Preparing and Supporting Teachers to Equitably Support Multilingual and Multicultural Learners

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A Dissertation

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Doctor of Philosophy

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by

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Approval of the Dissertation

This dissertation ("Preparing and Supporting Teachers to Equitably Instruct Multilingual and Multicultural Learners") has been approved by the Graduate Faculty of the School of Education and Human Development in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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October 26, 2023

Dedication

To my students

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Table of Contents

List of Tables

Manuscript 1

Manuscript 2

List of Figures

Manuscript 1

Manuscript 2

Manuscript 3

Executive Summary

U.S. law requires that schools provide all students with equal access to high-quality education (U.S. Department of Education, 2015). This mandate creates a need for teachers across disciplines to be trained to develop the skills and attitudes necessary to teach a diverse student population (Coady et al., 2016; Cummins, 2009; de Jong & Harper, 2005; Echevarría et al., 2006; Fillmore & Snow, 2000; Lucas & Villegas, 2010; Samson & Collins, 2012). Teachers need specific types of experiences to develop these professional skills and attitudes, which they can access in various spaces, including preservice teacher education (Devine et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2008) and in-service professional development (Calderón, 2020; Echevarría et al., 2006; Neumayer DePiper et al., 2021). Teacher educators (TEs; Devine et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2008) and school principals (Kurt et al., 2012; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Thornton et al., 2020) play a key role in facilitating these learning opportunities for teachers.

To instruct diverse students well, teachers need skills that promote equitable student learning opportunities. Studies show that teachers' instructional quality plays a critical role in students' equitable achievement (e.g., Wahlstrom et al., 2010). However, general instructional quality is not enough – teachers also need the skills to be able to carry out specific instructional strategies to meet the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students (Coady et al., 2016; Cummins, 2009; de Jong & Harper, 2005; Echevarría et al., 2006; Fillmore & Snow, 2000; Lucas & Villegas, 2010; Samson & Collins, 2012; Siwatu, 2007). Some preservice teaching programs offer coursework that prepares teachers to instruct multilingual and multicultural learners, but these opportunities are limited. As a result, K-12 schools often shoulder the responsibility of developing teachers' skills in these areas (Kim & Morita-Mulaney, 2020).

Teachers' efficacy beliefs (including self- and collective efficacy) convey the extent to which teachers feel they are able to carry out instructional tasks, including instructing MLs and other students from marginalized backgrounds (Bandura, 1977; 1993; 1997; Caprara, et al. 2006; Goddard et al., 2000; Goddard et al., 2017; Holzberger et al., 2013; Klassen & Tze, 2014; Pajares, 1996). When teachers have higher efficacy beliefs, they tend to provide higher quality instruction (Holzberger et al., 2013; Klassen & Tze, 2014), and this extends to teaching MLs and other marginalized students (Kim & Morita-Mulaney, 2020). Therefore, it is important to understand the types of experiences teachers need in order to develop higher self- and collective efficacy beliefs.

Alongside the necessary instructional skills for teaching multilingual and multicultural students, teachers' attitudes about students and their families can influence teachers' instructional impact. For example, the biases that teachers hold about students and families and the extent to which teachers emphasize students' assets rather than deficits can impact teachers' instructional decisions (Lin et al., 2008; López, 2017). Studies have demonstrated that bias can impact teachers' instructional quality specifically related to marginalized students (Kumar et al., 2015). On the other hand, when teachers have positive attitudes about students and families, teachers can be more motivated to pursue challenging instructional tasks to support their students' academic success. Anti-bias teacher education can promote more equitable attitudes and instructional skills (Derman-Sparks, 2016; Derman-Sparks & Edwards, 2019).

Therefore, teachers' attitudes and skills do not operate in isolation. Teachers' attitudes influence the likelihood that teachers enact their learned skills to offer high-quality instruction to the diverse learners in their classrooms. Teacher education, including both preservice and in-service teacher education, can positively impact the ways in which teachers provide high-quality,

equitable instruction to the diverse learners in their classrooms (Calderón, 2020; Devine et al., 2012; Echevarría et al., 2006; Lin et al., 2008; Neumayer DePiper et al., 2021). When preservice teachers (PSTs) are given opportunities to learn specific instructional skills and develop asset-based attitudes towards marginalized/minoritized learners, they display higher efficacy for anti-bias teaching (Devine et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2008). TEs are instrumental in providing this instruction. Similarly, when teachers are given professional development opportunities, their efficacy for instructing MLs increases (Calderón, 2020; Echevarría et al., 2006; Neumayer DePiper et al., 2021). Principals play a key role in providing these professional development opportunities (Kurt et al., 2012; Thornton et al., 2020).

In this dissertation, I address two key components of teacher training and professional development to promote equitable instruction for diverse students. The first component (addressed in Manuscript #1) focuses on anti-bias teacher education, and specifically, the experience of TEs as they participated in an anti-bias teaching module that they planned to later implement with the PSTs they taught. The second component (addressed in Manuscripts #2 and #3) focused on in-service teachers' efficacy beliefs for instructing multilingual learners (MLs)[1] and ways in which principal leadership can support teachers' instructional efficacy for MLs.

Manuscript #1: Exploring the Nature of Teacher Educator Attitudes and Engagement Within an Anti-Bias Community of Practice

This manuscript is situated within extant literature on anti-bias teacher education and collaboration among TEs. Prior studies have suggested that anti-bias education heavily leans on PSTs being taught anti-bias material in their TPIs (Devine et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2008), yet TEs are often unprepared and/or uncomfortable with providing this type of instruction (Genor &

[1] We define multilingual learners as students who speak languages other than English and qualify through school-based language assessments for additional instructional support.

Schulte, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 2015). Dr. Judy Paulick, Dr. Ariel Cornett, and I conducted this qualitative study based on an anti-bias teaching module created by Dr. Paulick. The participating TEs engaged in a three-day workshop on the topic of family engagement in which they learned anti-bias principles and engaged in the module first-hand with the plan to then carry out the module in their preservice teaching seminars with PSTs. We used a theoretical framework of communities of practice, which the TEs formed during their workshop participation. Communities of practice can be productive locus of educational reform through productive collective engagement and dialogue (Anthony et al., 2018; Buysse et al, 2003; Curcio & Schroeder, 2017; Graven & Lerman, 2003; Kluth & Straut, 2003; Wenger, 2011).

In this study, we sought to understand the ways in which TEs' background experiences with and expectations about module content (i.e., anti-bias education and family engagement) shaped their engagement within an anti-bias TE community of practice (CoP). We also explored which areas of module content provoked comfort and discomfort for TEs. We used a single-case embedded design to explore the participants' engagement with the module content. We implemented purposive sampling to recruit four TEs who teach a preservice teaching seminar course in four different universities across one state. Our data sources included observational field notes and open-response survey responses (which were collected at three time points: pre-, mid-, and post-workshop). For our analytic strategies, we used a grounded theory, iterative approach and engaged in multiple rounds of open coding (Merriam, 2009).

Our findings suggested that TEs demonstrated a range of personal and professional characteristics that informed and influenced their engagement in the anti-bias teaching module. The participants varied in the frequency and depth of their participation in the module content, as well as the extent to which and ways in which they displayed comfort and discomfort during the

workshop. Despite their differences, participants articulated several collective goals: finding common ground, supporting each other, and collaborating in service of being better TEs. These findings have important implications. TEs' willingness to engage in anti-bias education topics (which can sometimes bring discomfort) can influence their ability to teach PSTs anti-bias education. Module content needs to be adapted to individual TEs' and PSTs' characteristics and institutional characteristics as well. This manuscript was published in the Spring 2022 volume of *The Teacher Educator Journal.*

Manuscript #2: Elementary Principal Leadership to Support Teachers' Self-Efficacy for Instructing Multilingual Learners

Teachers need to possess specific instructional skills to effectively instruct MLs (Coady et al., 2016; Cummins, 2009; de Jong & Harper, 2005; Echevarría et al., 2006; Fillmore & Snow, 2000; Lucas & Villegas, 2010; Samson & Collins, 2012), yet teachers are rarely given substantive opportunities to develop these skills (Merlin, 2021). Teacher self-efficacy (TSE) is a useful tool for measuring teachers' sense of their own ability to carry out certain instructional tasks (Bandura, 1977; 1993; 1997). However, only limited studies have effectively measured TSE specifically related to instructing MLs (e.g., Fu & Wang, 2021; Yough, 2008). Also, only a small number of studies have explored the factors such as principal leadership and professional development opportunities that may influence teachers' self-efficacy for instructing MLs (Elfers & Stritikus, 2014; Munguia, 2017; Neumayer DePiper et al., 2021; Ross, 2013).

In this quantitative, cross-sectional study, I, along with co-authors Dr. Peter Youngs and Dr. Jim Soland, explore the following questions: 1) What is the association between teachers' perceptions of principal leadership to support MLs (PL) and teachers' sense of self-efficacy for instructing MLs (TSE)? and 2) to what extent does teachers' experience with in-service

professional development related to instructing MLs (PD) mediate the association between PL and TSE?

We distributed a survey in the spring of 2022 to 65 in-service elementary teachers in five elementary schools within one Mid-Atlantic state. The survey included a TSE scale (adapted from Fu and Wang's ELL Education Self-Efficacy Scale; 2021), a PL scale, and a PD scale, as well as questions eliciting participants' demographic information. We conducted bifactor analysis and structural equation modeling to explore the factor structure of the TSE subscales as well as the ways in which principal leadership and professional development are associated with TSE. We found that there was a significant association between PL and TSE for MLs. However, this association was not significantly mediated by the amount of PD that participants had experienced.

This has important implications for practice – school systems can invest in building principals' knowledge and skills related to ML instruction to build schools' capacity for equitable ML instruction, independent of the relevant PD opportunities that may be available to teachers. Further study is needed to understand these associations on a broader scale and the ways in which these associations may or may not hold true for specific subgroups of teachers such as multilingual teachers and teachers of color. Overall, this study is an important initial foray into measuring TSE specifically for instructing MLs and factors that may influence it. We anticipate submitting this manuscript to *Education Administration Quarterly* in the spring of 2024.

Manuscript #3: Elementary Teachers' Experiences of Principal Leadership to Support Collective Teacher Efficacy for Instructing Multilingual Learners

When supported in school with high-quality instruction, MLs can thrive (Agirdag, 2014; Briceño & Zoeller, 2022; Colomer & Chang-Bacon, 2020; Kibler et al., 2014), and this can be especially true for elementary instruction. Elementary ML instruction is inherently collaborative (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010; Honigsfeld, 2009), and collective teacher efficacy is a useful construct for understanding teachers' sense of their group's ability to instruct MLs (Bandura, 1997; 2000). This study is based on prior studies focusing on effective elementary ML instruction, sources of collective teacher efficacy for instructing MLs, and principal leadership strategies that may support ML instruction. Some studies have explored the types of experiences that teachers need in order to develop strong collective efficacy for instructing MLs and the ways in which principals can provide these types of experiences (e.g., Abedini et al., 2018; Khezerlou, 2013). However, these studies are scant. Therefore, in this study, I sought to explore the following research questions: 1) What types of experiences and opportunities do teachers see as beneficial to their school's collective capacity (including their CTE) for instructing MLs? and 2) What role do principals play in providing these experiences for teachers?

I conducted this qualitative, multiple case study by conducting in-depth, semi-structured interviews at two elementary schools within one Mid-Atlantic state. I purposively selected these schools because both contained large proportions of MLs and had implemented innovative strategies to address MLs' educational needs. The participants included six teachers and two principals from both schools. The teacher interview protocol included questions related to the nature of teachers' collective efficacy beliefs and the types of experiences, including their experiences of principal leadership, that teachers felt enhanced their school's collective capacity for instructing MLs. The principal interview protocol included similar questions but focused on

the principal's perspective of teachers' instructional capacity and the experiences that they provided which they saw as having enhanced teachers' collective capacity for instructing MLs.

To analyze this data, I conducted consensus coding with Dr. Paulick using multiple iterations of deductive and inductive codes (Corbin & Strauss, 2007; Creswell, 2014). The deductive codes were based on Bandura's theorized sources of efficacy beliefs (1977, 1997). Inductive codes (including in vivo and descriptive codes) emerged from participants' responses. Dr. Paulick and I coded sets of transcripts individually and then met to ensure consensus on the applied codes. Next, we compared themes from the deductive and inductive codes and elicited cohesive themes from the data. We found that teachers benefited from receiving support from ESOL teachers, accessing instructional resources, and participating in PD. The interviews also revealed that principals could support their schools' collective capacity for instructing MLs by facilitating coordinated and collaborative instruction, creating a collective ethos for ML success, and providing instructional resources. By using these strategies, principals and district leadership can leverage teacher strengths and build schools' collective capacity to support ML academic success. We plan to submit this manuscript to *TESOL Quarterly* in the spring of 2024.

Conclusion

In summary, effective instruction of multilingual and multicultural students (including MLs) relies on teachers to demonstrate skills and attitudes to equitably deliver high-quality instruction. TEs and principals play a key role in providing training and professional development opportunities that may help teachers to develop these skills and attitudes. The studies included in this dissertation explore the ways in which teachers felt that principal leadership and professional development opportunities supported their self- and collective efficacy for instructing MLs. The studies also focus on ways in which TEs engaged with anti-

bias education material that they plan to implement with PSTs. These studies provide the field with specific strategies that TEs and principals, as well as the education field more broadly, can use to support preservice and in-service teachers in educating diverse learners including MLs more equitably.

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Manuscript 1

Exploring the Nature of Teacher Educator Attitudes and Engagement Within an Anti-Bias Community of Practice

Charlotte D. Blain, Ariel Cornett, and Judy Paulick

Abstract

This study explored how members of a community of practice of teacher educators from a diversity of institutions across one state engaged in and expressed (dis)comfort during a two-day workshop on anti-bias teacher education. Using a qualitative, single-case embedded design, we found that there was a range of engagement with the workshop content that is consistent with how most people engage with anti-bias content: Participants who came into the workshop eager to reflect and adapt their practice were apt to do so, while those with initial hesitations tended to display some resistance. We also observed a shared desire to find common ground, support each other, and collaborate in service of professional improvement. This work has implications for the development of teacher educators who are prepared to teach anti-bias content to future teachers.

Recent events such as the rise of the Black Lives Matter movement and the widespread misconstrual of Critical Race Theory have underscored the need for anti-racist teaching and learning. Anti-racism necessitates “persistent self-awareness, constant self-criticism, and regular self-examination" (Kendi, 2019). Bias is at the heart of the kinds of discrimination that can damage teaching and learning, negatively influencing students’ opportunities and achievement (Kumar et al., 2015). In opposition to this, anti-bias education serves as an “underpinning perspective” (Derman-Sparks & Edwards, 2019, p. 6) in which teachers continually reflect about the impact of their instruction and work to combat bias in themselves and the interactions that take place in their classrooms (Derman-Sparks, 2016). By providing anti-bias teacher education to preservice teachers (PSTs), teacher preparation institutions (TPIs) have the opportunity to prepare teachers to enter the field better equipped to support all students and ready to grow into anti-racist educators.

Anti-bias teacher education is broadly defined as education for PSTs that builds “inclusion, positive self-esteem for all, empathy, and activism in the face of injustice” (Lin et al., 2008, p. 189). TPIs serve as a space where PSTs can develop beliefs, attitudes, and practices related to anti-bias education (Lin et al., 2008). Furthermore, PSTs tend to benefit from scaffolded, hands-on experiences facilitated by TEs in their TPI coursework that focus on anti-bias education (Devine et al., 2012). Nevertheless, there are often logistical, ideological, and cultural constraints in TPIs that deter TEs from teaching this content, including a reluctance to engage with topics that are uncomfortable (Ladson-Billings, 2015) or for which TEs lack training (Genor & Schulte, 2002). A promising first step to having a workforce of anti-bias educators is to prepare TEs to effectively train PSTs (i.e., through their TPI coursework). Previous studies

have found that communities of practice (CoPs) can be impactful sites in which TEs can do such reflective and innovative work (Anthony et al., 2018; Curcio & Schroeder, 2017).

Anti-Bias Teacher Education

Anti-bias teacher education often appears within multicultural education courses and includes a focus on recognizing and confronting one's own biases through connecting with students' diverse families and communities in order to instruct more equitably. However, very few multicultural education courses focus specifically on family engagement. Successful family engagement instruction includes, but is not limited to, growing PSTs' knowledge of diverse families (e.g., characteristics and historical context) and PSTs' skills for engaging them (e.g., collaboration and communication; Gerich et al., 2017) and providing opportunities for PSTs to be immersed in students' diverse cultures through tasks such as home visiting and role-playing (García et al., 2009). In other words, family engagement is an underutilized space for developing anti-bias dispositions.

PSTs tend to show discomfort or resistance around certain areas of anti-bias instruction. These include topics such as race, family, religion, and culture (Smith & Glenn, 2016). Additionally, PSTs often express discomfort during discussions wherein their views could be interpreted as biased (Smith & Glenn, 2016). Extant research provides instructional strategies that may decrease PSTs' hesitation to self-reflect and speak about their own biases. Reflection is key (Gerich et al., 2017); PSTs may reflect more openly when TEs give them opportunities to process privately through writing, share in pairs, and then discuss as a whole class (Smith & Glenn, 2016). Also, exposing PSTs to an anonymous third party's biased views can allow PSTs to distance themselves from those views enough to critique them (Genor & Schulte, 2002). Conversely, by providing PSTs with first-hand accounts of people from marginalized identity

groups, TEs can allow PSTs to empathize enough with those sharing so as to rescind their previously biased views (Genor & Schulte, 2002). Successful anti-bias instruction of PSTs may also include directly addressing PSTs' self-efficacy beliefs and fears regarding family engagement (Gerich et al., 2017).

Collaboration Among Teacher Educators

A limited number of studies have explored the ways in which TEs collaborate to reform practice. Occasionally, collaborative efforts involve intentionally formed communities of practice (CoPs), which aim to reform practice in a group of participants (Wenger, 1998); however, many collaborations are not specifically CoPs and are instead formed more organically. Whether CoPs or not, these collaborative groups allow TEs to reflect on their practice (Curcio & Schroeder, 2017), share ideas across fields or institutions (Kluth & Straut, 2003), and apply knowledge to practice (Au, 2002). Collaboration can have a strong positive impact on TEs' instructional and academic effectiveness (Anthony et al., 2018; Curcio & Schroeder, 2017).

