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Kara Viesca
University of Nebraska - Lincoln, kara.viesca@unl.edu

Annela Teemant
Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis, ateemant@iupui.edu

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Preparing Content Teachers to Work with Multilingual Students

Kara Mitchell Viesca[1] and Annela Teemant[2]

1 University of Nebraska–Lincoln; *email* kara.viesca@unl.edu

2 Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis; *email* ateemant@iupui.edu

It is well-documented that content teachers (e.g., math, science, social studies, etc.) have not been adequately prepared to address the increasing number of multilingual students in their classes (Freeman & Freeman, 2014; Lucas, 2011). While many teacher education programs strive to prepare teachers during initial licensure programs (e.g., de Oliveira & Yough, 2015; Freeman & Freeman, 2014; Levine, Howard, & Moss, 2014) and recent work has focused on secondary teacher preparation at both pre-service and in-service levels (de Oliveira & Obenchain, 2018; de Oliveira, Obenchain, Kenney, & Oliveira, in press; de Oliveira & Shoffner, 2016; de Oliveira & Wilcox, 2017), the existing conceptual and empirical knowledge-base for preparing pre- and in-service content teachers is still in its infancy. Faltis and Valdés (2016) argue that what is known—albeit inconclusively—does nevertheless provide helpful guidance upon which we can all build. This chapter seeks to provide a sense of the issues, research, and practices that shape what we know while identifying fruitful directions for deepening the knowledge-base for preparing K-12 content teachers for multilingual learners.

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Overview of Issues and Approaches

Any discussion of the preparation of content teachers must begin with ideological perspectives, systems of belief, and political context that position both teachers and multilingual students in content classrooms. Historically and currently, multilingual students (e.g., their cultural and linguistic backgrounds, identities, and life experiences) have been marginalized in schools and viewed as a challenge rather than an asset (Mitchell, 2013). Such deficit perspectives manifests in different ways and at different levels. For example, many content teachers express a lack of willingness to accept responsibility for teaching multilingual learners (Pawan, 2008; Walker, Shafer, & Liams, 2004; Yoon, 2008). Schools often create policies and programs that limit the opportunities for multilingual student and family engagement (Viesca, 2013). Society itself is susceptible to political and social movements that are nativist, anti-immigrant, and overtly racist (e.g., the rise in White nationalism in the United States, Trump's election, Brexit in the UK, the election of a far-right political party in Germany called AfD).

Assimilationism guides many policies, practices, and approaches to multilingualism adopted in schools and communities. The human geographist Caroline Nagel (2002) defined *assimilationism* as "observable, material processes of accommodation of and conformity to dominant norms" (p. 259). Vazquez-Montilla, Just, and Triscari (2014) found assimilationist attitudes in 425 teachers they surveyed in Florida. Specifically, 73% of content teachers surveyed indicated that "it is unreasonable to expect a regular classroom teacher to teach a student who does not speak English" (p. 583). Only 9% of teachers surveyed agreed with the statement that "teachers should modify their instruction for their students' cultural and linguistic needs" (p. 583).

Assimilationist attitudes are also evident in expectations for students and families to speak only English or abandon their own cultural ways of being. Such expectations dismiss the abilities, strengths, and experiences that students and families already possess. Similarly, many policies and programs are developed to "accelerate" English acquisition and quickly label students. The labels "English Language Learner" and "English Learner" narrow all educative attention on English development. The re-classification process results in multilingual students being treated like monolinguals for the rest of their schooling. English,

however, is not *all* that matters in the education of a multilingual child (Mitchell, 2012, 2013).

