitations of this study is related to the results gathered from the survey. The survey was intended to be qualitative in nature, hoping to gain descriptions about the coaches' experiences. However, many of the responses to the open-ended questions were brief, only one or two sentences. While some of the respondents elaborated on their shift in identity or role, across the data set, very little information was gleaned from the survey. This could have been affected by the timing of the survey, as it was sent during May, a time where teachers are busy with the end of the school year tasks.

Another limitation is related to the scope of this study. The data was collected from a small group of participants. Of all the ELM coaches, only 22 completed the survey and three coaches were interviewed. Of the coaches who were interviewed, there was an overlap in the participants who responded to the survey. There also may have been overlap in the coaches who participated in the interviews and the focus groups. For this reason, the results of this study can not necessarily be generalized across all ELM coaches.

Lastly, this study considered the experience of ESL teacher leaders who were trained through the ELM Project. ESL teachers can assume leadership roles in a variety of capacities. Their role as a leader may not include instructional coaching. While the

findings of this study hope to inform the field of teacher leadership and ESL teacher identity, the findings of this research may not be generalizable beyond the ELM Project.

Areas of Future Research

This study focused on the identities and roles of ESL teachers who were trained to work as ELM coaches. The findings indicate that while some coaches experienced a shift in identity that empowered them to take on leadership within their schools, others struggled to assume the role of expert. There are several areas for future research that could address gaps in the literature related to teacher leadership. These areas include the factors that affect a coach's identity, the perceptions of mainstream teachers involved in instructional coaching and the impact of ESL coaching on student achievement and student belonging.

Factors that impact the identities of teacher leaders. One area of study that would allow a deeper understanding of the identities of ESL teacher leaders would relate to the factors that impact a coach's sense of identity. This study focused on whether ESL teacher leaders experienced a shift in identity, finding that coaches experienced this shift to varying degrees. Exploring the factors that impacted their experiences would further support endeavors, such as the ELM Project, in supporting teacher leaders. Additionally, it would provide further insight into the impact that identity may have on a coaching experience for ESL teachers, who have historically experienced challenges with their sense of professionalism.

Mainstream teacher perceptions of English as a second language teacher leaders. Another possible area of study could consider the perceptions of mainstream teachers who work with ESL teacher leaders. While the findings of this study indicated

that mainstream teachers gained greater visibility into the role of ESL teachers, these findings are based on the perceptions of the ELM coaches. A study that considers whether mainstream teachers do experience a shift in their understanding of the roles of ESL teachers or their expertise would be necessary to generalize these conclusions. Moreover, this type of research could add to the small body of research that considers mainstream teachers' perceptions of their ESL teacher colleagues.

The impact of professional development on mainstream teachers. Lastly, a study that includes mainstream teachers would highlight the impact of receiving professional development related to ELs. ELM coaches perceived a shift in their colleagues' understanding of the needs of ELs after coaching. Current literature supports that learning about language development and strategies for supporting ELs positively impacts a teacher's level of preparedness. However, in order to determine that a model of teacher leaders impacts a mainstream teacher's preparedness to teach ELs, research gaining mainstream teacher perspectives would be necessary. A deeper understanding of the factors that influence identity and the perceptions of mainstream teachers would support these findings. The body of research regarding professional development that supports ELs for mainstream teachers is small. The research that exists establishes the need for mainstream teachers to receive professional support that boosts their preparedness to teach ELs (Correll, 2016; Schulz, 2017). Dekutoski (2011) and Fradi (2012) established the challenges that exist within current professional development for mainstream teachers, indicating that traditional professional development settings are ineffective. Wenner and Campbell (2017) shared the gap in research that considers teacher leadership as a way to support diverse learners. Therefore, research that considers

the factors that impact the identities of ESL teacher leaders, the experiences of

mainstream teachers who work with ESL teacher leaders and the impact on ELs would

contribute to this body of research.

Conclusion

This research, while limited, fills a gap in the literature on ESL teacher leadership.

The implications of this research have the potential to impact the way that ESL teachers

are supported and trained. This research will be made available through the Hamline

Digital Commons with hopes that its findings and implications can contribute to further

work on ESL teacher leadership. This research will also be presented at the Minnesota

English Learner Education (MELEd) conference and I will present the findings in the

keynote address at the 2019 annual ELM Summit.

When I began my research in the fall of 2018, I was transitioning from working as

an ESL teacher to teaching first grade as a classroom teacher for the first time. By night I

immersed myself in articles about the identities of ESL teachers, the deficit views of ELs

and the under preparedness of mainstream teachers to support them. By day, as I walked

through the hallways of my school with my first-grade class, I heard from countless

students comments such as, "Mrs. Benson, you are a *real* teacher now!" While these

comments could be dismissed as one of the many things that kids say, my gut told me

that these comments were important and worth considering. As I gathered my research, I

considered the comments of my former students. I heard the same sentiments expressed

by my colleagues who said "You must love having *your own* students" or "You get it

now, you're a classroom teacher." The literature, my experiences and the findings of my

research exposed not only the need for mainstream teachers to receive support to teach ELs but also the need for ESL teachers to be seen as teachers and professionals.