CoPs and other forms of TE collaboration can increase instructional rigor (Anthony et al., 2018), lower isolation among TEs and PSTs (Curcio & Schroeder, 2017), and bridge practice across divergent fields (Kluth & Straut, 2003). Collaboration can also allow members at various stages of their careers to engage in continuous learning. Within collaborative TE groups, studies indicate that conflicts may not detract from the group's cohesion – in fact, dissension can be productive and help all of the members to grow stronger and more reflective (Curcio & Schroeder, 2017). However, some research also suggests that strong group cohesion can result in "downward leveling norms," where the majority discourages individuals from pursuing divergent perspectives (Portes, 1998, p. 17). Therefore, group awareness and intentionality are

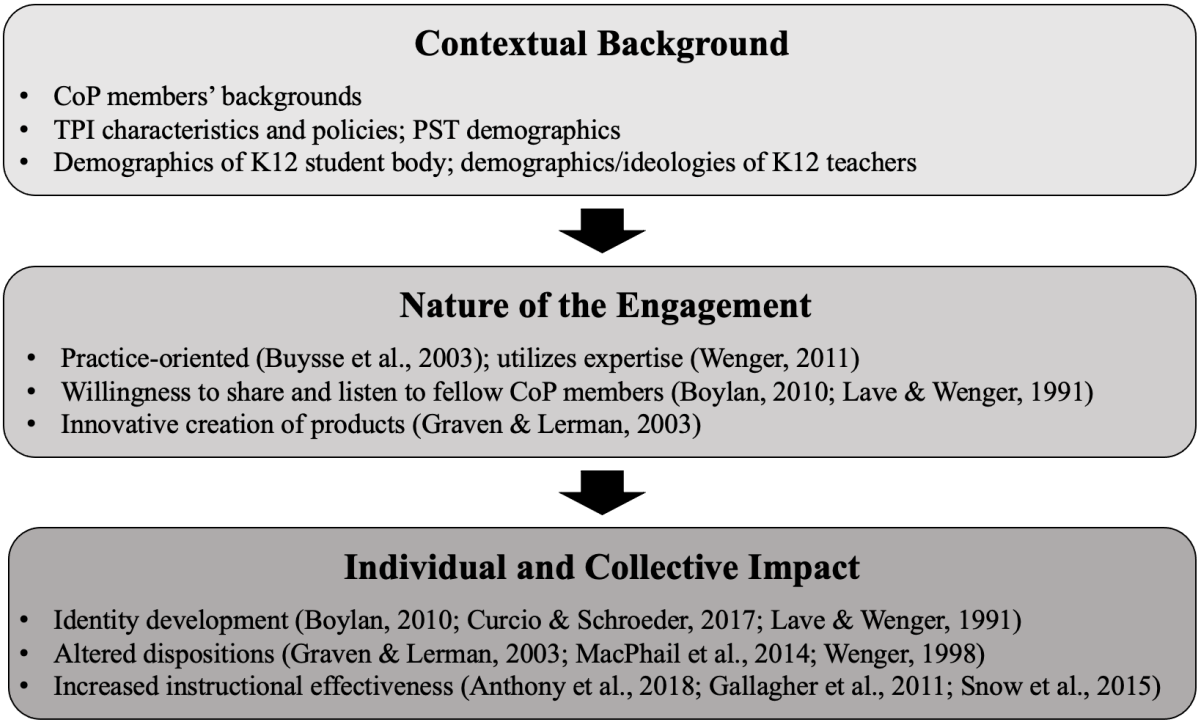
crucial: members need to be mindful of the potential for individuals to compromise the group's goals and must consciously uphold their collective standards.

Conceptual Framework: Communities of Practice

A CoP is a group of individuals who convene around a topic of interest to reflect on and collectively reform their practice. Members from varying backgrounds "share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly" (Wenger, 1998, p. 1). In CoPs, members draw upon their individual expertise to inform their mutual engagement through "joint activities and discussions, help[ing] each other, and shar[ing] information" (Wenger, 2011, p. 2). CoP members openly share their personal knowledge and experiences while also listening to that of their fellow CoP members (Lave & Wenger, 1991). This authentic communication allows for innovation (Buysse et al, 2003; Graven & Lerman, 2003) and for vulnerability in the face of new learning (Anthony et al., 2018). Scholars note that increased trust and support within a CoP can enhance the conditions for creativity as well (Graven & Lerman, 2003). As our framework demonstrates (see Figure 1), the characteristics of participating TEs and their TPIs merge to influence the nature of engagement that occurs in the CoP, and this then impacts the individual members and the field at large.

Figure 1

Teacher Educator Communities of Practice



Methods

We employed a qualitative, single-case embedded design (Yin, 2017) to explore how participants engaged and expressed (dis)comfort in a two-day workshop on anti-bias teacher education in the summer of 2019. The 'case' for this study was the anti-bias education TE CoP, where the embedded units of analysis were the individual TEs from different TPIs. The goal of the workshop was to iterate an anti-bias module with CoP members that each TE would then implement with PSTs in their Elementary Teaching Seminar ("Seminar") courses. The module itself was intended to provide PSTs with opportunities to: a) explore their own cultural identities and articulate an expansive definition of culture (Hammond, 2014); b) understand implicit bias and reflect on their own biases (Milner, 2003); c) identify cultural assets in families and resources in communities (López, 2017); and d) engage in productive and positive relationship-

building home visits with students' families (Parent Teacher Home Visit Project, 2007) as well as conduct community resource visits. The workshop began with the TEs participating in the module as learners, themselves. We hired an external facilitator -- a Black woman who was an equity specialist, administrator, and former classroom teacher in a local school district -- to lead the majority of the workshop sessions with researcher support so that the researchers could participate as CoP members.

We explored the following research questions:

1. How do TEs' background experiences with and expectations about module content (i.e., anti-bias education and family engagement) shape their engagement within an anti-bias TE CoP?
2. What module content provokes comfort and discomfort for TEs?

Researcher Positionality

The three authors are white, middle-class women who have attended or served as a professor at a TPI in the same state as the other CoP participants. The first author is pursuing her Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) degree. She serves as a teaching assistant in a Seminar with the third author. The second author served as a teaching intern in the Seminar course with the third author while she pursued her Ph.D. The third author is an assistant professor and teaches a Seminar course.

Participants

In this study, we utilized purposive sampling to recruit four TE participants into the CoP (see Table 1). They work at four different TPIs: Red, Blue, Purple, and Yellow Universities. The following participant descriptions provide context for the interactions described in the findings.

May Ordibehesht

May is a Middle Eastern woman who completed her Bachelor of Science (B.S.) and Master of Arts (M.A.) degrees in school counseling in Iran. She obtained a Ph.D. in early childhood education. For a total of 13 years, May was a school counselor and pK teacher. She has been a tenure-track assistant professor at Red University since 2017. May was interested in participating in the workshop to add "new lenses and more comprehensive aspects" to her courses (Survey, 4/5/20).

Lucy Evans

Lucy is a white woman who received a B.A. in elementary education and religion as well as a Master of Education (M.Ed.) in reading. For a total of eight years, she was an elementary teacher. She has been at Blue University for six years and is currently an assistant professor and coordinator for the Bachelor of Science in Education (B.S.Ed.) program. Lucy was interested in participating in the workshop to collaborate with "colleagues at other institutions" (Survey, 7/27/19) because she wanted to learn "how other universities prepare students throughout their program."

Jane Davis

Jane is a white woman who received a B.A. and M.T. in elementary education as well as a Ph.D. in curriculum and instruction. For a total of five years, she was an elementary teacher. Jane has been at Purple University for ten years serving as Assistant Director and then Director of Education Studies; now, she is a tenured associate professor. Jane was interested in participating in the workshop in order to connect with colleagues and promote anti-bias work: "Ultimately, it is a benefit to myself, my institution, my students, and their future students" (Survey, 7/24/19).

Marian Lane

Marian is a white woman who has a B.S. in elementary education (i.e., pK-6) as well as an M.Ed. and Doctor of Education (Ed.D.) in curriculum and instruction. She was an elementary teacher for 18 years and then served for seven years as Yellow University's assistive technology coordinator. She has been at Yellow University for the past 15 years and is currently a full professor and elementary education program leader. Marian was interested in participating in the workshop in order to learn "what others are doing and ways to improve [her] teaching and [Yellow University's] preservice program" (Survey, 7/29/19).

Table 1

Teacher Educator Participant Demographics

Pseudonym	Demographics and Personal Background	Professional Background in Education (pK-12 or Higher Ed)	TPI Location
May	Female, Middle Eastern, Muslim, Iranian, middle class, Persian/Farsi, 34 years old	17 years: school counselor, pK teacher, tenure-track assistant professor	Small city within a rural area
Lucy	Female, white, Christian, U.S.-born, middle class, English, 46 years old	15 years: elementary teacher, assistant professor, and program coordinator	Mid-sized city within a suburban area
Jane	Female, white, non-religious, U.S-born, upper-middle class, English, 40 years old	16 years: elementary teacher, associate professor, assistant program director, and program director	Large city within an urban area
Marian	Female, white, Christian, U.S.-born, middle class, English, 61 years old	41 years: elementary teacher, university assistive technology coordinator, professor, and program leader	Small city within a rural area

Context and Data Collection

We collected a variety of data sources. First, TEs completed a pre-workshop survey including 11 open-response questions. Then, during the two-day workshop, we collected detailed observational field notes on the TEs' interactions with the workshop content as well as with one another. The TEs completed two mid-workshop reflections consisting of several open-ended questions. They also completed a post-workshop survey containing three open-response questions about their experiences with the anti-bias workshop and their intentions for future anti-bias work. We followed up with participants at a conference held eight months after the anti-bias workshop to reflect upon module implementation as well as to gather updated participant information.

Data Analysis

We analyzed the open-ended survey questions, observation field notes, and reflections with a grounded theory, iterative approach followed by open coding in order to develop categories and cluster topics (Merriam, 2009). We discussed areas of disagreement, refined the codebook, and re-coded in Dedoose until we reached 78% agreement. We used data triangulation (i.e., surveys, observation field notes, reflections) to develop larger themes and identify disconfirming evidence, which together informed our study's findings.

Findings

We found that among our range of TEs' personal and professional characteristics there was a variety of approaches to the anti-bias work and collaboration itself. These differences included how often and how vociferously participants chose to speak up and reflect during the workshop, as well as how and when participants demonstrated discomfort and vulnerability. We

also observed a shared desire to find common ground, support each other, and collaborate in service of being better TEs. In this section, we present these findings.

Speaking Up Versus Listening

The four TE participants engaged deeply throughout the workshop; however, the levels and types of engagement and the background experiences from which participants drew differed. Some TEs were more willing to share personal stories, whereas others only spoke about practical or theoretical facets of the work. For example, May shared about her experience both as a religious minority and a professor and stressed the importance of TEs "advocating for people without a voice" (Field Notes, 7/29/2019). Jane, who was once uncomfortable being a first-generation college student, shared that she had gradually developed self-acceptance. She tells her students, "Not only is it okay that these are your roots, but we *need* you in education" (Field Notes, 7/29/2019). These participants' personal experiences allowed them to connect with the content of the workshop.

Participants' ways of listening also differed throughout the workshop, perhaps related to their individual attitudes, experiences, and beliefs. At times, participants listened very receptively, eager to learn. During the workshop, May shared with Lucy about being Irani and Muslim and her experience living on the other side of the world from her family. Then, Lucy asked (with regard to the Trump-era travel bans), "Do you see your family?" Lucy listened intently to May's responses, potentially curious about May's first-hand experience of racism that differed from Lucy's experience. Lucy and May had very different cultural backgrounds, and the bulk of this partner interaction was spent with May sharing and Lucy listening, exemplifying a learner stance.

Sharing Discomfort and Vulnerability

Across the workshop, participants shared varying accounts of discomfort and vulnerability. The external facilitator set the tone for the workshop on the first day with: "If it doesn't make you uncomfortable, I'm not doing my job" (Field Notes, 7/29/2019). The group agreed. Soon after, Marian suggested "What happens in Vegas stays in Vegas" as a norm for the group; this indicated a desire for discretion. She explained that she was still learning and processing anti-bias content. May responded that Marian might receive some push-back from the group, but pushback is part of the process. The group agreed that both discretion and risk-taking (i.e., challenge) were important.

One topic that seemed to elicit discomfort among TEs was whiteness and white privilege. In a discussion about aspects of identity associated with privilege, the facilitator noted that whiteness could increase access to educational opportunities. At this point, May slumped down in her chair, partially hid her face in her clothes, folded her arms, and looked away, showing physical signs of discomfort. Jane, on the other hand, shifted the conversation to the topic of socio-economic status rather than race as a lever for opportunity. She shared that, being a first-generation college student, she did not know she could ask colleges for additional financial aid. In these examples, it is clear that whiteness elicited discomfort and avoidance among participants.

Seeking Cohesiveness

Participants consistently sought cohesiveness among the group. When one or more TEs vocalized resistance to new techniques, other members of the group chimed in to seek consensus and accommodate differing views. For example, when Jane conveyed apprehension about training PSTs to *celebrate* diversity, since some PSTs were "not even *tolerating* yet," May

conceded, "Maybe you *do* have to get to 'tolerate' before you can get to 'celebrate'" (Field Notes, 7/29/2019). At other times, the group was even more forceful in seeking accord. When the group began discussing having PSTs conduct home visits during their teaching internships, Marian was wary, saying that having PSTs visit some neighborhoods would "probably be okay," but not other neighborhoods. In direct response to Marian's resistance, May shared a strategy she used to prepare her PSTs for multicultural encounters and then directly countered Marian with, "I definitely support (home visiting)" (Field Notes, 7/30/2019). Regarding TPI approval for home visiting, Jane shared how she planned to "ask forgiveness and not permission" and offered a compromise: "Lots of kids have activities, like dance practice. Could I go to something like that?" (i.e., conduct a home visit in a public setting). Marian agreed that this was also potentially a good strategy for meeting more than one family at a time.

Later, as the group prepared to sort through materials and discuss the module, participants collaborated to craft the essential questions. There was discomfort and disagreement as the team collectively honed the questions. The participants negotiated the questions that they were each going to work on. Within a few minutes, each individual had been able to uniquely contribute to the module and the group as a whole.

Committing to Collaboration

Prior to the workshop, Marian, Lucy, and Jane indicated that the collaboration itself was their main motivation for attending the workshop (Survey, 7/27/19). Marian expressed in her post-workshop survey that she appreciated being able to "learn [from colleagues] and wrestle with new ideas." Lucy agreed, describing the first day of the workshop as particularly important: "I appreciated the opportunity to collaborate and learn from other people's experiences." Jane reflected on the comfort of doing this difficult work in an anti-bias TE CoP: "It was incredibly

useful to spend two days with other [TEs] who struggle with how to help our [PSTs] understand issues of identity and bias. It is comforting to know that others face the same struggle." While these participants were enthusiastic about the product, it was the process they were particularly eager for. After the workshop, the same three participants were hopeful that the group could continue to collaborate. Although May's main priority in participating was to gather resources to use with her students, more than to reflectively collaborate, she did indicate that the work together had been useful: "It helped us to reflect on our biases and more about ourselves as a critical first step" (Survey, 7/29/19).

The collective desire to collaborate was notable given the variation across the contexts. The four TEs compared and contrasted the courses where the module would fit into, revealing stark contrasts in their contexts (e.g., levels of instructor autonomy and length and modality of courses). However, all TEs expressed challenges working at TPIs where the PSTs were largely homogeneous in regards to demographics (i.e., white and female) and had similar background experiences. Overall, the participants left the workshop eager to support each other in their work implementing the module and integrating home visiting, in particular, into their individual programs.

Discussion

Consistent with prior literature, we found that there was a range of TEs' personal and professional experiences and a range of engagement with the workshop content (Genor & Schulte, 2002); furthermore, CoP members sought cohesiveness and collaboration with one another when given the opportunity (Buysse et al., 2003; Curcio & Schroeder, 2017; Graven & Lerman, 2003). In terms of TEs' expectations, participants who came into the workshop eager to reflect and adapt their practice were apt to do so, while those with initial hesitations tended to

display some resistance and avoidance (e.g., with the topics of white privilege and home visiting; Snow et al., 2015). In other words, the TEs' interactions and engagement with anti-bias education and family engagement (i.e., module content) were consistent with those of PSTs. Therefore, professional development for TEs might benefit from similar goals as anti-bias work for PSTs, including considerations of the TEs' contexts, background experiences, and expectations.

Anti-Bias Teacher Education

While prior studies (O'Hara, 2007) addressed PSTs' experience with anti-bias topics, the present study explored TEs' engagement both as participants and as future facilitators of an anti-bias module. TEs' willingness to be vulnerable as participants in the module can build their capacity to empathetically navigate this process with PSTs. For example, Jane was able to reflect on her own experience as a first-generation college student, and she could articulate how she planned to leverage her own experience to encourage PSTs (Field Notes, 7/29/2019).

TEs' capability to relate to PSTs' experience with anti-bias teacher education may be nuanced by the extent to which TEs share demographic identities with PSTs. Research suggests that when white PSTs are taught by a TE of color, they temper their openness during anti-bias reflections (Smith & Glenn, 2016). In the present study, while not a TE-PST interaction, when Jane (a white TE) interacted with a Black facilitator on the topic of racism, she avoided the topic of white privilege and changed the subject to socioeconomic status (Field Notes, 7/29/2019). All but one of the present study's CoP members were white women, and multiple of these white members expressed discomfort with pushing their PSTs to celebrate diversity and visit the homes of families with marginalized identities. While not overt, this implies an ongoing need to address TEs' own biases towards marginalized PSTs, K-12 students, and families. More research is

needed to explore how TEs implement anti-bias modules with PSTs of demographics that differ from their own.