A pluralist perspective, on the other hand, would embrace the diversity and assets that multilingual students, families and communities have to offer schools and society. Pluralism would shift the programs and desired outcomes for multilingual students. Brisk (2005) argues that a bilingual is not the sum of two monolinguals. Bilinguals live and exist in the world differently from a monolingual—linguistically, socially, culturally, cognitively, and so on (García, 2009; Grosjean, 2014). Research has documented the extensive cognitive, linguistic, social, cultural, and economic benefits that accrue to multilingual students, families, and communities with bilingualism and biliteracy (e.g., Agirdag, 2014; Lutz, 2004). When research is conducted from this perspective, we see it is wrong to set a monolingual assimilationist norm for which a bilingual student should strive. The constant comparison of monolingual students to bilingual students unfairly diminishes the capacities and accomplishments of multilingual students (Hopewell & Escamilla, 2014). Research shows that strong bilingual education programs successfully create high academic achievement and educational equity in outcomes for multilingual students (Bialystok, 2018; Rolstad, Mahoney, & Glass, 2005; Slavin & Cheung, 2005; Umansky & Reardon, 2014; Valentino & Reardon, 2015). Ironically, building on these positive assumptions about bilingualism (Valdez, Delavan, & Freire, 2016), there is increasing interest in English proficient students becoming bilingual. However, despite these findings, most multilingual students are taught in English-only programs in the United States. Yet, a commitment to multilingualism could still guide educational programs, policies, and practices that are English-only.

A persistent obstacle to the adoption of pluralist perspectives is that multilingualism is closely linked to negative perceptions around race, class, culture, ability, and heteronormativity (Flores & Rosa, 2015; Viesca, 2013). Such perceptions are intersectional, meaning that perceptions around one aspect of identity (e.g., race) can impact perceptions around another (e.g., language), and thus deeply influence the opportunities multilingual students have across their educational lifespans. The intersectionality of language and other axes of potential oppression may also explain the consistent research illustrating teachers' negative beliefs toward working with multilingual students (e.g., Blanchard

& Muller, 2015; Heineke, 2015). Fortunately, there is evidence that experience with multilingual learners and engaging content teachers in professional learning are helpful in shifting attitudes and beliefs (Master, Loeb, Whitney, & Wyckoff, 2016; Pettit, 2011).

In summary, ideological perspectives, systems of belief, and the political context matter when it comes to preparing content teachers for multilingual students. While potentially unarticulated, educators' assumptions and beliefs become the theories that guide their practices and inform the policies they draw upon. Therefore, we argue that teachers' enacted theories matter and should be made explicit and juxtaposed against formal theories for further reflection. In the following sections, we illustrate how sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978, 1997) and critical pedagogy (Freire, 1994) provide a powerful foundation for defining quality multilingual content teaching and learning in content classrooms.

Main Findings from Current Research

This section synthesizes current research to highlight three factors that matter in the preparation of content teachers for multilingual learners. We explore why language, teacher learning, and teacher pedagogy matter.

Language Matters

In 2008, Lucas and Grinberg argued for language to be attended to in content classrooms. Since then, many language scholars have developed conceptual frameworks for attending to language in content classrooms. For instance, Lucas and Villegas (2011) argued for linguistically responsive teaching, which included teacher orientations (i.e., sociolinguistic consciousness, valuing linguistic diversity, and inclination to advocate) and knowledge and skills for teaching (i.e., knowing students, language demands of tasks, principles of second language learning, and scaffolding instruction). Bunch (2013) argued for pedagogical language knowledge as "the development of language and literacy in and through teaching the core curricular content, understandings, and activities that teachers are responsible for" (p. 298). Along similar lines, Turkan, de Oliveira, Lee, and Phelps (2014) argued for disciplinary linguistic knowledge, which describes "teachers' knowledge of academic

discourse characteristics distinct to a particular discipline" (p. 3). Faltis, Arias, and Ramirez-Marín (2010) also identified relevant competencies for secondary teachers of multilingual learners that include attention to language.

