Negotiating Tensions in the Linguistic Demands of the Classroom: A Multi-Method Exploration of Teachers' Academic Language Ideologies

by

Janna Brown McClain

Dissertation

Submitted to the Faculty of the

Graduate School of Vanderbilt University

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

Language, Literacy, and Culture

December 12, 2020

Nashville, Tennessee

Approved:

Jeannette Mancilla-Martinez, Ed.D.

H. Richard Milner, IV, Ph.D.

Emily Phillips Galloway, Ed.D.

Dianna Townsend, Ed.D.

Copyright © 2020 by Janna Brown McClain

All Rights Reserved

In memory of Teresa Osborne Brown

Acknowledgments

This work would not have been possible without the financial support of the Bonsal Applied Education Research Award, which funded data collection efforts, nor the contributions of the teachers who completed the surveys and interviews. It also was greatly aided by the emotional and intellectual support of my cohort: Samantha Marshall, Alexis McBride, and Lauren Vogelstein. These women have taught me what it means for learning to happen in community.

I am grateful to each of my dissertation committee members who have provided me extensive personal and professional guidance: Dr. Milner, Dr. Townsend, Dr. Phillips Galloway and especially my advisor and chair, Dr. Mancilla-Martinez, thank you all for your generosity with your time, your thoughtful feedback, and your helpful direction.

Finally, thank you to my family: to my spouse and best friend, Charles David McClain, who has assured me that I can do this, even when I felt it impossible; to my sister, Emily Brown Seal, who has walked with me through the darkness; and to my children, Samson and Vera, who have reminded me that learning is a source of joy.

Table of Contents

Dedication iii

Acknowledgments iv

List of Tables vii

List of Figures viii

List of Abbreviations ix

Chapter 1: Introduction 10

Overall Research Design 13

References 16

Chapter 2: Equitable Academic Language Instruction and the Access Paradox 21

Academic Language with Language Minoritized Learners 21

Domination, Access, Diversity, and Design: Research Paradigms for Understanding Equitable Academic Language Instruction 23

Synthesizing Across Paradigms 36

Supporting Teachers' Enactment of Equitable Academic Language Instruction 39

References 41

Chapter 3: A Regression Analysis of Patterns and Predictors of Teachers' Academic Language Ideologies 54

Abstract 54

Introduction 55

Literature Review 57

Methods 63

Findings 68

Discussion 74

References 78

Chapter 4: A Phenomenological Interview Study Contextualizing Teachers' Academic Language Ideologies 88

Abstract 88

Literature Review 90

Methods 102

Findings 112

Discussion 131

References 138

Chapter 5: Conclusions 153

References 156

Appendix A : Development of the TALI 160

Appendix B : Semi-Structured Interview Protocol 174

List of Tables

Table 1. *Comparison of Conceptually Related Manuscripts Comprising the Dissertation* 15

Table 2. *Comparison of Sample Demographic Information with the National Teacher Population and the National General Population* 65

Table 3. *Results of the Principal Components Analysis (PCA)* 70

Table 4. *Descriptive Statistics for Subscales of Teachers' Language Beliefs* 71

Table 5. *Unstandardized Parameter Estimates (B) of Multiple Regression Analysis for each Subscale* 71

Table 6. *School Information* 106

Table 7. *Participant Information* 107

List of Figures

Figure 1. *Teachers' Average Level of Agreement with Belief Subscales* 72

Figure 2. *Conceptual Framework of Teacher Language Ideologies*...101

List of Abbreviations

AL	Academic Language
BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CCSS	Common Core State Standards
IPA	Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis
LAS	Language Attitudes Survey
LATS	Language Attitudes Teacher Survey
LKAS	Language Knowledge and Attitudes Survey
LOTES	Languages other than English
PCA	Principal Components Analysis
TALI	Teachers' Academic Language Ideologies
WME	White Mainstream English

Chapter 1: Introduction

The widely-adopted Common Core State Standards (CCSS) Initiative represents the most comprehensive standards-based educational reform in recent U.S. history (www.corestandards.org). These standards place a premium on the use of rigorous informational texts and to the language these texts contain—features such as morphologically dense words, complex sentence structures with frequent use of nominalization, connective discourse markers, argumentative text organization, and authoritative tone, commonly referred to as 'academic language' (Uccelli et al., 2014). This represents a significant shift in emphasis from prior initiatives (Bunch et al., 2012; *Key Shifts in Language Arts*, 2016). However, academic language is not clearly defined in the standards, and in the decade since the release of the CCSS, researchers and practitioners alike have grappled with the mandate to use more complex texts with students who speak socially stigmatized languages or dialects, commonly referred to as language minoritized learners (Flores, 2016). Because race and language are co-naturalized in U.S. school settings (Alim et al., 2016), the moniker of language minoritized learner is largely used in reference to the racially and ethnically minoritized groups that now comprise the majority of the student population in U.S. K-12 public schools (de Brey et al., 2019).

Equitable academic language instruction with language minoritized learners remains a contested topic in the current research literature (Heller & Morek, 2015; Jensen & Thompson, 2020). Advocates for explicit instruction in academic language argue that it promotes equity by providing students access to what would otherwise remain part of a hidden curriculum, and that greater facility with academic language promotes reading comprehension, improves text

production, and deepens disciplinary learning (e.g. Bailey, 2020; Cummins, 2017; Moore & Schleppegrell, 2020; Nagy et al., 2012; Uccelli et al., 2020; Delpit 1992). Critics argue that academic language is a proxy for mainstream White English (MWE), thus, when it is presented uncritically as the only language appropriate for the classroom, academic language instruction can reinscribe racialized standard language ideologies, leading to further marginalization of language minoritized learners (Baker-Bell, 2017, 2020; Flores, 2020; Flores & Rosa, 2015; Macswan, 2018).

While these positions are often presented as dichotomous (i.e. academic language as a tool of empowerment vs. tool of marginalization), there is some consensus by researchers on both sides of academic language debates regarding characteristics of equitable language instruction with language minoritized learners (Jensen & Thompson, 2020): it attends to multiple dimensions of language, including metalinguistic awareness of language practices in context (Baker-Bell, 2020; N. Flores, 2020; Nagy et al., 2012; Uccelli et al., 2020); it acknowledges and leverages the rich linguistic repertoires of language minoritized learners (Baker-Bell, 2020; N. Flores, 2020; N. Flores & Rosa, 2015; Martinez & Mejia, 2020; Townsend & Lapp, 2010; Uccelli et al., 2020); and it encourages critical language awareness and rhetorical choice (Baker-Bell, 2020; N. Flores, 2020; Harman & Khote, 2018; Uccelli et al., 2020). In short, academic language instruction is most equitable when it promotes immediate active participation among all students by encouraging the use of all language resources for sense-making, presents features of academic language as resources for communicative action rather than static rules of appropriateness, and encourages critical examination of the relationship between language and power (McClain et al., under review).

In order to enact this ambitious, multilayered vision of equitable academic language instruction advocated by educational researchers across research paradigms, teachers must draw from nuanced understandings of the language of the discipline (Bunch, 2013; Turkan et al., 2014), a value for students' linguistic diversity (Lucas & Villegas, 2010), and critical language awareness (Baker-Bell, 2013; Fairclough, 1989; Godley & Reaser, 2018). Teachers filter their sense-making about academic language instruction through their language ideologies – or socially constructed systems of knowledge and belief (Ahearn, 2012), which are often internalized as 'common sense' and serve the interests of those who speak dominant varieties of language (Ahearn, 2012). Therefore, learning to enact equitable academic language instruction may require 'unlearning' fundamental assumptions about language (Kumashiro, 2001; 2015). However, research on teachers' academic language ideologies remains scant (for an exception, see Heineke & Neugebauer, 2018; Neugebauer & Heinecke, 2020). My dissertation seeks to contribute to this gap in the literature; by illuminating teachers' academic language ideologies, I will provide teacher educators with greater insight into the dominant systems of belief that may need to be leveraged or countered to promote teacher adoption of more equitable instructional practices.

What follows in this dissertation are three manuscripts that address the relationships between teachers' academic language ideologies and equitable academic language instruction with language minoritized learners. The first manuscript is a literature review and conceptual framework that situates the overall dissertation within the landscape of current educational research. The second manuscript is a quantitative investigation of heuristic patterns of teachers' academic language ideologies and the demographic variables that predict those ideologies. The

third and final manuscript is a qualitative phenomenological exploration of teachers' academic language ideologies: how they conceptualize language in their classroom, the personal, institutional, and social factors that shape their conceptualizations of language, and the ways those conceptualizations of language shape their instructional practices. In the sections that follow, I provide an overview of the research design for the overall dissertation, summarizing the contributions of each paper, as well as the interconnectedness between and among the chapters.

Overall Research Design

I have chosen a multiple methods approach to study of teachers' academic language ideologies. Because ideologies are socially constructed, it is important to get a broad sense of how these patterns of belief and knowledge are distributed across the general population of teachers, the typicality of certain constellations of knowledge and belief, as well as the various factors that may predict those constellations of belief—all questions that are effectively addressed through larger-scale quantitative analysis (Metz, 2019). However, because teachers' pedagogical linguistic orientations are fluid, contextualized, and performative, it is also important to understand how personal, institutional, and social environments may incentivize the enactment of particular language ideologies in specific contexts—information that is effectively obtained through qualitative analysis (Taylor et al., 2018). A multiple methods approach is discursive, drawing from both qualitative and quantitative lenses to bring findings across paradigms in conversation with each other, thereby providing a fuller understanding of the problems the research seeks to address.

The overall design of the dissertation is an explanatory sequential multiple method study, which entails two phases. The first phase involves conducting quantitative analysis to uncover

generalizable patterns of teachers' academic language ideologies while the second phase involves conducting qualitative analysis to provide contextualized explanations of the patterns discovered in the first phase (Creswell & Clark, 2007). As such, this dissertation will consist of three conceptually related manuscripts, each with its own distinctive research aims, sampling procedures, data sources, and analytic methods (see Table 1).

Though distinct in their aims and methods, the findings from all three manuscripts address the tensions in teachers' academic language ideologies, as well as the discursive relationship between teachers' lived ontologies, teachers' language ideologies, school and classroom supports and constraints, and their enactment of language instruction. In addition, the findings from each manuscript inform the aims of each subsequent manuscript. Manuscript 1 is a conceptual framework that establishes the need for further investigation of teachers' language ideologies based on extant literature. Manuscript 2 is a quantitative analysis of data collected through a pilot survey that provides a generalized description of teachers' language ideologies, as well as exploring predictive relationships between demographic variables and teachers' patterns of beliefs. Finally, Manuscript 3 further contextualizes findings from Manuscript 2 through a qualitative analysis of semi-structured interviews, allowing for deeper exploration of the relationship between teachers' lived ontologies, school supports and constraints, academic language ideologies, and enactment of instruction.

Table 1

Comparison of Conceptually Related Manuscripts Comprising the Dissertation

	Manuscript 1: Conceptual framework and literature review	Manuscript 2: Quantitative Analysis of the survey of Teachers' Academic Language Ideologies (*TALI)* Pilot	Manuscript 3: Phenomenological Analysis of Semi-Structured Interviews
Research Aims	Conceptualize academic language ideology and its essential components	Identify patterns of academic language ideology among K-12 educators in the United States and the demographic variables that predict those patterns	Describe teacher perceptions about the language demands of their curriculum, their students' language use, and the relationships between language and equity in their classrooms
Sampling Procedures	Review of extant literature	Snowball sampling, N=156	Purposeful sampling for maximum variation according to teacher demographics (racial/ethnic/linguistic background) and school demographics, N=9
Data Sources	90 scholarly works, including peer-reviewed journal articles, published books, and practice guides	Online REDCap Survey with 24 Likert Scale Items (Scale= 1-6; Cohen's Alpha=0.70-0.85); demographic questionnaire	Audio recorded semi-structured interviews conducted in person or via Zoom videoconference
Analytic Method	Literature Synthesis	Principal component analysis, reliability testing, descriptive analysis, multiple regression analysis	Interpretive Phenomenological Analysis

References

Alim, H. S., Rickford, J. R., & Ball, A. F. (2016). *Raciolinguistics: How language shapes our ideas about race*. Oxford University Press.

Bailey, A. L. (2020). The discourse of explicitness: Mathematics explanatory talk and self-assessment by Spanish-speaking emergent bilingual students in elementary classrooms. *Theory Into Practice*, *59*(1).

Baker-Bell, A. (2013). "I never really knew the history behind African American language": Critical language pedagogy in an Advanced Placement English language arts class. *Equity and Excellence in Education*, *46*(3), 355–370. https://doi.org/10.1080/10665684.2013.806848

Baker-Bell, A. (2017). "I can switch my language, but I can't switch my skin": What teachers must understand about linguistic racism. In *The Guide for White Women Who Teach Black Boys* (pp. 97–107).

Baker-Bell, A. (2020). Dismantling anti-black linguistic racism in English language arts classrooms. *Theory Into Practice*, *59*(1).

Bunch, G. C. (2013). Pedagogical language knowledge: Preparing mainstream teachers for English Learners in the new standards era. *Review of Research in Education*, *37*(1), 298–341. https://doi.org/10.3102/0091732X12461772

Bunch, G. C., Kibler, A., & Pimentel, S. (2012). *Realizing Opportunities for English Learners in the Common Core English Language Arts and Disciplinary Literacy Standards*. Paper Presented at the Understanding Language Conference, Stanford, CA. Retrieved from htpp://ell.stanford.edu/papers

Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. P. (2007). *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research*. SAGE Publications.

Cummins, J. (2017). Teaching minoritized students: Are additive approaches legitimate? *Harvard Educational Review*, *87*(3), 404–426.

DeBrey, C., Musu, L, McFarland, J., Wilkinson-Flicker, S., Diliberti, M., Zhang, A., Branstetter, C., and Wang, X. (2019). *Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups 2018* [Report]. National Center for Education Statistics. https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2019038

Delpit, L.D. (1992).Acquisition of literate discourse: Bowing before the master? *Theory into Practice, 31*(4), 296-302.

Fairclough, N. (1989). *Language and Power* (2nd ed.). Pearson Education.

Flores, N. (2016). Combatting marginalized spaces in education through language architecture. *Penn GSE Perspectives on Urban Education*, *13*(1), 1–3.

Flores, N. (2020). From academic language to language architecture: Challenging raciolinguistic ideologies in research and practice. *Theory Into Practice*, *59*(1).

Flores, N., & Rosa, J. (2015). Undoing appropriateness: Raciolinguistic ideologies and language diversity in education. *Harvard Educational Review*, *85*(2), 149–172. https://doi.org/10.17763/0017-8055.85.2.149

Godley, A. J., & Reaser, J. (2018). *Critical language pedagogy: Interrogating language, dialects, and power in teacher education*. Peter Lang.

Harman, R. M., & Khote, N. (2018). Critical SFL praxis with bilingual outh: Disciplinary instruction in a third space. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, *15*(1), 63–83.

https://doi.org/10.1080/15427587.2017.1318663

Heineke, A., & Neugebauer, S. R. (2018). The complexity of language and learning: Deconstructing teachers' conceptions of academic language. *Issues in Teacher Education*, *27*(2).

Heller, V., & Morek, M. (2015). Academic discourse as situated practice: An introduction. *Linguistics and Education*, *31*, 174–186. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2014.01.008

Jensen, B., & Thompson, G. A. (2020). Equity in teaching academic language—an interdisciplinary approach. *Theory into Practice*, *59*(1), 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2019.1665417

Key Shifts in Language Arts. (2016). Common Core State Standards Initiative. http://www.corestandards.org/other-resources/key-shifts-in-english-language-arts/

Kumashiro, K. (2001). "Posts" perspectives on anti-oppressive education in social studies, English, mathematics, and science classrooms. *Educational Researcher*, *30*(3), 3–12.

Kumashiro, K. (2015). *Against common sense: Teaching and learning toward social justice* (3rd ed.). Rutledge.

Lucas, T., & Villegas, A. M. (2010). The missing piece in teacher education: The preparation of linguistically responsive teachers. *Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, *109*(2), 297–318.

Macswan, J. (2018). Academic English as standard language ideology: A renewed research agenda for asset-based language education. *Language Teaching Research*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818777540

Martinez, R. A., & Mejia, A. F. (2020). Looking closely and listening carefully: A sociocultural approach to understanding the complexity of Latina/o/x students' everyday language. *Theory into Practice*, *59*(1).

McClain, J.B., Harman, M., & Phillips-Galloway, E. (under review). Eliminating prerequisites for personhood: A framework for enacting antiracist academic language instruction.

Metz, M. (2019). Accommodating linguistic prejudice? Examining English teachers' language ideologies. *English Teaching: Practice & Critique*, ETPC-09-2018-0081. https://doi.org/10.1108/ETPC-09-2018-0081

Moore, J., & Schleppegrell, M. J. (2020). A focus on disciplinary language: Bringing critical perspectives to reading and writing in science. *Theory Into Practice*, *59*(1).

Nagy, W. E., Townsend, D. R., Lesaux, N. K., & Schmitt, N. (2012). Words as tools: Learning academic vocabulary as language acquisition. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *47*(1), 91–108. https://doi.org/10.1002/RRQ.011

Neugebauer, S. R., & Heineke, A. (2020). Unpacking K-12 teachers' understandings of Academic Language. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 47*(2), 158-182.

Taylor, L. A., Vlach, S. K., & Mosley Wetzel, M. (2018). Observing, resisting, and problem-posing language and power: Possibilities for small stories in inservice teacher education. *Linguistics and Education*, *46*, 23–32. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2018.05.006

Townsend, D. R., & Lapp, D. (2010). *Academic language, discourse communities, and technology: Building students' lingusitic resources.* Teacher Education Quarterly. http://teqjournal.org/onlineissue/media/TownsendLapp.mp3

Turkan, S., De Oliveira, L. C., Lee, O., & Phelps, G. (2014). Proposing a knowledge base for

teaching academic content to English language learners: Disciplinary linguistic knowledge. *Teachers College Record*, *116*(030308), 1–30.

Uccelli, P., Barr, C. D., Dobbs, C. L., Phillips Galloway, E., Meneses, A., & Sanchez, E. (2014). Core Academic Language Skills (CALS): An expanded operational construct and a novel instrument to chart school-relevant language proficiency in pre-adolescent and adolescent learners. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *36*, 1–33. https://doi.org/10.1017/S014271641400006X

Uccelli, P., Phillips Galloway, E., Aguilar, G., & Allen, M. (2020). Amplifying and affirming students' voices through CALS-informed instruction. *Theory Into Practice*, *59*(1).

Chapter 2: Equitable Academic Language Instruction and the Access Paradox

Teachers who wish to enact critical literacies that uncover and combat inequitable social hierarchies face a paradox: because an expected purpose of schooling is to socialize students into the dominant discourse (Agha, 2004), "teachers have an obligation to expose their students to the very culture that oppresses them" (Ladson-Billings, 2006, p. 40). Janks (2004) describes this paradox more specifically from a linguistic perspective: "If you provide more people with access to the dominant variety of the dominant language, you contribute to perpetuating and increasing its dominance. If, on the other hand, you deny students access, you perpetuate their marginalisation in a society that continues to recognise this as a mark of distinction" (p. 33). In this conceptual framework, I apply Janks' (2000) critical literacy framework of "domination, access, diversity, and design" (p. 175) to more recent debates in the extant literature concerning equitable academic language instruction with language minoritized learners. for the purposes of helping teachers and teacher educators navigate inherent ideological tensions in the phenomenon.

Academic Language with Language Minoritized Learners

The tensions inherent in the access paradox are heightening in educational contexts across the globe as the curriculum shifts to foreground the role of language in disciplinary knowledge production (Heller & Morek, 2015; Accurso et al., 2017). In the United States, the widely-adopted Common Core State Standards (CCSS; www.corestandards.org) place significant emphasis on *academic language* (Key Shifts in Language Arts, 2016), or the linguistic features commonly present in disciplinary complex text (Nagy et al., 2012; Uccelli et al., 2015). However, while the CCSS outline rigorous expectations regarding student proficiency

with comprehending and producing academic language, like all standards, they do not prescribe the means by which schools should accomplish those expectations. Thus, a vision for instruction aligned with CCSS standards must be interpreted at the state, district, building, and classroom level (Coburn et al., 2016).

Critical scholars have also problematized the relationship between the CCSS and language diversity: the standards largely ignore bilingualism (Flores, 2013), and while they encourage contrastive analysis to acknowledge language difference, they fall short of "taking a resource-based perspective on nondominant language use" (Woodard & Kline, 2016, p. 213). As such, instructional interpretations of the CCSS may serve to reify inequitable language hierarchies that have negative consequences for *language minoritized learners*—that is, students who speak socially stigmatized languages and dialects (Flores, 2016). While language stigma can be based on any number of sociodemographic variables, including gender, sexual orientation, geographic region, or socioeconomic status (Lippi-Green, 2012), in U.S. educational contexts, language and race have been co-naturalized (Alim et al., 2016). For the purposes of this paper, I assume that the moniker of language minoritized largely overlaps with students who are racially (i.e. Black, Brown) and/or ethnically (i.e. Latinx, indigenous) minoritized; groups that now collectively comprise the majority of the student population in U.S. K-12 public schools (de Brey et al., 2019).

The utility of academic language for promoting equity for language minoritized learners continues to be debated in the literature, with some scholars suggesting that academic language instruction fosters more equitable outcomes for language minoritized learners, and others arguing that academic language instruction serves to reproduce hegemonic language hierarchies (Jensen

& Thompson, 2020). This debate serves an important purpose in the intellectual enterprise of educational research: in order to craft a compelling argument, scholars benefit from clearly delineating the paradigms that frame their work in contrast with other paradigms (Janks, 2000). However, teachers who endeavor to construct and enact critical literacies are too often left on their own to contend with "the important work of synthesis" (Janks, 2000, p. 179) as they determine how to implement instruction that simultaneously disrupts and gives students access to the language of power. In order to support this work of synthesis, I draw upon Janks' (2004) framework, which demonstrates how various dimensions of critical literacies research are crucially inextricable. I first unpack current paradigms in the literature regarding equitable academic language instruction, then synthesize across these paradigms to offer a path forward for teachers and teacher educators.

Domination, Access, Diversity, and Design: Research Paradigms for Understanding Equitable Academic Language Instruction

In the sections that follow, I delineate how extant literature on academic language relates to four comprehensive dimensions of critical literacy outlined in Janks' (2000) framework: the domination paradigm emphasizes academic language as raciolinguistic ideology, the access paradigm emphasizes academic language as a register, the diversity paradigm emphasizes academic language as situated practice, and the design paradigm emphasizes academic language as dynamic socialization.

Domination: Academic Language as Raciolinguistic Ideology

According to Janks (2000), research in the domination paradigm "see(s) language, other symbolic forms, and discourse more broadly, as a powerful means of maintaining and

reproducing relations of domination" (p. 176). Research in the domination paradigm conceptualizes academic language as a raciolinguistic ideology, equivalent to "standard language." From this perspective, the only power that academic language has is due to the ways it is socially legitimized (Bourdieu, 1991) in education both through institutional efforts, such as standards or assessments, and by individuals in power. Many sociolinguists argue that "standard language" is a social construct that exists only in the perceptions of the listener, rather than in objective features of speech production (Lippi-Green, 2012; Bacon, 2017; Reaser *et al.*, 2017; Godley & Reaser, 2018). Adhering to a post-structuralist approach, research in the domination paradigm similarly posits that academic language is a social construct that reifies inequitable language hierarchies, and thus needs to be deconstructed (Macswan, 2018; Baker-Bell, 2020; Flores, 2020). MacSwan (2018) and Flores (2020) argue that the distinction between "social" and "academic" language is a false dichotomy that "reinforces and perpetuates standard language ideology" (MacSwan, 2018, p. 5) and "frames racialized students as linguistically deficient" (Flores, 2020, p. 22). Baker-Bell (2020) equates academic English with White Mainstream English (WME), and draws upon Lorde (1984) to argue that academic language is the "master's tools" that "will never dismantle the master's house" (p. 10).

Research in the domination paradigm highlights how the speech of language minoritized students is racialized by the listener, so that regardless of whether language minoritized students use academic language "correctly", they continue to face discrimination. Consequently, these researchers argue that burden of change—and the focus on research—should be placed on the biased listener instead of the minoritized speaker (Flores & Rosa, 2015; Baker-Bell, 2020; Flores, 2020). This line of work also suggests that a curricular focus on academic language

highlights what students lack rather than valuing the language repertoires students bring with them to school. It argues instead for an asset-based approach to teaching, hearing, engaging, and assessing language minoritized learners (Macswan, 2018).

The domination paradigm underscores the very real problem of how standard language ideology can lead to linguistic inequity in classrooms. Indeed, there is ample empirical documentation of teachers' tendency to conflate linguistic difference with linguistic deficit for language minoritized learners (e.g. Coady & Escamilla, 2005; Harry et al., 2005; Klingner & Harry, 2006; Soltero-Gonzalez et al., 2012; Adair et al., 2017). Teacher beliefs about minoritized learner groups shape their interactions and practices with students in powerful ways (Milner, 2005, 2017), and there is evidence that language stigma mediates negative academic trajectories for language minoritized learners (Umansky, 2016). Hence, for teacher educators who care deeply about promoting equitable education with language minoritized learners, any professional learning about academic language must be coupled with addressing the underlying language ideologies that may stigmatize language minoritized learners.

However, teachers who wish to take up critical literacy have expressed that they experience tensions when enacting critical principles in practice (Puechner, 2017). They point to the ways "issues of power" constrain their instruction: mandatory curriculum standards, high stakes testing that is used to evaluate students and teachers alike, and the immediate utility explicit instruction in academic language has for helping students comprehend disciplinary content as well as the future utility explicit instruction in academic language has for helping students gain access to college and career opportunities (Delpit, 1988, p. 283). For critical educators under the access paradox, the socially constructed nature of academic language does

not preclude the responsibility to teach it. As Janks (2000) explains, a focus on the domination without the access paradigm "maintains the exclusionary force of dominant discourses" (p. 179). This suggests that "critical literacy, as a field, must move beyond critiquing problematic practices and theorizing transformative possibilities" to "provide teachers with concrete strategies" for negotiating the access paradox (Puechner, 2017, p. 329). Thus, it is important to synthesize literature from the domination paradigm with literature from the access paradigm, which emphasizes how explicit instruction in the features of academic texts can support student participation in academic literacies.

Access: Academic Language as Register

Much of the current research on the features of academic language falls under the access paradigm and has its roots in genre theory (Martin, 2009) and systemic functional linguistics (Gebhard & Harman, 2011). Janks classifies research in this paradigm as having "done important work in describing the features of dominant genres many of which, prior to their work, we somehow assumed students could see and do" (2000, p. 177). This work highlights how unpacking the features of academic texts makes visible the aspects of the curriculum which were formerly hidden (Townsend et al., 2012; Uccelli & Phillips Galloway, 2016). It also highlights the utility of academic language for meaning making as students build ideas and then communicate those ideas to others (Snow & Uccelli, 2009; Nagy et al., 2012). Indeed, mastery of the features of academic language is linked with student performance on reading comprehension assessments (Townsend et al., 2012; Uccelli and Phillips Galloway, 2016; Phillips Galloway, Uccelli et al., 2020) and overall quality scores on student writing (Uccelli et al., 2013; Dobbs, 2014; Phillips Galloway, Qin et al., 2020).