This anti-bias module was consistent with prior research on home visiting as a promising method of family engagement (García et al., 2009; Lin & Bates, 2010). During the workshop, some of the CoP members expressed willingness to implement home visiting with their PSTs; others demonstrated resistance, including concerns with the logistics and policies surrounding home visiting. This resistance aligned with the literature on PSTs' perceived barriers to implementing multicultural curricula in their future classrooms (Van Hook, 2002), as TEs expressed concern about TPI and school district policies. This reveals the need to adapt the anti-bias module to match the diverse characteristics of TEs' TPIs (and the TEs, themselves).

Communities of Practice

Overall, the aspects of a successful CoP that were productive within this group of TEs—professionals with a variety of experiences and diversity of contexts—were the space and time to share experiences and build resources. Our CoP members came from different institutional contexts across a single state, so they were able to compare and contrast their experiences and contexts and collectively strategize implementing parts of the anti-bias module. In particular, they discussed how to communicate with administrators within their TPIs and how they could work with largely homogenous (i.e., white, female) groups of PSTs. The differences between CoP members in their personal and professional backgrounds allowed for richer conversations among the group (Wenger, 1998).

The TEs also had differing levels of professional experience; newer TEs brought fresh ideas—like requiring relationship-building home visits—and more experienced TEs brought professional savvy from years of experience in teacher education (e.g., how to negotiate with

administrators; Lave & Wenger, 1991). CoP members' different personal backgrounds enhanced individuals' experiences (e.g., Lucy learning from May's experience as an immigrant; Field Notes, 7/29/2019) and the CoP as a whole (e.g., agreeing on norms of discretion and risk-taking based on members' experience-based suggestions; Field Notes, 7/29/2019). CoP members were able to capitalize on the personal and professional differences they discovered because they shared a common goal of reforming their practice (Wenger, 2011), thus leveraging their differences to fuel their collective work (Buysse et al., 2003). Given this cohesiveness, even outright disagreement among CoP members provided an opportunity to deepen the group's thinking and strengthen the group's framing of certain parts of the anti-bias module (e.g., "tolerate" versus "celebrate;" Field Notes, 7/29/2019; MacPhail et al., 2014). However, while the desire to build consensus allowed for the group to continue the work, it is possible that cohesiveness also resulted in "downward leveling norms" (Portes, 1998, p. 17). The possible negative effects of group cohesion within anti-bias TE CoPs merit further study.

Based on this study's findings, a worthwhile next step would be to investigate the implementation of the anti-bias module in the Seminar courses of this study's participating TE CoP members. As this study found, TEs would need to adapt the content and logistics of the module to accommodate their individual TPI and PSTs' characteristics. Researchers could also explore how PSTs experienced the module, including in-depth interviews to gauge participants' nuanced understandings of and responses to the content. Additionally, future studies could explore TEs' use of anti-bias CoPs among PSTs in teacher preparation courses, perhaps alongside implementation of the anti-bias module. TEs could set up small groups of PSTs who would meet regularly as a PST CoP to discuss the module's anti-bias concepts and their application. These in-class CoPs could provide PSTs with a candid, reflective environment

within which to introspectively confront bias (both their own and institutional) and adapt their teaching practice accordingly (Gerich et al, 2017; Smith & Glenn, 2016).

Limitations

The scope of this study did not include data collection regarding TEs' PSTs in their Seminars, their coursework, or their reactions to or implementations of the module. Additionally, because we wanted to create a secure workshop space in which participants could share candidly, we relied on workshop field notes collected by one of the researchers rather than recordings, which limited the level of detail collected in the data. Future studies could utilize video recording to capture the nonverbal and verbal interactions and reactions of CoP members with the anti-bias workshop and each other.

Conclusion

The TE CoP in this study provided TEs with an opportunity to collaboratively expand upon their understanding of anti-bias topics (Wenger, 2011). This study's findings are an important starting point to explore how CoP members' expressed attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions carry through into their practice. The need for anti-bias work is increasingly crucial. Since the occurrence of this workshop, the U.S. has experienced a renewed call for the end of systemic racism and bias. Teachers must interrogate their own beliefs and attitudes to disrupt their own biases and move toward anti-racist teaching (Kendi, 2019; Lin et al., 2008). TEs are teachers, too; thus, a vital starting point for this work is with the TEs who train PSTs.

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Manuscript 2

Elementary Principal Leadership to Support Teachers' Self-Efficacy for Instructing Multilingual Learners

Charlotte D. Blain, Peter Youngs, and Jim Soland

Abstract

Teachers need to possess specific instructional skills to effectively instruct multilingual learners (MLs). Teacher self-efficacy (TSE) is a useful construct for measuring teachers' sense of their ability to instruct students, including MLs. Factors such as teachers' experiences with principal leadership and professional development may influence teachers' self-efficacy for instructing MLs. This quantitative, cross-sectional study explored the association between principal leadership and TSE for MLs, as well as the possible mediation of professional development, based on survey results from 63 in-service elementary teachers. Structural equation modeling revealed that there was a significant association between PL and TSE for MLs, but this association was not significantly mediated by the amount of PD that participants had experienced. These findings suggest that principal leadership for MLs can have a strong impact on teachers' capacity for instructing MLs, no matter the amount of professional development opportunities available to teachers. This study underscores the importance of building principals' knowledge and skills related to leading schools for equitable ML instruction.

United States (U.S.) schools are tasked with providing equitable education to all students (U.S. Department of Education, 2015). The Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Title VI), the Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974, and the Lau v. Nichols U.S. Supreme Court case of 1974 all compel schools to provide MLs equal access to high-quality education (U.S. Department of Education, 2015). Ongoing research highlights multiple avenues for schools to provide more equitable ML instruction. For example, bilingual and dual-language immersion programs can have promising long-term effects on MLs' learning (Calderón & Minaya-Rowe, 2010; Collier & Thomas, 2004). However, many states have instated restrictive policies such as English-only requirements that do not provide opportunities for MLs to reach their full linguistic potential (Wright, 2007). These inequities in U.S. schools suggest that significant work is needed to provide MLs with fully equitable educational opportunities.

To effectively instruct MLs, teachers need specialized instructional knowledge and skills that extend beyond those required for general education instruction (Coady et al., 2016; Cummins, 2009; de Jong & Harper, 2005; Echevarría et al., 2006; Wong Fillmore & Snow, 2000; Lucas & Villegas, 2010; Samson & Collins, 2012). These include the ability to teach English language skills within the context of content area lessons (de Jong & Harper, 2005; Echevarría et al., 2006) and providing instruction that is culturally and linguistically responsive (Lucas & Villegas, 2013; Siwatu, 2007). These skills are necessary above and beyond the skills necessary for teaching monolingual, English-speaking students (de Jong & Harper, 2005; Echevarría et al., 2006; Goldenberg, 2013; Loeb et al., 2014), so teachers need specific supports to be able to enact these instructional skills.

Teacher self-efficacy (TSE) is an important construct that measures teachers' abilities to effectively instruct students (Bandura, 1977; 1993; 1997). Many studies have demonstrated

associations between teacher efficacy (both individual and collective) and educational outcomes, including teachers' instructional quality and equitable educational achievement for marginalized students (Caprara, et al. 2006; Goddard et al., 2000; Goddard et al., 2017; Holzberger et al., 2013; Klassen & Tze, 2014; Pajares, 1996). However, there are few studies that focus on teachers' efficacy specifically for instructing MLs. While a limited number of studies have begun to develop TSE scales for instructing MLs (Fu & Wang, 2021; Yough, 2008), these scales would benefit from additional exploration and evidence of validity in diverse populations.

Professional development can have a positive impact on teachers' ability to effectively instruct MLs (Calderón, 2020; Echevarría et al., 2006; Neumayer DePiper et al., 2021). There are also plentiful studies that suggest that teachers' experiences of principal leadership can enhance teachers' instructional capacity, including their TSE (e.g., Kurt et al., 2012; Leithwood & Mascall, 2008; Thornton et al., 2020). Some studies have demonstrated an association between PL and TSE for ML instruction, in particular (Kim & Morita-Mullaney, 2020; Ross, 2014). However, only limited studies explore the ways in which principal leadership influences TSE for MLs, specifically, and the ways in which PD experiences can interact with that association (e.g., Elfers & Stritikus, 2014; Munguia, 2017). These studies are largely qualitative in nature. Quantitative studies can uniquely measure the extent to which variables such as TSE and principal leadership are associated with each other and the extent to which other variables may influence that association. Therefore, more quantitative study is needed to explore the association between principal leadership and TSE for instructing MLs and factors such as professional development that may mediate this association. In this study we aim to understand:

1) Is there an association between teachers' perceptions of principal leadership to support MLs (PL) and teachers' sense of self-efficacy for instructing MLs (TSE)?

2) Does teachers' experience with professional development (PD) related to instructing MLs mediate the association between PL and TSE for instructing MLs?

Literature Review

Below, we review literature on TSE and its associations with instructional quality and student educational outcomes. We also review literature on the necessary components of effective instruction for MLs and the ways in which PD opportunities may help teachers to develop these skills. Finally, we review PL activities that may support teachers to effectively instruct MLs.

Teacher Self-Efficacy for Instructing MLs

TSE can predict teachers' general instructional effectiveness. Bandura (1977; 1993; 1997) theorized that people's behavior was influenced by their self-efficacy beliefs, and many education researchers have used this as a basis of their empirical investigations (e.g., Caprara et al., 2006; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Holzberger et al., 2013; Klassen & Tze, 2014; Pajares, 1996; Siwatu, 2007; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). Holzberger and colleagues' cross-sectional correlation analysis (2013) demonstrated an association between teacher self-efficacy and instructional quality as assessed by both the teachers and their students. Klassen & Tze (2014) conducted a meta-analysis of 43 studies related to teacher motivation and student achievement. They found that the correlation between teacher self-efficacy and evaluated teacher performance was stronger than any other personality measure. Empirical evidence for a relationship between general teacher self-efficacy and instructional quality is strong.

Generally, empirical TSE studies demonstrate a relationship between teacher self-efficacy and instructional quality, as well as student achievement, yet these studies also have limitations (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Holzberger et al., 2013; Klassen, et al., 2011; Klassen &

Tze, 2014; Pajares, 1996; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007). In his 1996 review, Pajares warned against "mismeasurement of self-efficacy" (p. 547) and advised, "When self-efficacy beliefs closely correspond to the criterial task with which they are compared, prediction is enhanced" (p. 555). Indeed, research has indicated consistently that the predictability of self-efficacy measures depends on the measures' specificity. Klassen and colleagues' 2011 meta-analysis found that many past TSE studies had been based on faulty conceptual frameworks that were not aligned with the original theoretical framework. Further, according to Bandura (2012), many factors influence self-efficacy and its measurement, including context, validity evidence of measurement tools within the study context, and inherent self-report bias. Many researchers have stated the generality of their studies' self-efficacy measures as limitations in their studies (Caprara et al., 2006; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Holzberger et al., 2013).

Some TSE scales have been developed to measure specific areas of teachers' instructional skills. One example is the Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy (CRTSE) scale, which has been found to be a strong example of teacher self-efficacy measures (Siwatu, 2007). Other studies also demonstrated theoretical consistency and construct validity, such as the Norwegian Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale (NTSES) created by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2007). In this study, the researchers found that TSE was highly associated to teacher burnout and collective teacher efficacy. These measures provide insight for future researchers into ways efficacy scales can be constructed to be more specific and theoretically aligned.

There has been a small number of self-efficacy studies that focus on teachers' capacity to instruct MLs, specifically. Many of these studies (e.g., Yough, 2008) use general self-efficacy scales that are only slightly modified for the context of ML instruction to understand teachers' efficacy in the context of instructing MLs. Yough (2008) created and collected validity evidence

of a measure of TSE for instructing MLs. He slightly modified the generic Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) for the context of ML instruction and created the Teacher Efficacy for Teaching the English Language Learner (TETELL) Scale. Yough's later study (2019) found that when preservice teachers were given an intervention in their educational psychology classes that incorporated experiences theorized to build people's efficacy beliefs, the teachers' TETELL scores increased. This suggests that opportunities to learn more about instructing MLs (whether within preservice or in-service settings) can allow TSE beliefs related to MLs to improve. However, the construction of the TETELL scale items involved minimal adaptation for the specific instructional skills necessary to instruct MLs that go beyond those required for monolingual English-speaking students. A more specific scale could potentially measure teachers' capacity for instructing MLs with more construct validity.

Fu and Wang (2021) later developed a TSE for MLs scale that more specifically focused on the instructional skills required for effective ML instruction (the ELL Education Self-Efficacy Scale; EESES). Their items reflected the detailed instructional strategies that teachers of MLs use to convey English language-related knowledge and skills to their students in the context of content-area lessons. The researchers used exploratory factor analysis to determine the measure's underlying subscales (pedagogical-content efficacy, linguistic efficacy, and sociocultural efficacy). While the EESES scale has great potential to aid researchers in understanding the nature of TSE for MLs, other researchers have not yet engaged in such studies. Thus, future research could utilize the EESES scale to understand factors that may be associated with TSE for instructing MLs, including principal leadership and professional development.

Professional Development to Support Elementary ML Instruction

Instructing MLs successfully requires special skills that extend beyond those required for teaching monolingual English-speaking students (Coady et al., 2016; Cummins, 2009; de Jong & Harper, 2005; Echevarría et al., 2006; Wong Fillmore & Snow, 2000; Lucas & Villegas, 2010; Samson & Collins, 2012). These skills include embedding language instruction within content-area lessons (de Jong & Harper, 2005; Echevarría et al., 2006), linguistics and second language acquisition (Wong Fillmore & Snow, 2000), and cultural competence (Samson & Collins, 2012). Teachers must also be able to partner with MLs' families through relationship-building, asset-framed interactions (Paulick et al., 2022).

While teachers' instructional skill is crucial to the equitable education of MLs, teachers receive limited training in their preservice education programs related to how to instruct MLs. A report conducted by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) found that only 41% of classroom teachers in the U.S. have received even one teacher education course related to instructing MLs (Merlin, 2021). Therefore, it is incumbent on the schools and districts in which teachers teach to provide additional support in these skills.

The types and amounts of preparation that teachers receive related to instructing MLs influence their self-efficacy for teaching these learners (Kim & Morita-Mullaney, 2020). A survey study in the context of math instruction indicated that, while teachers' sense of efficacy for instructing MLs was generally lower than their efficacy for non-MLs, their engagement in professional development was correlated positively with TSE beliefs (Ross, 2014). Another study found that when teachers engaged in a professional development program on how to deliver linguistically responsive mathematics instruction, teachers' efficacy increased (Neumayer DePiper et al., 2021). Teachers reported that the strategies they learned for teaching language skills within mathematics lessons were particularly helpful (Neumayer DePiper et al., 2021).

Certain types of professional development opportunities can be very effective at supporting teachers in instructing MLs. The Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) professional development opportunity (Echevarría et al., 2000) can improve teachers' ability to accommodate MLs within mainstream classroom instruction (Echevarría et al., 2006). The Excelling Comprehension for English Language Learners (ExC-ELL) training method also has demonstrable impacts on teachers' mainstream instruction for MLs (Calderón, 2020). Overall, PD can greatly improve teachers' sense of competence for meeting the needs of MLs, and principals can improve the educational opportunities provided to MLs in their schools by providing teachers opportunities to access this type of training.

Principal Leadership to Support ML Instruction

Principals play an important role in supporting teachers' ability to provide high-quality instruction (e.g., Leithwood & Mascall, 2008). Principal leadership has been found to be associated with teachers' general sense of efficacy (both self- and collective efficacy; e.g., Kurt et al., 2012; Thornton et al., 2020). Some studies have found that principals can improve TSE and student achievement through providing opportunities for professional development. For example, Lambersky's (2016) interview study with 20 teachers in Ontario, Canada found that principals could have a positive impact on teachers' TSE beliefs specifically through providing professional development opportunities. The study also emphasized the need for teachers to feel affirmed and supported by their principals in order to feel a strong sense of self-efficacy as teachers (Lambersky, 2016).

Some additional studies have suggested that teachers' sense of principal leadership is associated with the equitable learning outcomes for marginalized students, and at times particularly for MLs. A research synthesis conducted by the Wallace Foundation (Grisholm et

al., 2021) reported a variety of strategies that principals can use to enhance the equity of learning opportunities offered to students in their schools. These strategies included facilitating group conversations to build teachers' awareness of educational inequities, strategically placing highly qualified teachers with underperforming students, creating structures for co-teaching between general education teachers and teachers of English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL), and providing professional development opportunities for specific instructional strategies for MLs (Grisholm et al., 2021).

Further qualitative studies have explored the types of leadership activities that principals can implement to support teachers' instruction of MLs. Elfers and Stritikus (2014) conducted a qualitative, multiple-case study in three elementary schools and found that principals supported teachers' instruction of MLs when they included three key components in their leadership strategy: high-quality instruction among all teachers, balancing district- and school-level initiatives, and maintaining a focus on data as a key component of instructional decision-making (Elfers & Stritikus, 2014). Additionally, Munguia (2017) conducted an interview study in two high-performing elementary schools. The study found that effective principal leadership for MLs included providing accountability around teachers' instructional planning and delivery, creating intentional collaboration structures, offering teachers opportunities to practice new strategies, and maintaining a collective expectation of high achievement amidst a culture of trust (Munguia, 2017).

Additionally, focusing on ML achievement as an outcome, Theoharis and O'Toole (2011) conducted a multiple case study at two elementary schools with high ML achievement. In both schools, principals strategically allocated resources to provide professional development resources such that all teachers could become more skillful in instructing MLs (Theoharis &

O'Toole, 2011). In one of the schools, this professional development led to 90% of instructional staff becoming certified in teaching ESOL. In the other school, the entire school transitioned to a co-teaching model to support the needs of MLs and other high-needs populations (Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Similarly, Brown's (2016) qualitative case study involving interviews with the principal and six teachers at one elementary school to explore the ways in which principals supported increased student achievement. Brown found that teachers and principals experienced enhanced achievement outcomes for diverse students when the principal strategically allocated resources to allow for professional development opportunities (2016).

More research is needed to understand whether teachers' experiences of principal leadership are associated with TSE specifically for instructing MLs and the ways in which professional development may interact with this association.