Recent work in languaging and translanguaging (García, Johnson, & Seltzer, 2017; García & Kleyn, 2016) has also suggested the importance of deliberately utilizing languages other than English as valuable learning tools in the classroom. These scholars argue that students should be using their full linguistic repertoires as an integrated system for communicating to both expand their language repertoire as well as their content understandings. This breaks down the boundaries we often place around language (e.g., Spanish, English, academic language, etc.). They value treating language as a verb in instructional contexts; that is, students should language, meaning *do* the interesting, authentic, and complex things with their language skills to expand them. The initial research on these practices is promising, particularly from an equity and multilingual perspective (García & Kleyn, 2016).

Each of these conceptualizations of language has moved the field forward in thinking about how language matters in quality content teaching and learning for multilingual students. However, we still have much more empirical work to do to understand how exactly these conceptualizations are realized in policy and teaching practice. For instance, Schall-Leckrone and McQuillan (2012) integrated approaches based on systemic functional linguistics (Halliday, 1994) into a social studies methods course for pre-service teachers and conducted a two-year action research project. While findings indicated a positive effect on teacher candidates' ability to integrate language development into their planning and practice, the researchers felt that teacher candidates still needed more support and reinforcement across multiple contexts. Similarly, Chval, Pinnow, and Thomas (2015) found in their case study with one math teacher that a significant amount of time and learning opportunities were required to integrate specialized language knowledge of mathematics into teaching. Galguera (2011), however, found that using different participant structures, such as small-group activities, helped pre-service teachers learn about teaching academic language in content classrooms.

While it appears that pre-service teachers need consistent and long-term support to integrate attention to (disciplinary) language in content learning, there is also emerging evidence that attending to language

can pay off. Tong, Luo, Irby, Lara-Alecio, and Rivera (2017) examined the impact of a professional development program focusing on helping teachers explicitly teach academic language. The results of their randomized control trial illustrated that the professional development did cause teachers to spend more time explicitly teaching academic English and that these efforts had a positive impact on students' expressive vocabulary, oral reading fluency and retell fluency. Similarly, Shaw, Lyon, Stoddart, Mosqueda, and Menon (2014) found that teachers' attention to language and literacy practices in the science classroom can improve multilingual learners' achievement in science concepts as well as in writing and vocabulary.

Clearly language matters in working with multilingual learners in content classrooms. Creating the conditions for students to language and translanguage in authentic and meaningful ways holds promise for affirming multilingual learners and promoting language development.

Teacher Learning Matters

Research on the preparation of content teachers for working with multilingual students suggests that teacher learning matters. Several studies found positive growth from course work with pre- or in-service teachers (e.g., Andrews & Weisenberg, 2013; Hansen-Thomas, Richins, Kakkar, & Okeyo, 2016; Turgut, Sahin, & Huerta, 2016). Sharma and Lazar (2014) found pre-service teachers' orientations toward multilingual learners shifted via coursework from a deficit orientation to what the researchers call a capacity orientation. Similarly, Markos (2012) analyzed responses offered by pre-service teachers in Arizona to this question, "When you hear the words *English Language Learner*, what comes to mind?" (p. 39). The researcher found that pre-service teachers entered their mandated skills-based course with deficit and narrow understanding of multilingual learners. By the end of the course, the pre-service teachers indicated that they were aware of the changes in their thinking. However, the researcher felt that mandated skills-based courses also needed to embed opportunities for pre-service teachers to examine the intersection of their life experiences and new learning about bilingual learners.

Additional studies looked at change in perceptions of pre-service teachers and found growth, though still a need for more work. Catalano, Reeves, and Wessels (2017) investigated efforts in a teacher education program to prepare elementary teachers to work with multilingual students.

They found that pre-service teachers viewed their multilingual students through their own worldview (ethnocentrism), that non-English language usage was viewed as a privilege to be "allowed" by teachers in some contexts, not a right; and that popular misconceptions about language acquisition were persistent. They also found that pre-service teachers did show signs of becoming "critical observers" when they spoke out against unfair language practices they observed. DelliCarpini and Alonso (2014), working with secondary-level math and science teachers, found that at the outset pre-service teachers had deficit perspectives of multilingual learners and maintained a "blame the victim" mentality, expressing that academic achievement was solely the responsibility of the student and his/her family. These secondary teachers did grow, but only modestly. The researchers argue for attention to both language and content and suggest the value of potential collaboration with language specialists and content teachers to achieve this.