In sociolinguistic terms, research in the access paradigm conceptualizes academic language as a register—language variation that occurs based upon the situation and function motivating a text rather than the social identity of the speaker (Biber & Conrad, 2009). Because register studies are based on situation and purpose, effective register analyses always begin with a thorough investigation of the situational characteristics of texts, such as the relationships between participants, the mode and medium of the text, and the setting, purpose, and topic (Biber & Conrad, 2009).

Regarding the situational characteristics of the academic register, the relationship between a novice reader and the published academic text is marked by stark power differential. The mode of the academic text is written, which means that the information presented in the text is decontextualized from the immediate environment, and the planning, revision and editing involved in creating a published text allows for increased complexity in the language structures used in the text, such as nominalization and embedded clauses (Snow & Uccelli, 2009; Uccelli et al., 2014). In addition, academic texts often serve the purpose of problematizing and arguing, which students may find unfamiliar or associate with unpleasant experiences outside of academic contexts (Graff, 1999). Finally, the topics addressed in academic text often have long disciplinary traditions, causing specific words or phrases to have high semantic density—that is, they are deeply embedded in sociocultural practices, and thus take on multiple layers of meaning (Martin, 2013; Maton, 2013, 2014). While these linguistic characteristics present challenges for all learners, researchers in the access paradigm assert that language minoritized learners in particular stand to benefit from explicit instruction that clarifies the relationship between

academic language forms and their communicative purposes (Uccelli & Phillips Galloway, 2016).

Analysis of secondary science and history instruction suggests that teachers have a tendency to unpack disciplinary texts without taking the time to have students form deep associations with other concepts or repack the new concepts within their meaningful linguistic structures, which can lead students to develop shallow, diluted understandings of the concepts presented in the texts (Martin, 2013; Maton, 2013). In addition, the pressure to cover basic receptive comprehension of content standards makes it difficult for teachers to provide the necessary time to scaffold student production of academic language in speech or writing (Townsend, 2015).

Teachers' tendency to provide shallow coverage of academic concepts may be exacerbated for language minoritized learners, who are often placed in lower-track classrooms where they are exposed to simplified materials that further dilute their exposure to academic content (Sharkey & Layzer, 2000; Umansky et al., 2020). In contrast, advocates of academic language instruction highlight the need for language minoritized learners to receive deep, rich linguistic instruction to support the comprehension and production of complex disciplinary texts (Wong Fillmore & Fillmore, 2012). This type of instruction requires that teachers have extensive knowledge not only of specific language forms, but also the ways those forms function to communicate disciplinary meaning (Achugar et al., 2007; Bunch, 2013; Turkan et al., 2014; Macken-Horarik et al., 2018).

While register difference is fundamentally analyzed in terms of the purpose and situation rather than sociodemographic factors, it can still be used in discriminatory ways against specific

sociodemographic groups. Language hierarchies may simultaneously valorize a register while restricting particular social groups' access to that register, "resulting in the creation of social boundaries within society, and … the creation and maintenance of asymmetries of power, privilege, and rank" (Agha, 2004, p. 29). By advocating for all students' access to the academic register, researchers operating in the access paradigm seek to overcome these asymmetries. However, "access without a theory of domination leads to the naturalization of powerful discourses without an understanding of how these powerful forms came to be powerful" (Janks, 2000, p. 178).

When taken up uncritically, research in the access paradigm risks ignoring the ways the academic register has historically not only served the function of supporting meaning-making and communicating complex ideas, but also served the function of preserving the elite status of particular social groups and particular schools (Agha, 2004; Brock et al., 2009). In addition, from an equity perspective, it is essential to ask what exactly we are giving language minoritized students access to (Moje, 2007). Often, the access paradigm is operationalized in school settings as a rationalization for narrowing and scripting the curriculum so that students have increased achievement scores on standardized tests (Gebhard & Harman, 2011; Milner, 2014). However, access to the discrete academic language skills necessary to succeed on standardized tests is not the same as access to use the academic register to engage in multiple authentic discourse communities. Skills-based academic language instruction relies on static conceptualizations of language as rules for accuracy and appropriateness (Phillips Galloway, McClain, & Uccelli, 2020). In contrast, authentic discourse communities use academic language dynamically for the purposes of pursuing disciplinary inquiry (Moje, 2007). For this reason, searchers in the diversity

paradigm have called for a conceptualization of academic language as situated discourse. In the next section, I explore research that demonstrates how academic language varies based on situation and context, thereby highlighting the pedagogical value of linguistic diversity. This helps educators acknowledge the diverse linguistic resources within classrooms as assets that can be leveraged for learning.

Diversity: Academic Language as Situated Discourse

Research in the diversity paradigm recognizes that “different ways of reading and writing the world in a range of modalities are a central resource for changing consciousness” and “discourses are linked to a wide range of social identities in diverse social institutions” (Janks, 2000, p. 177). Rather than focus on giving students access to a narrowly defined set of features present in the academic register as determined by corpus analysis of written disciplinary texts, research in the diversity paradigm examines multiplicity in the ways students use academic language for communication, thinking, and expression of identity in particular contexts (Heller & Morek, 2015).

In sociolinguistic terms, research in the diversity paradigm conceptualizes academic language as situated discourse: not only discrete linguistic features, but integrated “ways of talking, listening, writing, reading, acting, interacting, believing, valuing, and feeling (and using various objects, symbols, images, tools, and technologies) in the service of enacting meaningful socially situated identities and activities” (Gee, 2013, p. 141). In this paradigm, acquisition of academic language requires more than proficiency with language structures, it involves gradual apprenticeship into a community of practice, taking on not only the language but the identity associated with the community, as well.

Research in the diversity paradigm highlights the "conflicting, contested, and plural nature" of academic language (Lea & Street, 1998), arguing that it should be "considered in the plural… as sets of practice" rather than one monolithic language form (Henderson & Hirst, 2007, p. 26). Academic languages vary across disciplines, in terms of genre, language structures, lexicon, modes of interaction, and values. For this reason, it is important to consider the ways academic languages relate to specific disciplinary practices (Henderson & Hirst, 2007; van Lier & Walqui, 2012; Moore & Schleppegrell, 2020). In addition, although U.S. K-12 schools often assume monolingual English norms for academic engagement (Bacon, 2018), academic languages are not restricted to English – academic communities across the globe use multiple languages to communicate disciplinary understandings (Achugar et al., 2007). Finally, students use diverse registers as they make sense of academic content, not just the formal registers commonly found in written academic texts (Bunch, 2014; Phillips Galloway et al., 2019).

Because of this diversity, research that conceptualizes academic language as situated discourse calls for greater attention to the ways academic language is used in collective interaction. As students negotiate new understandings of academic contexts, they draw upon multiple semiotic resources for sense making (Bunch, 2014; Galloway et al., 2019; Pierson, 2019; Moore & Schleppegrell, 2020). Framing language minoritized learners' use of diverse language as participation in academic discourse communities counters the problematic dichotomies that privilege academic language as superior to "social," "common," or "everyday" language and rejects the idea that acquisition of academic language is a prerequisite for academic engagement (Bunch, 2014). In addition, when classroom ecologies recognize and cultivate

student agency to draw upon multiple linguistic resources, it "places students' existing identities in conversation with their imagined, future selves" (Galloway et al., 2019, p. 15).

Indeed, in the diversity paradigm, language is seen as inseparable from other aspects of human action (van Lier & Walqui, 2012). The way one speaks is deeply entrenched in the identities that person performs. When teachers attempt to limit student language use to the "appropriate" academic register (Flores & Rosa, 2015), it requires students "to check important aspects of (their) identity at 'the door' to conform and assimilate into an oppressive schooling context" (Milner, 2017, p. 74). Narrow conceptualizations of academic language ignore the rich language resources students can draw upon to engage in classroom learning.

The final research paradigm, design, extends the diversity paradigm to consider how academic language is transformed by those who use it. While "diversity provides the means, the ideas, the alternative perspectives for reconstruction and transformation, without design, the potential that diversity offers is not realized" (Janks, 2000, p. 178). Attention to design helps educators grapple with the dynamic nature of language; language varies not only due to differences in identity and situation, language is changed over time through the process of dynamic socialization.

Design: Academic Language as Dynamic Socialization

Research in the design paradigm focuses on "the ability to harness the multiplicity of semiotic systems across diverse cultural locations to challenge and change existing discourses" (Janks, 2000, p. 177). Traditional instruction is often synoptic, presenting procedures (i.e. how to structure an academic argument) or facts (i.e. words that end with the morpheme *-tion* are

nominalizations) as fixed knowledge that students must simply internalize (Cohen, 2008). In other words, traditional language instruction operates from an assumption that language is a static entity. In contrast, research in the design paradigm argues that because features of academic language are not merely transmissible products, instructional design should facilitate and encourage students' dynamic remixing of language (Lea & Street, 1998; Gebhard & Harman, 2011; Harman & Khote, 2018). Research in the design paradigm contends that because the current dominant language may not be dominant in the future (Paris & Alim, 2014), it is therefore more important to design instruction that equips students with "linguistic and cultural flexibility" (Paris & Alim, 2014, p. 88) rather than passing down language structures that have historically signaled power.

In sociolinguistic terms, researchers in this paradigm see academic language as the product of language socialization, which "entails both socialization through language and socialization to use language" (Ochs, 1990, p. 287). From a language socialization perspective, learners who engage in academic discourse in classroom settings are learning about "the social order and cultural meanings" (p. 290) inherent in that setting. However, they are not simply passive recipients of the language taught to them. Instead, "both novices and more competent speakers/members transform their structures of knowledge and understanding vis-a-vis discourse and culture. Such a position is dialogical and allows for bidirectional change" (Ochs, 1990 p. 302).

It is important to emphasize that researchers in this line of work do not simply argue for leveraging students' linguistic resources as a bridge to features of the academic register. Instead, they argue that these linguistic resources have the potential to transform the very ways the

academic register is enacted, and that it is the teacher's responsibility to create dialogic spaces for these transformations to take place (Michael-Luna & Canagarajah, 2008; García & Sylvan, 2011; Paris & Alim, 2014). Conceptualizations for pedagogic practices that foreground students' linguistic resources include translanguaging (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Celic & Seltzer, 2011; García & Sylvan, 2011; Martin-Beltrán, 2014; Goodwin & Jiménez, 2016), codemeshing (Young, 2004; Michael-Luna & Canagarajah, 2008; Canagarajah, 2013), and cultural and linguistic pluralism (Paris, 2012; Paris & Alim, 2014).

Garcia and Sylvan define translanguaging as "the communicative norm of multilingual communities" (2011, p. 389) in which students draw upon all of their linguistic repertoires to make sense of their world. Whether pedagogical translanguaging practices involve students' use of multiple languages in oral discussion and negotiation of content (Garcia & Sylvan, 2011), translation of key pieces of text to improve reading comprehension (Goodwin & Jiménez, 2016), or fluid movement between languages as they draft their own texts (Velasco & García, 2014), "the direction between the educator and the educated goes both ways. Both are learners and teachers. The pedagogical practices negotiate the dynamic bilingualism of students' individual experiences while actively working against existing forms of domination and exploitation of groups of people" (García & Sylvan, 2011, p. 391).

Looking at academic writing more specifically, code-meshing is a construct that challenges the dominant norms of the academic register that privilege standard English: it is "a communicative device used for specific rhetorical and ideological purposes in which a multilingual speaker intentionally integrates local and academic discourse as a form of resistance, reappropriation and/or transformation of the academic discourse" (Michael-Luna &

Canagarajah, 2008, p. 56). This may involve not only taking up features of multiple languages and dialects, but also adopting rhetorical structures that vary from those normally found in academic text (Canagarajah, 2013; Harman & Khote, 2018; Viete & Phan, 2007; Young, 2004). In this sense, research in the design paradigm pushes a binary polarization of academic language resources and other language resources—it acknowledges language diversity and encourages creative use of those resources to accomplish specific communicative purposes.

In comparison to translanguaging and code-meshing, which describe both specific language practices of students and specific pedagogical practices of teachers, cultural and linguistic pluralism refers more generally to the overall desired outcomes and purposes behind culturally sustaining pedagogy. Cultural and linguistic pluralism involves the ability to use language flexibly across varied cultural contexts. Citing Barack Obama's ability to draw upon both African American English and academic registers as an asset that contributed to his victory in the 2008 presidential campaign, Paris and Alim (2014) argue that multilingualism and multiculturalism are essential to social and economic success and will play an even more critical role in the future as society and culture shifts. In their perspective, possession of monolithic academic language skills will be less important than the ability to flexibly navigate diverse linguistic terrains. Thus, it is not enough to teach students the features of academic language as if it were a static, transmissible entity. Instead, teachers must engage students as active participants in shaping language, as agentic authors who flexibly choose from various discourses in order to accomplish their goals within a text.

Synthesizing Across Paradigms

Thus far, I have presented four paradigms for critical conceptualizations of academic language: academic language as raciolinguistic ideology (domination), academic language as a register (access), academic language as situated practice (diversity) and academic language as dynamic socialization (design). Building on Janks' (2000) compelling argument that these paradigms are crucially interdependent, I contend that teachers who wish to enact critical frameworks for teaching academic language must synthesize across these four paradigms to negotiate the challenges of the access paradox. In the sections that follow, I propose guidelines for equitable academic language instruction that synthesize understandings gleaned from each of the four paradigms of critical literacy.

Assume an asset-based orientation to language diversity. Across all four paradigms, researchers agree that language minoritized learners' linguistic resources are assets to be leveraged rather than barriers to be overcome (Baker-Bell, 2020; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Flores, 2020; Flores & Rosa, 2015; Martinez & Mejia, 2020; Townsend & Lapp, 2010; Uccelli et al., 2020). While an asset-based approach is particularly central to the diversity paradigm, it is supported across all other paradigms. Under the access paradigm, multiple semiotic systems, including the diverse languages and dialects learners bring with them to school, can be used to scaffold disciplinary understanding (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005) and metalinguistic awareness (Galloway et al., 2019). Under the domination and design paradigms, an awareness of linguistic diversity is essential for understanding the power structures that shape why language varies, as well as the ways language can be remixed in novel ways. In order to enact equitable academic language instruction, teachers need a *value for linguistic diversity*.

Focus on language structures as means of communicative action. At the same time, it is essential for teachers to understand how language mediates all students' comprehension and communication of disciplinary ideas—that is, *pedagogical linguistic knowledge* (Bunch, 2013). Rather than focus on academic language forms in isolation, academic language instruction is most effective when it is embedded in content instruction and clearly links language form with the functions those forms play for achieving specific purposes in particular contexts (Moore & Schleppegrell, 2020). This instruction involves not only breaking down the unfamiliar language in disciplinary text so that students can understand, but also giving students ample opportunities to practice using the language to communicate their understandings (Martin, 2013; Maton, 2014; Townsend, 2015). While explicit attention to language forms is central to research in the access paradigm, all of the reviewed paradigms require careful attention to form and function in context to achieve a specific purpose: the access paradigm foregrounds *what* language forms are commonly used and *why*, the diversity paradigm foregrounds *how* different forms accomplish different purposes in different contexts, the domination paradigm foregrounds *how* forms are used to enact power, and the design paradigm foregrounds *how* forms can be remixed in novel ways.

Interrogate how power is enacted in language. In order to deconstruct inequitable language hierarchies, teachers first need to be able to recognize those hierarchies and the ways language practices work to promote inequity—in other words, they need *critical language awareness* (Alim, 2010; Fairclough, 1989; Godley & Reaser, 2018). While the interrogation of power is central to research in the domination paradigm (Baker-Bell, 2020; Flores, 2020; Flores and Rosa, 2015), researchers in the access, diversity, and design paradigms also advocate for

attention to the ways power is enacted in language (Gebhard & Harman, 2011; Gee, 2013; Uccelli et al., 2020). Framing the linguistic forms in texts as intentional choices made by the author allows students to interrogate the reasons for those choices: How does this language position you as the reader? What might this language obscure? And who benefits from this language choice? (Flores, 2020; Uccelli et al., 2020). Understanding authors' choices empowers students to make their own intentional choices as they author their own texts.

Make space for student agency. If the end goal of language instruction is equipping students with linguistic tools to select from as they comprehend and communicate rich ideas, then it is essential that students be given the opportunity to practice making their own language choices.While student agency and creativity is foregrounded under the design paradigm, it is important for other paradigms, as well. Under the domination paradigm, framing language minoritized learners as capable involves giving them the same agentic opportunities as their "mainstream" peers (Flores & Rosa, 2015; Adair et al., 2017). Under the access paradigm, providing students full access to disciplinary learning is not limited to unpacking the language in support of comprehending language, but also giving students ample opportunity to "repack" the language in meaningful ways (Martin, 2013; Maton, 2014; Townsend, 2015). And under the diversity paradigm, increasing student participation within disciplinary communities of practice gives them the opportunity to try on different scholarly identities (Gee, 2013; Galloway *et al.*, 2019, Moje, 2007). In short, researchers across the four reviewed critical literacy paradigms argue that students need opportunities to use academic language in meaningful ways.

Supporting Teachers' Enactment of Equitable Academic Language Instruction

Synthesizing across the four paradigms of critical literacy: domination, access, diversity, and design (Janks, 2000), I argue that equitable academic language instruction within a critical literacy framework assumes an asset-based stance toward language diversity, simultaneously addresses language structures and their utility for communicative action, interrogates how power is enacted in language, and makes space for student agency. This ambitious vision of instruction is aligned with many research-based frameworks (e.g. *Critical Functional Systemic Linguistics,* Harman & Khote, 2018; *Language Architecture*, Flores, 2020; *Critical Rhetorical Flexibility,* Uccelli et al., 2020). Yet, it's important to note that for many teachers this instructional vision does not align with how curriculum and policies are interpreted at the district, state, and national level (Bacon, 2018). While it's important to protect teacher autonomy in the classroom, teachers have expressed tensions they feel between their desire to enact critical literacies and the pressure to prepare students for standardized testing as a gatekeeping mechanism (Puechner, 2017). Rather than simply providing broad guidelines and anecdotal examples, teacher educators and researchers who value critical literacy need to continue developing extensive policy, curricular, and professional development resources to support enactment of equitable academic language instruction.

As we more carefully consider "how do we do it," (Ladson-Billings, 2006), it's also important to recognize that school reform requires not only changing teaching, but also changing teachers (Lampert, 2012). As Ladson-Billings (2006) argues, enacting equitable instruction is not just about changing what we do, but also "…how we think—about the social contexts, about the students, about the curriculum, and about instruction" (p. 34). Teacher educators must not only

support teachers in learning new information about language, but in also “unlearning” harmful and oppressive ideas about language minoritized learners—work that is uncomfortable, challenging, and can even lead to identity crises (Kumashiro, 2001; 2015).

While this work is hard, it remains critically important for language minoritized learners (Ladson-Billings, 2013). The linguistic demands of the classroom, workplace, and civic engagement are increasing, and we have yet to pay off the economic, historic, and moral “education debts” accrued over centuries of injustice toward language minoritized learners (Ladson-Billings, 2006a; 2013). While debate and academic argument help educational researchers sharpen their ideas, it is also essential that we continue helping teachers do “the important work of synthesis” (Janks, 2000, p. 179) to support their enactment of equitable academic language instruction.

References

Accurso, K., Gebhard, M., & Purington, S. B. (2017). Analyzing diverse learners' writing in mathematics: Systemic functional linguistics in secondary pre-service teacher education. *International Journal for Mathematics Teaching and Learning*, *18*(1), 84–108.

Achugar, M., Schleppegrell, M., & Oteiza, T. (2007). Engaging teachers in language analysis: A functional linguistics approach to reflective literacy . *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, *6*(2), 8–24. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.anthro.30.1.109

Adair, J. K., Colegrove, K. S.-S., & McManus, M. E. (2017). How the word gap argument negatively impacts young children of Latinx immigrants' conceptualizations of learning. *Harvard Educational Review*, *87*(3), 309–334. https://doi.org/10.17763/1943-5045-87.3.309

Agha, A. (2004). Registers of language. In A. Duranti (Ed.), *A companion to linguistic anthropology* (pp. 23–45). Blackwell Publishing.

Alim, H. S. (2010). Critical language awareness. In N. H. Hornberger & S. L. McKay (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language education* (pp. 205–231). Multilingual Matters.

Alim, H. S., Rickford, J. R., & Ball, A. F. (2016). *Raciolinguistics: How language shapes our ideas about race*. Oxford University Press.

Bacon, C. K. (2017). Dichotomies, dialects, and deficits. *Literacy Research: Theory, Method, and Practice*, *66*(1), 341–357. https://doi.org/10.1177/2381336917719255

Bacon, C. K. (2018). "It's not really my job": A mixed methods framework for language

ideologies, monolingualism, and teaching emergent bilingual learners. *Journal of Teacher Education*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487118783188

Baker-Bell, A. (2020). Dismantling anti-black linguistic racism in English language arts classrooms. *Theory Into Practice*, *59*(1).

Biber, D., & Conrad, S. M. (2009). *Register, Genre, and Style*. Cambridge University Press.

Bourdieu, P. (1991). *Language and Symbolic Power*. Polity Press.

Bunch, G. C. (2013). Pedagogical language knowledge: Preparing mainstream teachers for English learners in the new standards era. *Review of Research in Education*, *37*(1), 298–341. https://doi.org/10.3102/0091732X12461772

Bunch, G. C. (2014). The language of ideas and the language of display: Reconceptualizing "Academic language" in linguistically diverse classrooms. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, *8*(1), 70–86. https://doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2014.852431

Bunch, G. C., Kibler, A., & Pimentel, S. (2012). *Realizing Opportunities for English Learners in the Common Core English Language Arts and Disciplinary Literacy Standards*. Paper Presented at the Understanding Language Conference, Stanford, CA. Retrieved from htpp://ell.stanford.edu/papers

Canagarajah, A. S. (2013). Negotiating translingual literacy : An enactment. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *48*(1), 40–67. https://doi.org/10.1002/jip.1464

Celic, C., & Seltzer, K. (2011). *Translanguaging: a CUNY-NYSIEB Guide for Educators*. http://www.nysieb.ws.gc.cuny.edu/files/2012/06/FINAL-Translanguaging-Guide-With-

Cover-1.pdf

Coady, M. R., & Escamilla, K. (2005). Audible voices, visible tongues: Exploring social realities in Spanish-speaking students' writing. *Language Arts*, *82*(6), 462–471.

Cohen, D. (2008). Knowledge and teaching. *Oxford Review of Edudcation, 34*(3), 357-378.

Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *Modern Language Journal*, *94*(1), 103–115. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00986.x

de Brey, C., Musu, L., McFarland, J., Wilkinson-Flicker, S., Diliberti, M., Zhang, A., Barnstetter, C., & Wang, X. (2019). *Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups 2018*. https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2019038

Delpit, L. D. (1988). The silenced dialogue: Power and pedagogy in educating other people's children. *Harvard Educational Review*, *58*(3), 280–298.

Dobbs, C. L. (2014). Signaling organization and stance: Academic language use in middle grade persuasive writing. *Reading and Writing*, *27*(8), 1327–1352. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-013-9489-5

Fairclough, N. (1989). *Language and Power* (2nd ed.). Pearson Education.

Flores, N. (2013, November 11). Where is bilingualism in the Common Core State Standards? https://educationallinguist.wordpress.com/2013/11/

Flores, N. (2016). Combatting marginalized spaces in education through language architecture. *Penn GSE Perspectives on Urban Education*, *13*(1), 1–3.

Flores, N. (2020). From academic language to language architecture: Challenging raciolinguistic ideologies in research and practice. *Theory Into Practice*, *59*(1).

Flores, N., & Rosa, J. (2015). Undoing appropriateness : Raciolinguistic ideologies and language diversity in education. *Harvard Educational Review*, *85*(2), 149–172. https://doi.org/10.17763/0017-8055.85.2.149

Galloway, E. P., Dobbs, C., Olivo, M., & Madigan, C. (2019). ‘You can…’: An examination of language-minoritized learners’ development of metalanguage and agency as users of academic language within a multivocal instructional approach. *Linguistics and Education*, *50*, 13–24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2019.01.002

García, O., & Sylvan, C. E. (2011). Pedagogies and practices in multilingual classrooms: Singularities in pluralities. *Modern Language Journal*, *95*(3), 385–400. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01208.x

Gebhard, M., & Harman, R. M. (2011). Reconsidering genre theory in K-12 schools: A response to school reforms in the United States. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *20*(1), 45–55. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2010.12.007

Gee, J. P. (2013). Reading as situated language: A sociocognitive perspective. In D. E. Alvermann, N. J. Unrau, & R. B. Ruddel (Eds.), *Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading* (6th ed., pp. 136–151). International Reading Association.

Godley, A. J., & Reaser, J. (2018). *Critical language pedagogy: Interrogating language, dialects, and power in teacher education*. Peter Lang.

Goodwin, A. P., & Jiménez, R. T. (2016). Translate. *The Reading Teacher*, *69*(6), 621–625. https://doi.org/10.1002/trtr.1400

Graff, G. (1999). The academic language gap. *The Clearing House*, *72*(3), 140–142. https://doi.org/10.1207/s1532690xci1602

Hammond, J., & Gibbons, P. (2005). Putting scaffolding to work: The contribution of scaffolding in articulating ESL education. *Prospectt*, *20*(1), 6–30.

Harman, R. M., & Khote, N. (2018). Critical SFL praxis with bilingual youth: Disciplinary instruction in a third space. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, *15*(1), 63–83. https://doi.org/10.1080/15427587.2017.1318663

Harry, B., Klingner, J. K., & Hart, J. (2005). African American families under fire: Ethnographic views of family strengths. *Remedial and Special Education*, *26*(2), 101–112. https://doi.org/10.1177/07419325050260020501

Heller, V., & Morek, M. (2015). Academic discourse as situated practice: An introduction. *Linguistics and Education*, *31*, 174–186. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2014.01.008

Henderson, R., & Hirst, E. (2007). Reframing academic literacy: Re-examining a short-course for “disadvantaged” tertiary students. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, *6*(2), 25–38. https://doi.org/Article

Janks, H. (2000). Domination, Access, Diversity and Design: A synthesis for critical literacy education. *Educational Review*, *52:2*(August 2015), 175–186. https://doi.org/10.1080/713664035

Janks, H. (2004). The Access Paradox. *English in Australia*, *12*(1), 33–42.

Jensen, B., & Thompson, G. A. (2020). Equity in teaching academic language—an interdisciplinary approach. *Theory into Practice*, *59*(1), 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2019.1665417

Key Shifts in Language Arts. (2016). Common Core State Standards Initiative. http://www.corestandards.org/other-resources/key-shifts-in-english-language-arts/

Klingner, J. K., & Harry, B. (2006). The special education referral and decision-making process for English language learners: Child study team meetings and placement conferences. *Teachers College Record*, *108*(11), 2247–2281. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9620.2006.00781.x

Kumashiro, K. (2001). "Posts" perspectives on anti-oppressive education in social studies, English, mathematics, and science classrooms. *Educational Researcher*, *30*(3), 3–12.