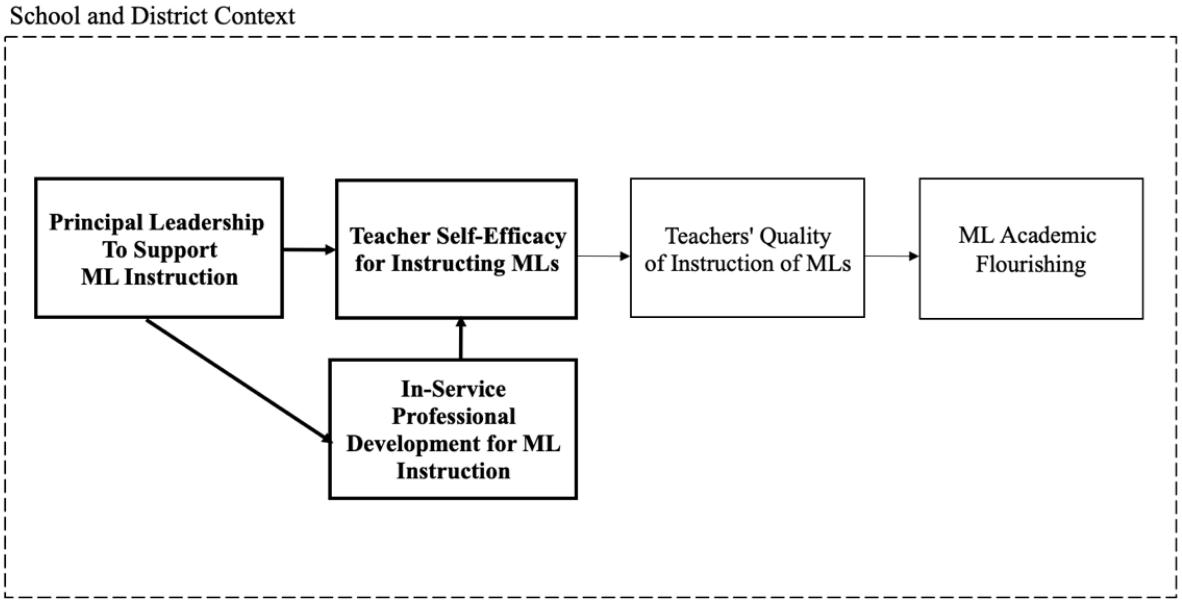
Conceptual Framework

Research has consistently found a strong association between TSE and student achievement, and principals have been found to have the second-strongest impact on student achievement after teachers (Leithwood et al., 2004). The individual instructional capacity of teachers plays an important role in their instruction of MLs, operationalized in the diagram below (Image 1) as TSE for instructing MLs. The leadership of principals can strongly affect instructional decision-making related to MLs (Kim et al., 2018) as well as TSE for instructing MLs. In this study, we will focus specifically on the relationship between principal leadership to support instructing MLs and TSE for instructing MLs (see Image 1). PD plays an important role in teachers' instructional abilities, including those related to MLs, and principals have the ability to leverage resources to implement PD opportunities for their teachers. Therefore, we

hypothesize that PD mediates the association between PL and TSE for MLs. We also hypothesize that PD is a significant mediator of the association between PL and TSE.

Figure 1

Teacher Self-Efficacy for Instructing MLs and Related Factors



Methods

In this study, we surveyed teachers from five elementary schools in two Mid-Atlantic school districts about their self-efficacy perceptions related to instructing MLs and factors such as principal leadership that may influence these perceptions. These survey items were based on the ELL Education Self-Efficacy Scale (Fu & Wang, 2021) and adapted based on extant literature related to effective ML instruction, field testing, and several preceding teacher efficacy scales (Bandura, 1997; Goddard et al., 2000; Siwatu, 2007; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). We also collected self-reported teacher demographic data. Ultimately, 63 teachers (both classroom and ESOL) completed the survey in its final form. We conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFA), structural equation modeling (SEM), and regression analysis to explore the associations

between TSE, PL, and PD. Below, we share additional details about the instrument development, participants, and proposed analytic strategies.

Context and Participants

This study involved the distribution of a survey to five elementary schools in two public school districts near or in small cities in the Mid-Atlantic region. The two participating school districts were selected based on the proportion of MLs within each school (at least 10% MLs). After receiving IRB approval from the authors' institution, we recruited each district through communication with the research department in each. The research administrators from each district invited all qualifying elementary principals to participate (schools needed to have a proportion of greater than 10% MLs). Of these schools, five agreed to participate in the study -- four in the first district and one in the second district. Across the five schools, there was diversity in the percentage of MLs enrolled (see Table 1). These five principals sent out the survey to their staff, requesting classroom, ESOL, and SPED teachers to respond. We sent two follow-up invitations and one conclusion email. All participants completed a digital consent form prior to responding to the survey and then completed the questions online via Qualtrics.

This elicited a total of 63 respondents across the five schools. Overall, the gender, race, and educational background demographics of our sample roughly mirrored those of the U.S. public school teacher population (National Center for Education Statistics, 2023). However, our sample included a higher proportion of White teachers, female teachers, and teachers with Master's degrees than the U.S. overall (see Table 2).

Table 1

District membership and EL percentage of sample schools

School	District	Percent of ELs
School A	1	23
School B	1	12
School C	1	35
School D	1	10
School E	2	43

Table 2

Statistics on analytic sample and U.S. teacher population

Variables	Sample Frequency	Sample Percentage	U.S. Teachers Percentage
Gender Identity			
Female	58	92	77
Male	4	6.4	23
Non-binary	0	0	0
Did not disclose	1	1.6	0
Race/Ethnicity			
African American	1	1.6	6
White	56	88.9	80
Hispanic/Latina/o	2	3.2	9
Asian	1	1.6	2
More than one race	1	1.6	2
Did not disclose	2	3.2	0
Primary Language			
English	60	95.2	**
French	2	3.2	**
Ukrainian	1	1.6	**
Highest Educ. Degree			
Bachelor's	20	32	38
Master's	42	66.7	51
Ed. Specialist	1	1.6	8.4
Doctorate	0	0	1.4
Other	0	0	1.2

Note. U.S. teacher demographics drawn from National Center for Education Statistics (2023).
** indicates that this data is unavailable.

Measures

We administered a TSE scale, a PL scale, and an additional set of questions about the teachers' instructional background and demographics (described below).

Demographics, Instructional Background, and Professional Development

Teachers completed a set of survey items related to their current instructional positions, their former instructional experience and professional backgrounds, their experience with PD, their personal demographics, and their linguistic and cultural backgrounds. These items were created based on the authors' professional backgrounds and were adapted based on input from the panel of experts and field test participants. Topics included number of years of prior teaching experience, percentage of the class qualifying for ESOL services, number of languages spoken by students in the teacher's class, teachers' linguistic backgrounds, etc.). The PD questions asked participants to report on the number of hours (0, up to 10 hours, and more than 10 hours) of PD that they had experienced within their school, within their district, and at professional conferences.

Teacher Self-Efficacy Scale

We based the TSE survey items on a systematic literature review and drew heavily from Fu and Wang's ELL Education Self-Efficacy Scale (2021). (See Appendix A for complete scale.) In its final form, the 33 TSE survey items included three areas of instruction related to MLs: general instructional efficacy, linguistic instructional efficacy, and socio-cultural instructional efficacy. These areas were aligned with the factor structure described by Fu and Wang (2021). General instructional efficacy included items such as "establish consistent routines (such as how to enter the classroom or how to prepare for dismissal) to help English learners[2]

[2] In the survey, the term "English learners" was used to describe MLs, since this term is the one more commonly used among teachers in public elementary classrooms at the present.

feel comfortable at school" and "develop informal assessments that reveal English learners' content area learning aside from their English language skills." Linguistic instructional efficacy items included those such as "specify English language irregularities that may confuse English learners (such as irregular past-tense verbs like "swam")" and "support English learners'[1] understanding of the similarities and differences between English and other languages." Sociocultural instructional efficacy items included those such as "I can help English learners develop a sense of belonging within the classroom community" and "I can build connections between English learners' home cultures and their school-based learning experiences." The response categories for all TSE items were based on a six-point Likert scale (ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree"; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Principal Leadership Scale

We also administered to participants a scale of 12 items exploring teachers' perceptions of principal leadership activities and skills related to instructing MLs. (See Appendix B for complete scale.) The principal leadership items were based on the four theorized sources of teacher efficacy (mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and affective states; Bandura, 1977; 1997). They were also based on the four components of relational trust (respect, personal regard, personal integrity, and competence; Bryk & Schneider, 2003). Sample items included "The principal at this school is familiar with the unique strengths and challenges that English learners bring to school" and "The principal at this school holds high expectations for teachers to meet the needs of English learners." Like the TSE items, the response categories for all PL items were based on a six-point Likert scale (ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree"; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Field Testing

The authors field tested the scale with three ESOL-certified teachers and received feedback on the items. Next, the authors adapted the items based on the piloting participants' feedback and input from a panel of experts (which included seven faculty members and doctoral students at the authors' educational institution). We submitted a modified version of the TSE and PL scales for a second round of field testing with the same group of field test participants, and we finalized the items based on the second round of feedback.

Analytic Strategy

We conducted factor analysis to understand the factor structure of our measures and to explore the internal and construct validity of our TSE and PL scales. We also conducted regression analyses to explore our research questions. Details regarding these analyses are below.

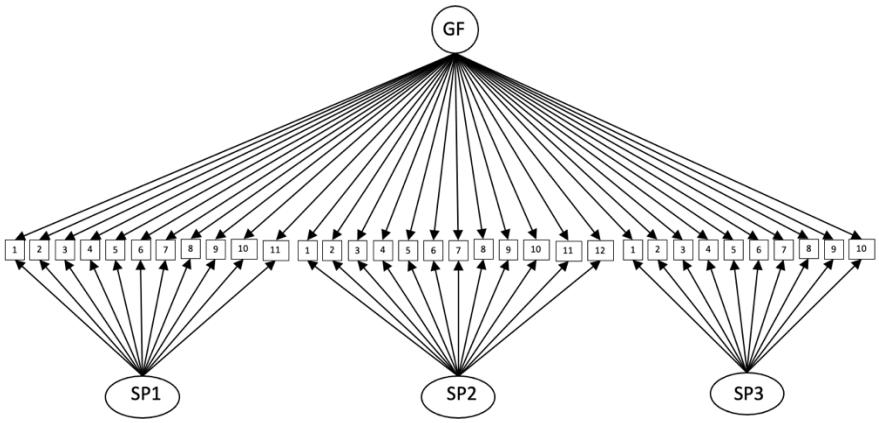
Analysis of Scales:

We sought to understand the extent to which the three hypothesized areas of TSE for instructing MLs (general instruction, linguistic instruction, and socio-cultural instruction) matched the evidenced factor structure based on responses from participants. For the TSE scale, we assumed based on theory that the three sub-scales were distinct yet strongly related. We therefore tested the fit of multiple models that included a unidimensional model, a correlated factor model with three factors, a bifactor model, and a testlet model. We assessed fit using the root mean squared error of approximation (RMSEA<.08; Steiger, 1990) and comparative fit index (CFI>.95; Hu & Bentler, 1999). Based on model fit, we selected the bifactor model, which assumes that TSE is a singular construct, but that there are also residual dependencies in the data associated with the three subconstructs within TSE. Figure 2 displays the bifactor model applied to the TSE scale, with each specific factor (SP1-3) representing latent variables for the three sub-

scales of TSE and the general factor (GF) representing the singular construct made up of all of the individual items.

Figure 2

Factor Structure: Teacher Self-Efficacy for Instructing Multilingual Learners Scale



Note. The residuals have been omitted for parsimony.

Question 1. Is there an association between teachers' perceptions of principal leadership to support MLs (PL) and teachers' sense of self-efficacy for instructing MLs (TSE)?

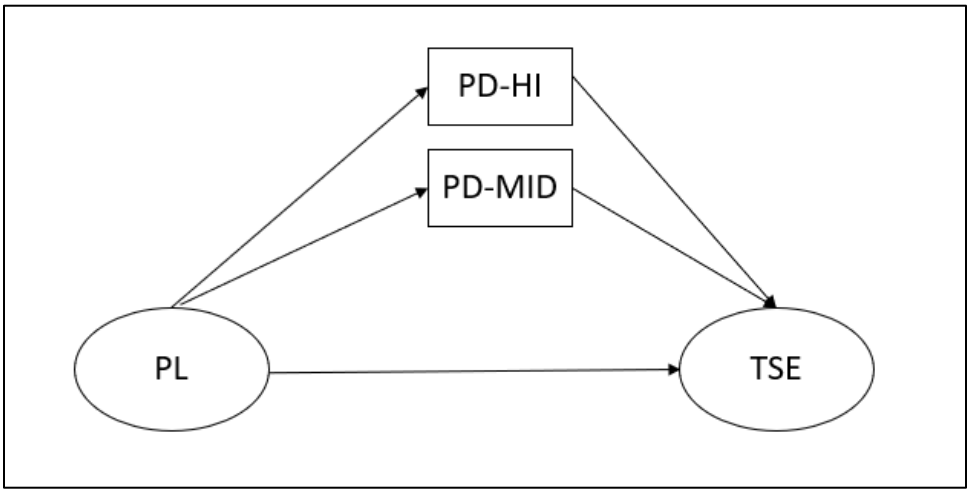
To examine this relationship, we regressed the general factor from our bifactor model on a latent variable measuring PL. Given our small sample size, we fixed the item parameters from both measurement models using the estimates from the initial CFAs, which reduced the number of parameters that needed to be estimated in the model. This Structural After Measurement (SAM) approach is well documented in the literature and useful when sample sizes are small (Rosseel & Loh, 2021). Given the GF is a dependent variable in our structural model, latent variables were scaled by constraining the loading on the first item for a given latent variable to one. We also controlled for teacher variables (including years of experience, multilingualism, and levels of MLs in their classes) by regressing the general factor on those covariates. All analyses were conducted in Mplus (version 8.4).

Question 2. Does teachers' experience with in-service professional development (PD) related to instructing MLs mediate the association between PL and TSE?

In this question, we used a similar approach as in the first question, but we used a measure of PD as a mediator. That is, our model included a direct path from PL to the general TSE factor, as well as an indirect path from PL to TSE via PD. We operationalized PD as two dummy variables (PD-MID and PD-HI), with participation in up to 10 hours of PD represented as PD-MID and participation in more than 10 hours of PD as PD-HI (no PD represented the omitted, baseline category). Once again, we used item parameters that were pre-calibrated based on initial measurement models. We examined the significance of direct effects, indirect effects, and total effects.

Figure 3

Path diagram for professional development mediating the association between principal leadership and TSE for instructing MLs



Note. For parsimony, TSE subfactors and items were omitted. The TSE latent variable refers to the general factor in the bifactor model.

Results

Overall, we used a bifactor measurement model for TSE, a one-factor model for PL, and a structural model to estimate the parameters of interest. All of these models fit reasonably well. The CFI for the bifactor model was 0.943, which was near the 0.95 threshold (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The RMSEA was 0.054, which was acceptable (Steiger, 1990). Below, we discuss specific results.

RQ1: Is there an association between teachers' perceptions of principal leadership to support MLs (PL) and teachers' sense of self-efficacy for instructing MLs (TSE)?

To answer this question, we regressed TSE on PL. Further, to ease interpretation, we report results using the fully standardized results from Mplus (see Table 3). There was a significant positive association. Specifically, an increase in PL of one standard deviation (SD) was associated with a 0.349 SD increase in TSE (p=.004, SE=.121).

RQ2: Does teachers' experience with professional development (PD) related to instructing MLs mediate the association between PL and TSE for instructing MLs?

We tested the mediation effects of PD, including teachers who had completed more than 10 hours of PD (PD-HI) and teachers who had completed between 1-10 hours of PD (PD-MID), with teachers completing no PD serving as a reference group. Neither of these mediation effects was significant – both indirect paths through PD-MID and PD-HI were slightly negative associations that did not meet the .05 criterion for significance. Similarly, both associations between PL and PD (PD-MID and PD-HI) were small and not significant (see Table 3). We found a strong positive association between PD-HI and TSE: participating in more than 10 hours of PD (PD-HI) was associated with a 0.368 SD increase in TSE (p=.008, SE=.139). In contrast,

the association between PD-MID and TSE was negative (-0.214) but not significant at the .05 level (p=.078, SE=.122).

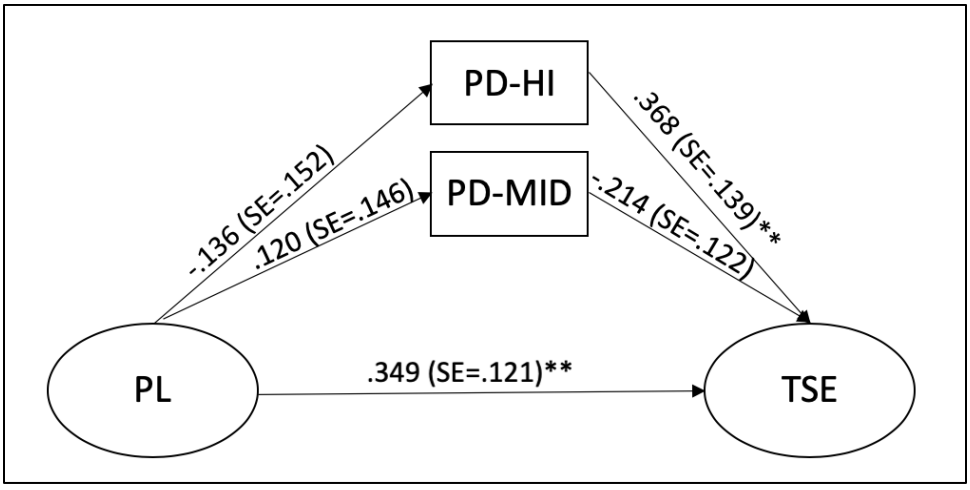
Table 3

Standardized Model Results

Variables	Estimate	Standard Error (SE)	Estimate/SE	P-value
TSE on				
PL	0.349	0.121	2.878	0.004
TSE on				
PDHI	0.368	0.139	2.654	0.008
PDMID	-1.214	0.122	-1.760	0.078
PDHI on				
PL	-0.136	0.152	-0.893	0.372
PDMID on				
PL	0.120	0.146	0.819	0.413

Figure 4

Path Diagram



Note. ** indicates significance at the .05 level.