The findings of this research confirm that the roles of ESL teachers are misunderstood and that with greater visibility, mainstream teachers not only understand and recognize their colleagues as teachers, but they become more invested in working with their colleagues, seeing themselves as critical figures in the language development of ELs. The ELM Project is beginning to accomplish these goals, elevating ESL teachers as professionals, addressing the gap in knowledge around multilingual learners and supporting collaborative relationships between ESL teachers and their mainstream colleagues. These positive outcomes indicate success. Alisha spoke of her experience as an ELM coach at the end of her interview,

> I feel like it's more, you know, really important that *all* teachers have some level of understanding of what language instruction is and if I'm able to be part of a system that helps accomplish that goal. That's affirming.

The field of education needs systems that accomplish this goal. The needs are well established and urgent. Like Alisha, my involvement in a system that empowers and supports ELs is affirming.

References

Arkoudis, S. (2006). Collaborating in ESL education in schools. In J. Cummins & C.
    Davison (Eds.), *International handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 365–
    378). New York, NY: Springer.

Bascia, N., & Jacka, N. (2001). Falling in and filling in: ESL teaching careers in
    changing times. *Journal of Educational Change*, *2*(4), 325-346.
    doi:1014668925172

    Carrera, H. C. (2010). *Enhancing teacher practice through coaching: A case
    study in an english language learner environment* (Ph.D.). Retrieved from
    ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (UMI 3408701)

Castañeda v. Pickard, 648 F.2d 989 5th (5th Cir., 1981)

    Castillo, M. J. (2012). *Guiding educators to praxis: Moving teachers beyond
    theory to practice* (Ph.D.). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses
    Global. (UMI 3499176)

Chval, K., Arbaugh, F., Lannin, J., Van Garderen, D., Cummings, L., Estapa, A., &
    Huey, M. (2010). The transition from experienced teacher to mathematics coach:
    Establishing a new identity. *The Elementary School Journal*, *111*(1), 191-216.
    doi:10.1086/653475

Chien, T. H. (2013). *Power from the margins: The professional identities of three english
    as a second language teachers in low incidence districts* (Ph.D.). Retrieved from
    ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (UMI 1494134928)

Correll, P. K. (2016). Teachers' preparation to teach English language learners (ELLS): An investigation of perceptions, preparation, and current practices (Ed.D.). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (UMI 1875226248)

Dabiri, M. (2011). The effects of training in targeted instructional craftsmanship strategies on teachers' perceived self-efficacy and attitude in educating diverse learners. Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global (Ph.D.). (UMI 3482557).

de Jong, E. J., & Harper, C. A. (2005). Preparing mainstream teachers for English-language learners: Is being a good teacher good enough? *Teacher Education Quarterly*, *32*(2), 101-124. Retrieved from ERIC.

Dekutoski, C. G. (2011). *Mainstream teacher attitudes toward English language learners*. Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global (Ph.D.). (UMI 3466838)

Dupuis, D. N., Peterson, K., Diamond, K., & Weber N. (2018). *Evaluation of the English learners in the mainstream project: Year 2*. Center for Applied Research and Educational Improvement, College of Education and Human Development, University of Minnesota.

English Language Education for Children in Public Schools, Proposition 203, Ariz., Sec. 3, Title 15, Chapter 7.

English Language Learners in Public Schools. (2018). Retrieved from: https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_cgf.asp

Fradi, N. (2012). *Professional development and instruction for teachers of ESL students*. Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global (Ph.D.). (UMI 3522152)

Fearon, J. (1999). *What is identity? (As we now use the word)*. Retrieved from: https://web.stanford.edu/group/fearon-research/cgi-bin/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2013/10/What-is-Identity-as-we-now-use-the-word-.pdf

Froemming, A. C. (2015). *Perceptions of ESL Teachers' Roles within School Communities* School of Education Student Capstone Theses and Dissertations. 186.

García, E., Beatriz Arias, M., Harris Murri, N. J., & Serna, C. (2010). Developing responsive teachers: A challenge for a demographic reality. *Journal of Teacher Education, 61*(1–2), 132–142. doi.10.1177/002248710934787

Genesee, F. & Harper, C. (2010). Standards for the recognition of initial TESOL programs in K-12 ESL teacher education. TESOL International Association. Retrieved from: https://www.tesol.org/advance-the-field/standards/tesol-caep-standards-for-p-12-teacher-education-programs

Harper, C. A., & de Jong, E. J. (2009). English language teacher expertise: The elephant in the room. *Language and Education*, *23*(2), 137-151. doi:10.1080/09500780802152788

Harper, C. A., De Jong, E. J., & Platt, E. J. (2008). Marginalizing English as a second language teacher expertise: The exclusionary consequence of No Child Left Behind. *Language Policy*, *7*(3), 267–284. doi 10.1007/s10993-008-9102-y

Hunt, C. S., & Handsfield, L. J. (2013). The emotional landscapes of literacy coaching: Issues of identity, power, and positioning. *Journal of Literacy Research*, *45*(1), 47-86. doi:10.1177/1086296X12469969

Knight, J. (2004). Instructional coaches make progress through partnership. *Journal*

of Staff Development, 25(2), 32-37. Retrieved from Education Full Text.