Kumashiro, K. (2015). *Against common sense: Teaching and learning toward social justice* (3rd ed.). Rutledge.

Ladson-Billings, G. (2006a). From the achievement gap to the education debt: Understanding achievement in U.S. schools. *Educational Researcher*, *35*(7), 3–12. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X035007003

Ladson-Billings, G. (2006b). "Yes, but how do we do it?" In *White Teachers / Diverse Classrooms* (pp. 29–42).

Ladson-Billings, G. (2013). " Stakes is high": Educating new century students. *Journal of Negro*

Education, *82*(2), 105–110. https://doi.org/10.7709/jnegroeducation.82.2.0105

Lampert, M. (2012). Improving teaching and teachers: A "generative dance"? *Journal of Teacher Education*, *63*(5), 361–367. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487112447111

Lea, M. R., & Street, B. V. (1998). Student writing in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*, *23*(2), 157. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079812331380364org/10.1080/03075079812331380364

Lippi-Green, R. (2012). *English with an Accent* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Lorde, A. (1984). The master's tools will never dismantle the master's house. In *Sister outsider: Essays and speeches by Audre Lorde* (pp. 110–113). https://doi.org/10.1177/0959353598081006

Macken-Horarik, M., Love, K., & Horarik, S. (2018). Rethinking grammar in language arts: Insights from an Australian survey of teachers' subject knowledge. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *52*(3), 288–316.

Macswan, J. (2018). Academic English as standard language ideology: A renewed research agenda for asset-based language education. *Language Teaching Research*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818777540

Martin-Beltrán, M. (2014). "What do you want to say?" How adolescents use translanguaging to expand learning opportunities. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, *8*(3), 208–230. https://doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2014.914372

Martin, J. R. (2009). Genre and language learning: A social semiotic perspective. *Linguistics and*

Education, *20*(1), 10–21. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2009.01.003

Martin, J. R. (2013). Embedded literacy: Knowledge as meaning. *Linguistics and Education*, *24*(1), 23–37. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2012.11.006

Martinez, R. A., & Mejia, A. F. (2020). Looking closely and listening carefully: A sociocultural approach to understanding the complexity of Latina/o/x students' everyday language. *Theory into Practice*, *59*(1).

Maton, K. (2013). Making semantic waves: A key to cumulative knowledge-building. *Linguistics and Education*, *24*(1), 8–22. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2012.11.005

Maton, K. (2014). A TALL order? Legitimation Code Theory for academic language and learning. *Journal of Academic Language & Learning*, *8*(3), 34–48.

Michael-Luna, S., & Canagarajah, A. S. (2008). Multilingual academic literacies : *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *4*(1), 55–77.

Milner, H. R. (2005). Stability and change in US prospective teachers' beliefs and decisions about diversity and learning to teach. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *21*(7), 767–786. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2005.05.010

Milner, H. R. (2014). Scripted and narrowed curriculum reform in urban schools. *Urban Education*, *49*(7), 743–749. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085914549685

Milner, H. R. (2017). Race, talk, opportunity gaps, and curriculum shifts in (teacher) education. *Literacy Research: Theory, Method, and Practice*, *66*, 238133691771880. https://doi.org/10.1177/2381336917718804

Moje, Elizabeth Birr. (2007). Developing socially just subject-matter instruction : A review of the literature. *Review of Research in Education*, *31*(March), 1–44. https://doi.org/10.3102/0091732X07300046

Moore, J., & Schleppegrell, M. J. (2020). A focus on disciplinary language: Bringing critical perspectives to reading and writing in science. *Theory Into Practice*, *59*(1).

Nagy, W. E., Townsend, D. R., Lesaux, N. K., & Schmitt, N. (2012). Words as tools: Learning academic vocabulary as language acquisition. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *47*(1), 91–108. https://doi.org/10.1002/RRQ.011

Ochs, E. (1990). Indexicality and socialization. In J. W. Stigler, R. A. Shweder, & G. Herdt (Eds.), *Cultural psychology: Essays on comparative human development* (pp. 287–307). https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410617316

Paris, D. (2012). Culturally sustaining pedagogy: A needed change in stance, terminology, and practice. *Educational Researcher*, *41*(3), 93–97. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X12441244

Paris, D., & Alim, H. S. (2014). What are we seeking to sustain through culturally sustaining pedagogy? A loving critique forward. *Harvard Educational Review*, *84*(1), 85–100. https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.84.1.982l873k2ht16m77

Phillips Galloway, E., Dobbs, C., Olivo, M., & Madigan, C. (2019). 'You can…': An examination of language-minoritized learners' development of metalanguage and agency as users of academic language within a multivocal instructional approach. *Linguistics and*

Education, 50, 13-24.

Phillips Galloway, E., McClain, J.B., & Uccelli, P. (2020). Broadening the lens on the science of reading: A multifaceted perspective on the role of academic language in text understanding. *Reading Research Quarterly, 55*(1), 331-345.

Phillips Galloway, E., Qin, W., Uccelli, P., & Barr, C. D. (2020). The role of cross-disciplinary academic language skills in disciplinary, source-based writing: Investigating the role of core academic language skills in science summarization for middle grade writers. In *Reading and Writing* (Vol. 33, Issue 1). https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-019-09942-x

Phillips Galloway, E., Uccelli, P., Aguilar, G., & Barr, C. D. (2020). Exploring the cross-linguistic contribution of Spanish and English academic language skills to English text comprehension for middle-grade dual language learners. *AERA Open*, *6*(1), 233285841989257. https://doi.org/10.1177/2332858419892575

Pierson, A. (2019). Modeling and modes: Broadening participation in science practices for emerging bilingual students. *Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning Conference, CSCL*, *2*(June), 668–671.

Puechner, S. (2017). Justice at the gate? Negotiating tensions between critical literacy and ‘culture of power’ pedagogies. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy, 61*(3), 327-330.

Reaser, J., Adger, C. T., Wolfram, W., & Christian, D. (2017). *Dialects at school: Educating linguistically diverse students*. Routledge.

Sharkey, J., & Layzer, C. (2000). Whose definition of success? Identifying factors that affect

English Language Learners' access to academic success and resources. *TESOL Quarterly*, *34*(2), 352–368.

Snow, C. E., & Uccelli, P. (2009). The challenges of academic language. *The Cambridge Handbook of Literacy*, *2009*, 112–133. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511609664.008

Soltero-Gonzalez, L., Escamilla, K., & Hopewell, S. (2012). Changing teachers' perceptions about the writing abilities of emerging bilingual students: Towards a holistic bilingual perspective on writing assessment. *The International Journal of Bingual Education and Bilingualism*, *15*(1), 71–94.

Townsend, D. (2015). Who's using the language? Supporting middle school students with content area academic language. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, *58*(5), 376–387. https://doi.org/10.1002/jaal.374

Townsend, D. R., Filippini, A. L., Collins, P., & Biancarosa, G. (2012). Evidence for the importance of academic word knoweldge for the academic achievement of diverse middle school students. *The Elementary School Journal*, *112*(3), 497–518.

Townsend, D. R., & Lapp, D. (2010). *Academic language, discourse communities, and technology: Building students' lingusitic resources.* Teacher Education Quarterly. http://teqjournal.org/onlineissue/media/TownsendLapp.mp3

Turkan, S., De Oliveira, L. C., Lee, O., & Phelps, G. (2014). Proposing a knowledge base for teaching academic content to English language learners: Disciplinary linguistic knowledge. *Teachers College Record*, *116*(030308), 1–30.

https://www.tcrecord.org/Content.asp?ContentID=17361

Uccelli, P., Barr, C. D., Dobbs, C. L., Phillips Galloway, E., Meneses, A., Sanchez, E., Phillips Galloway, E., Meneses, A., & Sanchez, E. (2014). Core Academic Language Skills (CALS): An expanded operational construct and a novel instrument to chart school-relevant language proficiency in pre-adolescent and adolescent learners. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *36*, 1–33. https://doi.org/10.1017/S014271641400006X

Uccelli, P., Dobbs, C. L., & Scott, J. (2013). Mastering academic language: Organization and stance in the persuasive writing of high school students. In *Written Communication* (Vol. 30, Issue 1). https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088312469013

Uccelli, P., Galloway, E. P., Barr, C. D., Meneses, A., & Dobbs, C. L. (2015). Beyond vocabulary: Exploring cross-disciplinary academic-language proficiency and its association with reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *50*(3), 337–356. https://doi.org/10.1002/rrq.104

Uccelli, P., & Phillips Galloway, E. (2016). Academic language across content areas: Lessons from an innovative assessment and from students' reflections about language. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, *60*, 395–404. https://doi.org/10.1002/jaal.553

Uccelli, P., Phillips Galloway, E., Aguilar, G., & Allen, M. (2020). Amplifying and affirming students' voices through CALS-informed instruction. *Theory Into Practice*, *59*(1).

Umansky, I. M. (2016). To be or not to be EL: An examination of the impact of classifying students as English Learners. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*,

0162373716664802. https://doi.org/10.3102/0162373716664802

Umanksy, I.M., Hopkins, M., & Dabach, D.B. (2020). Ideals and realities: An examination for the factors shaping newcomer programming in six U.S. school districts. *Leadership and Policy in Schools, 19*(1), 36-59.

van Lier, L., & Walqui, A. (2012). Language and the Common Core State Standards. In *Understanding Language* (pp. 44–51).

Velasco, P., & García, O. (2014). Translanguaging and the writing of bilingual learners. *Bilingual Research Journal*, *37*(1), 6–23. https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2014.893270

Viete, R., & Phan, H. (2007). The growth of voice: Expanding possibilities for representing self in research writing. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, *6*(2), 39–57.

Wong Fillmore, L., & Fillmore, C. (2012). *What does text complexity mean for English Learners and language minority students?* http://ell.stanford.edu/sites/default/files/pdf/academic-papers/06-LWF CJF Text Complexity FINAL_0.pdf

Woodard, R., & Kline, S. (2016). Lessons from sociocultural writing research for implementing the Common Core State Standards. *The Reading Teacher, 70*(2), 207-216.

Young, V. A. (2004). Your Average Nigga. *College Composition and Communication*, *55*(4), 693–715. https://doi.org/10.2307/4140667

Chapter 3: A Regression Analysis of Patterns and Predictors of Teachers' Academic Language Ideologies

Abstract

What teachers understand, believe, and value about language plays a critical role in how they enact instruction in their classrooms. Yet, studies of teachers' language ideologies, or socially constructed systems of knowledge and belief (Ahearn, 2012), remain largely absent in the literature regarding equitable academic language instruction with language minoritized learners. Using data collected from K-12 educators (N=152) with the researcher-designed *Teachers' Academic Language Ideologies* (TALI) survey, this pilot study utilizes principal component analysis to quantify heuristic patterns of academic language ideology, as well as multiple regession analysis to determine which sociodemographic variables predict those patterns. Findings suggest that teachers consider valuing academic language and valuing language diversity to be two distinct belief systems that are not mutually exclusive. In addition, findings from this study converge with previous findings that suggest teacher training shapes teachers' sense of self-efficacy teaching academic language, and experience with multilingual learners positively predicts teachers' value for linguistic diversity.

Introduction

In the past decade, curricular shifts under the Common Core State Standards initiative have emphasized the importance of academic language instruction for helping students access complex, rigorous texts (Bunch et al., 2012), as well as deepen students' conceptual understandings in academic disciplines (Moschkovich, 2012). During this the same time period, demographic shifts have dramatically changed the racial and linguistic composition of U.S. classrooms (de Brey et al., 2019). Approximately 25% of the school age population are children of immigrants (Lou & Lei, 2019), and nearly 5 million public school students are designated as English learners (de Brey, 2019). These shifts have prompted a greater need for linguistic responsiveness from all teachers, not just bilingual educators or English language specialists (Lucas & Villegas, 2010).

In their framework for the preparation of linguistically responsive teachers, Lucas and Villegas (2010) emphasize the importance of "identifying the language demands of classroom discourse and tasks" (p. 302), as well as scaffolding those demands to make rigorous instruction accessible for language minoritized learners –students who speak stigmatized dialects and languages frequently marginalized in classroom settings (Flores, 2016). In order to identify these demands, teachers need to be able to break down the morphological, lexical, syntactic, and discourse level linguistic features commonly found in disciplinary texts (Schleppegrell, 2004). The Core Academic Language Skills construct refers to a cross-disciplinary constellation of language forms and functions commonly found in school texts, including morphologically dense words, complex sentences with embedded clauses and nominalizations, connective discourse markers, discourse organization in the form of argument, and authoritative tone (CALS; Uccelli

et al., 2014; 2015). Studies utilizing the CALS measure demonstrate that while academic language manifests across different linguistic levels, CALS can be operationalized as a unitary construct (Barr et al., 2019). In addition, students' facility with academic language has been linked with increased achievement in reading comprehension (Uccelli & Phillips Galloway, 2016; Uccelli et al., 2014; 2015), writing summaries and academic arguments (Dobbs, 2014; Uccelli et al., 2013; Phillips Galloway et al., 2019), and disciplinary assessments of math, science, and social studies (Townsend et al., 2012).

In addition to unpacking the language demands of the classroom, Lucas and Villegas (2010) argue that linguistically responsive teachers must also value linguistic diversity. They must be willing to learn about students' backgrounds, and develop sociolinguistic consciousness—an understanding that "students' ways of expressing themselves and using language reflect cultural values, expectations, and members" and that "students cannot simply leave their home languages and dialects behind as they develop facility with the language of school" (p. 303). Paris (2012) pushes on terms like "responsive," arguing that they "do not explicitly enough support the linguistic and cultural dexterity and plurality necessary for success and access in our demographically changing U.S. and global schools and communities" (p. 95). Instead, he argues for culturally sustaining pedagogy, which "seeks to perpetuate and foster…linguistic, literate, and cultural pluralism as part of the democratic project of schooling" (p. 93).

While many argue that academic language instruction can also leverage and sustain linguistic pluralism (Cummins, 2017; Delpit, 1992; Uccelli et al., 2020), there are some who are concerned that instruction that simultaneously valorizes both academic language and linguistic

pluralism presents a dilemmatic ideology for teachers, who must then improvise as they navigate inherent tensions between polarized objectives (Jaspers, 2018). Others argue that academic language is an extension of hegemonic standard or monoglot language ideologies (Baker-Bell, 2020; Flores 2020; Flores & Rosa, 2015; MacSwan, 2018). Indeed, the role of academic language instruction in addressing racial and linguistic inequity in the classroom is widely debated in extant literature (Jensen and Thompson, 2020).

Teachers are key determiners for whether or not academic language instruction is enacted in equitable ways in classrooms. Yet, limited research attends specifically to their academic language ideologies, or their socially constructed systems of knowledge and belief about academic language (Ahearn, 2012), particularly as it those academic language ideologies relate to valuing linguistic diversity. In the theoretical framework that follows, I briefly synthesize extant research about teacher language ideologies and why they are relevant to current debates about equitable academic language instruction.

Literature Review

Teacher Language Ideologies: What are they and why do they matter?

Language ideologies are systems of belief and knowledge that are socially constructed through discourse – in more simple terms, language ideologies are the stories we tell each other and the explanations we give each other about what language is, why language varies, and whose language matters (Ahearn, 2012; Mirhousseini, 2018; Razfar & Rumenapp, 2012). Stemming from anthropological ethnographic research, the construct of language ideology centers on the ways beliefs are socially distributed and internalized as 'common sense' (Fairclough, 1989). However, in the teacher education literature, research on language ideology is also closely

related to quantitative, psychological research focused on “beliefs” (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Nespor, 1985; Pajares, 1992), “knowledge” (Fenstermacher, 1994; Shulman, 1986), “attitudes” (Byrnes & Kiger, 1994), or the umbrella term “cognition” (Borg, 2003).

Constructs like beliefs, knowledge, attitudes, and cognition attend more to the internal, individual development of systems of knowledge and belief about language (Borg, 2003) and language ideology attends more to the external, social development of systems of knowledge and belief about language (Ahearn, 2012). Yet, both cognitive and social research underscores the ways systems of knowledge and belief about language shape teacher instruction. The language ideologies teachers bring to linguistically diverse classrooms can conflict with the ideologies espoused by teacher educators, as well as ideologies implicit in curriculum and policy (Faltis & Valdéz, 2016). Indeed, “teacher preparation is a largely ideological endeavor” (Bacon, 2018, p. 3), therefore greater understanding of these ideologies is essential for the teacher educators charged with preparing teachers to enact equitable academic language instruction with language minoritized learners.

The Role of Values and Self-Efficacy in Teaching Academic Language

One area of research within literature regarding the relationship between teacher beliefs and teacher instruction links teacher values and self-efficacy to their instructional practices (Shahid & Thompson, 2001; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Modern Expectancy-Value Theory (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002) attempts to explain the relationship between an individual’s values and action while accounting for social context. Eccles and Wigfield (2002) argue that individuals draw upon their subjective personal experiences, including socially-constructed systems of belief, to assign a subjective value on an action or task based on the extent to which

that task confirms or disconfirms salient aspects of the individual's identity, brings the individual enjoyment, helps the individual meet future goals, and minimizes negative consequences for engagement.

While the construct of value captures whether an individual believes that an action is worth doing, the construct of self-efficacy focuses on an individual's belief that they are capable of performing that action (Eccles and Wigfield, 2002). Gibson and Dembo (1984) separate teaching efficacy into two inversely related constructs: personal teaching efficacy, which is the extent a teacher believes they are individually capable and competent at enacting particular components of their work, and general teaching efficacy, which addresses the extent to which teachers believe that their actions in the classroom contribute to student learning above and beyond other environmental factors, such as a students' home environment or student motivation. In comparison with teachers who demonstrate lower personal teaching efficacy, teachers with higher personal teaching efficacy have been found to invest more time and energy in their teaching, be more intentional in their planning, and be more open to modifying their practice to better meet the needs of their students (Tschannen-Moran, 2001).

In their mixed-methods study of secondary teachers' participation in a year-long professional learning program about academic language, Carter and colleagues (2017) found a reciprocal relationship between knowledge, value, and self-efficacy. As teachers gained knowledge about academic language, their value for professional learning about academic language increased. Teachers with greater knowledge demonstrated greater self-efficacy and greater willingness to persist in training and try new approaches (Carter et al., 2017). However, teacher value for academic language instruction was also moderated by external constraints, such

as limited time and the necessity to cover broad content objectives rather than attending to fewer objectives in depth (Carter et al., 2017). In terms of Modern Expectancy-Value theory (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002), the costs associated with introducing new instructional practices, as well as the limitations of the new practices for helping teachers meet goals —such as student success on Advanced Placement exams —may have hindered teacher value for academic language (Carter et al., 2017).

Neugebauer and Heineke (2020) utilized the Academic Language Teaching Efficacy Scale and the Importance of Academic Language Subscale to measure the extent to which K-12 teachers in one midwestern school district (N=332) value academic language, their personal teaching efficacy for academic language, and their general teaching efficacy for academic language. On average, teacher participants in their study agreed that academic language is important and expressed relatively high personal self-efficacy with teaching academic language. In addition, teachers with a bilingual endorsement reported higher value for academic language and higher self-efficacy teaching academic language (Neugebauer & Heineke, 2020).

The reciprocal relationship between knowledge and self-efficacy is also supported by Siwatu's (2011) mixed methods study of undergraduate students majoring in elementary, middle, and secondary education (N=192), which measured preservice teachers' self-efficacy with culturally responsive teaching. He found that in his sample, teachers with higher self-efficacy beliefs had participated in more discussions about the theory and practice of culturally responsive teaching than teachers with lower self-efficacy beliefs regarding culturally responsive teaching (Siwatu, 2011). In addition, experience observing a teacher and opportunities to personally practice implementing culturally responsive teaching assisted preservice teachers in

their development of higher self-efficacy (Siwatu, 2011). However, teachers have expressed greater self-efficacy with responding to cultural difference than linguistic difference in the classroom (Siwatu, 2007). In the next section, I will discuss previous research on teachers' attitudes toward linguistic diversity more specifically.

Teachers' Attitudes Toward Linguistic Diversity

Extant measures of teachers' attitudes toward linguistic diversity typically either address teachers' attitudes toward multilingualism or teachers' attitudes towards dialect diversity. Byrnes and colleagues (Byrnes & Kiger, 1994; Byrnes, Kiger, & Manning, 1996, 1997) and the subsequent studies that built off of their work (Flores & Smith, 2009; Youngs & Youngs, 2001) have focused on K-12 teachers' attitudes about multilingualism. Byrnes et al. (1994) developed the *Language Attitudes Teaching Scale* (*LATS*) as a means of exploring the relationship between tolerance toward linguistic diversity and education level, cognitive complexity, psychological insecurity, and geographic region (1996), as well as the relationship between formal training in second-language learning, graduate education, and grade level taught (1997). They found that level of graduate education, amount of training in second language acquisition, geographic region, and experience working with language minoritized children were positively correlated with language attitudes (1997).

Flores and Smith (2009) also used the *LATS* to survey K-12 teachers in south Texas (N=564), a region which allowed them to examine the relationships between language attitude and other teacher characteristics that were not explored in earlier studies: ethnicity (their sample was 41% Hispanic) and bilingualism (their sample was 45% bilingual), in addition to the extent of diversity training and "purposeful experiences with ELLs" (p. 323). They found that "language

ability and diversity preparation may be stronger mediating factors" than ethnicity (p. 349). They argue that diversity training is important for all teachers, not just white teachers.

The earliest measure of teachers' attitude toward dialect diversity is Taylor's *Language Attitude Scale* (*LAS*, 1973), which drew upon a national sample of K-12 teachers (N=422) and was designed to detect teachers' bias toward speakers of non-standard dialects. *LAS* was later adopted by Ford (1978), who found that most of the preservice teachers in his sample (N=472) drawn from universities across the U.S. did not believe "that varieties of nonstandard English are legitimate in their own right" (p. 388). Nearly two decades later, Bowie and Bond (1994) administered the *LAS* and found a similar pattern among the pre-service teachers in their sample (N=75): participants reified stereotypes of African American English (AAE) as broken English brought about by carelessness rather than cultural difference.

Similar to the LAS, *The Language Knowledge and Awareness Scale* (*LKAS*, Smitherman & Villanueva, 2000) measured teacher attitudes toward dialect diversity, but also collected data about coursework and other teacher characteristics that may shape teachers' attitudes. A project of the National Council of Teachers of English and Conference of College Composition and Communication, this survey sampled 983 teachers who were also members of these professional organizations, ranging from kindergarten teachers to college professors. They found that teachers who had formal courses on dialect diversity were more likely to evidence positive attitudes toward dialect diversity.

Most recently, Metz (2019) drew items from the *LAS* and the *LKAS*, as well as from a measure he developed previously, to create a survey of teachers' language ideology concerning dialect difference. His sample included 310 secondary teachers in Missouri who, like the national

teacher demographics, were mostly white and female. He found that the teachers in his sample expressed individual beliefs that supported dialect diversity, but they felt the need to teach students to use standard language because the greater society still discriminates against dialect speakers. Like Smitherman and Villanueva (2000), Metz (2019) found that coursework in linguistics positively predicted positive attitudes toward dialect diversity.

While previous research has explored teachers' self-efficacy and value toward academic language or teachers' value for language diversity, none to my knowledge have documented the relationship between the two as part of K-12 teachers' greater academic language ideology. In this study, I thus address the following research questions: What are the heuristic patterns of academic language ideology found among K-12 educators in the United States? What, if any, is the relationship between valuing academic language and valuing linguistic diversity? What demographic factors predict those patterns and potential relationships?

Methods

Survey Development

The pilot survey of Teachers' Academic Language Ideology (TALI) drew items from other surveys of self-efficacy and language belief (Duguay et al., 2016; Mancilla-Martinez & Lesaux, 2014; Neugebauer & Heineke, 2020). I revised some items and supplemented others to attend more specifically to aspects of belief about academic language that extant literature emphasizes as important. The initial pilot included 4 sections: 1) 60 Likert Scale items addressing beliefs about academic language and academic language instruction; 2) one forced rank item in which teachers selected which factors they felt were most relevant for students' access to academic language; 3) two open response items in which teachers defined academic

language and offered advice to a hypothetical colleague about how to best teach academic language and 4) several open response and multiple choice questions collecting demographic information. Earlier qualitative analysis focused on short response and forced rank items (McClain & Phillips Galloway, under review). Because this analysis is quantitative, it attends specifically to the categorical demographic and Likert Scale subsections of the TALI. The Likert scale items were arranged on a scale of 1-6 (1 = strongly disagree to 6 = strongly agree) to minimize the possibility of neutral response. Demographic items were largely short response, allowing teachers to self-identify categories such as race, ethnicity, language background, and gender. After initially drafting the pilot, I shared it with a small but diverse group (n=8) of K-12 teachers as well as teacher educators to establish face validity for the instrument and made subsequent revisions based on their feedback.

Data Collection

I collected and managed study data with REDCap (Research Electronic Data Capture), a secure, web-based application hosted at my institution designed to support anonymous digital data collection (Harris et al., 2009). The TALI pilot was distributed through email and social media to alumni and professional organization networks, requesting that anyone who received the survey also distribute it to peers in their networks (i.e. snowball sampling, Noy, 2008). The online survey remained open from May to July of 2018. Of the 200 participants who completed some portion of the TALI pilot, 44 were excluded because they either did not identify their position in the classroom or indicated that they were working in education-related positions (i.e. professors, consultants, or school board members, but were not currently PK-12 educators (including classroom teachers, specialists, instructional coaches, or administrators). Of the

remaining 156 participants, 152 (97%) completed all of the Likert scale items and were included in the analysis. The demographic variables found in our sample were relatively consistent with the national teacher population (see Table 2). Latinx teachers were underrepresented in the sample, and teachers from the South and Northeast were over-represented. This may be due to snowball sampling, as we utilized alumni networks in the South and Northeast regions of the U.S. In addition, our sample had slightly higher education levels and slightly less experience than the national teacher population, which may be due to distribution through professional and alumni networks, as well.

Table 2

Comparison of Sample Demographic Information with the National Teacher Population and the National General Population

Demographic Variable	Sample of Participants	National Teacher Population*	National General Population**
Race			
White	78%	79%	60.1%
Black	6%	7%	13.4%
Latinx	2%	9%	18.5%
Other	4%	5%	8.0%
Gender			
Male	12%	24%	49.2%
Female	88%	76%	50.8%
Geographic Location			
South	52%	N.D.	38.1%
Midwest	17%	N.D.	20.9%
West/Southwest	8%	N.D.	23.8%
Northeast	23%	N.D.	17.2%
Education & Experience			
Bachelor's Degree	35%	42%	N.D.
Post Baccalaureate	65%	58%	N.D.
10+ Years of Experience	52%	63%	N.D.