Discussion

In this study, we sought to understand factors that influenced teachers' self-efficacy for instructing MLs, including principal leadership for MLs and professional development related to ML instruction. We explored the association between PL and TSE, directly. In addition, we explored the mediation effect of PD between PL and TSE. Results indicated that there was a significant direct association between PL and TSE. However, PD did not significantly mediate the association between PL and TSE. When exploring the associations between PL and PD specifically, we found there was no significant association between PL and either PD-HI or PD-MID. When looking at the association between PD and TSE, there was a significant association between PD-HI and TSE but not between PD-MID and TSE. Here, we explore the insight that these findings offer regarding the ways that schools and educational leaders can build teachers' capacity to skillfully instruct MLs.

RQ1: Is there an association between teachers' perceptions of principal leadership to support MLs (PL) and teachers' sense of self-efficacy for instructing MLs (TSE)?

This study's strong direct association between PL and TSE for MLs suggests that teachers' perception of their principals' ability to lead the school for ML success is strongly associated with teachers' sense of their own instructional efficacy for MLs. In other words, teachers who perceived their principal as more skillful at leading the school for ML success also tended to perceive themselves as more efficacious at instructing MLs. This finding echoes previous quantitative research that has demonstrated a strong association between principal leadership and TSE in general (Kurt et al., 2012; Thornton et al., 2020). It also echoes prior studies that demonstrated the association between principal leadership and teachers' instructional capacity (Leithwood & Mascall, 2008) in general. However, the present study uniquely

contributes to this body of research by reporting on principal practices to support MLs and TSE for instructing MLs, in particular. While some prior studies have demonstrated associations between principal leadership and equitable instructional practices for marginalized students overall (e.g., Grisholm et al., 2021), the present study uniquely explores these associations related to MLs. Additionally, previous qualitative studies have indicated that principals can influence teachers' ability to instruct MLs through a variety of strategies (Elfers & Stritikus, 2014; Mungia, 2017), and the present study complements these findings with quantitative evidence of the association between PL strategies and TSE specifically for MLs.

This finding has important implications for the field of principal leadership. Principals and other school leaders can improve their schools' capacity to support MLs by building their own skills and knowledge related to MLs. Principals' growth in this area could include learning about the unique characteristics of MLs and important components of effective ML instruction. Principals could also increasingly provide teachers with opportunities to experience all four of Bandura's efficacy sources as professional growth opportunities. Finally, principals could build their capacity for relational trust between teachers and themselves (Bryk & Schneider, 2003). Increasing principals' leadership capacity for MLs in these ways could allow for enhanced ML instruction within their schools. Since the present study was limited by a small sample size, further research is needed on a larger scale to collect further evidence of the association between PL and TSE for instructing MLs.

RQ2: Does teachers' experience with professional development (PD) related to instructing MLs mediate the association between PL and TSE for instructing MLs?

Surprisingly, our analysis demonstrated that participation in PD (both high- and mid-levels) did not significantly mediate the association between PL and TSE. Based on prior

research (e.g., Lambersky, 2016), we expected PD to mediate this association. Our finding suggests that the impact of principal leadership for MLs on TSE for MLs is not dependent on teachers' having attended large amount of PD related to MLs. In other words, teachers' ability to instruct MLs can still improve through effective principal leadership for MLs, regardless of whether teachers are able to attend large amounts of PD. This finding adds important nuance to previous research, which found that offering PD was an integral component of principal leadership for marginalized students (Grisholm et al., 2021). The present finding offers potential insight for some schools where large amounts of PD related to MLs are not typically available (such as in small districts or rural areas). PD for teachers is a time- and resource-intensive endeavor, and these resources may be more efficiently spent on building principals' capacity for leading for MLs, rather than building the efficacy of the many teachers in their buildings. More quantitative research is needed to explore the possible mediation effects of specific types of PD (rather than just quantities of PD) on the association between PL and TSE for MLs. Qualitative studies could also explore the types of principal leadership activities that teachers describe as enhancing their abilities to instruct MLs.

While our study found that the paths between PL and PD (both high and mid- levels) and between PD-MID and TSE were not significant, this study found a significant positive association between PD-HI and TSE. That is, teachers who had attended more than 10 hours of PD for instructing MLs had significantly higher TSE for instructing MLs than teachers who had no PD for instructing MLs. Interestingly, the association between PD-MID and TSE was negative but not significant. It is likely that the sample size of this study impacted the significance of this result, and further study is needed with larger samples to understand if there is in fact a negative association between attending a moderate amount of PD for instructing MLs

and TSE for MLs. The positive and significant association with PD-HI and TSE suggests that once teachers accrue more than 10 hours of PD, they begin to feel capable of successfully applying taught ML instructional strategies. This corresponds with prior studies that demonstrated the positive impact of intensive ML-related PD on teachers' instructional capacity for MLs (Calderón, 2020; Echevarría et al., 2006; Neumayer DePiper et al., 2021; Ross, 2014). This association could be further explored through additional quantitative studies with larger samples in order to understand what types and components of PD could most effectively build teachers' capacity for ML instruction. This study did not explore the demonstrated positive role that teacher collaboration and co-teaching (as forms of PD) can have on teachers' instructional capacity for MLs (Theoharis & O'Toole, 2011). Future research could explore the differential impact of these types of experiences, as opposed to traditional PD experiences, on teachers' capacity for effective ML instruction.

Limitations

This data was collected in the spring of 2022, when the COVID-19 pandemic was still heavily impacting teachers and schools. It is possible that the challenges brought on by the pandemic may have affected teachers' perceptions of their efficacy to instruct MLs. The pandemic may also have impacted the types and quantities of PD opportunities that teachers were able to attend and principals' opportunities to effectively lead for ML success within their schools. As the pandemic's impact on schools decreases over time, further studies could re-examine the present study's research questions to gain further insight into the research questions outside of the context of COVID-19.

This study's sample was limited in size and geographic area. A larger sample with more teachers across a more diverse set of geographic locations could provide important insight into

the associations that this study began to explore. Additionally, the present sample was not large enough to explore the differences in TSE for MLs between ESOL teachers and classroom teachers. There could be distinct differences in efficacy beliefs between these two groups, and the field would benefit from continued exploration along these lines. Also, our study did not have a sufficient number of multilingual teachers or teachers of color such that we could control for these variables in our analysis. It is possible that language, race, and ethnicity significantly influence teachers' perceptions of PL, PD, and TSE for MLs, and without understanding these differential experiences, our work does not equitably elucidate the status of teacher development. We encourage future study in this area, in particular.

Conclusion

U.S. schools are tasked with providing all students, including MLs, with equal access to educational opportunities. This requires teachers to deliver high-quality instruction to MLs that entails specific instructional skills to incorporate linguistic instruction into content-area lessons. Teachers' sense of efficacy for carrying out these specific skills plays an important role in their instructional quality, and this can have a strong influence on the equity of educational opportunities afforded to marginalized students such as MLs. Principal leadership can strongly affect the ways in which teachers are able to provide high-quality instruction. When principals demonstrate strong leadership to support teachers in providing high-quality instruction for MLs, MLs can thrive. Teachers' participation in intensive PD related to instructing MLs can also improve teachers' capacity for ML instruction. By embracing these important avenues of improved ML instructional efficacy, U.S. schools can provide MLs with more equitable learning opportunities.

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Appendix A

Teacher Self-Efficacy for Instructing MLs Scale

Part A: To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements related to **your own abilities** to conduct **general instruction**?

1. I can establish consistent routines (such as how to enter the classroom or how to prepare for dismissal) to help English learners feel comfortable at school.
2. I can utilize collaborative learning strategies to help English learners engage in purposeful group work.
3. I can use instructional supports (such as visuals, graphic organizers, or realia) to engage English learners in my instruction.
4. I can develop informal assessments that reveal English learners' content-area learning aside from their English language skills.
5. I can provide constructive feedback to English learners based on their informal assessment results.
6. I can determine necessary testing accommodations for English learners based on their individual, language-related needs.
7. I can interpret the results of standardized testing related to English language learning (such as WIDA ACCESS scores) to inform my instruction.
8. I can craft clear *content-area* learning objectives for English learners.
9. I can craft clear *English language* learning objectives for English learners.
10. I can identify the language demands inherent in a content-area learning task.

11. I can address English learners' language-related challenges that may show up as defiant behavior (such as refusing to complete an assignment due to not understanding the directions).

Part B: To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements related to **your own abilities** to conduct **linguistic instruction**?

1. I can explain specific English language irregularities that may confuse English learners (such as irregular past-tense verbs like "swam").
2. I can teach some principles of word formation (such as root words, prefixes, and suffixes) to aid English learners' vocabulary acquisition.
3. I can support English learners' understanding of the similarities and differences between English and other languages.
4. I can use my knowledge of second language acquisition to support English learners' learning.
5. I can create opportunities for English learners to utilize their home language(s) in support of content-area learning objectives.
6. I can incorporate meaningful opportunities for English learners to practice English language *listening skills* within content-area lessons.
7. I can incorporate meaningful opportunities for English learners to practice English language *speaking skills* within content-area lessons.
8. I can incorporate meaningful opportunities for English learners to practice English language *reading skills* within content-area lessons.
9. I can incorporate meaningful opportunities for English learners to practice English language *writing skills* within content-area lessons.

10. I can explicitly teach English learners subject-specific vocabulary.
11. I can create meaningful opportunities for English learners to practice using subject-specific vocabulary within content-area lessons.
12. I can utilize instructional technology (such as multilingual digital texts and online English language learning games) to support English learners' language learning.

Part C: To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements related to **your own abilities** to **meet students' sociocultural needs**?

1. I can recognize when English learners may be facing challenges related to navigating between multiple cultures.
2. I can leverage English learners' *linguistic* assets (such as multilingual literacy and communication skills) to class to maximize their learning.
3. I can leverage English learners' *cultural* assets (such as values, beliefs, skills, and experiences) to maximize their learning.
4. I can help native English-speaking students recognize the assets their English-learning peers bring to the class.
5. I can maximize opportunities for English learners to interact with their peers *who are native English-speakers*.
6. I can maximize opportunities for English learners to interact with peers *who share their same home language*.
7. I can help English learners develop a sense of belonging within the classroom community.
8. I can build connections between English learners' home cultures and their school-based learning experiences.

9. I can maintain regular communication with English learners' families to address English learners' needs.
10. I can utilize linguistic resources (such as interpretation and translation services) to communicate with English learners' families when needed.

Appendix B

Principal Leadership to Support ML Instruction Scale

The following questions ask about your perceptions of **your principal's leadership at your school**. To what extent do you agree with each of the following?

1. The principal at this school provides opportunities for professional development about ways to best meet the instructional needs of English learners.
2. The principal at this school gives teachers opportunities to try out new methods of instruction for English learners.
3. The principal at this school gives teachers opportunities to watch other teachers while they instruct English learners (either in or outside of this school).
4. The principal at this school provides opportunities for teachers to plan instruction collaboratively in order to best meet the needs of English learners.
5. The principal at this school is familiar with the unique strengths and challenges that English learners bring to school.
6. The principal at this school provides opportunities for teachers to co-teach English learners.
7. The principal at this school is knowledgeable about second language acquisition.
8. The principal at this school holds high expectations for teachers to meet the needs of English learners.
9. When I am experiencing a challenge regarding meeting the needs of English learners, I feel comfortable going to this school principal to talk about my needs.
10. The principal at this school shares about herself or himself in a way that builds relationships with families of English learners.

11. When new district or state directives about instructing English learners are announced, the principal at this school decides how to apply them in a way that benefits our school's English learners.
12. The principal at this school believes all English learners can succeed.

Manuscript 3

Elementary Teachers' Experiences of Principal Leadership to Support Collective Teacher Efficacy for Instructing Multilingual Learners

Charlotte D. Blain

Abstract

Multilingual learners (MLs)[1] possess a wide variety of strengths and assets that can translate into lifelong advantages, and schools play a crucial role in providing the instruction that can allow MLs to actualize these long-term benefits (especially at the elementary level). Since elementary ML instruction is inherently collaborative, collective teacher efficacy (CTE) for instructing MLs is an important construct for understanding teachers' joint ability to equitably instruct MLs. Through in-depth interviews, teacher and principal participants shared their perspectives on principal leadership activities and other experiences that influenced teachers' collective capacity, including their CTE, for instructing MLs. Findings highlight the importance of positioning teachers of English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) as leaders within the school. Participants also noted that principals created school-wide structures to support collaboration and a collective ethos for supporting MLs. These findings have implications for ways in which educational leaders such as principals can support their school's collective capacity, including CTE, to instruct MLs.

Multilingual learners (MLs)[3] possess a wide array of strengths. On average, compared to their English-dominant counterparts, MLs demonstrate more advanced receptive vocabularies (Babayiğit et al., 2022), stronger executive functioning (Lee-James & Washington, 2018), more complex oral narrative skills (MacLeod & Pesco, 2022), higher levels of creativity (Fox et al., 2019), and more adept multicultural discourse navigation (Gómez & Lewis, 2022). When schools support MLs' multilingualism, MLs are able to access their full repertoire of strengths and thus experience lifelong benefits. These include deeper peer relationships (Colomer & Chang-Bacon, 2020), stronger cultural identity development and more appreciation for multiculturalism (Kibler et al., 2014), higher graduation rates (Ramirez et al., 2009), and higher employability (Agirdag, 2014). MLs can also demonstrate strong translanguaging and transliteracy abilities if these skills are taught intentionally in schools (Briceño & Zoeller, 2022). Schools play an instrumental role in providing the systemic support that enables MLs to access these strengths and benefits.

Within U.S. schools, MLs make up close to 14% of elementary students (NCES, 2022), and strong elementary instruction and leadership can set the stage for MLs' long-term academic success (Clark-Gareca et al., 2020; Thompson, 2017). Elementary teachers of MLs – including English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) teachers, classroom teachers, and special education teachers (hereafter referred to collectively as "teachers") – need to possess knowledge and skills in multiple areas of instruction beyond what is required for teaching monolingual students (de Jong & Harper, 2005; Echevarría et al., 2006; Loeb et al., 2014). This instruction

[3] We use the term "multilingual learners" to mean students who speak one or more languages other than English at home and qualify for additional instructional support in U.S. schools. While these students may more commonly be referred to as "English learners," we chose to use the term "multilingual learners' to highlight the diverse linguistic and cultural assets that these students possess.

does not happen in isolation: classroom teachers must cooperate with other staff members who also have ongoing and direct contact with the MLs they teach (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010; Honigsfeld, 2009). Therefore, equitable elementary instruction of MLs hinges not only on teachers' individual abilities, but also on the school's collective ability to skillfully support the needs of these unique learners, as well as principal leadership that supports teachers in delivering this instruction.

Collective teacher efficacy (CTE) is a useful construct for understanding the perceived ability of a collaborative group of teachers to provide high-quality instruction (Bandura, 1997; 2000). Teachers need a variety of experiences to achieve a stronger sense of CTE, which may include what Bandura describes as mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and affective state (1977, 1997). However, very few studies have investigated the types of experiences that help teachers feel a greater sense of CTE specifically for instructing MLs or the ways in which school principals can provide these types of experiences for teachers.

Some research has explored ways that school principals can build their schools' collective capacity in general, including CTE; however, this research is limited regarding instructing MLs. Principal leadership that builds trust, promotes strong social network ties, and maintains high expectations for instruction can enhance teachers' and students' school-based experience and performance (Coburn, 2005; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000; Youngs & King, 2002). Also, principal leadership can have a positive influence on CTE (e.g., Demir, 2008; Versland & Erickson, 2017), including through offering opportunities for teachers to collaborate and to practice new instructional strategies (Munguia, 2017). Therefore, effective principal leadership plays an important role in a school's capacity to offer equitable educational experiences for MLs.

This qualitative study will examine the types of experiences, including teachers' experiences with principal leadership, that teachers see as shaping their CTE beliefs for instructing MLs. Specifically, I will explore:

1) What types of experiences and opportunities do teachers see as beneficial to their school's collective capacity (including their CTE) for instructing MLs?
2) What role do principals play in providing these experiences for teachers?
    a. What types of leadership activities do principals carry out with the aim of improving teachers' collective capacity (including their CTE) for instructing MLs?
    b. What types of principal leadership activities do teachers perceive as impacting their collective capacity (including their CTE) for instructing MLs?

By investigating these questions, this study will help clarify ways that elementary principals can build teachers' collective efficacy to support high-quality instruction for MLs.

Literature Review

Elementary ML Instruction

Elementary instruction plays a crucial role in MLs' academic success. For MLs, there is a key window of opportunity in elementary school to reach English proficiency (Thompson, 2017). During this time, MLs must learn the necessary language and literacy skills to be able to access content-area instruction in English by upper grades. Consistency in the English language instructional programs offered during their elementary years is imperative for MLs to be able to learn well across subject areas (Clark-Gareca et al., 2020). Strong English language and literacy instruction plays a key role in MLs' academic success (Kibler et al., 2018). Being taught the English language and literacy skills necessary to be able to comprehend reading material

necessary for classroom learning may play a key role in MLs' elementary (and long-term) success (Kieffer, 2008). Effective ML instruction also includes schools supporting MLs in building strong social-emotional skills (Cho et al., 2019) and schools engaging equitably with MLs' families (Park & Paulick, 2021).

When teachers offer targeted English language and literacy instruction in the context of content-area lessons (Calderón & Minaya-Rowe, 2011; Echevarría et al., 2006), MLs often thrive. Areas of skill necessary for teachers include embedding language instruction within content-area lessons (de Jong & Harper, 2005; Echevarría et al., 2006), linguistics and second language acquisition (Fillmore & Snow, 2000), and cultural competence (Samson & Collins, 2012). Teachers must also be able to partner with MLs' families through relationship-building, asset-framed interactions (Paulick et al., 2022). These types of knowledge and skills are necessary in addition to those required for teaching monolingual students, since studies have indicated that even high-quality general instructional techniques are often not sufficient to meet the needs of MLs (de Jong & Harper, 2005; Echevarría et al., 2006; Goldenberg, 2013; Loeb et al., 2014).