The value of collaboration among teachers is supported by several studies. In fact, it appears that collaboration among educators (teachers, coaches, and learning communities) is a promising approach for our field. Several studies document positive outcomes for such collaborations, all focused on improved planning and practice for content teachers working with multilingual students (e.g., Baecher, Knoll, & Patti, 2016; Chien, 2013; Martin-Beltrán & Peercy, 2014; Peercy, Martin-Beltrán, Silverman, & Nunn, 2015; Rodríguez, Abrego, & Rubin, 2014; Russell, 2014). Additionally, Jimenez-Silva and Olson (2012) found teacher learning communities to be valuable for supporting pre-service teacher learning about working with multilingual learners. Clearly, collaboration is an important component for supporting the development of strong content teachers of multilingual students. As is illustrated below, it also is a strong component of an effective pedagogy for teaching multilingual students.

Pedagogy Matters

While there is not one right way to be a teacher, there are many elements that contribute to successful teaching. A teachers' knowledge of subject matter (what), knowledge of learners and their development (who), and knowledge of teaching practices (how) are essential components of the teaching profession (Bransford, Darling-Hammond, & LePage, 2005). However, Cuban (2013) found, in reviewing 50 years of

educational reform, the *what* of teaching has changed many times over (e.g., Common Core State Standards) while the *how* of teaching has remained unchanged citing the sustained commitment to lectures, whole group activities, and so on. Currently, these same teacher-dominated practices have been reinforced by educational policies that treat teaching as being merely a technical skill (i.e., think "follow the script") and success as students merely passing high-stakes tests. According to Wills and Sandholtz (2009), such test-based accountability devalues teachers' expertise, judgment, and professionalism. Similarly, Salazar (2013) argues that teachers and students are both devalued and dehumanized by instructional practices that mechanically silence their perspectives and take away meaningful learning opportunities.

As a result, some scholars have moved away from a narrow and mechanistic conception of *instruction* to the term *pedagogy* to capture the art, science, and morality of teaching and learning in the 21st century. For example, MacNeill and Silcox (2003) define pedagogy as "reasoned, moral, human interaction, within a reflective, socio-political, educative context that facilitates the acquisition of new knowledge, beliefs, or skills" (para. 7).

Three developments underscore why pedagogy—the how—matters in radically improving the experiences of multilingual students in schooling. First, the demographic shift in the U.S. student population has underscored the importance of every teacher in a building being engaged in a process of questioning assumptions, beliefs, and practices in light of student needs (Fullan, 2007). As Hargreaves and Fullan (2012) explain, "Students do very well because they have a *series* of very good teachers—not by chance, but by design. In other words, you have to transform the *entire* [teaching] *profession*" (p. 16). School improvement is not an individual endeavor. Improvement is the result of teams of educators creating a culture of ongoing professional learning, where shared purpose, values, goals for improvement, and outcomes are reflected and acted upon collectively, and in solidarity, for the benefit of student learning.

Second, advances in understanding cognitive development have opened up space for new pedagogical practices that stand in stark contrast to Skinner's behaviorism and Piaget's cognitivism (Stentsenko & Arievitch, 1997). In particular, the work of Lev Vygotsky (1978) holds great promise in transforming pedagogy. His work is based on four