*https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_clr.asp
**https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/fact/table/US/PST045219

Participants were distributed across grade levels: 16% taught in PK-4 classrooms, 16% in 5-8 classrooms, 22% in 9-12 classrooms, 6% taught related arts, and 39% were administrators or specialists (i.e. English language specialists, literacy specialists, academic interventionists, instructional coaches). In terms of language background, 34% reported proficiency in languages other than English, 62% reported no proficiency in languages other than English, and 4% did not respond. In terms of school contexts, approximately half of the teachers in the sample (48%) reported working in schools with greater than 30% of students designated as English learners. This is surprising, given that nation-wide, only 9.9% of students in U.S. public schools have an English learner designation (de Brey et al., 2019). In addition, approximately half of the teachers in the sample (51%) reported working in schools with greater than 30% of students designated as socioeconomically disadvantaged. In comparison, only 18% of students in K-12 U.S. public school are from families living in poverty (de Brey et al., 2019) Forty-seven percent of teachers in the sample reported working at urban schools, 42% at suburban schools, and 11% at rural schools. Nearly all participants (92%) worked in public schools, with a small representation from charter (4%) and independent (4%) schools.

Data Analysis

To address RQ 1, I utilized an iterative and recursive process to reduce the piloted Likert scale items from 60 to 23, relying on principal component analysis (PCA) and theoretical conceptual grouping to eliminate ambiguous items and group the remaining items around common underlying constructs, or latent variables (DeVellis, 2016). I utilized the PROC FACTOR statement in the university edition of SAS© 9.4 to run the analyses. The final analysis

yielded four factors. In the findings section, I elaborate further on the processes used in PCA and the results of the final analysis. Three of the four factors had items which loaded negatively, so I reversed the data in those items before converting each of the four factors identified in the PCA to a sub-scale. This simplified descriptive analysis of heuristic patterns of teacher beliefs. In order to ensure the internal consistency for each subscale, I calculated Cronbach's alpha, which measures the equivalence of the subscale by splitting the participants into two random groups and comparing average responses across the two groups (Taber, 2018).

To address RQ2, I utilized multiple regression to estimate how changes in each isolated demographic characteristic predicted changes in each language ideology subscale (Cohen et al., 2003). I utilized the PROC REG statement in the university edition of SAS© 9.4 to run the analysis. In this analysis, I converted eight categorical demographic items into dummy variables, utilizing the groups that comprised the largest proportion of the sample as reference groups (i.e. white, monolingual, female, Southern, urban, administrator or specialist, bachelor degree, no ELL/bilingual certification) (Cohen et al., 2003). I then ran four models with these 8 categorical variables as predictors; one with each belief subscale as an outcome. The unstandardized parameter estimates (i.e. beta weights) drawn from multiple regression analysis can be used to predict variable outcomes on heuristic patterns of belief based on demographic variables. For example, if participants score 3 on average, indicating slight disagreement on a belief subscale, adding a beta weight of 1 for teachers with a particular demographic designation would increase the predicted score for that subgroup of teachers to 4, indicating slight agreement.

Findings

Initial rounds of principal components analysis were used to reduce the 60 items on the TALI pilot to 23 items, which coalesced around four strong underlying latent constructs that influenced participants' responses to survey items--constructs that are also supported in extant literature: *valuing academic language, concerns about student motivation, self-efficacy teaching academic language, and valuing linguistic diversity* (see Table 3 for individual factor loadings). One item, "rigorous standards on academic language set culturally and linguistically diverse students up to fail," loaded onto two factors: negatively onto *valuing academic language*, and positively onto *concerns about student motivation*. I reversed items that loaded negatively onto factors, then calculated averaged participants' responses across items in each latent construct to create composite variables. I then used the composite variables as subscales for descriptive multiple regression analyses (see Tables 4 & 5).

Five items coalesced positively around a general *value for academic language:* that it is important to model academic language use when teaching and that students need to learn how to use it (see Table 3). In addition, one item loaded negatively, indicating disagreement that academic language standards set students up to fail. This subscale demonstrated good internal consistency (alpha=0.83). On average, teachers tended to agree with the belief that academic language is valuable (Table 4). A score of 5 indicates "agree", and the group mean score on this subscale was 4.77. This subscale had a standard deviation of 0.74, which means that teachers responses were likely to fall between "slightly agree" and "agree" (see Figure 1), indicating variable intensity in participants' regard for the importance of academic language. Multiple regression analysis revealed that holding all other characteristics constant, secondary and related

arts teachers had significantly weaker intensity in their responses. In other words, they were likely to answer “slightly agree” as opposed to “agree” on items that expressed a value for academic language.

The second subscale, *concerns about student motivation,* consisted of five items that expressed that academic language instruction was boring, frustrating, or disengaging, as well as one item that loaded negatively onto the factor, indicating disagreement with the statement that academic language was enjoyable (Table 3). This subscale also demonstrated good internal consistency (alpha=0.85). On average, teachers tended to slightly disagree with items on this subscale. A score of “3” indicates slight disagreement, and the average across participants was 2.84. This subscale had a standard deviation of 0.83, which means that teachers responses were likely to fall between “disagree” and a neutral response (see Figure 1), indicating ambivalence regarding concerns about student motivation. This factor also had the greatest number of statistically significant demographic predictors: male teachers, secondary teachers, and related arts teachers all tended to respond more neutrally to items expressing concern about student motivation, whereas teachers in the West and Southwest tended to disagree (see Table 5).

Table 3
Results of the Principle Components Analysis (PCA)

Variables and Composite Variables	Loadings
Subscale 1- Valuing academic language (AL)	*(alpha=0.83)*
Good teachers use high quality AL while they teach.	0.82
Teachers should use AL when instructing students whenever possible.	0.81
It is very important to me to use high quality AL in my classroom.	0.79
In comparison to other instructional practices I use in my classroom, it is very important for me to use AL.	0.58
To be successful in life, students need to know how to use AL.	0.50
Rigorous standards on academic language set culturally and linguistically diverse students up to fail. ˇ *	-0.45
Subscale 2- Concerns about student motivation	*(alpha=0.85)*
Most of the culturally and linguistically diverse students in my classroom find AL instruction boring.	0.84
AL instruction is frustrating for the culturally and linguistically diverse learners in my classroom.	0.76
The culturally and linguistically diverse students in my class disengage when I teach AL.	0.70
Most children are not motivated to learn AL.	0.63
Rigorous standards on academic language set culturally and linguistically diverse students up to fail. ˇ	0.59
The culturally and linguistically diverse learners in my classroom enjoy my lessons on AL.*	-0.72
Subscale 3-Self-efficacy teaching academic language	*(alpha=0.73)*
If a student is having difficulty with learning AL, I would have no trouble adjusting to his/her level.	0.78
I am able to accurately assess whether the language demands of the assignment are at the correct level of difficulty.	0.72
I can effectively scaffold the culturally and linguistically diverse learners in my class in writing an academic argument.	0.70
If a student did not remember what I taught in a previous lesson about AL, I would know how to increase his/her retention in the next lesson.	0.62
I know how to use students' home languages and dialects to help them understand AL.	0.52
Subscale 4 – Valuing Language Diversity	*(alpha=0.79)*
It is helpful to children's literacy development to use the home language or dialect with adults and others in their community, even if that language is not Standard English.	0.72
It's ok for students to use non-standard language to explain ideas in my classroom.	0.67
In the classroom, it is important to value ways of communicating that are not academic.	0.62
Dialects such as AAVE (African American Vernacular English) and SAE (Southern American English) are valid forms of the English language.	0.59
Allowing students to misspell words reinforces bad habits.*	-0.67
Students must learn to write with grammatical accuracy before they can express complex ideas.*	-0.60
It is essential that students always use Standard English in their writing.*	-0.76

Notes: Subscale factors extracted via principle component analysis with orthogonal transformation.
ˇitem cross loaded onto two separate factors: negatively on valuing academic language and positively on concerns about student motivation
*items were reversed when calculating Cronbach's alpha, descriptive statistics, and regressions.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Subscales of Teachers' Language Beliefs

Subscale	Mean	SD
Valuing academic language	4.77	0.74
Concerns about student motivation	2.83	0.83
Self-efficacy teaching academic language	4.28	0.77
Valuing language diversity	4.89	0.67

Table 5

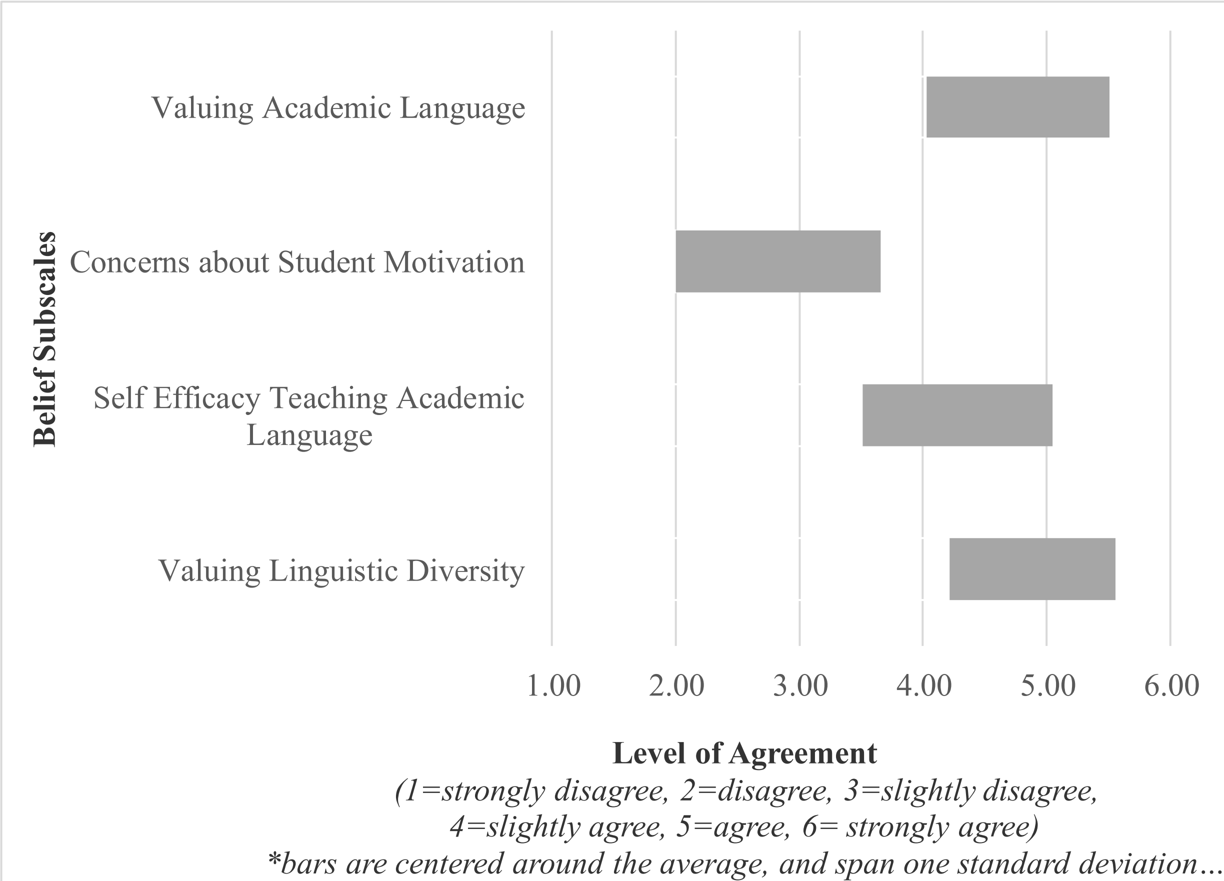
Unstandardized Parameter Estimates (B) of Multiple Regression Analysis for Each Subscale

Predictor Variable	Valuing Academic Language	Concerns about Student Motivation	Self-Efficacy Teaching Academic Language	Valuing Language Diversity
Teacher Characteristics				
Person of Color	0.20	-0.32	0.25	-0.29
Bilingual	0.03	-0.16	0.14	0.22
Male	-0.37	0.51*	0.05	0.00
School Characteristics				
Midwest	-0.33	0.09	0.10	0.03
West/Southwest	-0.01	-0.68*	0.10	0.65**
Northeast	0.01	-0.25	0.11	-0.14
Suburban	0.05	0.32	-0.12	-0.61**
Rural	0.06	-0.09	-0.04	-0.06
Teacher Role				
Elementary	-0.02	0.26	0.03	0.07
Secondary	-0.31*	0.59**	-0.14	0.00
Related Arts	-0.69**	0.64*	-0.17	-0.11
Teacher Training				
Master's Deg.	0.13	-0.12	0.21	0.17
Doctoral Deg.	0.33	0.24	0.64*	0.09
Bilingual or ELL Cert.	0.24	-0.23	0.37*	-0.07

Notes: $*p < 0.05$; $**p < 0.01$

Figure 1

Teachers' Average Level of Agreement with Belief Subscales



The five items that comprise the third subscale, *self-efficacy teaching academic language,* all relate to teachers sense that they can teach academic language effectively: that they can appropriately assess a students' ability to access the language demands of an assignment and scaffold students' use of academic language. This subscale demonstrated acceptable internal

consistency (alpha=0.73). On average, teachers tended to slightly agree with items on this subscale, (M=4.28). This subscale had a standard deviation of 0.77, which means that teachers responses were likely to fall between a neutral response and "agree" (see Figure 1), indicating ambivalence in teachers' response to items about their sense of self-efficacy. According to the multiple regression analysis, teachers with a doctoral degree and teachers with ELL or bilingual certification had significantly higher agreement with statements regarding their self-efficacy teaching academic language than teachers who did not share those credentials.

Seven items loaded onto the fourth subscale, *value for language diversity.* which indicates a belief that dialects and languages other than English are valid and valuable resources for learning (see Table 3). Interestingly, the items on this subscale were quantitatively polarized, suggesting that the four items which load positively and the three items that load negatively are conceptually on opposite ends of the same underlying construct. The positive items indicated agreement with statements explicitly valuing the utility of non-standard language for learning, while the negative items indicated disagreement with statements emphasizing the use of standard language conventions in writing. This subscale demonstrated acceptable internal consistency (alpha=0.79). Like the *value for academic language*, on average, participants expressed a strong value for language diversity (M=4.89). This subscale had a standard deviation of 0.67, which means that teachers responses were likely to fall between "slightly agree" and "strongly agree" (see Figure 1), indicating variable intensity in participants' regard for the importance of language diversity. Multiple regression analysis revealed that teachers in the West and Southwest were more likely to strongly agree with items that expressed a value for language diversity, while teachers working in suburban schools were more likely to only slightly agree (see Table 5).

Discussion

Given the scant literature focused specifically on teachers' academic language ideology, this review contributes to identifying general heuristic patterns of academic language ideology among K-12 teachers in the U.S. who are facing increasing linguistic demands in the classroom. The findings suggest that, in general, teachers simultaneously express a value for both academic language and language diversity, and do not see those two ideologies as mutually exclusive. In contrast, standard language ideology was conceptually and numerically expressed as the opposite of valuing language diversity. This suggests that many teachers' academic language ideologies operationalize standard language as distinct from academic language.

Results of this study reveal that teachers in the West and Southwest, who have historically served greater numbers of multilingual students, had a stronger value for language diversity. This is consistent with previous studies that suggest that experience working with multilingual students increase teacher openness to linguistic diversity (Byrnes et al., 1997; Youngs & Youngs, 2001). In contrast, teachers who worked in suburban schools, though still expressing a value for linguistic diversity, tended to only slightly agree.

In general, teachers demonstrated positive self-efficacy regarding their ability to effectively teach academic language with language minoritized learners, and teachers with more training (doctoral degree) or specialized training to work with language minoritized learners (ELL or bilingual certification) demonstrated an even stronger sense of self-efficacy than their peers with a master's or bachelor's degree only. This finding is consistent with Neugebauer and Heineke's (2020) findings that specialized training increased teachers' self-efficacy teaching academic language.

There are also interesting developmental shifts suggested by the data. Secondary and related arts teachers valued academic language less than their counterparts. Perhaps their focus on disciplinary content standards may make it more challenging to embrace language and literacy instruction (Carter et al., 2016, Spitler, 2011). Likewise, secondary and related arts teachers, as well as male teachers, were more likely to express concerns regarding student motivation to engage in academic language. While greater attention to student motivation may be a sign that these teachers are less confident that their teaching will have an impact on student learning (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), it may also reflect an increased sociopolitical awareness of the ways academic language relates to adolescent identity formation (Heller & Morek, 2015).

While surveys are helpful for understanding general patterns of belief among the teacher population and can be used to support teacher educators as they design professional learning toward more equitable academic language instruction, there are some limitations of surveys that need to be addressed. For one, the findings in research exploring the relationship between dimensions of teacher ideologies and classroom practice are divergent. While some studies have demonstrated how beliefs and ideology are later enacted in instruction (Rader-Brown & Howley, 2014; Razfar & Rumenapp, 2012), others suggest a disconnect between what teachers say they believe and what they actually do in the classroom (Carley Rizzuto, 2017; Coady et al., 2016; Hedrick et al., 2004).

Importantly, a trend in extant literature suggests that teachers are more likely to adopt practices that are deemed as "good instruction" for LM and general learners alike, rather than enacting language based differentiation strategies shown to help LM learners specifically (Coady

et al., 2016; Rader-Brown & Howley, 2014). Likewise, even teachers who espouse building off students' language resources rarely gave students the opportunity to speak in any language or dialect other than standard English in the classroom (Coady et al., 2016; Rader-Brown & Howley, 2014; Razfar & Rumenapp, 2012). Through the lens of Modern Expectancy-Value Theory (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002), it may be that teachers express a value for linguistic diversity because it reifies their identity as an equitable teacher, but implementing instruction that makes space for dialects or languages other than English does not help them achieve the goals set forward by their employers (i.e. it's not measured on accountability tests). Further, in cases with explicit English-only policies, instruction that intentionally leverages languages other than English may present a steep cost. In other words, implementing instruction that explicitly values language diversity may not yet be adequately supported or incentivized for many PK-12 teachers in U.S. schools.

In addition to the mismatch between self-reported beliefs and actual classroom practice, in their efforts to establish clear factors for identifying patterns, surveys may reduce the complexity inherent in the tensions of teaching—tensions which may be valuable for supporting teacher learning (Dunn et al., 2018). Given findings from studies on language ideology that emphasize their contextualized, fluid, and performative nature (Bacon, 2018), qualitative research may be helpful for understanding how language ideologies are socially constructed, enacted, and incentivized in teachers' daily work.

These limitations notwithstanding, this study makes an important contribution to research on teachers' academic language ideologies. Language ideologies are resources for teacher sensemaking about their instruction (Bacon, 2018). Therefore, it is helpful for teacher educators

to understand the prevalence of particular patterns of academic language ideology that may need to be deconstructed or leveraged to support the uptake and enactment of more equitable academic language instruction with language minoritized students. It is promising that most teachers in this study espoused a value for language diversity and disagreed with statements valuing standard language, while simultaneously expressing a value for and positive sense of self-efficacy for teaching academic language. Future studies linking the TALI to teacher practices and student outcomes could play an important next step in understanding the link between academic language ideologies, academic language instruction, and academic achievement.

References

Ahearn, L. M. (2012). *Living language: An introduction to linguistic anthropology*. Wiley-Blackwell.

Bacon, C. K. (2018). "It's not really my job": A mixed methods framework for language ideologies, monolingualism, and teaching emergent bilingual learners. *Journal of Teacher Education*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487118783188

Baker-Bell, A. (2020). Dismantling anti-black linguistic racism in English language arts classrooms. *Theory Into Practice*, *59*(1).

Barr, C. D., Uccelli, P., & Phillips Galloway, E. (2019). Specifying the academic language skills that support text understanding in the middle grades: The design and validation of the Core Academic Language Skills construct and instrument. *Language Learning*, *69*(4), 978–1021. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12365

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, *36*(2), 81–109. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444803001903

Bowie, R.L. and Bond, C.L. (1994). Influencing future teachers' attitudes toward black English: Are we making a difference? *Journal of Teacher Education,* 45(2), 112-118. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487194045002005

Bunch, G. C., Kibler, A., & Pimentel, S. (2012). *Realizing Opportunities for English Learners in the Common Core English Language Arts and Disciplinary Literacy Standards*. Paper

Presented at the Understanding Language Conference, Stanford, CA. Retrieved from htpp://ell.stanford.edu/papers

Byrnes, D. A., & Kiger, G. (1994). Language Attitudes of Teachers Scale (LATS). *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *54*(1), 227–231.

Byrnes, D. A., Kiger, G., & Manning, L. (1996). Social psychological correlates of teachers language attitudes. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *26*(5), 455–467.

Byrnes, D. A., Kiger, G., & Manning, M. L. (1997). Teachers' attitudes about language diversity. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *13*(6), 637–644.

Carley Rizzuto, K. (2017). Teachers' perceptions of ELL students: Do their attitudes shape their instruction? *Teacher Educator*, *52*(3), 182–202. https://doi.org/10.1080/08878730.2017.1296912

Carter, H., Crowley, K., Townsend, D., & Barone, D. (2016). Secondary teachers' reflections from a year of professional learning related to academic language. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy, 60*, 325–34. https://doi.org/10.1002/jaal.554

Coady, M. R., Harper, C., & de Jong, E. J. (2016). Aiming for equity: Preparing mainstream teachers for inclusion or inclusive classrooms? *TESOL Quarterly*, *50*(2), 340–368. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.223

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S.G., & Aiken, L.S. (2003). Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences, third edition. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates.

Cummins, J. (2017) Teaching minoritized students: Are additive approaches legitimate? *Harvard Educational Review, 87*(3), 404-426.

de Brey, C., Musu, L., McFarland, J., Wilkinson-Flicker, S., Diliberti, M., Zhang, A., Barnstetter, C., & Wang, X. (2019). *Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups 2018*. https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2019038

DeVellis, R.F. (2016). Scale development: Theory and applications. Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Delpit, L. (1992). Acquisition of literate discourse: Bowing before the master? *Theory into Practice 31*(4), 296-302.

Dobbs, C. L. (2014). Signaling organization and stance: Academic language use in middle grade persuasive writing. *Reading and Writing*, *27*(8), 1327–1352. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-013-9489-5

Duguay, A., Kenyon, D., Haynes, E., August, D., & Yanosky, T. (2016). Measuring teachers' knowledge of vocabulary development and instruction. *Reading and Writing*, *29*(2), 321–347. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-015-9598-4

Dunn, M. B., Van Der Heide, J., Caughlan, S., Northrop, L., Zhang, Y., & Kelly, S. (2018). Tensions in learning to teach English. *English Teaching*, *17*(1), 44–56. https://doi.org/10.1108/ETPC-04-2017-0039

Eccles, J. S., & Wigfield, A. (2002). Motivational beliefs, values, and goals. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *53*, 109–132.

Fairclough, N. (1989). *Language and Power* (2nd ed.). Pearson Education.

Fenstermacher, G. D. (1994). The knower and the known: The nature of knowledge in research on teaching. *Review of Research on Education*, *20*, 3–56.

Flores, B. B., & Smith, H. L. (2009). Teachers' characteristics and attitudinal beliefs about linguistic and cultural diversity. *Bilingual Research Journal*, *31*(1), 323–358. https://doi.org/10.1080/15235880802640789

Flores, N. (2020). From academic language to language architecture: Challenging raciolinguistic ideologies in research and practice. *Theory Into Practice*, *59*(1).

Flores, N., & Rosa, J. (2015). Undoing appropriateness : Raciolinguistic ideologies and language diversity in education. *Harvard Educational Review*, *85*(2), 149–172. https://doi.org/10.17763/0017-8055.85.2.149

Flores, N. (2016). Combatting marginalized spaces in education through language architecture. *Penn GSE Perspectives on Urban Education*, *13*(1), 1–3.

Ford, J.F. (1978). The prospective foreign language teacher and the culturally and linguistically different learner. *Foreign Language Annals, 11*(4), 381-390. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1978.tb00053.x

Freeman, D., & Johnson, K. (1998). Reconceptualizing the knowledge-base of language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, *32*(3), 397–417. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588114

Gibson, S. & Dembo, M. (1984). Teacher efficacy: A construct validation. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 76,* 569-582. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.76.4.569

Harris, P. A., Taylor, R., Thielke, R., Payne, J., Gonzalez, N., & Conde, J. G. (2009). Research electronic data capture (REDCap)--A metadata-driven methodology and workflow process for providing translational research informatics support. *Journal of Biomedical Information*, *42*(2), 377–381.

Hedrick, W. B., Harmon, J. M., & Linerode, P. M. (2004). Teachers' beliefs and practices of vocabulary instruction with social studies textbooks in grades 4-8. *Reading Horizon*, *45*(2), 103–125.

Heller, V., & Morek, M. (2015). Academic discourse as situated practice: An introduction. *Linguistics and Education*, *31*, 174–186. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2014.01.008

Jaspers, J. (2018). The transformative limits of translanguaging. *Language and Communication*, *58*, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.langcom.2017.12.001

Jensen, B., & Thompson, G. A. (2020). Equity in teaching academic language—an interdisciplinary approach. *Theory into Practice*, *59*(1), 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2019.1665417

Lou, C., & Lei, S. (2019). *Part of us: A data-driven look at children of immigrants*. Urban Institute. https://www.urban.org/features/part-us-data-driven-look-children-immigrants?fbclid=IwAR2u4sxKsnqvB3g4cP3ciIT4blLgdp7uX4lHnS3EcqVsy8xwFdPwW3C2Wek

Lucas, T., & Villegas, A. M. (2010). The missing piece in teacher education: The preparation of linguistically responsive teachers. *Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, *109*(2), 297–318.

Machado, E., Woodard, R., Vaughan, A., & Coppola, R. (2018). Teaching grammar while valuing language diversity: Urban teachers navigating linguistic ideological dilemmas. *Literacy Research, Practice, and Evaluation*, *8*(1), 37–53. https://doi.org/10.1108/S2048-045820170000008003

MacSwan, J. (2018). Academic English as standard language ideology: A renewed research agenda for asset- based language education. *Language Teaching Research*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818777540

Mancilla-Martinez, J. & Lesaux, N.K. (2014). Spanish-speaking parents' beliefs about their young children's learning and language development. *NHSA Dialog, 17*(1), 1-19.

McClain, J.B. & Phillips Galloway, E. (under review). Valuing both proficiency and pluralism: An exploratory mixed-methods investigation of teachers' ideologies about academic language.

Metz, M. (2019). Accommodating linguistic prejudice? Examining English teachers' language ideologies. *English Teaching: Practice & Critique*. https://doi.org/10.1108/ETPC-09-2018-0081

Mirhosseini, S. A. (2018). Issues of ideology in English language education worldwide: an overview. *Pedagogy, Culture and Society*, *26*(1), 19–33. https://doi.org/10.1080/14681366.2017.1318415

Moschkovich, J. (2012). *Mathematics, the Common Core, and language: Recommendations for mathematics instruction for ELs aligned with the Common Core.* Paper Presented at the Understanding Language Conference, Stanford, CA. htpp://ell.stanford.edu/papers.

Nespor, J. K. (1985). *The Role of Beliefs in the Practice of Teaching: Final Report of the Teacher Beliefs Study*.

Neugebauer, S. R., & Heineke, A. (2020). Unpacking K-12 teachers' understandings of Academic Language. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 1–36.