Some elementary schools employ specialized ESOL teachers to address the instructional needs of MLs (through various formats such as pull-out or push-in lessons and collaborative sheltered instruction). However, many others have mainstreamed MLs and place the responsibility of language instruction primarily on the classroom teacher with only minimal support available from ESOL teachers (Turkan et al., 2014). Therefore, to adequately instruct MLs, classroom teachers must collaborate with ESOL teachers and other staff members to meet the needs of the MLs they teach.

Principal Leadership to Support ML Instruction

Principal leadership plays a crucial role in supporting high-quality instruction, including for MLs (Bryk & Schneider, 2003; Coburn & Russell, 2008; Goddard, et al. 2015; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000; Youngs & King, 2002). After instructional quality, principal leadership is the most influential factor in students' academic success (Wahlstrom et al., 2010), and this is mediated through principals' influence on school conditions including school climate and teachers' instructional quality (Xu, 2018). A wide variety of studies have suggested that effective principal leadership can improve various related factors, such as relational trust (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2000; Youngs & King, 2002), teachers' social networks (Coburn & Russell, 2008), and instructional innovation (Goddard, et al. 2015), and these all have a likely effect on student achievement.

Specifically related to MLs, Menken and Solorza (2015) conducted an interview study at 17 New York schools and found that principals who had received more training on MLs' characteristics and needs were more likely to implement instructional programs within their schools that benefited MLs holistically (Menken & Solorza, 2015). Additionally, in a multiple case study involving observations and focus group interviews at eight Texas elementary schools, Mavrogordato and White (2020) found that principals' interpretation of educational policies about MLs plays a large role in the educational opportunities and restrictions experienced by these learners. Thus, principals play a key role in providing MLs' teachers with the types of instructional support necessary to be able to provide high-quality learning experiences for diverse learners.

Qualitative studies of teachers' school-based experiences and perceptions have suggested that effective collaborative teaching requires principal leadership that allows for such things as strong social network ties among teachers (Coburn, 2005; Coburn et al., 2012) and productive

group conversations about instruction (Brown, 2016; Horn et al., 2017). Sun and Leithwood's (2015) meta-analysis of qualitative and quantitative studies demonstrated that the impact of principal leadership on student academic success is mediated by teachers' emotional experiences, including their sense of collective efficacy. Related specifically to CTE, a survey study based in Iran found that there was a significant relationship between principals' instructional leadership and TCE (Hallinger et al., 2018).

Collective Teacher Efficacy for Instructing MLs

Studies have demonstrated a strong association between teachers' sense of efficacy to instruct students and the quality of education that students experience. Much of this research has focused on individual teacher self-efficacy (e.g., Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Pajares, 1996; Zee & Koomen, 2016). Teacher self-efficacy conveys a teacher's agentic choice, motivation, and likelihood to attempt new and challenging tasks, thereby portraying teachers' capacity for and trajectory towards high-quality instruction (Bandura, 1977, 1993, 1997). Teacher self-efficacy can predict teachers' instructional capacity and student achievement (e.g., Caprara, et al. 2006; Holzberger et al., 2013; Klassen & Tze, 2014; Pajares, 1996). Researchers often study the related construct of collective teacher efficacy (CTE) to understand how capable a group of teachers feel about their instructional abilities. Bandura (1997) defined collective efficacy, in general, as "a group's shared belief in its conjoint capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given levels of attainments" (p. 477). Collective efficacy is relevant in education settings as a means to understand the group effectiveness of teachers to instruct students.

CTE can affect teachers' and students' experiences within a school and teachers' instructional decision-making (Goddard et al., 2004). A school's goal attainment can be

influenced by teachers' sense of collective efficacy, and not just individuals' self-efficacy (Goddard et al., 2004). CTE is associated with student academic achievement, and this association may be able to compensate for the negative role that student marginalization based on demographics may play on equitable student outcomes (Bandura, 1993; Goddard et al., 2000). In other words, schools with a strong sense of CTE may be able to compensate for marginalization that arises based on student demographics, such as the marginalization of MLs.

Principal leadership plays an important role in CTE within schools. Teacher collaboration is strongly associated with CTE, and principals can influence CTE through efforts to improve teachers' self-efficacy and the collaborative nature of the organization (Demir, 2008; Goddard et al. 2015). In a mixed-methods study of ways in which principal leadership and CTE are associated with equitable educational outcomes, Goddard and colleagues (2017) demonstrated a distinct relationship between principal leadership, collective efficacy, and equity in student academic achievement. They found that principals can provide certain types of experiences that may enhance teachers' collective efficacy beliefs. For example, principals' support of collaboration, and particularly peer observation opportunities, can strengthen teachers' sense of CTE. Additionally, by creating a "sustained press for instructional improvement" principals can support the school's shared understanding that teachers and students could succeed, thereby strengthening the school's CTE (Goddard et al., 2017, p. 11). Similarly, in the interview portion of their mixed-methods study, Strahan nee Brown and colleagues (2019) found that teachers' sense of CTE was influenced by key experiences provided by their principals, which included open communication, collaborative learning opportunities, mutual support, and intentional stress management (Strahan nee Brown et al., 2019).

Bandura theorized that, in general, the experiences that contribute to higher CTE (referred to hereafter as "sources of efficacy beliefs") included mastery experiences (personally experiencing success with accomplishing the teaching task), vicarious experiences (witnessing another person of similar abilities successfully accomplish the task), verbal persuasion experiences (being taught and encouraged to carry out the instructional task), and teachers' affective state (a person's emotional state at the time of attempting the instructional task) (Bandura, 1977, 1997). Only limited studies have explored these sources of efficacy beliefs empirically, and the extant studies are largely quantitative in nature (e.g., Goddard, 2001).

Similarly, few studies have focused on principal leadership and its association with CTE to instruct MLs (e.g., Abedini et al., 2018; Khezerlou, 2013). Overall, improving teachers' collective efficacy can lead to higher instructional quality and more equitable educational opportunities for students. Principal leadership can support CTE for instructing MLs, but more research, and particularly qualitative studies, are needed to understand the ways in which teachers experience principal leadership to support their sense of CTE for instructing MLs.

Conceptual Framework

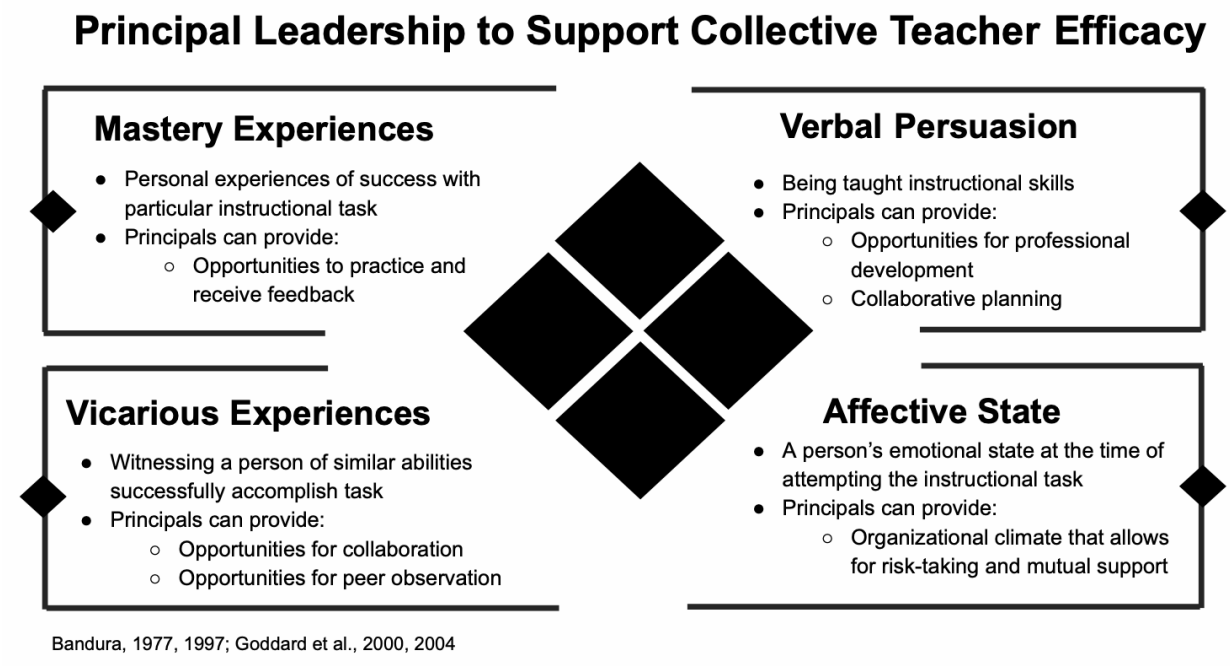
Through a variety of leadership activities, principals can affect teachers' collective capacity for instructing MLs, including their CTE for instructing MLs, and thus have an impact on whether equitable educational opportunities are provided to MLs. As mentioned above, principals' efforts to promote collaboration among teachers, provide teachers with opportunities to conduct peer observations, communicate a sustained academic press, include teachers in decision-making, and maintain their own instructional involvement have all been found to be associated with strong CTE in schools (Abedini et al., 2018; Demir, 2008; Goddard et al., 2015;

Goddard et al., 2017; Khezerlou, 2013). I posit that it is reasonable to extend this relationship to principal leadership activities to support instructing MLs.

In this study, I will explore the experiences that teachers perceive as beneficial to their sense of efficacy for instructing MLs (including their experiences of principal leadership). I argue that principal leadership activities that provide opportunities for teachers to experience each of the four theorized sources of efficacy beliefs will build teachers' collective capacity to instruct MLs (Bandura, 1977; 1997). Figure 1 provides a visual representation of my conceptual framework.

Figure 1

Opportunities for Principal Leadership to Support Collective Teacher Efficacy for Instructing Multilingual Learners



This figure displays the four areas of experiences in which principals can potentially influence teachers' collective capacity (including CTE) for instructing MLs. I expect that the experiences and opportunities that teachers see as beneficial to their school's CTE for instructing MLs align with the four theorized sources of efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977; 1997). I acknowledge that principals may carry out leadership activities for the purpose of building teachers' capacity for instructing MLs, but that teachers may not perceive such activities as impacting them or teachers may not mention them in their interviews. I also acknowledge that teachers may report on leadership activities that principals carry out which teachers do not see as directly impacting their TCE (or TCE for instructing MLs) but that they still see as impacting their instructional capacities. Therefore, I take a broad approach to exploring the types of teacher experiences and principal leadership activities that may or may not align with each other while exploring this study's research questions.

Methods

This qualitative, multiple-case study (Yin, 2018) examined the types of experiences that teachers see as beneficial to their school's collective capacity to instruct MLs (including their sense of CTE) and the role principals play in providing these experiences. I carried out in-depth, semi-structured interviews (Corbin & Strauss, 2007; Creswell, 2014) in the summer of 2021 at two schools to explore the nature of teachers' CTE for MLs beliefs and the experiences, including principal leadership, that influence them.

Context and Participants

This study took place in two elementary schools in two urban/suburban areas in one Mid-Atlantic state. These schools and districts were selected due to their high proportions of MLs (35% and 43%) and high sense of collective efficacy (measured using the ELITE-C scale; Blain

et al., in preparation). Across the two schools, six teachers and two principals participated in the study based on participation in a prior survey related to teacher efficacy for instructing MLs (Blain et al., in preparation). Of the six total teachers, all six were female, all were White, and one identified as Eastern European while the others identified as being from the United States. Five of the teachers reported English as their first and dominant language; one teacher reported fluency in Russian, Ukrainian, German, and English. Of the principals, one was female, and one was male. Both principals were White and monolingual English speakers.

Data Sources

I conducted semi-structured interviews through video conferencing on Zoom using interview protocols that were piloted and revised with input from a panel of experts (see Appendix A and B). The interviews lasted approximately 45 minutes and were recorded using Zoom's recording feature. Transcripts were generated using Zoom's caption feature and edited for accuracy. Participants' names were replaced with pseudonyms. I also collected participants' demographic and background data through survey questions.

Data Analysis

Interview transcripts were uploaded for analysis into Dedoose, a qualitative data analysis software. A second researcher engaged in consensus coding with me. We engaged in iterative inductive and deductive coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2007; Creswell, 2014). Engaging in both types of coding allowed us to test theorized themes in the data as well as explore emergent themes. In the first cycle of coding, we divided the transcripts and identified inductive descriptive and in vivo codes (Miles et al., 2020) that emerged from the participants' responses. After reaching consensus on our inductive codebook, we coded the other group of transcripts to reach consensus on code application. In the second cycle of coding, we divided the transcripts

again and applied the deductive hypothesis codes (Miles et al., 2020) based on the four theorized sources of efficacy beliefs (mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and affective state; Bandura, 1977, 1997). We then coded each other's set of transcripts to reach consensus on the deductive codes. Finally, we met to discuss the ways in which the inductive and deductive codes interacted in the data, and we created a set of themes related to the research questions (described below in Findings).

Standards of Quality

To support the validity and credibility of this qualitative study, I engaged in a multiple case design (Yin, 2018). This allowed me to incorporate a wider range of teacher and principal experiences and increase the richness and nuance within my data. I also included interviews with classroom teachers as well as ESOL teachers to engage in replication logic (Yin, 2018) and incorporate different perspectives on efficacy-building experiences among teachers in different roles. For analysis, I engaged in consensus coding with a colleague to establish coding consistency. I triangulated interview data by comparing the responses of the teachers at a given school to those of their principal. After analysis, I engaged in peer review and debrief through conversations with professional colleagues to elicit feedback on my interpretation of the data based on their areas of expertise within the areas of qualitative research and ML instruction.

Researcher Positionality

The author is a White, English-dominant woman born in the United States. She previously served as a classroom teacher, ESOL teacher, ESOL instructional specialist, and ESOL family engagement specialist in a school district uninvolved with the present study. She is currently a doctoral candidate.

Findings

Across the interviews, I found that teachers' and principals' perceptions of efficacy-building experiences and principal practices overlapped but also diverged. All participants consistently mentioned the leadership of ESOL teachers as vital to the schools' collective capacity to instruct MLs. Teachers (including ESOL and classroom teachers, referred to hereafter collectively as "teachers") and principals also mentioned professional development (PD), as well as accessing resources such as books and communication technology, as positive sources of efficacy-building experiences. Alongside these overlaps, there were also types of efficacy-building experiences and principal practices that teachers mentioned but principals did not, and vice versa, which I call "invisible practices." I discuss both the overlapping experiences as well as the divergences in more detail below.

Regarding self- and collective efficacy perceptions, the classroom and ESOL teachers consistently discussed their self-efficacy and the school's collective efficacy jointly. Even when asked about self- or collective efficacy alone, participants rarely drew overt distinctions between the two. For example, when asked to describe her school's collective family engagement activities, one classroom teacher shared: "We've really changed the way that we do parent teacher conferences. It's more parent-student centered than teacher-centered. So, whenever I'm inviting families in, [...] I'm inviting them to tell me things about their family so that I can learn more about the culture of their family" (Ms. Lewis, personal communication, August 9, 2022). Here, Ms. Lewis combines sentences that refer to the school collective ("we") with her own personal experiences ("I"). Many other participants spoke in similarly intertwined statements. Thus, for the purposes of this paper, I chose to include participants' mention of their own individual efficacy as part of their sense of the school's collective efficacy to instruct MLs.

The efficacy-building experiences that teachers described, which they experienced individually and/or collectively, aligned with multiple of Bandura's theorized sources of efficacy beliefs. These included verbal persuasion, vicarious experiences, mastery experiences, and affective experiences. The most frequent source that participants mentioned was verbal persuasion experiences, in which teachers received direct training on implementing specific instructional strategies to support MLs. The next most frequent source was vicarious experiences, in which teachers had opportunities to witness others implementing these types of strategies, either in person or through material-sharing. Third, teachers reported having mastery experiences, which involved the participants successfully implementing learned strategies. Participants frequently mentioned mastery experiences in conjunction with verbal persuasion and vicarious experiences, rather than as stand-alone experiences. Finally, participants mentioned their emotional reactions to certain experiences that served as affective sources of their efficacy beliefs. Affective sources often coincided with mastery experiences when participants felt successful or discouraged based on their perception of their performance of certain instructional tasks. I provide examples and further description of these types of experiences below.

Research Question 1: What types of experiences and opportunities do teachers see as beneficial to their school's collective capacity for instructing MLs?

The participants (including classroom teachers, ESOL teachers, and principals) described a variety of experiences that supported teachers' efficacy to instruct MLs. These experiences included receiving support from ESOL teachers, accessing instructional resources, and participating in professional development (PD) opportunities. Some of these experiences also aligned with certain principal practices to support ML instruction, which I will describe in the next section.

Receiving Support from ESOL Teachers

Among the many types of efficacy-building experiences, teachers most frequently mentioned receiving support from ESOL teachers as benefiting their ML instructional efficacy. ESOL teachers provided this support through multiple types of interactions, including informal training, whole-school PD sessions, and individual coaching. These interactions provided verbal persuasion experiences most predominantly, followed by vicarious and mastery experiences, that strongly influenced teachers' ML instructional efficacy. These interactions also offered affective experiences by providing teachers with the positive feelings associated with being supported and achieving mastery.

ESOL teachers supported classroom teachers (and each other) by providing informal training on curriculum adaptations and instructional strategies to support MLs, often within team planning and PLC meetings. For example, the Whispering Brook principal shared that ESOL teachers informally trained classroom teachers on how to apply a WIDA resource for language expectations called Can-Do Descriptors in their content-area lessons (Ms. Thomas, personal communication, June 29, 2022). A Greenfield ESOL teacher also shared about how she and her fellow ESOL teachers mutually shared their instructional plans and offered immediate feedback during weekly team meetings and PLCs: "It's other boots on the ground in real time" (Ms. Charles, personal communication, August 9, 2022). A Greenfield classroom teacher shared about how receiving support from an ESOL teacher made her feel: "She was just support so we didn't have to carry the full load ourselves of planning everything" (Ms. Lewis, personal communication, August 9, 2022). Related to Bandura's efficacy sources, these experiences of informal training largely offered verbal persuasion experiences, in that ESOL teachers directly

taught their fellow teachers to use specific ML instructional strategies. This also represented an affective experience when teachers had positive emotions related to the support they received.