Lau v. Nichols, 414 U.S. 563 (1974)

Leung, C. and Lewkowicz, J. (2006), Expanding horizons and unresolved conundrums: Language testing and assessment. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 211-234. doi:10.2307/40264517

Mangin, M. M. & Dunsmore, K. (2015). How the framing of instructional coaching as a lever for systemic or individual reform influences the enactment of coaching. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 51*(2), 179-213. doi:10.1177/0013161X14522814

Martin, A. D. (2016). The professional identities of mainstream teachers of English learners: A discourse analysis (Ph.D.). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (UMI 1793406734)

Martínez, R. A. (2018). Beyond the English learner label: Recognizing the richness of bi/multilingual students' linguistic repertoires. *The Reading Teacher*, 71(5), 515-522. doi:10.1002/trtr.1679

Merriam, S. B. & Tisdell, E. J. (2016). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (4th ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Mission and History. (2019). Retrieved from https://wida.wisc.edu/about/mission-history

Minnesota Department of Education. (2017). *English Learner Education in Minnesota*. Retrieved from: https://www.leg.state.mn.us/docs/2018/other/180676.pdf

National Center for Education Statistics. (2019) *English Language Learners in Public Schools* [Data file]. Retrieved from https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_cgf.asp

Rainville, K. N. and Jones, S. (2008). Situated identities: Power and positioning in the work of a literacy coach. *The Reading Teacher*, 61(6), 440-448. doi:10.1598/RT.61.6.1

Role. (n.d.) *Oxford Learner's Dictionary online.* Retrieved from: https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/us/definition/english/role

Schulz, Y. (2017). *Teachers' perceptions of language teaching for English language learners*. (Ph.D.). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global (Ph.D.). (UMI 10622311)

Suarez, M. & Dominguez, M. (2015). "Carrying that weight": ESL teacher negotiations toward advocacy and equity. *Radical Pedagogy*, *12*(2), 3. Retrieved from Education Full Text

TESOL International Association (TESOL). (2019). Standards for Initial TESOL Pre-K-12 Teacher Preparation Programs. Alexandria, VA: Author.

Tolbert, M. K. (2015). *An interview study of instructional coaches' and teachers' experiences with an elementary instructional coaching program* (Ph.D.). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (UMI 1785369676)

U.S. Department of Education, Office of English Language Acquisition. (2016). *English Learner Tool Kit* (Rev. ed.). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

Valdés, G., Kibler, A., & Walqui, A. (2014). *Changes in the expertise of ESL professionals: Knowledge and action in an era of new standards*. Alexandria, VA: TESOL International Association.

Valles, K. M. (2017). *Instructional coaches: The development of a coaching identity and its influence on coaching relationships* (Ph.D.). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (UMI 1966227926)

Walker, L. N. (2014). *Teachers' self-efficacy in instructional practices, motivation and social cohesion with English language learners* (Ph.D.). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (UMI 1545888069)

Wiedlich, D. M. (2017). *Perceived influence of an instructional coaching program on teacher self-efficacy: Voluntary participation in comparison to mandated participation* (Ph.D.). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (UMI 1889950980)

Wenner, J. A., & Campbell, T. (2017). The theoretical and empirical basis of teacher leadership. *Review of Educational Research*, *87*(1), 134-171. doi:10.3102/0034654316653478

The WIDA Can Do Philosophy (2014). Retrieved from https://wida.wisc.edu/sites/default/files/resource/WIDA-CanDo-Philosophy.pdf

Appendix A

Survey Questions

1. How many years have you been teaching? (choices: 0-5, 5-10, 10-15, 15-30)

2. In what school year did you first receive training to be an ELM coach? (choices: 2017-18, 2018-19)

3. Have you experienced a shift in the professional roles you assume within your building after being trained as an ELM coach? (Yes, No)

4. If yes, describe how your role as an ESL professional has changed.

5. Did you experience a shift in your professional identity after being trained as an ELM coach? (Yes, No)

6. If yes, describe how your identity as an ESL professional has shifted.

7. Would you be interested in participating in a 45 minute interview with a Hamline graduate student and full time teacher? (Yes/No)

8. If you are interested in participating in an interview, please complete the following (Name, non-school affiliated email address or alternate contact information, such as a cell phone number). (short answer)

Appendix B

Interview Questions

1. How did you recruit the teachers you coached?

2. Describe your collaborative relationship with the teachers you were coaching prior to entering into an instructional coaching relationship. Describe your relationship after you engaged in the instructional coaching process.

3. Tell me about a typical coaching conversation.

4. What were your greatest challenges in instructional peer coaching?

5. How did you determine areas of focus for professional development?

6. Tell me about how you experienced providing professional development to your colleagues.

7. How does this experience impact your identity as a leader?