Noy, C. (2008). Sampling knowledge: The hermeneutics of snowball sampling in qualitative research. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, *11*(4), 327–344. https://doi.org/10.1080/13645570701401305

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, *62*(3), 307–332. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543062003307

Paris, D. (2012). Culturally sustaining pedagogy: A needed change in stance, terminology, and practice. *Educational Researcher*, *41*(3), 93–97. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X12441244

Phillips Galloway, E., Qin, W., Uccelli, P., & Barr, C. D. (2020). The role of cross-disciplinary academic language skills in disciplinary, source-based writing: investigating the role of core academic language skills in science summarization for middle grade writers. In *Reading and Writing* 33(1). https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-019-09942-x

Rader-Brown, L., & Howley, A. (2014). Predictors of the instructional strategies that elementary school teachers use with English language learners. *Teachers College Record*, *116*(5), 1–34.

Razfar, A., & Rumenapp, J. C. (2012). Language ideologies in English learner classrooms:

Critical reflections and the role of explicit awareness. *Language Awareness*, *21*(1), 347–368.

Schleppegrell, M.J. (2004). *The language of schooling: A functional linguistics perspective.* Lawrence Earlbaum Associates Publishers.

Shahid, J. & Thompson, D. (2001, April). *Teacher efficacy: A research synthesis.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Seattle, WA.

Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher*, *15*(2), 4–14. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X015002004

Siwatu, K. O. (2007). Preservice teachers' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancy beliefs. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *23*(7), 1086–1101. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2006.07.011

Siwatu, K. O. (2011). Preservice teachers' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy forming experiences: A mixed methods study. *Journal of Educational Research*, *104*(5), 360–369. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220671.2010.487081

Smitherman, G., & Villanueva, V. (2000). *Language Knowledge and Awareness Survey*. http://www.ncte.org/library/NCTEFiles/Groups/CCCC/Committees/langsurvey.pdf

Spitler, E. (2011). From resistance to advocacy for math literacy: One teacher's literacy identity transformation. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy, 55*(4), 306-315.

Taber, K.S. (2018). The use of Cronbach's Alpha when developing and reporting research

instruments in Science Education. *Research in Science Education, 48*(6), 1273-1296.

Taylor, O. (1973). Teachers' attitudes toward black and nonstandard English as measured by the Language Attitude Scale. In Shuy, R. and Fasold, R. (Eds.) *Language Attitudes: Current Trends and Prospects.* Washington DC: Georgetown University Press.

Townsend, D. R., Filippini, A. L., Collins, P., & Biancarosa, G. (2012). Evidence for the importance of academic word knowledge for the academic achievement of diverse middle school students. *The Elementary School Journal*, *112*(3), 497–518.

Tschannen-Moran, M., & Hoy, A. W. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *17*(7), 783–805. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-051X(01)00036-1

Uccelli, P., Barr, C. D., Dobbs, C. L., Phillips Galloway, E., Meneses, A., & Sanchez, E. (2014). Core Academic Language Skills (CALS): An expanded operational construct and a novel instrument to chart school-relevant language proficiency in pre-adolescent and adolescent learners. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *36*, 1–33. https://doi.org/10.1017/S014271641400006X

Uccelli, P., Dobbs, C. L., & Scott, J. (2013). Mastering academic language: Organization and stance in the persuasive writing of high school students. In *Written Communication* (Vol. 30, Issue 1). https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088312469013

Uccelli, P. and Phillips Galloway, E. (2016). Academic language across content areas: Lessons from an innovative assessment and from students' reflections about language. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy, 60,* 395-404.

Uccelli, P., Phillips Galloway, E., Aguilar, G., & Allen, M. (2020). Amplifying and affirming students' voices through CALS-informed instruction. *Theory into Practice, 59*(1), 75-88.

Uccelli, P., Phillips Galloway, E., Barr, C. D., Meneses, A., & Dobbs, C. L. (2015). Beyond vocabulary: Exploring cross-disciplinary academic-language proficiency and its association with reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *50*(3), 337–356. https://doi.org/10.1002/rrq.104

Youngs, C. S., & Youngs, G. A. (2001). Predictors of mainstream teachers' attitudes toward ESL students. *TESOL Quarterly*, *35*(1), 97. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587861

Chapter 4: A Phenomenological Interview Study Contextualizing Teachers' Academic Language Ideologies

Abstract

Over the past decade, teachers in the United States have felt an increase in the linguistic demands of the classroom due to three fundamental shifts: the curricular (Bunch et al., 2012), the demographic (Gandara & Mordechay, 2017), and the critical (Paris, 2012). The language demands presented by these shifts coalesce in recent debates in the literature about equitable academic language instruction with language minoritized learners. However, teachers' voices are noticeably absent from the debate. In this phenomenological interpretative analysis, I utilize interview data collected with intermediate grades teachers (N=9) who live and work in a new immigrant destination state in the Southeast region of the United states. I offer empathic analysis of their perspectives concerning the challenges of teaching a linguistically demanding curriculum to language minoritized students and follow this with a critical analysis of the academic language ideologies undergirding their perspectives. This study has important implications for teacher educators. In particular, findings from this study underscore the need to work alongside teachers as they negotiate ideological tensions in policy, context, and practice concerning equitable academic language instruction with language minoritized learners.

The past decade has presented three seismic shifts in the language demands for teachers, and, subsequently, the teacher educators responsible for preparing teachers for the classroom. First, curricular shifts have changed the linguistic demands of instruction (Bunch et al., 2012; Moschkovich, 2012), prompting greater attention to academic language – that is, the linguistic features commonly found in disciplinary texts and often used in academic discourse communities (Schleppegrell, 2004; Uccelli et al., 2014; 2015). Second, demographic shifts have diversified the linguistic composition in U.S. classrooms, prompting the need for all teachers, not just English language specialists, to develop linguistic responsiveness (Lucas & Villegas, 2013) to meet the needs of language minoritized learners – that is, students who speak stigmatized languages and dialects (Flores, 2016). Third, heightened awareness of the role systemic racism plays in perpetuating educational inequity has motivated teacher educators to counter damaging raciolinguistic ideologies (Athanases et al, 2018) —that is, socially constructed systems of knowledge and belief that can promote deficit orientations toward the language of Black and Brown students (Flores & Rosa, 2015).

These three shifts coalesce in recent debates in the literature regarding equitable academic language instruction with language minoritized learners (Jensen & Thompson, 2020). While some researchers argue that academic language instruction is essential for promoting equitable academic outcomes for language minoritized learners (Cummins, 2017; Delpit, 1992; Uccelli et al., 2020), others contend that academic language instruction only further reinscribes hegemonic language hierarchies in classrooms (Baker-Bell, 2020; Flores 2020; Flores & Rosa, 2015; MacSwan, 2018). However, notably absent from the literature are voices of the teachers who are currently doing the work of academic language instruction with language minoritized

learners. In this article, I utilize interpretative phenomenological analysis to first explain teachers' perspectives regarding the challenges of enacting a linguistically rigorous curriculum in linguistically diverse classrooms, then offer a critical analysis of how their lived experiences and previous training shape their academic language ideologies. Prior to describing this analysis, however, I offer a literature review and conceptual framing of the paper, further explicating the nature of shifting language demands in the classroom, synthesizing divergent perspectives on academic language, and emphasizing the importance of attending to language ideologies in teacher education.

Literature Review

The Increased Language Demands of the Classroom

As summarized above, teachers are currently grappling with increased language demands due to three fundamental shifts in education over the past ten years: curricular, demographic, and critical. In terms of curricular linguistic change, teachers in the U.S. have shifted their instruction to meet the rigorous language expectations of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS), which call for more in depth study of complex disciplinary texts in language arts (Bunch et al, 2012) and place greater emphasis on ability to articulate deep conceptual understanding in math (Moschkovich, 2012). These pressures are particularly present in the intermediate grades (3-8), a time when students are asked to shift from learning basic math and literacy skills to demonstrate more in-depth problem solving on standardized assessments. Curricular shifts have prompted greater attention to academic language as both an instructional goal for students (Bunch et al., 2012; Moschkovich, 2012; Wong Fillmore & Fillmore, 2012) and an essential component of effective teacher preparation (Bunch, 2013; Lahey, 2017; Turkan et al, 2014).

In terms of demographic linguistic change, schools are becoming increasingly racially diverse, shifting from a historical black/white binary classroom composition to include greater number of students who are multiracial, Asian, Latinx, and Pacific Islander (de Brey et al, 2019). As of 2017, one in four children in the United States are children of immigrants, and most of these children are U.S. citizens who were born in the U.S. and have attended U.S. public schools beginning in kindergarten (Lou & Lei, 2019), which has shifted the linguistic diversity in classrooms, as well. In the fall of 2015, nearly 5 million public school students were identified as English learners (ELs), and approximately 75% of students identified as EL come from homes in which Spanish is spoken (de Brey, 2019). Demographic shifts have been most acute in the Southeastern region of the United States (hereafter referred to as 'the South'), a new-immigrant destination area where school personnel have arguably less knowledge and experience with linguistic diversity (Gandara & Mordechay, 2017). As the number of students designated as ELincreases in classrooms, so does awareness that teacher educators must prepare all teachers, not just language specialists, to be linguistically responsive (Lucas & Villegas, 2010; 2013).

In terms of critical linguistic change, recent raciolinguistic research highlights the ways race and language are co-naturalized in U.S. settings (Rosa & Flores, 2017) and calls for greater solidarity against the linguistic violence Black and Brown students face in classrooms where standard and monolingual ideologies inhibit their full participation in learning (Martinez, 2017). As part of the project of culturally sustaining pedagogy, which "seeks to perpetuate and foster—to sustain—linguistic, literate and cultural pluralism as part of the democratic project of schooling" (Paris, 2012), teacher educators are called to equip pre- and in-service teachers with

critical language awareness in order to dismantle hegemonic language hierarchies in the classroom (Alim, 2010; Godley & Reaser, 2018).

Confronting raciolinguistic ideologies in the South may present particular challenges, as historically issues of racial inequity in the region have been framed in terms of Black and White (Gandara & Mordechay, 2017). There is certainly a continued need to combat systemic racism as it pertains to Black students in Southern schools: the South has yet to pay the historical, economic, sociopolitical and moral education debt it owes its Black students who have long inhabited the region (Ladson-Billings, 2006; Smith, 2020). However, the Latinx and immigrant students new to the region also face systemic racism, such as recent attempts by the Alabama and Georgia legislature to pass anti-immigrant laws that increase the threat of deportation and limit educational access for children of immigrants (Alabama House Bill 56 of 2011; Georgia House Bill 87 of 2011). Unfortunately, efforts to integrate Latinx and immigrant students' concerns into dialogue about language and racism in the South have been limited (Gandara & Mordechay, 2017). And while most pre-and in-service teachers agree that race plays an important role in students educational experiences and that teachers should discuss race and racism with students, many feel unprepared to effectively facilitate discussions about race in their classrooms (Milner, 2017).

In sum, the language demands facing teachers and, subsequently, teacher educators are increasing. Teachers are called to be equipped with pedagogical language knowledge (Bunch, 2013) and disciplinary linguistic knowledge (Turkan et al, 2014) in order for students to access the language necessary for academic success. In addition, teachers are challenged to develop linguistic responsiveness (Lucas & Villegas, 2010; 2013) to connect with students who bring

diverse language resources with them to the classroom. Finally, teachers are also expected to cultivate critical language awareness (Alim, 2010; Godley & Reaser, 2018) to counter raciolinguistic ideologies that consistently frame Black and Brown students as linguistically deficient. In addition to the challenge each of these individual demands brings, there are inherent tensions among the demands (Jaspers, 2018)– tensions that are brought to bear in current debates regarding equitable academic language instruction with language minoritized learners. In the next section, I will elaborate on the construct of academic language, highlighting how different research communities have conceptualized and operationalized the term.

Academic Language: Common Construct, Different Perspectives

Academic language is a term used broadly by various research communities, and there is considerable divergence in how it is operationalized across those communities (Valdés, 2004). The construct has its roots in theories of second language acquisition (DiCerbo et al, 2014). Cummins' (1984) seminal work highlighted Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) as the ability to comprehend and produce cognitively demanding and decontextualized language forms commonly found in classroom settings, distinguishing it from the Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) that are naturally acquired in social interaction. Although the CALP/BICS distinction is one that is now considered foundational knowledge for teaching English learners (Educational Testing Service, 2016; Wright, 2015), it has also been criticized as a false binary that leads to deficit framing of the language resources students bring to the classroom (MacSwan, 2018; MacSwan & Rolstad, 2003).

In the literature commonly known as the science of reading, academic language is often operationalized within the widely accepted model of the Simple View of Reading (SVR, Gough

& Tumner, 1986), which asserts that a student's ability to comprehend what they read is the product of their decoding skill and language ability. Scientific studies of reading often utilize vocabulary measures as a proxy for language comprehension (Mancilla-Martinez & McClain, 2020), thus early academic language work in the reading literature has focused specifically on academic vocabulary. Beck and colleagues (2002) developed a tiered system for classifying the vocabulary students encounter in reading: tier 1 consists of words students would commonly encounter outside of school, such as *eat* or *table*, tier 2 consists of words with cross-disciplinary utility, such as *identify* or *century,* and tier 3 consists of technical, discipline-specific vocabulary such as *exponentiate* or *simile.*

There is a robust body of literature linking general vocabulary skill with later reading comprehension outcomes (e.g. Mancilla-Martinez & Lesaux, 2010, 2017; Ricketts et al, 2007; Senechal & Oulette, 2006). More specifically, academic vocabulary knowledge has been shown to demonstrate significant unique variance in academic achievement outcomes above and beyond general vocabulary knowledge in a sample of linguistically and socioeconomically diverse middle school students (Townsend et al., 2012). However, vocabulary studies are not without controversy. In particular, several scholars have critiqued research on the 'word-gap'—which argues that early childhood vocabulary is the primary driver for later academic achievement—as a means for "pathologizing the language and culture of poor children" (Dudley-Marling & Lucas, 2006, p. 362; see also Sperry et al, 2019). Indeed, Adair and colleagues (2017) have documented the ways educators use word-gap arguments to justify limiting agentic learning opportunities for Latinx children of immigrants.

More recently, the reading literature has highlighted a need to expand language measures beyond vocabulary to include the morphological, syntactic, and discourse levels of academic language (Nagy & Townsend, 2012, Uccelli et al., 2015). Uccelli and colleagues have developed a unitary construct and measure of academic language skill (i.e. CALS, Barr et al., 2019; Uccelli et al., 2014), which has positively predicted both reading comprehension (Uccelli et al., 2015) and global measures of academic writing (Phillips Galloway et al., 2020) in studies with large, linguistically diverse samples of mid-adolescent learners. While these findings suggest that academic language instruction could be a powerful point of access for language minoritized learners, there is also concern that, like the 'word gap' literature, an instructional focus on academic language may reinforce standard and monolingual language ideologies, thereby contributing to inequitable learning outcomes for Black and Brown students (Baker-Bell, 2020; Flores, 2020; Flores & Rosa, 2015).

Translanguaging theory attempts to counter standard and monolingual language ideologies by centering the practices of bi- and multi-lingual students as normative, rather than transgressive (Celic & Seltzer, 2011; Garcia & Wei, 2014; Grosjean & Garcia, 2017). Translanguaging theory asserts that linguistic boundaries (like the boundary between academic and social language) are social constructions. Thus, named languages like "English" are ideologically and politically driven labels. Rather than conceptualizing bi- or multi-lingual speakers as drawing from separate languages, translanguaging theory contends that all people selectively draw from an individual unitary linguistic repertoire, their idiolect, in order to communicate in different contexts for different purposes (Otheguy et al., 2015). As such, research in translanguaging theory conceptualizes language as a verb (languaging is action that

happens between speaker and listener, reader and writer) rather than as noun (a static entity that individuals acquire). Translanguaging pedagogies are teaching practices informed by translanguaging theory that seek to make space for students to draw upon their full linguistic repertoire for active sensemaking and communicating in classroom contexts (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Celic & Seltzer, 2011; Martin-Beltran, 2014) even when language policies explicitly privilege English as the language of instruction (Cole, 2019; Daniel et al., 2017, McClain et al, under review; Pacheco et al., 2015). However, translanguaging pedagogies are nascent, and theoretical support for their adoption outweighs empirical documentation of their ability to fulfill the promise of promoting academic achievement while simultaneously transforming the inequitable language hierarchies in educational contexts (Jaspers, 2018).

While translanguaging theory has yet to be addressed explicitly in debates regarding academic language, in the sociolinguistics literature, recent research has reconceptualized academic language through a lens of cultural production theory (Carlone et al., 2014). Like translanguaging theory, cultural production theory moves beyond defining academic language as static features of written texts, instead focusing on language use-in-practice. According to Carlone and colleges (2014), "a cultural production view focuses on local meanings produced by groups in everyday practice, their connection to larger social structures, and the possibility, no matter how slim, of challenging the status quo" (p. 659). This approach acknowledges academic language as dynamic, situated practice that plays a fundamental role in identity development for mid-adolescents (Heller & Morek, 2015).

Cultural production theory has implications for pedagogical practice, as well. Because academic disciplines are primarily concerned with the practice of inquiry, cultural production

theory asserts that academic language instruction should be married with opportunities to engage in authentic academic disciplinary practices, i.e. “uncovering, examining, practicing, challenging, and rebuilding the tools of knowledge production and critique” (Moje, 2007, p. 10). Expanding the conceptualization of academic language to account for language use-in-practice also allows for an asset-based framing of all semiotic resources students use for sensemaking in the classroom, further blurring the false dichotomy between academic and social ways of communicating (Bunch, 2014; Pierson, 2019; Phillips Galloway et al., 2019), removing academic language proficiency as a prerequisite for full participation (Pierson & Clark, 2018), and instead focusing on ways students actively draw upon multiple semiotic resources, including languages other than English (LOTES) to engage in content area learning.

In short, across research communities, the concept of academic language is rooted in a desire to promote equitable outcomes for language minoritized learners. However, different communities operationalize academic language in various ways within their particular theories of change for bringing about equitable outcomes. For second language acquisition research, academic language is positioned as a next step after social English language acquisition, as a missing link for many students designated as ELs in K-12 schools. According to this theory of change, preparing teachers to deliver rigorous academic language instruction fills students’ language gaps and promotes later academic achievement. Similarly, the reading literature positions academic language (which until recently has been primarily formulated as vocabulary) as a key component for successful reading comprehension, and thus theorizes that academic language instruction as an essential key of access for academic success. In contrast, critical scholarship operates under a theory of change that dismantles language hierarchies and redefines

academic achievement "beyond the White gaze" (Paris & Alim, 2014). This research argues that a primary objective of teacher education and educational research should focus on changing the harmful language ideologies that prompt teachers to view students through deficit lenses. And finally, cultural production theory centers participation as the key to change: by creating classroom communities and ecosystems that make space for all students to actively engage in academic inquiry, students have the opportunity to forge academic identities, and not only acquire but also actively shape the nature of academic language as they use this language in the co-construction of knowledge with their teachers and peers.

The Importance of Teacher Language Ideology for Equitable Academic Language Instruction

In addressing the question of how to actually enact equitable instruction with Black and Brown students, Ladson-Billings (2006) argues that "the first problem teachers confront is believing that successful teaching … is primarily about 'what to do.' Instead… the problem is rooted in how we think—about the social contexts, about the students, about the curriculum, and about instruction." Indeed, the importance of teacher knowledge (Fenstermacher, 1994; Shulman, 1986) and beliefs (Nespor, 1985; Pajares, 1992) for shaping instructional practice has been well established in the broader teacher education literature.

In linguistic anthropology, researchers have focused on the social construction of systems of knowledge and belief, or *ideologies*, that members of a community then internalize as common sense understandings of the world, which means they "may or may not be transparent to those who hold them" (Ahearn, 2012, p. 22). Language ideologies encompass systems of knowledge and belief about how language is learned, why language varies, and whose language

matters. Language ideologies often "serve the interests of a specific social and cultural group," for example, to conserve wealth and power for the members of that group (Ahearn, 2012, p. 22). Greater attention to the social incentives that shape distributed patterns of ideology recasts belief systems as fluid, contextualized, and performative, rather than static and individually owned (Bacon, 2018).

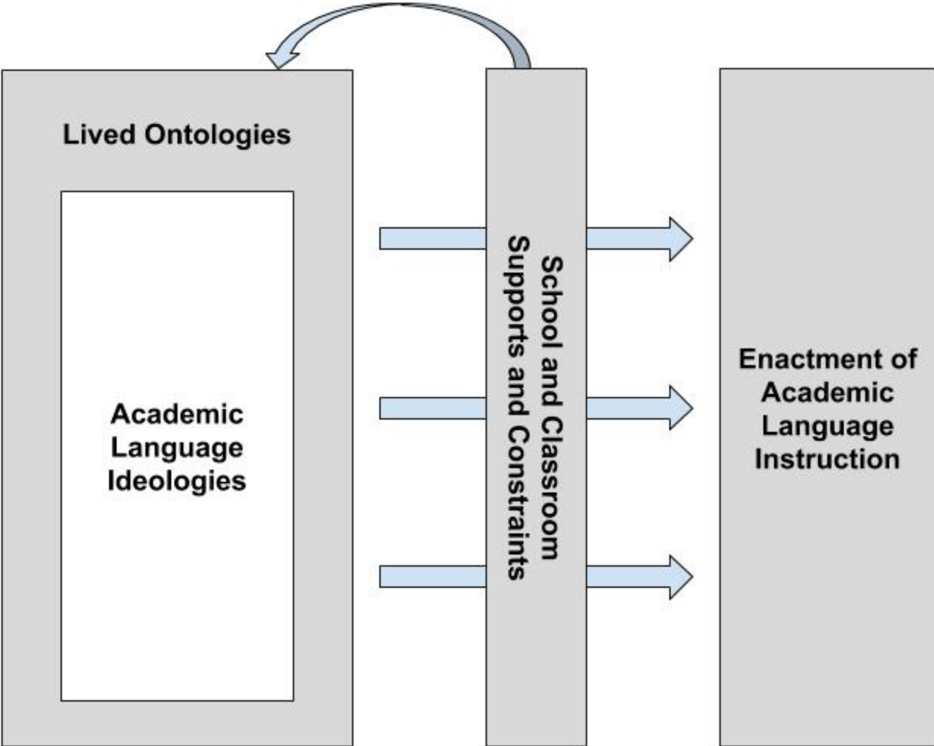
As teacher educators, it is important to recognize that pre- and in-service teachers bring ideologies with them. On the one hand, teachers are "competent learners who bring rich resources to their learning" (Lowenstein, 2009, p. 187). Some language ideologies may be powerful bridges to new paradigms for more equitable teaching. At the same time, teachers may hold language ideologies that require "unlearning" – beliefs they once held as common sense, but gradually begin to wrestle with as they recognize how those beliefs contribute to oppression (Kumashiro, 2001; 2015). As socially constructed systems of knowledge and belief, language ideologies are shaped by teachers' lived ontologies (see Figure 2), which given the demographic differences between the teacher workforce and student population, are likely considerably different from those of their students (Taie et al., 2018). Aside from their experience outside of classrooms, teachers' lived ontologies also include their personal experiences as students and teachers in classrooms, as well as their experiences with formal teacher education and professional development (Bacon, 2018; Borg, 2003). In addition, teachers' enactment of instruction does not stem directly from their systems of knowledge and belief about language, but is filtered through any number of classroom supports and constraints (see Figure 2), such as curriculum materials, policy and instructional guidelines, assessment expectations, accountability

pressure, etc. (Bacon, 2018; Borg 2003). In turn, these external constraints become part of teachers' lived ontologies, which then further shape their systems of knowledge and belief.

Despite the critical role that teacher language ideologies play in current debates about equitable academic language instruction with language minoritized learners, very little extant literature attends specifically to teacher academic language ideologies (for exceptions, see Heineke & Neugebauer, 2018; McClain & Phillips Galloway, under review; Neugebauer & Heineke, 2020). In addition, previous research on teachers' academic language ideologies focuses primarily on survey data, which does not allow for a rich, contextualized understanding of teacher perspectives. This study attends to teacher language ideology among teachers who serve students in a particular grade span (3rd-8th grade) and in a physical location (the South) in which the tensions of equitable academic language instruction with language minoritized learners are heightened. In the section below, I will describe my research methods for addressing the following research questions that guided my study: How do upper elementary and middle school teachers (i.e. 3rd-8th grade) in a new immigrant destination state experience the enactment of a linguistically rigorous curriculum with language minoritized students? How, if at all, do teachers describe the ways in which ideological, institutional, and interpersonal influences shape their conceptualization of 'academic language' and operationalization of 'effective academic language instruction' for those students?

Figure 2

Conceptual Framework of Teacher Language Ideologies



Methods

Because my research questions deal primarily with understanding teachers' experiences, as well as the influences that shape their interpretation of their experiences, I employ interpretive phenomenological analysis (IPA; Smith & Osborne, 2003). IPA aims "to explore in detail how participants are making sense of their personal and social world" (p. 51) and is particularly effective for teasing out the complexity of a phenomenon. IPA involves a double hermeneutic, first empathic understanding of how the participants experience the world, and second critical reflection on the factors shaping participants' experience, factors which participants may or may not be conscious of themselves (Smith & Osborne, 2003). This multi-layered interpretive action is reflected in my research questions, the first of which is focused on the teachers' lived experience (i.e. empathic), and the second of which is focused on interpersonal, institutional, and ideological influences that shape the interpretations of their experiences (i.e. critical).

Unlike grounded theory, phenomenology acknowledges that the researcher has some insight into the phenomenon—that the researcher brings her own experience into conversation with the experiences of her participants (Englander, 2012). However, because IPA requires the researcher to first make sense of the participant's experience of the phenomenon in order to make sense of the phenomenon itself, a critical aspect of IPA is intentional bracketing of the researcher's experience during analysis in order to build reflexivity (Alase, 2017; Cresswell & Poth, 2013; Van Manen, 1990). In later sections describing the analysis, I will share more about my bracketing process. In the next section, I will describe my positionality as a means for the reader to bracket my interpretations in light of who I am.

Positionality

As a white researcher exploring raciolinguistic dimensions of language in the classroom, it is essential that I attend thoughtfully to how researcher positionality shapes my investigation. In this section, I provide a summarized positionality statement, using Milner's (2007) framework for cultural consciousness, first "researching the self", then "the self in relation to others", and finally "shifting from self to system" (Milner, 2007, p. 388).

I speak a stigmatized dialect, having been raised in an economically depressed region of the rural American South, and I have learned that there are negative consequences when I fail to alter my dialect to meet socially desired norms. My experience of class and regional discrimination has shaped the way I perceive connections between language use and power and has increased my sensitivity to the language-related injustices students face in the classroom. However, as a white woman, my racial and ethnic privilege makes me vulnerable to blind spots when attempting to research the raciolinguistic complexity of academic language instruction. For example, while my experience has demonstrated that altering my dialect can lead to academic success, racially minoritized students may still be perceived as linguistically deficient, even when they alter their speech (e.g. T. Martinez, 2016).

My researcher positionality is also profoundly influenced by my identity as a teacher. Six years' experience working closely with language minoritized students in an under-resourced public school has provided me a personal understanding of some of the challenges faced by students and teachers in American classrooms. However, while my rich experience in the classroom lends depth and authenticity to my research with teachers, I was careful not to allow my personal experiences to speak for my participants. Also, because teacher education often

focuses on the perceptions and experiences of white teachers (Milner, 2007), it was essential to include the voices of teachers from a diverse range of linguistic, racial and ethnic backgrounds in my work.