assumptions: (a) knowledge is cultural and competent participation; (b) learning is social; (c) teaching is assisting; and (d) performance is situative (Smith, Teemant, & Pinnegar, 2004). Collectively, these assumptions argue that schooling prepares students to take on new identities—as readers, writers, mathematicians, scientists, and so on—that are steeped in learning the language, thinking, and cultural patterns of participation in various disciplines (assumption a). For Vygotsky, learning is a dynamic social and dialogic process of co-constructing understandings, where more knowledgeable others (e.g., peers, teachers, or parents) assist students to take the next steps in their development (assumption b). Vygotsky (1997) envisioned the space between the teacher and the student as an active one, full of meaningful dialogue and timely and responsive assistance during the learning process (assumption c). It is exactly this assistance to learn in a student's zone of proximal development that advances student learning (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Vygotsky, 1978). Unlike Piaget, Vygotsky believed students could act their way into competence (assumption d): "Vygotsky, learning first, and then development. For Piaget, development first, and then learning" (Wink & Putney, 2002, p. 23). Therefore, pedagogical practices that create these conditions for learning fundamentally support language learning too.

Third, critical social theory has become essential in understanding how to reach all learners, especially multilingual learners. Critical social theory interrogates the social, cultural, historical, and political context of schooling that shape students' identities, create inequitable power relationships, and either limit or expand students' agency to become their best selves in learning and life. The goal is to disrupt the status quo that marginalizes and dehumanizes multilingual students, families, and their communities by judging them according to White middle-class ways of knowing and being in the world (Alim & Paris, 2017). Apple (2016) argues that the purpose of a critical education is to expose power relationships and inequality in all of their various forms, combinations, and complexities as well as to challenge those issues of power in both the formal and informal education of adults and children. Similarly, Paulo Freire argued that critical education must be a relational process of humanization where students and teachers become "more fully human" and "conscious of their presence in the world as a way to individually and collectively" transform the world (Salazar, 2013, p. 126).

These three developments—the demographic shift (Maxwell, 2014), the sociocultural turn (Johnson, 2006), and the critical turn (Gottesman, 2016)—underpin the pedagogical recommendations for improving schooling for multilingual students presented in the following section. Each of these developments also presents an opportunity for radical pedagogical change. The following types of approaches exemplify pedagogy based in critical sociocultural perspectives: Standards for effective pedagogy (Teemant, Leland, & Berghoff, 2014; Tharp, Estrada, Dalton, & Yamauchi, 2000); funds of knowledge (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & González, 1992); equitable mathematics (Moschkovich, 2013); critical literacy (Lewison, Leland, & Harste, 2015); and critical pedagogy in urban schools (Duncan-Andrade & Morrell, 2008). These approaches also illustrate how language, culture, teacher learning and pedagogy matter in the preparation of content to work with multilingual students.

Practical Applications in K-12

In this section, concrete ways for improving pedagogical practices—the *how* of teaching—for multilingual learners are presented. The suggested pedagogical practices create the conditions for language and content learning and represent a synthesis of 40 years of research done by the Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence (CREDE; Tharp et al., 2000) and are reinforced by subsequent research (Teemant et al., 2014; Teemant, Hausman, & Tyra, 2017) and syntheses of research (e.g., Bransford, Derry, Berliner, Hammerness, & Beckett, 2005; Hattie, 2009).

Figure 1 represents six essential pedagogical principles of learning that are known to improve student achievement and English development. The goal is to use at least three of these principles in the design of any single activity. These principles are discussed in three stages to align with Vygotsky's (1978) assumptions: (a) Learning is Social, (b) Teaching is Assisting and Situated Performance, and (c) Knowledge is Cultural and Competent Participation. These stages of teacher change are also derived from longitudinal instructional coaching research with content teachers of multilingual learners (e.g., Teemant, 2014; Teemant et al., 2014; Teemant, Cen, & Wilson, 2015). While the first stage of change described is easy for teachers to embrace, the other pedagogical changes will require intentional and sustained cycles of reflection and innovative