Beyond informal training, Greenfield ESOL teachers also provided formal training to all teachers through professional development (PD) sessions. A classroom teacher stated, “We've had a couple of really strong ESOL teachers who have done some staff PD, and they will introduce new activities that you can do with [MLs]” (Ms. Lewis, August 9, 2022). Another classroom teacher provided detail about a whole-school Culturally Responsive Teaching PD that ESOL teachers helped to lead at Greenfield: “It was a large focus on […] how to keep [MLs] engaged and working on their oral language" (Ms. Mason personal communication, September 8, 2022). A third classroom teacher added about this PD, “We also actually participated in [the taught instructional strategies], […] and that was really helpful, because you experience it firsthand and […] it's a tangible thing you can implement, then, in your classroom the next day” (Ms. Nam, personal communication, August 31, 2022). Through this PD, ESOL teachers provided leadership and a unique lens on instructional strategies including the Culturally Responsive Teaching framework. As with the informal training mentioned above, ESOL teachers’ PD sessions offered teachers verbal persuasion experiences alongside opportunities for mastery by providing direct instruction and then allowing the teachers to implement the strategies successfully, themselves. When teachers experienced this mastery, they often espoused positive attitudes towards their work, which then served as affective sources of their efficacy beliefs.

ESOL teachers also directly taught and modeled instructional strategies through one-on-one, classroom-based coaching within collaborative teaching structures. These types of interactions typically took place when ESOL teachers partnered with classroom teachers to co-

plan and co-teach lessons and when classroom teachers had the opportunity to observe ESOL teachers' push-in instruction (instruction that the ESOL teacher provides in the general education classroom). One Greenfield classroom teacher shared of her ESOL colleague, "[It's] really helpful for us to co-teach and […] for me to see some of the things that she does" (Ms. Nam, August 31, 2022). Meanwhile, Ms. Nam also described the benefits of co-planning with her ESOL colleague: "She can see where the language objective would be and is able to really [...] forefront what the English learners would need to know (Ms. Nam, August 31, 2022). This teacher articulated the instructional benefit for MLs in the classroom, but also the benefit of being able to observe this practice to strengthen her own instruction. In terms of efficacy sources, verbal persuasion was reportedly a part of these coaching experiences. Additionally, classroom teachers had the chance to observe ESOL teachers through co-planning, co-teaching, and push-in lessons with MLs, which offered them unique opportunities for vicarious efficacy experiences. Additionally, when participants described feeling satisfaction about learning or observing a strategy successfully (i.e., a mastery or vicarious experience), this became an affective experience that supported their ML instructional efficacy beliefs. For example, a classroom teacher at Greenfield described observing an ESOL teacher use puppets to carry out a social-emotional learning lesson and stated, "It's very fun" (Ms. Nam, August 31, 2022). In this instance, the enjoyment she experienced through observing the instructional strategy added to the vicarious experience by providing a positive emotional experience associated with this type of instruction.

Accessing Instructional Resources

In addition to receiving instructional support from ESOL teachers, participants reported accessing instructional resources as an important set of efficacy-building experiences for

instructing MLs. These resources often came from ESOL teachers through some of the instructional support interactions mentioned above. Specifically, participants reported accessing instructional activities and planning documents as well as utilizing communication technologies with translation capabilities. As above, these opportunities offered three types of efficacy-building experiences: verbal persuasion, mastery, and vicarious experiences.

Multiple participants benefitted from receiving instructional materials from ESOL teachers. One classroom teacher shared, "[The ESOL teacher] would make things to support my lessons. […] I learned about [the Writing in Boxes activity] from her. And I've made some of my own for my class, and the students love it" (Ms. Lewis, August 9, 2022). Another classroom teacher shared that an ESOL teacher offered "pre-made vocabulary […] slide shows for the books and [the Being a Reader curriculum]" (Ms. Nam, August 31, 2022). An ESOL teacher also shared, "With morning meeting, [another ESOL teacher] shared her template with me for third grade. I was just able to copy it and change things and make it our own, because that structure was already there" (Ms. Charles, August 9, 2022). By offering these types of instructional resources to classroom teachers and each other, ESOL teachers provided direct training on ML instructional strategies. This training served as a type of verbal persuasion experience. This support then transformed into mastery experiences when the classroom teachers and other ESOL teachers were able to utilize the resources successfully.

Along with accessing instructional materials that benefited their ML instruction, participants benefited from resources that supported instructional coordination within grade-level teams and across instructional teams. One ESOL teacher shared about the lead ESOL teacher:

> "[My fellow ESOL team members] were using a spreadsheet to organize the grade level wide planning document, and then sharing that out with other specialists, interventionists

> that work with those students. [It] was fantastic to see […] what they were getting into so I could align my instruction. She set up that Excel spreadsheet for them and got that template going" (Ms. Charles, August 9, 2022).

In other words, by providing tools to help coordinate within and across instructional teams, the ESOL teachers supported their fellow teachers' efficacy for instructing MLs (including the instructional efficacy of both classroom and fellow ESOL teachers) in a more orchestrated and systematic way. This represents a vicarious experience and a verbal persuasion experience, where the ESOL teacher participant benefited from observing her fellow ESOL teacher practice an effective strategy related to coordinating instruction.

Not only did teachers access concrete instructional and planning materials via ESOL teachers, but participants also reported having access to communication technologies with translation capabilities as an important efficacy-building experience. Participants discussed digital applications ("apps") that supported their communication with MLs' families. One classroom teacher shared, "I can't imagine not having the Remind app, because […] it translates right away for the families and they can write you back […] and you can even make phone calls [through Remind]" (Ms. Lewis, August 9, 2022). Another shared about a different application: "We use Interpretalk, which has been [...] a great thing to have to be able to call parents and have an interpreter just right at your fingertips" (Ms. Mason, September 8, 2022). With access to these communication technologies with translation capabilities, classroom teachers were able to successfully engage with MLs' families. These types of experiences also represent mastery experiences because the participants had personal success with using these technologies to support their instruction. The feeling of joy at being able to connect with students' families also represents an affective experience that benefited participants' ML instructional efficacy.

Participating in Professional Development Opportunities

A third type of efficacy-building experience for participants entailed attending PD sessions, including but not limited to those led by ESOL teachers as mentioned above. Teachers reported benefiting from in-school PD, district-level PD, and external PD. In this set of opportunities, as above, participants were offered verbal persuasion, mastery, and vicarious experiences.

In addition to school-based PD (mentioned in the section above), participants also reported on district-based PD focused on instructional strategies for MLs as benefiting their ML instructional efficacy. At Greenfield, one classroom teacher shared, “We've done a lot of [culturally responsive teaching] work in [the district] […]. Learning about equity and just getting to know your students’ cultures and how they learn has been helpful as well" (Ms. Lewis, August 9, 2022). The Whispering Brook principal described a required course provided by the school district that covered a variety of topics related to ML instruction, “[For] all of our staff members, [the required ESOL course] gives them an introduction to the diverse community of [the city]. It also gives them a framework for some of the practices that we have [to support MLs]” (Ms. Thomas, June 29, 2022). These district-level PD sessions offered teachers (both classroom and ESOL) some instructional practices and frameworks for effective ML instruction that they could then apply within their own classrooms. These were valuable opportunities for verbal persuasion experiences where teachers could receive direct training on effective instruction for MLs.

Alongside school-and district-level PD specifically related to MLs, participants mentioned non-ESOL related PD that also supported their instruction of MLs. An ESOL teacher from Greenfield stated, “I did a whole phonographic phoneme training […], and I really feel like that helped me understand the mechanics of how ESOL students learn to decode and how that

looks a little different for Spanish speakers" (Ms. Charles, August 9, 2022). The Whispering Brook principal shared similarly about an external PD related to reading instruction: "Grades K through two, [ESOL], special education teachers, reading teachers, and even me and the assistant principal – we all did [a literacy] training this past year" (Ms. Thomas, June 29, 2022). She emphasized the benefits of having a cohesive framework for understanding literacy instruction that benefited MLs. These training opportunities, as with district- and school-based PD, offered participants verbal persuasion opportunities that supported instructional efficacy for MLs.

Overall, participants described experiences of receiving support from ESOL teachers, participating in PD, and accessing resources as positively influencing their schools' collective capacity to instruct MLs. Through these opportunities, teachers were given verbal persuasion, vicarious, and mastery experiences related to effective ML instruction. They also shared feelings of satisfaction and joy related to experiencing success with ML instruction, which represents affective sources of efficacy. One area of experiences that participants rarely mentioned was preservice teacher education. Although teacher preparation institutions are designed to provide coursework that builds instructional efficacy, including for diverse students, only one teacher mentioned an experience in a teacher preparation institution as influencing her efficacy for instructing MLs. When asked about her efficacy-building experiences, she stated in passing, "I have a master's degree in curriculum and instruction, so that helped" (Ms. Lewis, August 9, 2022). She did not elaborate further on how her experiences in the master's program impacted her efficacy. This absence in the discussion of efficacy-building experiences is worth noting.

Research Question 2: What role do principals play in providing these experiences for teachers (including principal-reported and teacher-reported principal practices)?

Principals supported their schools' collective efficacy for instructing MLs in a variety of ways. These included facilitating coordinated and collaborative instruction, creating a collective ethos, providing resources, and facilitating family engagement. I will describe these below in order of frequency of occurrence in the data.

Facilitating Coordinated and Collaborative Instruction

The most frequently reported efficacy-building principal practice involved facilitating coordinated and collaborative instruction across different instructional teams. This took two parts: a) setting up systems for specialists such as ESOL teachers and reading teachers to coordinate their instruction with each other and classroom teachers, and b) creating structures for ESOL and classroom teachers to offer students collaborative teaching through various instructional models. The principals also positioned ESOL teachers as leaders on ESOL instruction within their buildings, thus facilitating further coordination and collaboration. By facilitating coordinated and collaborative instruction, principals provided ESOL and classroom teachers opportunities for verbal persuasion, vicarious, and mastery experiences that supported teachers' collective capacity to instruct MLs.

The principals at Greenfield and Whispering Brook created structures for the ESOL and grade-level instructional teams to coordinate their instruction through PLC and collaborative planning meetings. These meetings often involved "kid talks" where teachers discussed individual student progress and how to align instruction across teams to better meet student needs (Ms. Lewis, August 9, 2022). Both principals ensured that ESOL teachers were present as leaders on ESOL instruction at classroom teachers' grade-level planning meetings. The Whispering Brook principal shared, "[Each ESOL] teacher went to all of the PLC meetings that [their assigned grade-level team] had and participated in that collaborative planning [to] help

them incorporate strategies that would benefit our [ESOL] students" (Ms. Thomas, June 29, 2022). An ESOL teacher remarked on the benefits of the collaborative planning structures that the principal had put in place: "When we think about the instruction as a team, it's really helpful because we can brainstorm some ideas and think about some ways, you know, we wouldn't think about planning something [on our own]" (Ms. Halus, July 29, 2022). A Greenfield classroom teacher described the helpfulness for classroom teachers of having an ESOL presence in grade-level PLCs: "They'll jump in and give you strategies, or they'll say, 'Well let me push in and model'" (Ms. Lewis, August 9, 2022). Overall, both principals provided structures for communication and collaboration across instructional teams, as well as supporting the leadership of ESOL teachers within the building. These experiences served as mastery experiences for teachers related to instructing MLs because they experienced the benefit of these principal practices.

Similar to the cross-team coordination that the principals facilitated through PLC and planning meetings, the Whispering Brook principal also created a system of communication to support an innovative school-wide intervention and enrichment block named after the school's mascot: "The goal of [Hawks Enrichment] was to have a time where students can get additional support, without missing core instruction […] And we made sure that there was an [ESOL] teacher that was [available] during [that] time" (Ms. Thomas, June 29, 2022). Because grade-level teams needed to combine student achievement data across the grade level to determine grouping, this structure required communication and collaboration within grade levels teams, along with the leadership of ESOL teachers. The principal shared, "It started to break down some of those silos, and it started to really look at a more collaborative team approach" (Ms. Thomas, June 29, 2022). This initiative built a structure by which specialists could coordinate their

instruction and not detract from the classroom instruction taking place. This was also a structure by which further collaboration could take place. It represented a mastery experience in that teachers were able to experience the success of the coordinated instruction. Notably, while the Whispering Brook principal discussed this initiative extensively, the teacher participants did not mention it.

In addition to these broad efforts to coordinate instruction within and across grade levels, both principals also created structures for classroom and ESOL teachers to collaboratively instruct MLs. These structures included opportunities for classroom and ESOL teachers to co-plan and co-teach and for ESOL teachers to provide push-in instruction for MLs. The Whispering Brook principal shared, “Aside from [newcomer services], all of our [ESOL] services otherwise are push-in services. So, an [ESOL]teacher would push into a classroom and collaborate and co-teach with the general education teacher to provide the services” (Ms. Thomas, June 29, 2022). Similarly, the Greenfield principal shared:

> “We physically embed an ESOL teacher into an office on each of those [grade-level] wings. So [the ESOL teacher] sits in all their PLC meetings. She is a part of the team: she co-plans, she often is co-teaching [...]. And then they are part of the language thinking for the team" (Dr. Sullivan, July 20, 2022).

By facilitating classroom and ESOL teacher coordination, as well as situating ESOL teachers as leaders related to ESOL instruction, these principals provided teachers with opportunities for verbal persuasion and vicarious experiences, as well as mastery experiences through successful collaborative instruction of MLs. Overall, these principals provided time and structures for collaborative instructional conversations between classroom and ESOL teachers. These conversations supported effective instruction of MLs within and across instructional teams.

An Invisible Practice: Creating a Collective Ethos

Alongside facilitating coordinated and collaborative instruction, the principals at both schools also discussed their intentional efforts to create a collective ethos in support of rigorous and coordinated instruction of MLs. This practice was largely invisible to teachers – while the principals shared about their intentional efforts along these lines, teachers espoused the mindsets that principals inculcated without specifically naming the principals as the ones who initiated this frame of thought. This involved shifting teachers' mindsets away from siloed, individualistic teaching styles and towards a sense of collective efficacy. Their efforts also involved building a sense of shared ownership and responsibility for MLs' educational success across instructional teams.

The Greenfield principal described his efforts to build a cohesive school environment to support MLs:

> "[Teachers here] are drawn to the challenge and the belief around efficacy, that […] 'there are challenges that this kid has to learn, and I can be the one that helps him.' And what I try and do as the principal is break that apart and say, 'It's not about *you*, it is about *us*,' You can't do it alone here. With half of the school being ESOL and 80% of it being in poverty […], there's never anybody who's doing it alone" (Dr. Sullivan, July 20, 2022).

He also described the push for knowledgeable instruction of MLs by all teachers: "There is a very strong belief in helping the kids. […] What I've said is everybody here is an ESOL teacher. Everybody here is a reading teacher. Because that's the school, it's not only the model that we want but it's the environment we have to be in. […] And so if you're not a good ESOL teacher you won't survive here" (Dr. Sullivan July 20, 2022). In this case, this principal has a set of

beliefs about effective ESOL instruction related to teachers' roles and identities in relation to MLs' needs. He articulates those beliefs to teachers to create a shared sense of collective responsibility for the academic well-being of MLs. This represents an example of verbal persuasion, by which the principal is directly communicating to teachers about a mindset that can improve their efficacy for instructing MLs.

The Whispering Brook principal discussed her similar efforts to shift teachers' mindsets and build collective efficacy:

> "In my time here, there's been a lot of transformation, a lot of work on shifting some mindsets. […] The thing that we had to work on was this: a student that is struggling isn't necessarily a special education issue. It's not an [ESOL-specific] issue. It's not a parent issue. It's [...] how are we working together as a school community to support the needs of all of our students" (Ms. Thomas, June 29, 2022).

She emphasized this again: "[The Hawks Enrichment initiative] was a huge part of shifting that mindset, because it allowed classroom teachers to develop that efficacy and that understanding that 'You know what, I can do this, I can provide this support.'" (Ms. Thomas, June 29, 2022). The principal worked to build classroom teachers' ownership of their MLs' academic well-being. She did this through building the structure for this coordinated intervention block, but also through communicating expectations about the roles and responsibilities of teachers to create a collective understanding of shared responsibility for MLs. As with the Whispering Brook principal, this principal's practices to shift mindsets were not reported by teachers, yet the principals were aware of their own conscientious efforts along these lines. Again, this represents a verbal persuasion experience by which the principal communicated expectations related to ML

instruction, and this translated into a mastery experience when teachers experienced the success of the new collaborative endeavors.

Resource Provision

As mentioned above, teachers reported that providing instructional resources was another important way in which principals supported teachers' instructional efficacy. One Greenfield classroom teacher shared about her principal, "One year I wanted the vocabulary cards [with] sight words, […] and so you know, I asked, and he bought them. A lot of times he'll support [by] buying you things that you need to support your ESOL learners" (Ms. Lewis, August 9, 2022). Another Greenfield classroom teacher stated, "There is more of a push to have diverse books in our classroom. And we had a chance last year to select books to add to every grade level classroom library" (Ms. Mason, September 8, 2022). At Whispering Brook, the principal also described providing decodable books for grade-level reading lessons as a practice she used to support teachers' efficacy for instructing MLs (Ms. Thomas, June 29, 2022). Teachers also mentioned the principal's provision of technological resources, particularly for the sake of communicating with MLs' families. One Greenfield classroom teacher shared,

> "When schools shut down [due to the COVID-19 pandemic], we started using Remind. And then, […] you can buy a version of it that has a translation feature, so that families can select the language they want the message to come through. [Our principal decided] we're going to use money to purchase that app with the translation feature so that we can connect with the families" (Ms. Mason, September 8, 2022).

In these instances, principals supported teachers' instructional efficacy by providing resources such as diverse children's literature and communication technology with translation capabilities to support the instruction of MLs. These practices translated into mastery experiences when

teachers successfully utilized the resources to support their MLs. Notably, the Greenfield principal did not mention any of these instances of resource provision in his discussion of ways that he supports ML instruction.