However, it is not enough to simply include diverse participants. Mental and emotional reflexivity was necessary to remain genuinely receptive to hearing the counter-narratives that arose during my research. I attended carefully to the "social, political, historical, and contextual nuances and realities that have shaped my research participants' racial and cultural systems of knowing," noting "how consistent and inconsistent (these realities) are with mine" (Milner, 2007, p. 395) in order to remain open to seeing how my place in the world differs from my research participants.

In addition to reflexivity regarding how my personal and individual positionality shapes my research and my relationships with participants, as I made connections across the findings, I considered the "the policy, institutional, systemic and collective issues" (Milner, 2007, p. 397) surrounding academic language instruction with language minoritized learners. I set the data in conversation with the work of scholars from language minoritized backgrounds regarding institutional and systemic racism – scholars who underscore the ways language hierarchies may obscure linguistic assets language minoritized learners bring to the classroom (e.g. Baker-Bell, 2017; Flores & Rosa, 2015), as well as scholars who detail the role of power in shaping teacher decision making regarding language instruction, particularly among teachers from linguistically, racially and ethnically minoritized backgrounds (e.g. Delpit, 1988).

Participants

While the overall objective of the study is to understand the phenomenon of teaching a linguistically rigorous curriculum in classrooms serving linguistically diverse students, I selected individual teachers as cases, or units of analysis, nested within particular classrooms and schools (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). I recruited the teachers who participated in the study through institutional and professional networks. All of them had previously either attended conference sessions I facilitated, participated in workshops where I served as an instructor, or worked with me to coordinate service-learning projects for undergraduate students. My prior relationship with these teachers gave me a basic understanding of their commitment to the profession, as well as their role within the schools where they worked. Of the nine teachers I approached to invite to the study, all agreed to participate, and while my authoritative role in our relationship may have shaped their responses, the warmth and familiarity we shared having a previously established relationship helped us feel more at ease engaging in conversation.

Participants (n=9) were purposively selected based on their role within their school (classroom teacher, EL specialist, or literacy coach), the geographic location of their school (both within a new-immigrant destination state and disbursed among rural, urban, and suburban districts), the socio-demographic diversity of the school (to ensure that teachers are working with language minoritized students), the grade levels the teachers worked with (focus on 3rd-8th grades), as well as the teachers' self-identified racial, ethnic and linguistic background. Because white teachers have disproportionally been the focus of previous research in teacher education literature (Milner, 2007) and previous research suggests that race, ethnicity, and language background shape teachers' attitudes toward language diversity (Byrnes et al., 1996; B.B. Flores

& Smith, 2009), I purposely oversampled participants who identify as racial and linguistic minorities.

Participants' years of experience ranged from 6-27 years, and nearly all participants had a minimum of one master's degree in education. Participants were recognized as being professionally active, either indicated by regular voluntary participation in outside professional networks or community service organizations (i.e. TESOL, National Writing Project, Local Immigrant and Refugee Rights Coalition), leadership within their school (i.e. team lead), or recognition from their peers as an outstanding educator (i.e. nominated as teacher of the year). For detailed information about each participant and the schools where they worked, please see Tables 6 and 7.

Table 6

School Information

School Pseudonym	School Size	School Geographic Region	Student Racial and Ethnic Information	Teacher Autonomy**
Hutchings Middle	Medium	Urban	62% Latinx, 18% African American, 16% White, 4% other.	Low
Lewis Elementary	Large	Urban	36% African American, 26% White, 26% Latinx, 12% Asian.	Moderate
Bradford Elementary	Large	Suburban	70% White, 13% African American, 7% Latinx, 5% Asian, 5% other.	Moderate
Clearwater Elementary	Large	Suburban	59 % White, 20% African American, 8% Latinx, 5% Asian, 7% other.	Moderate
Collins Elementary	Large	Suburban	36% African American, 32% white, 24% Latinx, 8% other.	Moderate
East River Elementary	Medium	Rural	70% white, 26% Latinx, 2% African American, 2% other.	High

* Large school is greater than 750 students, medium school is between 500 and 750 students.

** Based on teacher responses in interviews. During the 2019-2020 school year, Hutchings Middle School was under state take-over because of student scores on accountability tests.

Table 7

Participant Information

School Pseudonym	Teacher Pseudonym	Teacher Role	Highest Degree	Racial/Ethnic Background	Linguistic Background	Years' Experience
Hutchings Middle School	**Danielle**	ELA Classroom Teacher	M.Ed. in SPED	African American	Monolingual English	14
	Angelina	EL Specialist	EdS in ESL	Puerto Rican	Spanish/English Bilingual	10
Lewis Elementary School	**Naomi**	Literacy Coach	M.Ed. in Literacy	White	Monolingual English	15
Bradford Elementary School	**Rani**	EL Specialist	M.Ed. in ESL	Indian	Multilingual English/Bengali /Spanish	27
Clearwater Elementary School	**Elizabeth**	EL Specialist,	EdD in Leadership	White		16
Collins Elementary School	**Brianna**	ELA/ Social Studies Classroom Teacher	M.Ed. in Elementary Education.	African American	Monolingual English.	10
East River Elementary School	**Ellie Kate**	Math/ Science Classroom Teacher	B.S. in Elementary Ed.	White	Monolingual English	12
	Lesley Ann	EL Specialist	M.Ed. in Administration	White	Monolingual English.	21
	Laurel	EL Specialist	Med. in ESL	White	English/Spanish Bilingual	6

Data Collection

The primary means of data collected for this study were semi-structured interviews, which are a preferred data source for phenomenological research (Englander, 2012; Smith & Osborn, 2003). However, this data was triangulated with artifacts from the classroom and language autobiographies the teachers prerecorded prior to our first interview. Each teacher was interviewed twice in a one-on-one format. In addition, I conducted focus groups with teachers from the same geographic region (i.e. urban, suburban, and rural). All teachers signed informed

consent forms prior to completing the interviews and received a $75 Amazon gift card in appreciation for their time.

All interviews were conducted in March and April of 2020. Initially, I offered to meet teachers at the time and place of their choosing. The first 6 one-on-one interviews were conducted in person after school, either in the teachers' classroom or a coffee shop. However, the threat of COVID-19 exposure necessitated switching to an online format. Thus, the last 12 one-on-one interviews and 3 focus groups were conducted through Zoom videoconferencing software. When I informed teachers that we would switch to conducting the interviews through videoconferencing using Zoom technology, all teachers shared that they were familiar with the platform and felt comfortable using it. During the interviews, we experienced minimal disruption to our connection. However, video conference as a medium presents its own set of communicative challenges, such as difficulty reading social cues or the distraction caused by a mirror image of oneself (Morris, 2020), which may have shaped participants' responses.

On average, one-on-one interviews lasted 36 minutes, and focus groups lasted 57 minutes. Overall, I collected 21 recordings with approximately 12 hours of audio interview data. In addition, I invited teachers to prepare a brief prerecorded video of their language autobiography using FlipGrid prior to our first interview. Three teachers completed those videos, each lasting between 2 and 3 minutes. The remaining 6 teachers experienced technical difficulty trying to use FlipGrid, in which case I simply added the questions from the language autobiography prompt to the first interview.

The interview protocol was divided so that the first interview focused on characteristics of the teacher participants, their school, and their broad understandings of language, and for

teachers who had difficulty with FlipGrid, questions about their personal history as language learners. The second interview was focused on how teachers define academic language and operationalize those definitions as the enact instruction. Teachers were asked to bring an instructional artifact and explain what made it effective. Teachers also had the opportunity to reflect on the curricular supports or constraints offered by their school during the second interview. In the third interview, focus groups of three teachers evaluated samples of student writing and discussed how they might design instruction in response to the student. They also discussed the relationship between language and equity in their schools and provided more detailed information about opportunities for professional development and collaboration in their schools. The entire semi-structured interview protocol is included in Appendix A.

The semi-structured nature of the interview allowed me the flexibility to allow participants to take a more active role in steering the conversation (Smith & Osborn, 2003). For example, I rearranged the order of questions as they came up naturally in conversation and supplemented questions if teachers wanted to speak about something not explicitly on the protocol. I also frequently relied on prompts for more information (i.e. can you tell me more about…) or clarifying questions as a means of member checking (i.e. I heard you say… is that what you meant?) (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Although I assured each participant during the consent process that they could refuse to answer any question, participants were eager to respond and appeared candid in sharing their ideas and experiences. Only once did a teacher, when asked if she was satisfied with the level of collaboration in her building, refuse to respond, instead chuckling and stating, "I plead the fifth."

I utilized otter.ai software for an initial round of speech to text conversion to assist with transcribing the audio files of the language autobiographies and semi-structured interviews. I then listened to each audio recording as I edited the transcripts. This was less time-intensive than manual transcription, but still required me to listen very carefully to the data at a more granular level. In addition, I took photographs or screen shots of all instructional artifacts the teachers shared during their interviews for future coding. All data was stored on a secure online server and backed up on an external hard drive in my locked office.

Data Analysis

Transcription and analysis was co-current with data collection: I began transcribing the interviews as I collected them, and as I completed interviews and transcripts, I began writing dated reflective memos to trace the development of interpretations, connections with literature, and to bracket my personal reactions to the data. Once all data was collected and transcribed, I began the analytic process by reading through the transcripts one case at a time and summarizing themes of interest (i.e. free textual analysis, Smith & Osborn, 2003). I then printed those summaries, cut them into meaningful chunks, and physically sorted them into comprehensive themes. From the initial summary and analysis, I developed a preliminary set of thematic codes specific to this analysis, identifying segments where teachers expressed a belief that their curriculum was more rigorous, where teachers conceptualized academic language, where teachers operationalized that conceptualization through a description of effective academic language instruction, where they described differentiation, and where they discussed their beliefs regarding use of languages other than English (LOTES) in the classroom. Once the code book was finalized, I utilized HyperResearch Software to revisit the entire dataset and apply codes

systematically. As is the norm for phenomenological interpretive analysis, each case was treated as the unit of analysis; not every utterance or turn generated themes (Smith & Osborn, 1993).

Following this first round of coding, I met with a peer debriefer to discuss preliminary findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This helped me to further bracket my own personal experience so that I could more reflexively understand the phenomenon of teaching a linguistically rigorous curriculum with language minoritized students from the perspective of the participants in my study. I then wrote up the empathic analysis and sent it via email to all nine participants with a request for member checking. Only four of the nine teachers responded to my email request, in which they expressed very brief agreement that the empathic analysis aligned with their perspectives of the phenomenon (i.e. "Looks great!"). I sent the email requesting member-checks during late August of a very hectic school year plagued by the uncertainty of COVID-19, and though I offered a clear explanation of what member checking is and why I wanted their feedback, I suspect that the participants did not have extensive time to dedicate to the task. However, the work of preparing the empathic analysis for the teachers' review encouraged me to carefully attend to their perspectives and bracket my own biases.

The second level of analysis involved connecting the themes by identifying how teachers' conceptualizations of language were shaped by their lived ontologies, including their personal experiences, their school expectations, and their previous learning about language and literacy. This helped me achieve the double hermeneutic; to move beyond an empathic understanding of their experience and include a critical awareness of how their perspectives are socially constructed (Smith & Osborne, 2003). I selected a subsample of four teachers based on their operationalization of academic language within a theory of change that aligned with theories

found in extant literature, which I elaborate in more detail in the findings. In the critical analysis, I carefully examine the relationships between the participants' lived ontologies, their language ideologies, and their descriptions of previously enacted lessons that they deem effective academic language instruction.

Findings

Empathic Analysis

In general, teachers conceptualized academic language as a contextualized understanding of vocabulary that students need to be successful in school. All teachers (N=9) related academic language to school-based vocabulary, noting that it consisted of both technical disciplinary vocabulary and terms with cross-disciplinary utility. In addition, most (n=8) emphasized that learning academic vocabulary involves developing a deeper conceptual understanding of how the language is contextualized within and across academic disciplines, which necessitates repeated exposure to vocabulary across varied contexts. For example, Danielle shared, "academic language is technical terms that deal with literature … main idea, similes, metaphors, whatever you're asking them to do … [and] power verbs like identify, compare and contrast." Later in the interview she clarified that academic vocabulary also included knowledge of how to apply vocabulary in different contextual situations, explaining, "In a lesson we were doing Monday we were talking about the effect of the text, and they're thinking cause and effect, so they kept trying to answer the question based on how they understood the word, but the words have multiple meanings." Many (n=6) noted that academic language differs from the social register, and some (n=4) explained that academic language often reflects particular practices and values associated with disciplinary inquiry, like the practice of citing evidence or basing your arguments

on research. Teachers saw academic language support as necessary to scaffold student participation in a more rigorous curriculum.

As teachers described the nature of their curriculum, most (n=8) expressed a belief that the curriculum expectations for their students were more rigorous than when they began teaching or when they were students themselves. As Rani explained, “Now there’s a focus on trying to get them to understand things more deeply, so that they can discuss … and also listening to each other’s conversations and writing about those things and responding to those things. And that takes a different kind of learning and teaching dynamic than it did back, you know, a long time ago.” Some teachers shared this view, citing a shift in assessments that focused on extended response rather than multiple choice items to demonstrate understanding (n=3). They shared that the standards themselves emphasized depth over breadth, such that there were fewer standards to address, but that students were expected to attend to higher order reasoning and develop rich conceptual understanding of disciplinary ideas (n=4), and that students were expected to work with challenging informational texts that would help them build disciplinary knowledge (n=4). Several teachers acknowledged that the rigor of the standards required pedagogical innovation, requiring students to routinely engage in extended discussion about ideas (n=5), and some acknowledged that the shift in curriculum is teaching them to become better teachers by prompting these pedagogical innovations (n=3). Teachers also expressed that they were initially concerned the curriculum would be too challenging or stressful for students, but that they have been surprised at how much their students can accomplish when they are appropriately scaffolded (n=3).

As the teachers operationalized their conceptualization of academic language in describing effective academic language instruction, all (N=9) emphasized the importance of differentiated supports to help all learners develop deep understandings of concepts. As Laurel offered a rationale about her instructional artifact, she explained “ [The word map] just gives the students different ways to connect their word that they’re focusing on, to tailor it to whatever the student needs… you know, they could draw a picture, come up with another word it reminds them of.” Laurel also emphasized the value of LOTES for sensemaking, stating, “I like them to look at the word in their native language…so this just gives them a variety of ways to really make a connection and to really absorb the meaning.” All teachers (N=9) emphasized the importance of recycling content and pushing students to use and produce academic language, so that students had the opportunity to connect with visual representations of concepts, listen and speak with peers about the concepts, read multiple texts in which concepts were utilized, and ultimately write about the concepts they were learning. All teachers (N=9) also referenced at least one scaffold (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005) they introduced to differentiate for language minoritized learners in their classrooms, including explicitly connecting students’ prior knowledge and experience (n=5); relying on redundant semiotic systems, such as videos, images, and manipulatives, to reinforce ideas delivered verbally or in writing (n=5); careful selection and sequencing of tasks to build on prior teaching (n=4); utilizing mediating artifacts, such as graphic organizers or touchstone texts (n=4); modeling language they would like students to take up (n=2), and intentionally structuring participation by placing students in hetero- and homogenous pairs or small groups for discussion (n=2).

While the teachers I interviewed expressed universal agreement in the need to scaffold language minoritized learners' participation in the rigorous curriculum, they diverged on perspectives regarding the appropriateness of utilizing languages other than English (LOTES) as instructional resources in the classroom. Some (n=3) viewed LOTES as an essential resource for meaning-making in the classroom, regardless of how long the learner had been in U.S. schools (n=4). As Naomi shared, "What's that quote… 'reading floats on a sea of talk,' so yeah, I just try to get that point across…where students are very comfortable just freely using [their home language]." Two teachers described using supplementary materials in LOTES, a few described making explicit connections between English and other languages (n=3), and others reported encouraging small group discussion in LOTES (n=2). In addition, two teachers voiced an explicit value for bilingualism and a desire to offer at least minimal support in schools for students to continue developing LOTES. However, some teachers (n=3) expressed concern that, in classrooms where multiple languages are represented and not all members share languages, using English as a common language is necessary to ensure students don't use LOTES in a damaging way (i.e. to gossip about other students or the teacher, to curse). As Rani explained, "We're trying to learn from each other, and if you speak Japanese, we can't understand you and you can't contribute to the conversation really. So it didn't take very long…they did [speak Japanese] at the very beginning… but now they're very engaged and participating in what we're doing [in English]." In addition, some (n=3) felt that, while using LOTES in the classroom may be helpful for newcomers, over time, reliance on LOTES will keep students from engaging fully in learning English.

Finally, all teachers (N=9) agreed that standardized test data is the driving force in their schools. They reported that examining test scores and strategizing how to improve test scores were a routine expectation in weekly grade-level planning meetings, biweekly faculty meetings, monthly data team meetings, and most mandatory professional development sessions. As Brianna shared, “I feel like standardized testing is always on the table to discuss. I don’t feel like it's an overwhelming discussion because it’s a real part of what we’re doing and what we’re expected to do. So I would probably say 50% to 60% of what we talk about has to do with standardized testing when we meet.” However, while standardized test data was prominent across all schools, the level to which the curriculum was standardized varied by school. Because Danielle and Angelina taught in a school that was under state take over due to low student achievement, they were held to a scripted curriculum and routinely monitored for fidelity. Laurel, Lesley Ann, and Ellie Kate taught at a school where test scores had historically been very strong. As such, these three teachers were granted substantial autonomy to determine when and how they would teach particular standards. Elizabeth, Rani, and Brianna were all held to a firm scope and sequence, and Elizabeth and Brianna opted to lean heavily on the curriculum provided by their district, but none of these teachers were actively monitored for their fidelity to the curriculum.

Critical Analysis

While understanding teachers’ perceptions of the phenomenon of teaching a linguistically rigorous curriculum to linguistically diverse learners has its own value, it’s also important to consider how teachers’ lived ontologies and classroom supports and constraints shape the language ideologies that drive their instruction. Language ideologies are resources that teachers

draw from in order to make sense of their teaching (Bacon, 2018). In the sections that follow, I will focus on a subsample of four cases to explore how teachers' lived ontologies and classroom constraints have shaped their academic language ideologies. These teachers espoused four different explanations of why language minoritized students struggle in school that roughly mirror theories of action found in research literature. The first three centered helping students obtain prerequisite skills that will lead to academic success: students need English proficiency, they need foundational literacy skills, or they need background knowledge. The final teacher focused instead on building inclusive classroom communities in which all students feel comfortable taking up academic language as a means of building an academic identity.

Angelina: Bolstering Student Confidence to Build Language Proficiency

Angelina was born and raised in Puerto Rico, where she spoke Spanish with her family but attended a private school in which all instruction was conducted in English. She studied English and secondary education as an undergraduate and taught middle school in Puerto Rico for eight years. During that time, she completed a master's degree in Second Language Acquisition. At the time of our interview, she had been in the state for approximately 4 years, teaching ESL at a high school before moving to the middle school where she currently served as the EL specialist for the 8th grade. While working on achieving her state certification in EL, Angelina also completed an educational specialist degree in English as a second language through a local, private evangelical university.

Angelina's language ideologies are deeply rooted in both her personal experiences of language minoritization and in her training in second language acquisition. She shared, "I love second, second language acquisition. It's one of my favorite topics. … Like, Krashen and,

there's like this argument of how people learn a second language. I love that." When asked how people learn languages, she answered, "Total immersion is how you learn a language…I lived in Puerto Rico for 40 years. I thought I knew a lot of English, that I was like a master. So when I come here, I feel like a total idiot because I can't pronounce the words correctly. People are always correcting me."

School Context. In the 2019-2020 school year, Angelina served approximately 70 8th graders in an urban middle school, serving as the teacher of record and also providing ELD services during their ELA block, which was approximately 75 minutes each day. She had two students who speak Swahili, and the rest were Spanish speakers from a range of Central American countries. She also described her students in terms of their scores on the state mandated English language proficiency assessment, the WIDA ACCESS (wida.wisc.edu/assess/access). She explained that her students ranged in proficiency from entering (level 1) to expanding (level 4). However, she felt that many of her students who have spent considerable time in U.S. schools still didn't feel comfortable speaking English: "They are refusing… like maybe they have a mental barrier. I think family units all speak Spanish. Where they live, everywhere they go somebody speak Spanish."

As Angelina described her instruction, it became clear that she utilized Spanish with her students much more than the other teachers in my sample, and that this allowed students to draw upon their language resources to engage in rich conversations about authentic, grade-level literature (in Angelina's case, *The Giver* by Louis Lowry). She explained, "I have academic conversations with my level ones. I speak English, they answer in Spanish… I use complex questions." When I asked her to give an example of a complex question, she answered, "I can

ask them, 'Can you infer what the main character is trying to convey through this sentence?'" She then reiterated the rigor of the work language minoritized students demonstrated in her class, saying "If this was a Spanish class, that was an honors class, because they are so smart. They're goofy and everything, but everything you throw at them, they will throw back and produce it. I'm so very impressed. …They are curious. They wanted to know the ending. They want to know, like, why's, what do you think is released? Maybe release is this, maybe release is that? They're like, they want to know."

However, in spite of the fact that students used Spanish to engage in the rigorous curriculum, Angelina also expressed greater reservation about the value of translanguaging pedagogies than many of her peers: "And the thing is I had Egyptian kids that were speaking English quickly, brand new to the country. They were already speaking, Hispanic kids weren't. I think I blamed myself because I, when they didn't want to answer [in English] then I will say in Spanish. … They know the tricks. So when they see that I'm flustered because I'm trying to tell them in English, they know I was going to say in Spanish, so they feel comfortable not learning it." Rather than seeing her bilingualism as an asset that supported rich dialogue between her and her students, she felt that students were exploiting their shared language background in order to do less work. This tension may be shaped by Angelina's background in second language acquisition. As someone who believes that full immersion and extensive time-on-task in English is essential for language learning, she struggled to reconcile her ideologies with practices that allow students to leverage their complete linguistic repertoires to engage in learning.

Connections with Personal Experiences and Training. Angelina's language ideologies also appeared to be shaped by her personal experiences of language minoritization. She

explained, “My first year [living in the U.S.], everybody laughed at me. And I’m not saying that they were mean, but at the beginning, I felt very offended, because I was trying. Yeah, so I kept, like rolling with that. But at one point I was like, that’s enough. I would say anything … and my coworker started laughing. Like, why are you laughing? [He said] ‘Because you sound like Sofia Vergara.’ So by the end of the year I started talking like her to amuse them because they found it funny, but at one point I was very angry because I was like, why are they laughing and I’m being serious?” In reference to her students’ English use, she reiterated again and again that they are afraid of being laughed and that they lack the confidence to speak in class. Angelina felt that her experience helped her empathize with her students: “I’m being more patient with [my students]. When they struggle, maybe in the past, I would have laughed if they made a mistake. … I do not anymore. And I encourage them. … I could say, look at me. I don’t speak perfect English. It doesn’t matter if they don’t say it perfectly, at least they are taking a chance, taking the risk.”

In terms of her training in second language acquisition, Angelina’s personal experience reified her acceptance of theories like the affective filter, which proposes that anxiety inhibits the brain’s ability to receive comprehensible input that leads to later language production (Krashen and Terrell, 1983). When asked about her students’ language use, she described them in terms of their language proficiency, naming groups of students according to their English language proficiency scores based on the state mandated WIDA ACCESS assessment (wida.wisc.edu/assess/access), i.e. “my level ones…don’t produce in English” or “my level twos don’t produce it verbally, maybe in the written form.” Through the lens of second language acquisition, language comprehension precedes production, proficiency is a linear process, and learning happens when students are immersed in English. However, this stands in tension with

translanguaging ideologies, which emphasize language as a situated practice in which individuals draw from one linguistic system of communication (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Rather than simply gaining English proficiency, translanguaging pedagogies encourage an expansion of all language resources for sensemaking (Turner & Lin, 2020).

Angelina recognized the inequity her students faced in school, particularly from teachers who refused to appropriately differentiate for her students and saw herself as an advocate for their rights. However, she did not see the primacy of English as a source of that inequity, and she felt that her students were somewhat responsible for letting English be a barrier to their school success. She explained, "I'm going to put myself as an example, if I were in class, I like to speak up, even if what the words that are coming out of my mouth are not correct. I like to speak my mind, but that's my personality. So I think that the kids have the same opportunities to speak and be heard in school, but it depends on them to be heard." In spite of her own experiences of language minoritization, she did not feel that monolingual language ideologies were a hegemonic force in schools.

Elizabeth: Establishing Foundational Literacy Skills to Build Academic Language Exposure

Elizabeth had the most formal education of the teachers in my sample: she earned a bachelor's degree in elementary education, a master's degree in leadership, a master's and education specialist degree in reading, and a doctorate in leadership with a focus on English learners. In addition to her initial licensure in elementary education, she obtained National Board Certification in reading, an endorsement in school library, an endorsement as a reading specialist, and an endorsement in teaching English as a Second Language. At the time of our interview, she had served as an EL specialist in her district for 6 years and, prior to that, she worked as a

reading interventionist and Title I specialist. She was also a veteran, having served four years active duty in the U.S. Army and then taught third grade on a military base in the Mississippi Delta following Hurricane Katrina.

Elizabeth's language ideologies are strongly shaped by her training in literacy. She explained, "So I guess from being an interventionist I really focus on…the phonics intervention. I believe in teaching, like the foundations like literacy, being a huge part of that language component. And so I feel like if we teach our kids to read, that they're going to be stronger in their language and more confident. So I always teach language through a heavy focus on the five components of reading: phonological awareness, phonics, and vocabulary—which is a big one—fluency, and comprehension. Because I feel, I really feel like the way are standards are now, how like intense they are, I've gotta teach my kids how to read…like when I looked at the data for my own research, like the kids that drop out, like in high school for English learners, I guess they're just struggling and they're not, they've never developed this skills and strategies." Her theory of change centered reading ability as the lever that determines later academic achievement.

School Context. During the 2019-2020 school year, Elizabeth worked at a suburban elementary school where she served K-6 students who have been identified as English learners. She described the diversity among her students both linguistically and socioeconomically, including "upper class families from Saudi Arabia," Gujarati speakers whose families "own a lot of businesses," Swahili and Kurdish speaking students who are refugees, and Spanish speakers who "have been here a while with their parents and they're going through some fears of having to leave" because of increased threats of deportation. She pulled small groups of approximately 6 students for an hour each day during the school's allotted Response to Intervention Time and felt

that their small group was safe space where her students could open up. She explained, “They’re really quiet and shy in the classroom… they don’t stop talking in small group. In here, they’re not afraid to make mistakes, but in the classroom, I feel like they are.”

Connections with Personal Experiences and Training. Given her firm adherence to the five pillars of literacy as laid out by the National Reading Panel (2000), it’s not surprising that Elizabeth conceptualized academic language in terms of vocabulary: “Academic language, I defined it as language that they need in their content areas…so if they’re talking about science…those vocabulary words that go along with science.” She described her instruction with 3rd-6th grade students as meeting two key goals: the first of which was assuring that students had strong foundational skills in literacy, and the second reinforcing the academic vocabulary students would use in the classroom. To meet the first objective, she relied on a scripted curriculum that focused on mastery of discrete literacy skills in a linear sequence: phonological awareness, phonics, fluency, then vocabulary and comprehension. To meet the second, she planned according to the grade level scope and sequence and organized her instruction to align with classroom content. As she explained, “I try to be very intentional about the vocabulary…I feel like a lot of it comes down to like being really strategic in how I lesson plan and then making sure that my kids are getting what they need when it comes to academic language.”