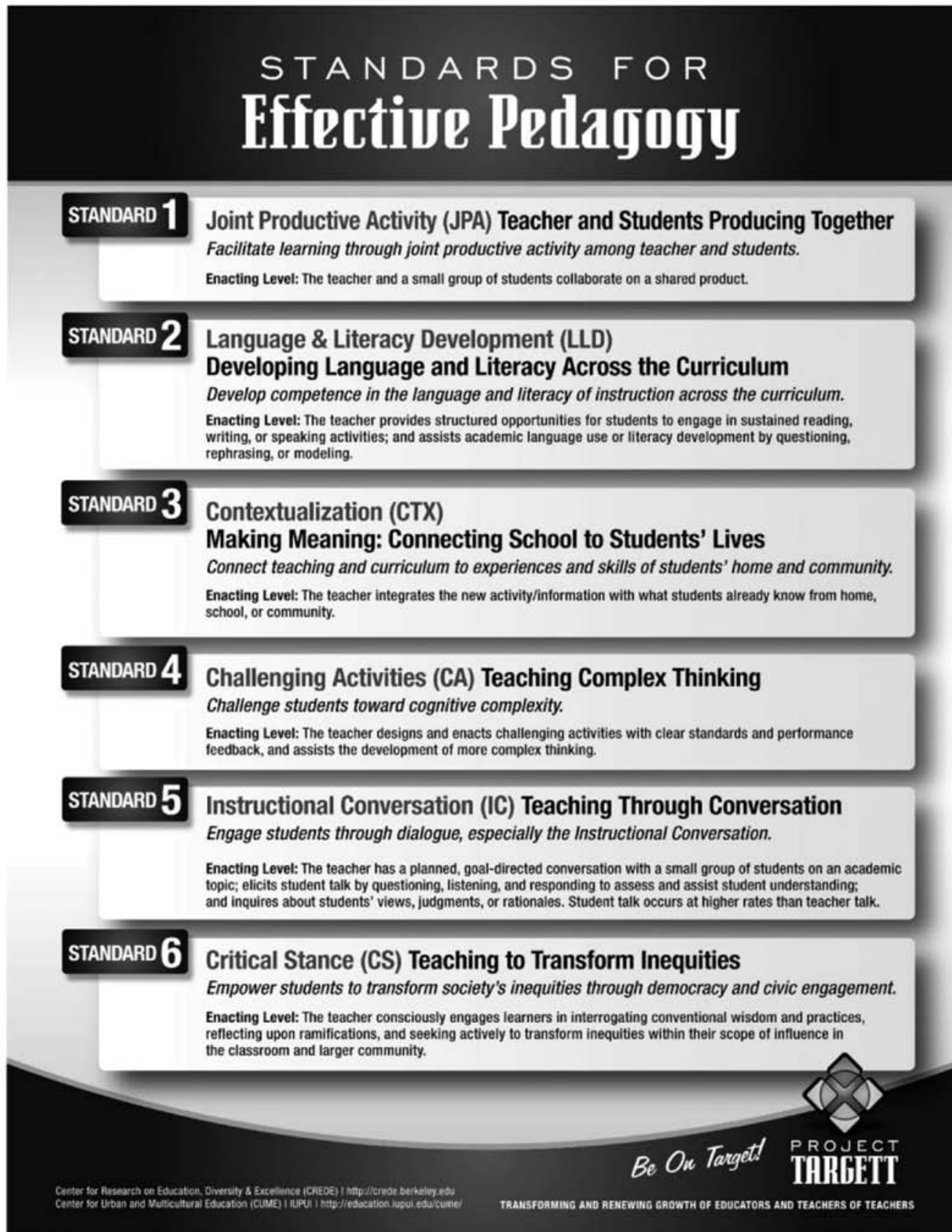

Figure 1. Six Standards for Effective Pedagogy (*Source:* Teemant [2010]. Poster reprinted with permission).

action to improve practice. Teachers who make these changes reframe student-teacher relationships and significantly improve student learning outcomes (e.g., Teemant et al., 2017; Teemant & Hausman, 2013; Teemant, Hausman, & Kigamwa, 2016).