Facilitating Family Engagement

Both principals created opportunities for teachers to engage with families to support MLs' academic well-being. Family engagement has special importance for the instruction of MLs because MLs' families often have unique assets that can strongly support their children's academic success, yet these families frequently face language barriers with their children's schools that impede the leverage of families' assets. Thus, teachers need opportunities to break down communication barriers and engage meaningfully with MLs' families. At both schools, principals created these types of opportunities. Family engagement provided teachers with mastery and affective experiences that supported their collective efficacy to instruct MLs.

The Greenfield principal supported a home visiting initiative that uniquely enabled teachers to engage with MLs' families. A Greenfield classroom teacher shared, "We do home visits with every family who agrees for a home visit. […] Ninety-nine percent of the time, they want [teachers] to come to their home. […] And that just sets the tone for the whole school year" (Ms. Lewis, August 9, 2022). Prior to these visits, teachers engage in a day-long training on "how to conduct the [...] visits, how to be aware of other cultures, and what to expect during the visit" (Ms. Mason, September 8, 2022). Other Greenfield teachers reported on the benefits of these visits, such as learning about the difference between Dari and Pashto languages (Ms. Nam, August 31, 2022). The home visiting training provided a verbal persuasion experience in which the teachers were directly trained on how to conduct home visits, and then this transformed into a mastery experience when teachers successfully conducted home visits, themselves. This area of

instructional efficacy also entailed another type of invisible principal leadership practice: the principal did not mention his own leadership of this practice (despite being the leader of this initiative), and the teachers also did not explicitly mention the principal's leadership related to this initiative.

Whispering Brook teachers also discussed a family engagement experience led by their principal. At Whispering Brook, the principal initiated an activity called Project Dot, in which families were invited to the school to engage in a shared art project. One ESOL teacher described this experience: "It was the possibility for us to communicate with the family as well, in that informal situation, because usually when you ask a parent to come to the office, it can hardly be informal. But in that situation, it was informal, so it was it was really, really interesting and helpful" (Ms. Halus, July 29, 2022). This teacher specifically mentioned the principal's role in this endeavor: "She was the one in charge of the family nights. She was the one who was, who went to get the paint, who delivered paint, who opened all the, all those cans with paint" (Ms. Halus, July 29, 2022). Clearly, the principal had a hands-on approach to family engagement. A Whispering Brook classroom teacher also discussed additional family engagement efforts: "We bring families in sometimes and try to not just have fun but to actually show them you know, good practices at home and good things that we do and so encouraging them to communicate with the school, you know if they have any concerns or they, or questions and things like that" (Ms. Williams, personal communication, July 19, 2022). Again, this teacher did not explicitly mention the principal's role here, although the principal orchestrated the efforts. This served as a mastery experience, where teachers experienced the success of interacting with families through this shared artistic endeavor.

Across both schools, principals provided teachers with open-ended, productive relationship-building experiences to engage with families. Notably, the Greenfield teachers did not identify their home visiting practice as a principal leadership activity. Clearly the home visiting practices were supported by the principal, although his role was not explicitly mentioned by the teachers. The Whispering Brook art project, in contrast, was attributed to the principal as a leadership initiative, although the principal did not mention this practice herself. In both cases, these family engagement activities offered mastery experiences for the teachers to successfully engage with MLs' families. Greenfield also offered a verbal persuasion experience by offering training on how to conduct home visiting. Across both settings, principals facilitated teachers' growth in family engagement practices, which then positively impact their instruction of MLs.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to understand the types of experiences that teachers saw as supporting their school's collective capacity for instructing MLs and the principal practices that they felt contributed to this capacity. I also explored the ways that teachers' and principals' perceptions of principal practices for MLs overlapped and diverged. Though prior research has demonstrated types of experiences and principal practices that can support teachers' collective capacity in general (e.g., Goddard et al. 2017), there is little research related to how this applies in the context of ML instruction, specifically. In this qualitative study, I interviewed principals, classroom teachers, and ESOL teachers in two elementary schools with large ML populations to understand more about experiences (including principal practices) that support teachers' collective capacity for ML instruction. Across the experiences that participants described, teachers had opportunities for verbal persuasion, vicarious, mastery, and affective experiences to

support their efficacy for instructing MLs. Below, I situate these findings in the context of extant literature and suggest implications and directions for further study.

The Nature of Teachers' Efficacy for Instructing MLs

This study focused on the collective capacity of elementary teachers to instruct MLs, and in the interviews I aimed to specifically target teachers' perceptions of the cohesive ability of their school to support MLs. However, throughout the interviews, teachers' perceptions of their self- and collective efficacy were intertwined. In their descriptions of efficacy-building experiences, participants (including classroom and ESOL teachers) wove together the topics of self- and collective efficacy. When asked specifically about their individual experiences that supported their self-efficacy, teachers often talked about experiences they had shared with grade-level team members and shifted quickly into talking about their collective sense of efficacy. Similarly, when teachers were asked about shared experiences to build collective efficacy, they would discuss individual experiences that influenced their self-efficacy alongside other collective experiences. This diverged from the theoretical and empirical foundation of this paper – prior work has focused on self- and collective efficacy as distinct (albeit interrelated) constructs (e.g., Klassen & Tze, 2014; Strahan nee Brown et al., 2019). When self- and collective efficacy have been studied together, the focus is on the ways that self- and collective efficacy beliefs interact, rather than on the ways that teachers conflate the two (e.g., Demir, 2008). The fact that participants did not distinguish the two merits further exploration.

Bandura's four theorized sources of efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977, 1997) are demonstrably present in the findings, yet prior to this study there has been little qualitative study of the ways that teachers experience these four sources, particularly in the context of ML instruction. Past studies have focused on individual sources such as mastery experiences in the

context of collective efficacy in general (e.g., Goddard, 2001); this study contributes uniquely by offering qualitative findings related to all four sources. The findings supported my expectation that the four sources would align with the experiences that participants attributed to building their collective efficacy for instructing MLs. The participants mentioned many experiences that aligned with each of the four sources. Of the four, verbal persuasion was the most pervasive – teachers described benefiting from being directly taught how to implement certain instructional strategies to support their MLs. Second, teachers described benefiting from vicarious experiences. These often took place within principal-created structures for collaborative instruction, including co-teaching, co-planning, and push-in instruction. When teachers had these types of opportunities for collaboration, they could then implement new instructional strategies and gain mastery experiences. Teachers described opportunities to try out new strategies within the context of PD as well as when they were given materials that they could then adapt to their unique contexts. Teachers mentioned affective experiences when they had positive emotions related to carrying out or observing an instructional strategy and seeing how it benefited their students. Also, principals mentioned affective sources of efficacy in the context of their practice of creating a collective ethos. They described shaping mindsets such that teachers felt empowered and capable of delivering high-quality instruction for MLs.

Bandura's theorized sources of efficacy provided insight in a broad way to the types of experiences that participants attributed to their efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977, 1997). However, the inductive codes that arose authentically from the participants' shares provided more depth and nuance of understanding for the research questions. For example, while the data clearly indicated that verbal persuasion experiences were beneficial to their abilities to instruct MLs, the inductive codes suggested that these experiences often arose from training provided by ESOL

teachers, and that this training occurred within PLCs, PDs, and collaborative teaching structures. Future studies could involve interview questions that directly asked participants about these sources, and they could also explore one or multiple types of sources in depth to understand more specific ways in which principals could provide these types of experiences.

Efficacy-Building Experiences

There were several types of experiences that teachers perceived as contributing to their collective capacity (including self-efficacy and collective efficacy) for instructing MLs. These became apparent through both inductive codes (arising inherently from the data) and deductive codes (aligning with Bandura's theorized sources of efficacy beliefs). The efficacy-building activities that teachers most frequently mentioned included receiving support from ESOL teachers, attending PD, and accessing resources (the last two of which often occurred via ESOL teachers' leadership). These experiences align with but also add to prior literature on the types of experiences that promote teachers' efficacy for instructing MLs.

Across the interviews, a salient theme was the importance of ESOL teachers providing knowledgeable support for their fellow teachers regarding ML instruction within their schools. Classroom and ESOL teachers reported on their interactions with (other) ESOL teachers most frequently among their efficacy-building experiences. These interactions with ESOL teachers took place through informal training in PLCs and co-planning, modeling and coaching through co-teaching and push-in instruction, and formal training through school-wide PD. Teachers also discussed the benefits of accessing resources through interactions with ESOL teachers, including instructional activities and planning documents provided by ESOL teachers through co-planning, PLCs, and co-teaching experiences. Overall, teachers referred to the ESOL teachers as invaluable sources of expertise on ML instruction. This is supported in extant literature on the

value of positioning teachers (such as ESOL teachers) as leaders, particularly in elementary settings (Bond, 2021; Von Esch, 2018). Research also suggests that collaboration and co-teaching are highly effective practices in terms of ML instruction (Demir, 2008; Goddard et al. 2015; Strahan nee Brown et al., 2019).

Prior research has emphasized the importance of formal training (i.e., PD) to support the instructional efficacy of teachers, and classroom teachers in particular, for MLs (e.g., Vera et al, 2022). This study indicated that what was impactful for teachers was the intentional structures for relationships between classroom teachers and ESOL teachers. Classroom teacher participants who worked closely with ESOL teachers emphasized the benefit of these relationships for their instructional efficacy for MLs. Since ESOL teachers often served as unofficial coaches for classroom teachers (and each other), principals could support their schools' efficacy for instructing MLs by ensuring that structures are in place for these collaborative relationships. The data suggests that PD is not unimportant, but it is very helpful alongside these beneficial relationships with ESOL teachers. Recent studies have also found this relationship to be crucial (e.g., Coady et al., 2023), and more research is needed to understand specifically how ESOL teachers can serve as coaches for classroom teachers in elementary schools.

Efficacy-Building Principal Practices

Alongside the efficacy-building experiences that participants described, there were several ways that principals enacted leadership practices to support teachers' collective capacity to instruct MLs. Principal practices that built teachers' efficacy included facilitating coordinated and collaborative instruction across instructional teams (which involved positioning ESOL teachers as leaders), creating a collective ethos focusing on collaborative ML instruction, and facilitating family engagement opportunities. At times, the principals' role in these activities was

unacknowledged by the principal, the teachers, or both, yet the effect of these principal practices was acknowledged by one or both parties.

Within the leadership practices of facilitating collaboration and communication, creating a collective ethos, and facilitating family engagement, principals consistently positioned ESOL teachers as leaders within the schools. Principals often set up the structures for these interactions between classroom and ESOL teachers, and within these, ESOL teachers were seen as leaders in their schools. This positioning of teachers as leaders represents distributed leadership, in which principals delegated certain parts of their role to other experts in their school communities (Spillane et al., 2001). This aligns with prior studies that have suggested that principals could support the academic success of MLs and other marginalized student groups by implementing distributed leadership practices (Auslander, 2018; Masumoto & Brown-Welty, 2009). These studies have indicated that positioning ESOL teachers allows principals to delegate the responsibility of leadership around ML instructional leadership, which can be particularly useful regarding ML instruction, since principals typically only have minimal training on ESOL students or instructional practices (Padron & Waxman, 2016). Thus, distributed leadership can benefit the principal individually as well as teachers and MLs by allowing the principal to leverage the strength of teachers to support the needs of MLs.

Notably, this study's data demonstrated that certain principal practices were invisible to teachers, and at times teachers mentioned principal practices that principals did not mention themselves. For example, principals discussed creating a collective ethos and shifting the shared mindset of members of the school communities to support ML instruction being a shared endeavor. While teachers espoused these mindsets, they did not attribute their related beliefs to their principals' leadership. It is possible that the principals promoted these mindsets in implicit

and integrated ways such that the teachers were unaware of the principals' intentionality in this area. On the other hand, there were also principal practices that teachers mentioned but principals did not. It is possible that, given the limited time of the interviews, principals simply did not think of these instances of instructional support. However, the mismatch suggests that the principal practices that teachers notice, versus those that principals intentionally carry out, may diverge from each other. This theme aligns with prior research that school leaders can promote change in their schools by invisibly inculcating a common focus among members of the school community (Hickman & Sorenson, 2013). More research is needed to determine how this may be implemented particularly for the purposes of creating equitable learning opportunities for marginalized students such as MLs.

The principals in this study both intentionally built a collective ethos for supporting MLs – a principal practice that was invisible to teacher participants (although the collective ethos was reflected in their interviews). This aligns with prior studies that suggest that integral to transformation of equity barriers is the practice of creating a common focus (Hickman & Sorenson, 2013) or "sustained press for instructional improvement" (Goddard et al., 2017, p. 11). This practice merits further empirical exploration. By creating a shared mindset about specific components of instruction that are particularly important, principals can share emphasis on areas that need improvement or where the strength of the members of the community is imperative. A collective ethos is particularly important for student groups that have been systemically and historically marginalized in U.S. schools such as MLs. Additionally, a collective ethos could help transform teachers' mindsets from deficit-focused to asset-focused, so that the assets of students such as MLs (as mentioned in the beginning of the paper) can be leveraged.

The principals at both schools in this study facilitated family engagement, particularly for the purposes of building teachers' interactions with MLs' families. Although extant literature supports that family engagement is an integral part of effective instruction of MLs (e.g., Mapp & Bergman, 2021), participants tended to mention family engagement practices as supplemental to their instruction, rather than as a core part of what they do to support MLs. The teacher participants saw families as able to provide teachers with useful information about their students, but they did not see the full extent of families' assets and ways that they could support students' learning. Thus, future research could explore ways in which principals can effectively facilitate family engagement as a critical practice for supporting the educational success of MLs.

Limitations and Future Study

This qualitative multiple case study took place at two elementary schools in two school districts in one Mid-Atlantic state. This sample was not intended to be representative of any particular student group or type of school; rather, the purpose was to understand some of the experiences of teachers and principals in these high-EL and high-efficacy schools, which may be similar of the experiences of teachers and principals in other high-EL and high-efficacy schools, as well as a variety of other settings. While purposefully constructed, this sample was limited in that it only included high-efficacy schools, which means it was not possible to compare practices that took place between high- and low-efficacy schools. The study's schools also contained high proportions of MLs, so this study elicited findings about practices for building teacher efficacy when a large number of MLs are present. There may be other practices that are taking place at schools where only a small number of MLs are present, such as rural schools, and this would be a fruitful line of future study.

It is worth noting that this study took place in 2022 when the COVID-19 pandemic was still actively impacting the members of school communities. In the interviews described here, participants shared about the 2021-2022 school year, during which many students and teachers were actively overcoming the challenges that the 2020-2021 school year had brought. There was collective trauma involved that affected participants' perceptions of efficacy. Due to this caveat, it is possible that participants sensed they had lower efficacy than they might have otherwise, given the negative affective experiences that the pandemic likely brought (Pressley & Ha, 2022). On the other hand, some experiences such as home-based learning may have meant that teachers had more interactions with families, in which case their efficacy might have grown (Narayanan & Ordynans, 2022). It is worth exploring through further studies the efficacy of similar schools in times when a pandemic is not so impactful.

There are plentiful possibilities for future study based on the present work. A qualitative study could compare high- and low-efficacy schools to understand more about different practices that take place at each type of setting. Future studies could also explore the experiences that teachers have at low-efficacy schools and ways that principals in those schools' work to build efficacy in their schools. A mixed-methods study might explore the ways in which participants report their self- and collective efficacy beliefs and the experiences that contribute to or detract from their efficacy beliefs for instructing MLs. Studies could draw out the voices of MLs and their families, as well as the voices of multilingual teachers and other historically marginalized groups of teachers. Across all of these possibilities, it is important to continue seeking out ways that schools can collectively amplify the equitable learning opportunities provided for MLs and other marginalized student groups.

Conclusion

The responsibility for MLs' success falls on the collective staff in elementary schools, and principals play an important role in supporting teachers to provide effective instruction for MLs. This study contributes to the body of empirical research on ways to build teachers' capacity to meet the needs of MLs. Importantly, principals can build the collective ethos of their school to keep the well-being of MLs in the forefront. Principals can also structure their schools to ensure that collaboration and ESOL teacher leadership enhance MLs' learning. By embodying a sense of shared responsibility for MLs, schools can equip MLs to reach their full potential.

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Appendix A

Teacher Interview Questions

1. To start off, can you tell me a little bit about your role at this school?
2. Please describe your idea of what effective instruction for ELs entails.
3. What experiences have you had that have enabled you to enact this instruction?
4. Who has helped you to feel more effective at instructing ELs?
5. In what ways do you see teachers at your school (classroom teachers, SPED teachers, and ESOL teachers) as able to enact this type of instruction for ELs?
6. What experiences have teachers here had that have enabled them to enact this instruction?
7. Who has helped teachers here to feel more effective at instructing ELs?
8. What are some ways in which your principal has helped you/teachers at your school to be more effective at instructing ELs?
9. Are there ways in which you would like for your principal to provide additional support to help you and your fellow teachers to better instruct ELs?
10. What are some barriers at play that prevent you/teachers at your school from being able to effectively instruct ELs?

Appendix B

Principal Interview Questions

1. Please tell me about your experience as principal at this school.
2. Please describe your school and the context of your school during this past school year.
3. Please tell me a little bit about the English learners at your school.
4. Please describe your idea of what effective instruction for ELs entails.
5. In what ways do you see your teachers as able to enact this type of instruction for ELs?
6. What do you think has enabled them to be able to enact this instruction? In what ways do you feel that this affected teachers' ability to instruct English learners?
7. What are some ways in which you have supported teachers in being able to instruct English learners (ELs)?
8. What kind of professional development opportunities have you offered at your school on the topic of ELs? What were some of the outcomes in teachers' instruction of ELs after being given these opportunities?
9. In what ways have you given teachers the opportunity to work with other teachers instructing ELs? What were some of the outcomes in teachers' instruction of ELs after being given these opportunities?
10. Of these types of teacher supports that you've been telling me about, which ones seem to be helpful?
11. In what ways do you see your teachers as needing additional support in effectively instructing ELs?

12. What, if any, barriers have you experienced that have influenced the ways that you have been able to support teachers with instructing ELs? How would you describe your ideal situation for supporting teachers in this work?