In terms of using languages other than English, Elizabeth emphasized the importance of representation more than making space for diverse language practices in her classroom. For example, she praised the new curriculum adopted by the district because it included “trade books that are more culturally diverse for our students” and invited an Arabic speaker to visit her class “to build students’ confidence. Like oh look, he’s an engineer, you know, he’s still speaking with

an accent. I mean, he's a professional." However, she did not see the primacy of English as an equity issue in her school. Instead, she argued that the schools where she has worked did a good job to "provide what kids need. … The extra resources that we get for our kids … has made a huge difference."

Lesley Anne: Filling in Gaps in Background Knowledge due to Socioeconomic Status

At the time of our interview, Lesley Anne had taught in elementary schools for 21 years and had served as an EL specialist at a rural elementary school for the past 5 years. She obtained her EL endorsement through an emergency licensure process in 2015, so most of her language training was through webinars and online tutorials. However, she connected teaching students designated as English learners with her previous experience teaching early childhood language expression in an urban elementary school. She explained, "In 1990, we were seeing such a trend in just low, low scores for our children, which I was in a 98% poverty rate school, but our children had such a low rate in language expression that the government, it was actually a grant that we got money-wise to set up a classroom and we focused [on language expression]." The theory of change driving her early experiences teaching connected poverty with limited language ability, which is an ideology that Lesley Anne applied to her current job teaching language minoritized learners. She posited that her students have limited academic achievement due to students' limited background, stating, "when there's a deficit in their vocabulary, there's just a deficit in their background that we've got to try to make up. … We get some children that have a gap, and maybe they weren't in school the whole time … and so that background we have to really look at and we try to find out, you know, what they are missing."

School Context. Aside from one student who spoke Gujarati, all of the students in Lesley Anne's classroom identified as Latinx, although many spoke Mixtec in addition to Spanish and English. When asked about their language use, Lesley Anne explained, "Their background has a lot to do with how they use their language and determining the vocabulary that they choose. You can just tell they're missing a lot of that, those formative years of where you for the words that we all take for granted in the classroom." She acknowledged the benefits of cross-linguistic transfer of literacy skills, but explicitly discouraged using LOTES for academic purposes in her classroom, saying, "We have to ask them repeatedly not to speak in their native language at school, that we would like for them to use that outside of school, because in school we would like for them to practice the English language, which is what they're learning." She also expressed concern that students would fall further because they are spending more time at home due to COVID-19, saying "I've worried about them a lot during this period of time. I think this has been hard on them because they do love school. They love learning and language acquisition happens when you're around the language you are trying to learn, so you know, I feel for them not having the English language around them." Similar to Angelina, Lesley Ann felt that language immersion and time-on-task were key to helping her students acquire English.

Connections with Personal Experiences and Training. In her definition of academic language, Lesley Anne highlighted the contrast between academic and social language: "Academic language is the language that our children to use in order to be successful in their core subjects aside and different from their social language, which is what they use just in everyday talk to get them through the day … As I move forward, it is becoming increasingly clear how different those languages are." She also equated increasing academic language with

intellectual ability: "What I love about being somewhere a longer period time is…hopefully, I'm going to have the same children again another year. And as they're speaking and retelling stories, like the one I submitted to you, I want to hear an increase in their vocabulary usage, and I do want them to move towards the use of academic vocabulary, and I want that intellect to always come up a level each year, I really want to encourage that."

Lesley Anne's concerns about equity also align with the perspective that her role as a teacher is to make up for the language students lack due to poverty. She felt the school "does a great job with what we have," but was concerned that they were not adequately staffed to push in and support students with low language proficiency during their academic coursework. She also felt that the inequities in school largely stemmed from out-of-school factors, but that the teachers were "bending over backwards" to help address students' needs. She stated, "The socioeconomic background has a lot to do, I think, with our children coming in, and the equity of your success in school." When I asked her to explain further, she added, "If mom and dad have jobs that keep them away from home … it can be negative impact because they need their parents, they need that input. And you know, hunger is a part of it … I think all of that has to do with our children and the equity that's provided for them in the academic arena, because we can't do anything if they come in with those types of struggles."

Ellie Kate: Building an Inclusive Community to Foster Academic Identity Development

While the first three cases demonstrate ideologies that center on providing students with prerequisite skills that are needed for academic success, Ellie Kate instead operated from a

theory of change that emphasized immediate participation in an inclusive community that fosters academic identity development.

School Context. At the time of our interview, Ellie Kate had spent 12 years teaching in middle grades classrooms, teaching various core content areas in third, fifth, sixth and eighth grades in the same rural community where she grew up. She had been teaching fifth math and science at a local elementary school with a high Latinx population (and roughly 35% students designated as English learners) for five years. She had a bachelor's degree in elementary education and was certified to teach grades K-8. In addition, she was nearly finished with a master's degree in ESL education through an online university. She said she felt teaching was her calling, explaining, "You know, when you have 12 years in something, you know you want to do it or you're surviving, but I love, love, love, love what I get to do every day."

Connections with Personal Experience and Training. Ellie Kate described her own experience of language minoritization as someone who spoke a stigmatized dialect, sharing, "I grew up in a farming community … and when I graduated, [at college] when I introduced myself I hadn't found my professional speaking voice, and so I can't like, so many people asked if I grew up on a farm or if I learned, knew how to milk cows or you know, just but, it was a derogatory comment. … They would check to see if I was wearing shoes and all sorts of things. It's crazy." Like Angelina, she felt this experience has helped her be more compassionate with her students: "It just makes me more aware of differences, and being, just gentle with education 10 year olds on words and saying them, and you, being aware that other people speak differently or just may not know."

She conceptualized academic language in terms of student experience with an academic discipline: “So academic language to me is when students can speak knowledgeably about a topic and use vocabulary they have been taught and fill it in with context.” She went on to give an example of learning about black holes, how initially her students “just knew black holes were like, where things disappeared,” but over time, as her students were reading a biography about Stephen Hawking and became more interested in the topic, they began “to dig in knowledgeably about black hole theories and what happens, you know, and that negative energy gets sucked in, put positive energy can be pushed out. And so with academic language, it’s not just knowing the word and recognizing it, it’s having that context behind it.” She saw academic language as a product of extended engagement in disciplinary learning, not a precursor.

As Ellie Kate modeled how she examines science text, she identified not only the key words to pre-teach, but also the specific disciplinary meanings they have: “With concentrations, you have to know that it’s small powerful amounts. You have to understand that decades, or you, the time length on that, and that it is all research based.” She also emphasized the values and practices espoused by scientists reflected in the text, explaining “I’ve had students tell me that ‘My parents don’t believe in greenhouse gases.’ They don’t believe that the world is going to pot essentially, and so I’m like, well, you know, but here we follow science, and we know that this is true and factual.”

In describing what she sees as effective academic language instruction, Ellie Kate emphasized the importance of active participation in the disciplinary work, even among students who do not speak English. In addition to using lots of visual aids to support knowledge production, she also explicitly valued language mixing for building disciplinary understanding,

explaining “We work very hard to build relationships and make students feel safe. …We do a lot of partner talking, and … some students, we have several who speak Mixtec and so going from Mixtec to Spanish to English, there’s you know, it adds to the time of learning and their acquisition. But seeing all of that come together is really powerful.” She emphasized the strengths her students brought to building a community that supports active participation, stating “You know, 10-year olds are naturally, I think, very helpful and caring. And we just really push, push that element of you care for each other. We’re a big family. We want everybody to succeed.”

Ellie Kate also emphasized the importance of giving students a variety of ways to demonstrate their expertise within disciplinary engagement, extending perceptions of intelligence beyond verbal ability. She explained, “I like to do STEM labs, because that’s when you see children who may not be the greatest at putting their ideas on paper, that’s when you see them shine.” She went on to share an example, “One of [my students], I mean, I would let that child plan and build anything for me. I’m like, you’re a future engineer, you have this, just stick with it! But he made his partner who’s very verbal [step back]…this child who was just beginning level English was like, ‘Stay away, don’t touch this. You’re messing it up.’ And I was like, [to the verbal child] you got kicked out of building, huh?”

In discussions of equity, Ellie Kate was the only teacher in our sample who explicitly named racial and linguistic privilege as problematic for her students of color. She detailed an experience of frustration with the school psychologist, “We had a student who needed to qualify for special services, and I asked that she be tested in Spanish. And I was just flat out [rejected], told ‘No, that’s not possible, if you can find someone with master’s degree who can test in

Spanish they can write their ticket' and just was like 'Who do you think you man asking for a Spanish, you know, a child whose first language is Spanish to be tested for services!' And I was like, well, I think it's very clear. … I remember being so angry with our testing coordinator because of the attitude. I mean, she was like slinging papers around and talking, I felt, disrespectfully to the mother of the child. … It was just a prime example of white privilege, in my opinion, in my school." Ellie Kate recognized the fallacy of the monolingual ideologies driving special education placement and called them out as an example of both racial and linguistic inequity that her students face.

Likewise, she expressed concerns about how the EL label negatively impacts student identity in both her classroom and in future middle school contexts: "You know, [students who are designated EL] need to be able to interact, they need to grow, they need to be a whole part of our fifth grade family. And then they need to know how to multiply, they need to start understanding how division works, um place value and just the names for that because I'm worried that they're going to middle school and that life is totally different. [In middle school] if they're in EL classes, they miss one of their specialty rotations, and that specialty rotation is so important to just pure relationships. … It's a big goal of ours to send them off so that they get every elective they can, you know, to really start figuring out who they are as people." She linked opportunities to engage in art, music, and physical education as central to student identity development in middle school and was concerned that if students retain an EL label, it would negatively impact their opportunities to participate. For Ellie Kate, expanding opportunities to participate was key to addressing inequitable academic outcomes for students of color. This ideology aligns more closely with translanguaging pedagogies, which encourage students to

draw upon all language resources at their disposal for sensemaking. As such, Ellie Kate had no reservations about implementing instruction that leveraged LOTES in her classroom.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to explore the academic language ideologies of teachers who worked with students in the 3rd through 8th grade in a new immigrant destination state (Gandara & Mordechay, 2017). More specifically, I sought to understand teachers' experience of teaching a linguistically rigorous curriculum with language minoritized students (the empathic analysis) and the relationship between teachers lived ontologies, school supports and constraints, and their conceptualizations of 'academic language' and operationalization of 'effective academic language instruction'(the critical analysis).

In summary, in the empathic analysis I found that the teachers in my sample demonstrated language ideologies that espoused a strong value for academic language. In the decade since the Common Core State Standards were implement, the teachers largely adapted well to the linguistic rigor of the curriculum. They expressed the importance of language for meeting the high demands of accountability testing, and shared that they routinely pushed students to produce academic language both verbally and in writing in the context of vibrant discourse communities. They also demonstrated an understanding that language minoritized students designated as English learners are not exempt from the demands of the curriculum, and that instruction must be differentiated to help them achieve those demands. EL specialists and classroom teachers alike emphasized that students designated as EL are capable of high achievement when they are appropriately scaffolded.

It is important to note that the value for academic language is one that is strongly supported at the school, state, and federal level. Standards are explicitly named and assessed, and teachers are evaluated in terms of student achievement on those assessments. Most teachers were given a thoroughly developed curriculum that supported academic language development, and many were coached on how to enact that curriculum appropriately. Incentives to adopt a value for academic language have been strong, and arguably, teachers' uptake of a more rigorous language curriculum has led to positive opportunities and outcomes for the language minoritized students that they serve: Teachers shared how the new standards have led them to innovate their instruction, prompting them to scaffold language minoritized learners engagement in discussion with their peers, comprehension of complex grade-level text, and production of extended academic arguments. In their language ideologies, teachers actively aspired toward what Moje (2007) has called "socially just pedagogy," which "equalizes skill and provides opportunities for all to achieve social and economic success," but "risks reproducing the status quo in terms of cultural dominance " (p. 4).

In comparison, there was less evidence of teacher language ideologies that support what Moje (2007) calls "social justice pedagogy," which "offers possibilities for transformation, not only of the learner but also of the social and political contexts in which learning and other social action takes place" (p. 4). Most teachers in the sample reified the established monolingual norms at their school, and many discouraged students' use of LOTES for learning purposes in the classroom. Perhaps this should not be surprising, given that explicit value for linguistic diversity is not espoused in curricular standards, nor is it measured or used as a criterion for teacher

evaluation. Monolingual and standard language ideologies are incentivized by curriculum and assessment that emphasizes proficiency in Standard English (Bacon, 2018).

In addition, the critical analysis began to explain how teachers' personal experiences and the extensive training they received – both part of their lived ontologies – led them to adopt a theory of change that either ignored or stood in tension with the role of LOTES in classroom learning. Angelina's experiences learning language through immersion and her belief in "time-on-task" models of second language acquisition (i.e. Krashen & Terrell, 1984) led her to reject the idea of translanguaging pedagogies. Elizabeth's extensive training as a literacy interventionist shaped her conceptualization of academic language primarily as a foundational literacy skill, essentially equating it with vocabulary—one of the 5 pillars of basic literacy named by the National Reading Panel (2000). Lesley Anne's experiences as an early language specialist in a high poverty school dovetailed with her training about the differences between social and academic language (i.e. Cummins, 1984). She operationalized academic language as distinct from the language resources students bring to the classroom and was thus reluctant to make space for those resources in her instruction. Finally, Ellie Kate operationalized academic language as a tool for communicative action within a disciplinary community. Because she prioritized participation in disciplinary inquiry over development of academic language proficiency, she was more open to leveraging LOTES for instructional purposes in her classroom than her peers.

In addition, while teachers valued linguistic diversity less than academic language proficiency, they largely ignored critical ideology, which emphasizes understanding of the ways that language is co-naturalized with race and utilized to reify language hierarchy. None of the

teachers described critical language awareness as an essential component of academic language instruction, and only Ellie Kate explicitly named racial and linguistic discrimination as a barrier to full participation for her students.

While I have utilized individual cases to demonstrate how language ideologies are rooted in teachers' lived experiences, training, and classroom constraints, it's important to clarify that ideologies are not "fixed characteristics reflective of an individual's core being. Rather, language ideologies are performative, with individuals drawing on different ideological orientations at different times based on a range of individual, contextual, and historical factors" (Bacon, 2018, p. 2). The point of this analysis was not to demonstrate that Ellie Kate had "good" language ideology and is thus a "good" teacher, nor that Lesley Anne, Elizabeth, and Angelina had "bad" language ideologies and are thus "bad" teachers; all of the teachers in the sample demonstrated serious commitment to their professionalism and practice, genuine caring for their students, and a strong desire to help their students be academically successful. In addition, individuals often express conflicting ideologies (Ahearn, 2012): Angelina simultaneously utilized Spanish in powerful ways in her classroom and espoused English-only instruction; Elizabeth simultaneously emphasized basic literacy skills development and student participation in vibrant disciplinary discourse; Lesley Ann simultaneously acknowledged the importance of honoring students' language backgrounds and discouraged use of LOTES in her classroom; Ellie Kate simultaneously recognized her students' "deficits" in regard to curricular standards and emphasized inclusive participation in disciplinary inquiry within a strong classroom community.

Jaspers (2018) argues that "rather than seeing such behavior as resulting from a lack of awareness or attitude problem, it may be more useful to see it as symptomatic of negotiating a

single, dilemmatic ideology" (p. 6). In other words, teachers are currently faced with tensions in the competing demands of what they "should" do: establish their clear authority while promoting student agency, meet individual needs of students as well as collective needs of the community, and as is the focus in this analysis, provide students access to academic language while simultaneously valorizing other language resources and dismantling the linguistic hierarchies that promote academic language. Further classroom-embedded research is needed to better understand how teachers "improvise to attend to both contrary poles" (Jaspers, 2018, p. 6) and equip teachers with tools to aid them in navigating linguistic tensions.

These contradictions notwithstanding, this analysis suggests that 1) instructional change, such as shifting to meet the linguistic rigor of the Common Core Curriculum, is possible when teachers are adequately supported and incentivized and 2) when teachers espouse a theory of change that centers active engagement in disciplinary discourse communities as opposed to the acquisition of individual skill, they are more likely to welcome multiple semiotic resources, including LOTES, as means for sense-making in the classroom.

Since the introduction of the CCSS, many teachers have dramatically shifted their expectations for ambitious instruction, now centering student talk and differentiation to support students up for meeting the rigorous demands of the curriculum rather than dumbing down academic standards (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005; Wong Fillmore & Fillmore, 2012). However, as a field, educators have yet to engage in similar systematic change regarding "social justice pedagogies" designed to transform social and linguistic inequities (Moje, 2007), such as critical literacies or translanguaging pedagogies. This may be in part because many of the ideologies driving instructional change (and practices incentivized by current policies) focus on filling gaps

in individual student achievement rather encouraging students' collective engagement in disciplinary practices.

For teacher educators, the findings from this study both confirm and complicate the importance of attending to language ideology when preparing teachers to meet the increasing language demands of the classroom. On the one hand, this analysis offers preliminary insight into how language ideologies are resources for teacher sensemaking about their instruction. Teachers operationalized their ideologies to explain why particular instructional strategies were effective. In addition, teacher language ideologies appeared to be greatly influenced by coursework and training; multiple teachers mentioned research generally and/or specific researchers they read about in teacher education courses as they explained a rationale for why a particular pedagogical practice was effective for academic language learning. This affirms the role of teacher educators in working to establish equitable academic language ideologies, as well as the need to be aware of the ideologies that pre- and in-service teachers bring to their learning and the way those ideologies may affirm or stand in tension with the new ideas introduced in teacher education coursework.

At the same time, this analysis points to the limits of attending to language ideologies as individualized, static statements of belief, instead highlighting the ways ideologies are contextualized within classroom supports and constraints and incentivized by policies. Thus, teacher educators wishing to break down monolingual and standard language ideologies must move beyond simply telling teachers what they should believe and should do without interrogating the policies and classroom constraints that shape how these ideologies are socially constructed. Wrestling alongside teachers as they negotiate the tensions in policy, context, and

pedagogical practice, rather than judging them for their failure to align themselves with ideologies that are not affirmed in their everyday lived experience, will be essential for progress toward more equitable academic language instruction with language minoritized learners.

References

Adair, J. K., Colegrove, K. S.-S., & McManus, M. E. (2017). How the word gap argument negatively impacts young children of Latinx immigrants' conceptualizations of learning. *Harvard Educational Review*, *87*(3), 309–334.

Ahearn, L. M. (2012). *Living language: An introduction to linguistic anthropology*. Wiley-Blackwell.

Alase, A. (2017). The interpretative phenomenological analysis (IPA): A guide to a good qualitative research approach. *International Journal of Education and Literacy Studies*, *5*(2), 9. https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijels.v.5n.2p.9

Alim, H. S. (2010). Critical language awareness. In N. H. Hornberger & S. L. McKay (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language education* (pp. 205–231). Multilingual Matters.

Athanases, S. Z., Banes, L. C., Wong, J. W., & Martinez, D. C. (2018). Exploring linguistic diversity from the inside out: Implications of self-reflexive inquiry for teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487118778838

Bacon, C. K. (2018). "It's not really my job": A mixed methods framework for language ideologies, monolingualism, and teaching emergent bilingual learners. *Journal of Teacher Education*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487118783188

Baker-Bell, A. (2017). "I can switch my language, but I can't switch my skin": What teachers must understand about linguistic racism. In E. Moore, Jr., A. Michael & M.W. Penick-Parks (Eds.), *The guide for White women who teach black boys* (pp. 97–107). Thousand Oaks,

CA: Corwin Press.

Baker-Bell, A. (2020). Dismantling anti-black linguistic racism in English language arts classrooms. *Theory Into Practice*, *59*(1).

Barr, C. D., Uccelli, P., & Phillips Galloway, E. (2019). Specifying the academic language skills that support text understanding in the middle grades: The design and validation of the Core Academic Language Skills construct and instrument. *Language Learning*, *69*(4), 978–1021. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12365

Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., & Kucan, L. (2002). Choosing words to teach. In *Bringing words to life: Robust Vocabulary Instruction* (pp. 15–30). Guilford Press.

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, *36*(2), 81–109. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444803001903

Bunch, G. C. (2013). Pedagogical language knowledge: Preparing mainstream teachers for English Learners in the new standards era. *Review of Research in Education*, *37*(1), 298–341. https://doi.org/10.3102/0091732X12461772

Bunch, G. C. (2014). The language of ideas and the language of display: Reconceptualizing “Academic Language” in linguistically diverse classrooms. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, *8*(1), 70–86. https://doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2014.852431

Bunch, G. C., Kibler, A., & Pimentel, S. (2012). *Realizing Opportunities for English Learners in the Common Core English Language Arts and Disciplinary Literacy Standards*. Paper

Presented at the Understanding Language Conference, Stanford, CA. Retrieved from htpp://ell.stanford.edu/papers.

Byrnes, D. A., Kiger, G., & Manning, L. (1996). Social psychological correlates of teachers' language attitudes. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *26*(5), 455–467.

Carlone, H. B., Johnson, A., & Eisenhart, M. (2014). Cultural perspectives in science education. *Handbook of Research on Science Education*, *2*, 651–670. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203097267

Celic, C., & Seltzer, K. (2011). *Translanguaging: a CUNY-NYSIEB Guide for Educators*. http://www.nysieb.ws.gc.cuny.edu/files/2012/06/FINAL-Translanguaging-Guide-With-Cover-1.pdf

Cole, M. W. (2019). Translanguaging in every classroom. *Language Arts*, *96*(4), 244–249.

Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the bilingual classroom: A pedagogy for learning and teaching? *Modern Language Journal*, *94*(1), 103–115. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00986.x

Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2013). *Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design: Choosing Among Five Approaches*. https://doi.org/10.13187/rjs.2017.1.30

Cummins, J. (1984). Language proficiency, bilingualism , and academic achievement. In *Bilingualism and Special Education: Issues in Assessment and Pedagogy* (pp. 136–151). College Hill.

Cummins, J. (2017). Teaching minoritized students: Are additive approaches legitimate?

Harvard Educational Review, *87*(3), 404–426.

Daniel, S. M., Jiménez, R. T., Pray, L., & Pacheco, M. B. (2019). Scaffolding to make translanguaging a classroom norm. *TESOL Journal (10)*1, 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.361

de Brey, C., Musu, L., McFarland, J., Wilkinson-Flicker, S., Diliberti, M., Zhang, A., Barnstetter, C., & Wang, X. (2019). *Status and Trends in the Education of Racial and Ethnic Groups 2018*. https://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch/pubsinfo.asp?pubid=2019038

Delpit, L. D. (1988). The silenced dialogue: Power and pedagogy in educating other people's children. *Harvard Educational Review*, *58*(3), 280–298.

Delpit, L. (1992). Acquisition of literate discourse: Bowing before the master? *Theory into Practice 31*(4), 296-302.

DiCerbo, P. A., Anstrom, K. A., Baker, L. L., & Rivera, C. (2014). A review of the literature on teaching academic English to English language learners. *Review of Educational Research*, *84*(3), 446–482. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654314532695

Dudley-Marling, C., & Lucas, K. (2009). Pathologizing the language and culture of poor children. *Language Arts*, *86*(5), 362–371. https://doi.org/10.2307/41483561

Englander, M. (2012). The interview: Data collection in descriptive phenomenological human scientific research. *Journal of Phenomenological Psychology*, *43*, 13–25. https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/0d7a/9a5233b1460941b51a50e032b3c5d3a711cc.pdf

Fenstermacher, G. D. (1994). The knower and the known: The nature of knowledge in research

on teaching. *Review of Research on Education*, *20*, 3–56. papers://e8be8f12-9b9f-4670-8141-8705a33f86f6/Paper/p707

Flores, B. B., & Smith, H. L. (2009). Teachers' characteristics and attitudinal beliefs about linguistic and cultural diversity. *Bilingual Research Journal*, *31*(1), 323–358. https://doi.org/10.1080/15235880802640789

Flores, N. (2016). Combatting marginalized spaces in education through language architecture. *Penn GSE Perspectives on Urban Education*, *13*(1), 1–3.

Flores, N. (2020). From academic language to language architecture: Challenging raciolinguistic ideologies in research and practice. *Theory Into Practice*, *59*(1).

Flores, N., & Rosa, J. (2015). Undoing appropriateness : Raciolinguistic ideologies and language diversity in education. *Harvard Educational Review*, *85*(2), 149–172. https://doi.org/10.17763/0017-8055.85.2.149

Galloway, E. P., Dobbs, C., Olivo, M., & Madigan, C. (2019). 'You can…': An examination of language-minoritized learners' development of metalanguage and agency as users of academic language within a multivocal instructional approach. *Linguistics and Education*, *50*, 13–24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2019.01.002

Gandara, P., & Mordechay, K. (2017). Demographic change and the new (and not so new) challenges for Latino education. *The Educational Forum*, *81*(2), 148–159. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131725.2017.1280755

Garcia, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, Bilingualism and Education*.

Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137385765

Godley, A. J., & Reaser, J. (2018). *Critical language pedagogy: Interrogating language, dialects, and power in teacher education*. Peter Lang.

Gough, P. B., & Tunmer, W. E. (1986). Decoding, reading, and reading disability. *Remedial and Special Education*, *7*(1), 6–10. https://doi.org/10.1177/074193258600700104

Grosjean, F., & Garcia, O. (2017). What is translanguaging? *Psychology Today*. https://www.psychologytoday.com/blog/life-bilingual/201603/what-is-translanguaging

Hammond, J., & Gibbons, P. (2005). Putting scaffolding to work: The contribution of scaffolding in articulating ESL education. *Prospect*, *20*(1), 6–30.

Heineke, A., & Neugebauer, S. R. (2018). The complexity of language and learning: Deconstructing teachers' conceptions of academic language. *Issues in Teacher Education*, *27*(2).

Heller, V., & Morek, M. (2015). Academic discourse as situated practice: An introduction. *Linguistics and Education*, *31*, 174–186. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2014.01.008

Jaspers, J. (2018). The transformative limits of translanguaging. *Language and Communication*, *58*, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.langcom.2017.12.001

Jensen, B., & Thompson, G. A. (2020). Equity in teaching academic language—an interdisciplinary approach. *Theory into Practice*, *59*(1), 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2019.1665417

Krashen, S. D., & Terrell, T. D. (1983). *The natural approach: Language acquisition in the*

classroom. The Alemany Press.

Kumashiro, K. (2001). "Posts" perspectives on anti-oppressive education in social studies, English, mathematics, and science classrooms. *Educational Researcher*, *30*(3), 3–12.

Kumashiro, K. (2015). *Against common sense: Teaching and learning toward social justice* (3rd ed.). Rutledge.

Ladson-Billings, G. (2006a). From the achievement gap to the education debt: Understanding achievement in U.S. schools. *Educational Researcher*, *35*(7), 3–12. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X035007003

Ladson-Billings, G. (2006b). "Yes, but how do we do it?" In *White Teachers / Diverse Classrooms* (pp. 29–42).