First Stage of Necessary Change: Learning is Social

Students cannot learn language if they are never allowed to use language in the process of learning. Thinking and language use go hand in hand. Therefore, to make learning a social and relational process, teachers need to incorporate much more frequent use of small-group activities that increase opportunities for collaboration, extended language use, and meaningful co-construction of learning. The most fundamental change required for improving academic and English development for multilingual learners is to change the organization of the classroom to incorporate small-group configurations where students produce group— rather than individual—representations of their learning. Tharp et al. (2000) describe these changes as a reliance on joint productive activity (collaboration) and language and literacy development across the curriculum. Strategies such as reciprocal teaching, problem-solving, concept mapping, peer tutoring, and other types of cooperative learning have been identified by Hattie (2012) as strong influences on student achievement. Such strategies have the added benefit of creating an interdependent learning community where every student works with every other student in the class. The regular use of multiple, simultaneous, and differentiated small groups is largely an issue of classroom management, especially for secondary science and mathematics teachers (Teemant et al., 2015). Once the logistics are in place, teachers focus on using rubrics to assess targeted group products and decide the timing of individual assessments to audit learning.

Second Stage of Necessary Change: Teaching is Assisting and Situated Performance

Tharp and Gallimore (1988) observed that "In American classrooms, now and since the 19th century, teachers generally act as if students are supposed to learn on their own" (p. 3). If learning tasks are too simple, no feedback or assistance is necessary (Hattie, 2009). Rather than auditing, monitoring, or observing students learn, critical sociocultural perspectives envision a change in the teacher-student relationship, and such changes are also reflected in the Common Core State Standards Initiative (National Governors Association, Center for Best Practices, & Council of Chief State School Officers, 2010) and the Next Generation Science Standards (NGSS Lead States, 2013).

The space between the teacher and students needs to become active with dialogue and responsive assistance. Therefore, this stage requires teachers to (a) design challenging activities with clear expectations that target higher order thinking skills; (b) systematically work with small groups of students; and (c) provide responsive assistance *in the process of learning*. In this stage, teachers either intentionally float from group to group, providing timely assistance with language (language and literacy development) and thinking (challenging activities), or they work with a small group of students with shared learning needs in a goal-directed and planned instructional conversation. While floating to give unplanned assistance is most common, teachers can be more productive in advancing student learning by becoming a full participant with a small group for a sustained period of time (10 or more minutes, depending on students' ages). Assistance in these contexts can include questioning, rephrasing, modeling, eliciting student rationales for thinking, pressing for more precise language, or feeding back against a standard for performance while collaborating with students to co-construct understandings.

Beyond managing student-led and teacher-led small groups, the teacher challenge for providing meaningful assistance is having a clear understanding of learning goals: What is the goal of this activity? What do I expect students to do and say? What misconceptions might arise? How will I know when a student has met expectations? Hattie (2012) identified such practices as setting goals, giving feedback, teacher clarity, meta-cognitive strategies, and student-centered teaching as examples of high impact strategies that advancing student achievement.

Third Stage of Necessary Change: Knowledge is Cultural and Competent Participation

The Common Core State Standards (National Governors Association et al., 2010) and the NGSS (NGSS Lead States, 2013) have put a spotlight on students explicitly taking on new academic identities, with the necessary language and thinking patterns, to competently participate in various disciplines. Although these national standards describe the *what* of teaching, they also have implications for practice: Classrooms are filled with discipline-specific dialogue that is rich in evidence and rationales for student thinking. This move to dialogic learning reinforces the

necessary pedagogical changes already described in stages one and two above. The neglected element of the new national standards, however, is unpacking Vygotsky's (1978) argument that knowledge is also cultural.

In this stage of change, teachers are still using small-group configurations and assisting students in learning, but now they intentionally build a classroom culture that affirms learners' culture and linguistic identities as well as their histories, experiences, and informal ways of knowing. Langer-Osuna and Nasir (2016) synthesized 100 years of research demonstrating that "learning is linked to identity development and that healthy identity development necessitates caring relationships that foster a sense of safety and positive regard" (p. 736). Unfortunately, multilingual students often do not understand "the expectations, discourse styles, and modes of school-based ways of thinking and learning…leaving them feeling confused and alienated" (DeCapua & Marshall, 2015, p. 2).