Lahey, T. (2017). Collaborating to address the challenge of academic language. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *68*(3), 239–250. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487117696279

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. SAGE Publications.

Lou, C., & Lei, S. (2019). *Part of us: A data-driven look at children of immigrants*. Urban Institute. https://www.urban.org/features/part-us-data-driven-look-children-immigrants?fbclid=IwAR2u4sxKsnqvB3g4cP3ciIT4blLgdp7uX4lHnS3EcqVsy8xwFdPwW3C2Wek

Lowenstein, K. L. (2009). The work of multicultural teacher education: Reconceptualizing white teacher candidates as learners. *Review of Educational Research*, *79*(1), 163–196. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654308326161

Lucas, T., & Villegas, A. M. (2010). The missing piece in teacher education: The preparation of linguistically responsive teachers. *Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, *109*(2), 297–318.

Lucas, T., & Villegas, A. M. (2013). Preparing linguistically responsive teachers: Laying the foundation in preservice teacher education. *Theory into Practice*, *52*(2), 98–109. https://doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2013.770327

MacSwan, J. (2018). Academic English as standard language ideology: A renewed research agenda for asset- based language education. *Language Teaching Research*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818777540

Macswan, J., & Rolstad, K. (2003). Linguistic diversity, schooling, and social class: Rethinking our conception of language proficiency in language minority education. In C.B. Paulston & G.R. Tucker (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: The Essential Readings* (pp. 329–340). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Mancilla-Martinez, J., & Lesaux, N. K. (2010). Predictors of reading comprehension for struggling readers: The case of Spanish-speaking language minority learners. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *102*(3), 701–711. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0019135

Mancilla-Martinez, J., & Lesaux, N. K. (2017). Early indicators of later English reading comprehension outcomes among children from Spanish-speaking homes. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *21*(5), 442–448.

Mancilla-Martinez, J., & McClain, J. B. (2020). What do we know today about the complexity of

vocabulary gaps and what do we not know? In E.B. Moje, P. Afflerbach, P. Enesco, & N. K. Lesaux (Eds.), *Handbook of Reading Research* (5th ed.). Routledge.

Martin-Beltrán, M. (2014). "What do you want to say?" How adolescents use translanguaging to expand learning opportunities. *International Multilingual Research Journal*, *8*(3), 208–230. https://doi.org/10.1080/19313152.2014.914372

Martinez, D. (2017). Imagining a language of solidarity for Black and Latinx youth in English language arts classrooms. *English Education*, *49*(2), 179.

Martinez, T. (2016). *Academia, Love Me Back*. Personal Blog. https://vivatiffany.wordpress.com/2016/10/27/academia-love-me-back/

McClain, J. B., Mancilla-Martinez, J., Flores, I., & Buckley, L. E. (under review). *Translanguaging to support emergent bilingual students in English dominant preschools: An exploratory sequential mixed-method study*.

McClain, J. B., & Phillips Galloway, E. (under review). *Valuing both language proficiency and pluralism: An exploratory mixed-methods investigation of teachers' ideologies about academic language and its instruction for language minoritized learners*.

Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldana, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook and the coding manual for qualitative researchers* (3rd ed.). SAGE.

Milner, H. R. (2007). Race, culture, and researcher positionality: Working through dangers seen, unseen, and unforeseen. *Educational Researcher*, *36*(7), 388–400. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189x07309471

Milner, H. R. (2017). Race, talk, opportunity gaps, and curriculum shifts in (teacher) education. *Literacy Research: Theory, Method, and Practice*, *66*. https://doi.org/10.1177/2381336917718804

Moje, Elizabeth Birr. (2007). Developing socially just subject-matter instruction : A review of the literature. *Review of Research in Education*, *31*(March), 1–44. https://doi.org/10.3102/0091732X07300046

Morris, B. (2020, May 27). Why does zoom exhaust you? Science has an answer. *Wall Street Journal - Online Edition*. https://www.wsj.com/articles/why-does-zoom-exhaust-you-science-has-an-answer-11590600269.

Moschkovich, J. (2012). *Mathematics, the Common Core, and language: Recommendations for mathematics instruction for ELs aligned with the Common Core.* Paper Presented at the Understanding Language Conference, Stanford, CA. htpp://ell.stanford.edu/papers.

Nagy, W. E., Townsend, D. R., Lesaux, N. K., & Schmitt, N. (2012). Words as tools: Learning academic vocabulary as language acquisition. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *47*(1), 91–108. https://doi.org/10.1002/RRQ.011

National Reading Panel (2000). *Report of the national reading panel: Teaching children to read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction*. NICHD Clearinghouse.

Nespor, J. K. (1985). *The Role of Beliefs in the Practice of Teaching: Final Report of the Teacher Beliefs Study*. (Research Report No. ED 270 446). Austin: University of Texas.

Neugebauer, S. R., & Heineke, A. (2020). Unpacking K-12 teachers' understandings of academic language. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 47*(2), 158–182.

Otheguy, R., Garcia, O., & Reid, W. (2015). Clarifying translanguaging and deconstructing named languages: A perspective from linguistics. *Applied Linguistics Review*, *6*(3), 281–307.

Pacheco, M. B., David, S. S., & Jiménez, R. T. (2015). Translating pedagogies leveraging students' heritage languages in the literacy classroom. *Middle Grades Research Journal*, *10*(1), 49–63.

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, *62*(3), 307–332. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543062003307

Paris, D. (2012). Culturally sustaining pedagogy: A needed change in stance, terminology, and practice. *Educational Researcher*, *41*(3), 93–97. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X12441244

Paris, D., & Alim, H. S. (2014). *Pedagogy beyond the white gaze*. Voices in Education, A Blog of Harvard Education Publishing Group. http://hepg.org/blog/pedagogy-beyond-the-white-gaze

Phillips Galloway, E., Qin, W., Uccelli, P., & Barr, C. D. (2020). The role of cross-disciplinary academic language skills in disciplinary, source-based writing: Investigating the role of Core Academic Language Skills in science summarization for middle grade writers.

Reading and Writing, 33(1), https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-019-09942-x

Pierson, A. (2019). Modeling and modes: Broadening participation in science practices for emerging bilingual students. *Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning Conference, CSCL*, *2*(June), 668–671.

Pierson, A., & Clark, D. (2018). Emerging bilingual students and science practices: Can translanguaging resources be leveraged to support modeling? *CEUR Workshop Proceedings*, *2128*. http://ceur-ws.org/Vol-2128/scitech3.pdf

Ricketts, J., Nation, K., & Bishop, D. V. M. (2007). Vocabulary is important for some, but not all reading skills. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *11*(3), 235–257. https://doi.org/10.1080/10888430701344306

Rosa, J., & Flores, N. (2017). Unsettling race and language: Toward a raciolinguistic perspective. *Language in Society*, *46*(05), 621–647. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0047404517000562

Schleppegrell, M.J. (2004). *The language of schooling: A functional linguistics perspective.* Lawrence Earlbaum Associates Publishers.

Senechal, M., & Ouelette, G. (2006). The misunderstood giant: On the predictive role of early vocabulary to future reading. In S. B. Neuman & D. K. Dickinson (Eds.), *Handbook of early literacy research: Vol. 2* (Volume 2, pp. 173–182). Guilford Press.

Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher*, *15*(2), 4–14. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X015002004

Smith, A. (2020). A dream deferred? An examination of Black education in the United States. *Journal of Underrepresented and Minority Progress, 4*(1), 44-64.

Smith, J. A., & Osborn, M. (2003). Interpretative phenomenological analysis. In J. A. Smith (Ed.), *Qualitative psychology: A practical guide to research methods* (pp. 51–80). Sage Publications. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781848607927.n11

Sperry, D. E., Sperry, L. L., & Miller, P. J. (2019). Reexamining the verbal environments of children from different socioeconomic backgrounds. *Child Development*, *90*(4), 1303–1318. https://doi.org/10.1111/cdev.13072

The Praxis study companion: English to speakers of other languages. (2016). Educational Testing Services. https://www.ets.org/s/praxis/pdf/5361.pdf

Taie, S., Goldring, R., & Spiegelman, M. (2018). *Characteristics of public elementary and secondary school teachers in the United States: Results from the 2015-16 National Teacher and Principal Survey.* Washington, D.C: National Center for Education Statistics. https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2017/2017072rev.pdf

Townsend, D. R., Filippini, A. L., Collins, P., & Biancarosa, G. (2012). Evidence for the importance of academic word knowledge for the academic achievement of diverse middle school students. *The Elementary School Journal*, *112*(3), 497–518.

Turkan, S., De Oliveira, L. C., Lee, O., & Phelps, G. (2014). Proposing a knowledge base for teaching academic content to English Language Learners: Disciplinary linguistic knowledge. *Teachers College Record*, *116*(030308), 1–30.

https://www.tcrecord.org/Content.asp?ContentID=17361

Turner, M., & Lin, A. M. Y. (2020). Translanguaging and named languages: Productive tension and desire. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *23*(4), 423–433. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2017.1360243

Uccelli, P., Barr, C. D., Dobbs, C. L., Phillips Galloway, E., Meneses, A., Sanchez, E., Phillips Galloway, E., Meneses, A., & Sanchez, E. (2014). Core Academic Language Skills (CALS): An expanded operational construct and a novel instrument to chart school-relevant language proficiency in pre-adolescent and adolescent learners. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *36*, 1–33. https://doi.org/10.1017/S014271641400006X

Uccelli, P., Phillips Galloway, E., Aguilar, G., & Allen, M. (2020). Amplifying and affirming students' voices through CALS-informed instruction. *Theory into Practice, 59*(1), 75-88.

Uccelli, P., Galloway, E. P., Barr, C. D., Meneses, A., & Dobbs, C. L. (2015). Beyond vocabulary: Exploring cross-disciplinary academic-language proficiency and its association with reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *50*(3), 337–356. https://doi.org/10.1002/rrq.104

Valdés, G. (2004). Between support and marginalization: The development of academic language in linguistic minority children. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *7*(2 & 3).

Van Manen, M. (1990). *Researching lived experience: Human science for an action sensitive pedagogy*. Albany State University of New York Press.

Wong Fillmore, L., & Fillmore, C. (2012). *What does text complexity mean for English Learners and language minority students?* Paper Presented at the Understanding Language Conference, Stanford, CA. htpp://ell.stanford.edu/papers.

Wright, W. E. (2010). *Foundations for Teaching English Language Learners.* Caslon, Inc.

Chapter 5: Conclusions

It's been nearly twenty years since the publication of "What Teachers Need to Know about Language," (Adger et al., 2002) and, during that time, the language demands in K-12 classrooms in the U.S. have continued to increase. For the past decade, the curriculum has centered complex informational text and deep understanding of disciplinary concepts – work that is well supported by explicit instruction in academic language, or the linguistic features commonly used in disciplinary discourse (Bunch et al, 2012; Moschovich, 2012). Demographic shifts have led to increasingly linguistically diverse classrooms, which mandate that all teachers also take on the role of language support (Lucas & Villegas, 2010). In addition, increased attention to the ways that language can serve as a mechanism for systemic racism in schools warrants deeper awareness of how hegemonic language ideologies serve to reinscribe inequitable language hierarchies in educational contexts (Flores & Rosa, 2015). Beyond what teachers need to know about language, the increasing language demands of the classroom due to curricular, demographic, and critical shifts call for deeper exploration of what teachers believe, think, feel, and tell each other about language.

As such, all three studies in this dissertation examine teachers' language ideologies – their socially constructed systems of knowledge and belief about language. The first paper is a literature review and conceptual framework outlining key dimensions of equitable academic language instruction through the lens of critical literacies. The second study utilizes principal component and regression analyses of survey data (N=154) to uncover broad heuristic patterns of teacher belief, as well as sociodemographic predictors of those patterns. The final study is an

interpretive phenomenological analysis of interview data collected from 9 teachers working with upper elementary and middle school students in a new immigrant destination state.

One benefit of multi-methods analysis is the opportunity to set the findings from distinct methodological paradigms in conversation with each other. The quantitative analysis in chapter 3 found that teachers strongly affirm both a value for academic language and a value for linguistic diversity. Principal components analysis revealed that these are two separate underlying constructs and suggests that teachers do not see valuing academic language and valuing linguistic diversity as mutually exclusive endeavors. In contrast, valuing standard language and valuing language diversity were seen as opposite ends of the same underlying latent construct. This is arguably a very promising finding, given that earlier research on teachers' attitudes toward language diversity suggest less openness to stigmatized dialects and languages other than English (Bowie & Bond, 1994; Byrnes et al., 1996). It appears as if positive attitudes toward linguistic diversity are increasing, which suggests that the discourses surrounding linguistic diversity are shifting.

While the quantitative analysis in chapter 3 suggested that teachers' value for academic language exceeded their self-efficacy for teaching academic language, teachers appeared to feel somewhat confident in their ability to teach academic language well. In addition, teachers who had bilingual or ELL certification or a doctoral degree expressed higher self-efficacy. This is encouraging for teacher educators, as it supports the idea that language ideologies are malleable, and that coursework can play an essential role in shaping those ideologies.

The qualitative analysis in chapter 4 also affirmed the power of coursework for building a language ideology that supports academic language instruction. Many teachers who participated

in phenomenological interviews referenced concepts they had learned in coursework to support their understanding of effective academic language instruction. In addition to teacher preparation, the teachers had ample support and incentives for implementing academic language instruction: standards explicitly attended to academic language, curriculum guidelines provided examples of how to teach it effectively, and it was clearly aligned with the assessments used by schools and districts to evaluate teacher effectiveness.

However, the qualitative analysis in chapter 4 complicated findings from chapter 3 about teachers' value for linguistic diversity. All of the teachers who participated in the phenomenological analysis made statements that affirmed minoritized students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds, but there was considerable variation in the extent to which teachers espoused instructional practices that intentionally leveraged LOTES. This may be in part because there is a "dilemmatic ideology" (Jaspers, 2018) operating in U.S. schools which requires teachers to simultaneously value competing demands.

The qualitative analysis also complicates the relationship between teacher education, teacher language ideologies, and teacher enactment of instruction. Theorists who prioritize upholding linguistic and cultural pluralism, including translanguaging theorists, often point to what teachers "should" be thinking, feeling, or doing without careful examination of the constraints shaping teachers' experiences (Jaspers, 2018). From cognitive focused Modern Expectancy-Value Theory (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002), teachers' value for linguistic diversity may be attenuated by limited support or incentives for implementing instruction that leverages and sustains students' linguistic resources other than WME. From sociocultural focused practice theory, it is unfair to expect teachers to unequivocally prioritize instructional practices that are

not foregrounded by the ideologies espoused in their social networks. As Lampert (2012) explains, “Unlike individual skills and knowledge, will does not develop through the training of independent individuals. Will is not an individual trait but a cultural one, having to do with the enacting norms and values of one’s reference group, norms that identify what is important to care about, and given alternatives, what should be a priority” (p. 364).

This is not to minimize the important work done by translanguaging and critical scholars who envision an educational system “beyond the White gaze” (Paris & Alim, 2014). As a scholar and teacher educator committed to transformative practices such as critical literacy, translanguaging pedagogies, and dialogic instruction, the finding “it’s complicated” is not an excuse to abandon efforts to foster equitable academic language instruction with language minoritized learners. However, it is a call to “move beyond critiquing problematic practices and theorizing transformative possibilities” and move toward wrestling alongside teachers to innovate concrete strategies for negotiating the tensions between providing access to dominant language forms, like WME and academic language, while simultaneously providing a means of deconstructing and reconstructing those forms (Puechner, 2017, p, 329).

Next steps may include design-based research with teachers committed to translanguaging pedagogy to iterate and test utility for and compatibility with academic language learning, with the ultimate goal of developing interventions and curricular resources to support more equitable instruction (e.g. TRANSLATE, Goodwin & Jimenez, 2016; Celic & Seltzer, 2011). Nonetheless, the findings across this multi-method dissertation provide an important starting point for better understanding teachers’ academic language ideologies as powerful resources for sense-making about their practice.

References

Adger, C.T., Snow, C.E., and Christian, D. (2002). *What teachers need to know about language.* McHenry, IL: Delta Systems.

Beck, I. L., McKeown, M. G., & Kucan, L. (2002). Choosing words to teach. In *Bringing words to life: Robust Vocabulary Instruction* (pp. 15–30). Guilford Press.

Bowie, R.L. and Bond, C.L. (1994). Influencing future teachers' attitudes toward black English: Are we making a difference? *Journal of Teacher Education,* 45(2), 112-118. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487194045002005

Byrnes, D. A., Kiger, G., & Manning, L. (1996). Social psychological correlates of teachers' language attitudes. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *26*(5), 455–467.

Bunch, G. C., Kibler, A., & Pimentel, S. (2012). *Realizing Opportunities for English Learners in the Common Core English Language Arts and Disciplinary Literacy Standards*. Paper Presented at the Understanding Language Conference, Stanford, CA. Retrieved from htpp://ell.stanford.edu/papers.

Celic, C., & Seltzer, K. (2011). *Translanguaging: a CUNY-NYSIEB Guide for Educators*. http://www.nysieb.ws.gc.cuny.edu/files/2012/06/FINAL-Translanguaging-Guide-With-Cover-1.pdf

Cummins, J. (1984). Language proficiency, bilingualism , and academic achievement. In *Bilingualism and Special Education: Issues in Assessment and Pedagogy* (pp. 136–151). College Hill.

Eccles, J. S., & Wigfield, A. (2002). Motivational beliefs, values, and goals. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *53*, 109–132.

Flores, N., & Rosa, J. (2015). Undoing appropriateness : Raciolinguistic ideologies and language diversity in education. *Harvard Educational Review*, *85*(2), 149–172. https://doi.org/10.17763/0017-8055.85.2.149

Goodwin, A. P., & Jiménez, R. T. (2016). Translate. *The Reading Teacher*, *69*(6), 621–625. https://doi.org/10.1002/trtr.1400

Lampert, M. (2012). Improving teaching and teachers: A "generative dance"? *Journal of Teacher Education, 63*(5), 361-367.

Krashen, S. D., & Terrell, T. D. (1983). *The natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*. The Alemany Press.

Jaspers, J. (2018). The transformative limits of translanguaging. *Language and Communication*, *58*, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.langcom.2017.12.001

Lucas, T., & Villegas, A. M. (2010). The missing piece in teacher education: The preparation of linguistically responsive teachers. *Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, *109*(2), 297–318.

Moschkovich, J. (2012). *Mathematics, the Common Core, and language: Recommendations for mathematics instruction for ELs aligned with the Common Core.* Paper Presented at the Understanding Language Conference, Stanford, CA. htpp://ell.stanford.edu/papers.

Paris, D., & Alim, H. S. (2014). *Pedagogy beyond the white gaze*. Voices in Education, A Blog

of Harvard Education Publishing Group. http://hepg.org/blog/pedagogy-beyond-the-white-gaze

Puechner, S.D. (2017). Justice at the gate? Negotiating tensions between critical literacy and "culture of power" pedagogies. *Journal of Adult and Adolescent Literacy, 61*(3), 327-330.

Appendix A : Development of the TALI

The development of the Survey of Teachers' Academic Language ideologies began with an examination of Neugebauer and Heineke's (2020) Academic Language Teaching Efficacy Scale, which revised items from Gibson and Dembo's (1984) teaching efficacy measure to attend to academic language specifically. They also included three items concerning teachers' values for academic language. Because I wanted to also relate teachers' value for linguistic diversity to their value for academic language, I also included items from other scales of belief about language (e.g. Duguay et al., 2016; Mancilla-Martinez & Lesaux, 2014). Once all items were compiled, I shared an initial draft with doctoral students and advising researchers as part of a research group. I then sent a version to an external advisor, Dr. Christina Dobbs, who has extensive experience with both professional development on teaching academic language as well as survey development. The next iteration involved sharing the survey with teachers outside of my program: a White male school administrator, a Black female elementary school teacher, a White female high school ELA teacher, a Latinx female middle school EL specialist, a White female elementary EL specialist, a White female guidance counselor, a White female elementary math teacher, and a White female middle school science teacher. These teachers read the survey and commented on questions that seemed unclear or unfair, which were subsequently revised prior to sending the initial pilot out for broader circulation. The initial pilot consisted of 60 multiple choice items, which are included below:

167

To be successful in life, students need to know how to use academic language.	◯ Strongly Disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Slightly Disagree ◯ Slightly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly Agree
It is important that culturally and linguistically diverse learners have the opportunity to use language and dialects other than Standard English in school to support their learning.	◯ Strongly Disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Slightly Disagree ◯ Slightly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly Agree
If an English learning student can speak English on the playground, he/she should be speaking English in the classroom.	◯ Strongly Disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Slightly Disagree ◯ Slightly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly Agree
With proper support, culturally and linguistically diverse learners can always meet the same rigorous expectations as their mainstream peers.	◯ Strongly Disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Slightly Disagree ◯ Slightly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly Agree
Standard English and Academic English are essentially the same.	◯ Strongly Disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Slightly Disagree ◯ Slightly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly Agree
It is ok for English Learners to disengage from the most academically difficult parts of a lesson.	◯ Strongly Disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Slightly Disagree ◯ Slightly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly Agree
The mistakes students make in their writing teach you about their language development.	◯ Strongly Disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Slightly Disagree ◯ Slightly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly Agree
I would support teachers spending instructional time to teach students about academic language.	◯ Strongly Disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Slightly Disagree ◯ Slightly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly Agree

It is unreasonable to expect culturally and lingusitically diverse learners to use academic language in classroom discussions.	◯ Strongly Disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Slightly Disagree ◯ Slightly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly Agree
Teachers should use academic language when instructing students whenever possible.	◯ Strongly Disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Slightly Disagree ◯ Slightly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly Agree
It is inappropriate to use grade-level texts to teach culturally and linguistically diverse students when their reading ability is below grade-level.	◯ Strongly Disagree ◯ Disagree ◯ Slightly Disagree ◯ Slightly Agree ◯ Agree ◯ Strongly Agree

Comments:

Appendix B : Semi-Structured Interview Protocol

Participants will first record a brief (3-4 minute) video recorded language autobiography of themselves answering the question: *What key language experiences have shaped your personal K-12 education? Please describe at least one positive language experience and one negative language experience and any connections those experiences may have with your current teaching practices.*

Next, participants will participate in an individual semi-structured interview with the following protocol:

How long have you been a middle school/intermediate grade teacher?

How did you become a middle school/intermediate grade teacher? What courses do you teach?

What level of education do you have? To what extent was your academic coursework (as part of degree or certification program) focused on language?

How has teaching middle school/intermediate grade changed since you began teaching?

Tell me about your students—what are they like? (If not described, follow up to get a sense of the Language diversity, dialect diversity, racial/ethnic representation, socioeconomic status of the student population)

What do you notice about your students' language use?

Do you think that the language use among the student population at your school has changed since you began teaching? Why or why not?

Do you see any connections between the language experiences you described in your language autobiography and your perceptions of student language use in school?

At the end of the first interview, I will inform the teachers that the next interview will be focused primarily on what they see as effective academic language instruction. I will ask them to bring an instructional artifact (i.e. lesson plan, student work, power point, guided notes, etc.) as an example of a time that they have enacted effective academic language instruction.

Below is the protocol for the second semi-structured interview:

How would you define academic language?

Look at this sample of 6th grade text. What makes it "academic"?

Evidence shows that the Earth's temperatures have increased in recent decades. Moreover, most scientists agree that it is extremely likely that humans are causing most of this problem through activities that increase concentrations of greenhouse gases.

Tell me a bit about your instructional artifact. What do you think is particularly effective about it?

What does academic language mean in the context of this artifact?

How does your students' language use relate to their learning in your classroom?

How does your teaching respond to their language use?

Can you tell me about a time when you felt you responded to student language use particularly effectively or particularly ineffectively?

Please describe where your school falls on the following curricular spectrum:
1) I am responsible for creating and designing my curriculum, drawing completely from outside resources that are not provided by my school.
2) I have a library of resources that are provided by the school, but I am responsible for selecting and sequencing the resources.
3) I have a comprehensive curriculum that is provided by the school, but I have flexibility to arrange the scope and sequence and supplement the curriculum as needed.
4) I have a comprehensive curriculum with a clear scope and sequence that is provided by the school, and I am expected to follow the scope and sequence in order, but I have flexibility to determine the pace, supplementing or condensing the curriculum as needed.
5) I have a comprehensive curriculum with a clear scope and sequence that is provided by the school, and I am expected to follow the scope and sequence according to a pacing guide that is set by administration. I am not permitted to supplement the curriculum.

Are you satisfied with the curricular resources you have been provided? Why or why not?

Do you feel that you are valued you as a professional? Why or why not?

After the second interview, I will schedule a focus group with the three teachers from the same geographic region (urban, suburban, rural) with the following protocol:

Read the prompt and two sample essay responses (see below) What does this writing tell you about each of these writers? How would you support these writers?

Do you think that school is fair and equitable for your students? Why or why not?

Do you think it has gotten more or less equitable since you began teaching? Why or why not?

How does student language relate to equity in school?

Can you give me an example of an instance that brought the relationship between language and equity to your attention? (Follow up) Did academic language play a role in this instance?

How often do you collaborate with teachers who teach the same subject as you? Different subjects than you? With an instructional coach or specialist?

Are you satisfied with the level of collaboration you have with other professionals in your building? Why or why not?

How often do you participate in professional development? How much of that professional development is based on language?

How often you experience pressure from your administration about your students' performance on standardized assessments?

Is your school at risk of punitive action because of standardized test scores? (i.e. Has your school failed to make AYP? Is your school under threat of takeover?)

Essay Prompt and Two Sample Responses

Imagine that your school decided to give iPads to all students, so everyone has the opportunity to use iPads for learning. Most teachers like the iPads because all students can use online dictionaries and search the internet for interesting information. But in the last few weeks students have used their iPads to post videos with mean comments about other kids online. Now, many parents are worried about this situation. **Because of this problem, your Principal has decided that iPads will no longer be allowed in school!**

Write an article for the school newspaper that argues for or against allowing iPads at your school.

- Make sure to **give specific reasons to support your position and to convince the people who read the article to agree with you.**
- Explain how the Principal's decision can impact you and others
- Discuss other things that the school community could do to solve the iPad problem

Sample Essay 1: I think schools should have iPads or tablets in school. One reason I think we should have iPads in school is the learning supplies. The books that most schools have are books from previous school years. Some students will write in the books they are not suppose to. And the books are sometimes out of date. Another reason we should iPads in the school is for the funds. Schools have computers that cost about four hundred or more. But the iPads would cost less around one hundred to two hundred dollars. A final reason we should have iPads in the school is for research. When kids are assigned a report or project they could start by looking up things on the iPads. In conclusion I think we should have iPads in the school.

Sample Essay 2: They should because it helpful for kids. The principal could easily take away certain sites from the iPad. Do not just take the iPad away work with kids or parents. Also it is not fair for the students that did not do anything wrong. That they were not missing it at all. The principal needs to find the students that did it and punish them. Lastly students need it. Or it would be helpful because they can do homework on it and it would make it more fun. They can do projects on it.