Howard and Milner IV (2014) describe racial and cultural knowledge as being "extremely complex—perhaps more difficult than that of subject matter and pedagogical content knowledge" (p. 207). It is challenging because teachers and students do not always share ethnic, racial, linguistic, or economic backgrounds. This is further complicated because (a) cultural knowledge about students is not provided, but must be intentionally solicited or uncovered by teachers while teaching; and (b) the curriculum represents the values, beliefs, customs, history, and places associated with dominate culture. As Giroux (1988) suggests, in schooling, "there is no mention of how such knowledge gets chosen, whose interests it represents, or why students might be interested in learning it" (p. 89). Alim and Paris (2017) wonder what it would mean "if the goal of teaching and learning with youth of color was not ultimately to see how closely students could perform White middle-class norms, but rather to explore, honor, extend, and at times, problematize their cultural practices and investments" (p. 3).

Contextualization, instructional conversation, and critical stance are principles of learning that position a teacher to build an affirming culture of learning. Each of these principles is activated through the development of caring relationships, which Lampert (2012) argues are as important for improving teaching and good lesson planning. Of the six principles, these three are often also the least used tools in a teacher's

pedagogical tool kit. The research shows that teachers grew the most in their use of contextualization and the instructional conversation, but even modest gains in critical stance led to significant gains in student achievement and English development (Teemant et al., 2017; Teemant & Hausman, 2013).

Contextualization asks teachers to present new academic concepts by eliciting from students what they already know about a topic from home, school, or community. Vygotsky (1978) envisioned linking students' informal and everyday understandings to formal school concepts as contextualizing. The teacher-led, small-group instructional conversation (e.g., Saunders & Goldenberg, 1999) with its "emphasis on extended discourse and responsivity to student contributions, helps the teacher to understand the knowledge, experiences, and values of the students" as well (Moll, 2001, p. 123). Use of instructional conversation significantly increases student learning (e.g., Saunders & Goldenberg, 1999), and mitigates teachers' negative attitudes about students (Mellom, Straubhaar, Balderas, Ariail, & Portes, 2018). Critical stance uses school knowledge to address students' real-world contexts and concerns, especially student-identified injustices, inside and outside of the classroom. As a pedagogical practice, critical stance asks students to interrogate the status quo, reflect upon it from multiple perspectives, and take action within their sphere of influence. As Ladson-Billings (1995) suggests, "Students must develop a broader sociopolitical consciousness that allows them to critique the cultural norms, values, mores, and institutions that produce and maintain social inequities" (p. 162).

In summary, critical sociocultural perspectives suggest multilingual students benefit from a classroom culture of learning that is pedagogically relational, dialogic, co-constructed, cognitively challenging, reflective, and culturally relevant in ways that humanize and affirm students' identities, expand their agency and possibilities in learning and life, and disrupt power dynamics that result in inequities inside and outside of the classroom. Although critical sociocultural practices are currently only in limited use in public schools in the United States, these practices are widely recognized as the foundation for improving content-area teaching and student learning outcomes.

Future Directions for TESOL in K-12

Across this chapter, we have made an argument that current research and successes in practice argue for a pedagogical approach that is theoretically grounded in critical sociocultural theory. Our future success for TESOL in K-12 demands that we attend to the ideological issues and assimilationist challenges in our work with content teachers and move toward pluralism and a disruption of the inequitable status quo along various intersectionalities (e.g., race, class, language, gender, etc.) for our multilingual students. Further, research suggests we should attend to language, teacher learning, and pedagogy. The practical applications described herein provide the tools to accomplish such change. The Six Standards for Effective Pedagogy (Figure 24.1) provide both a strong theoretical and empirical grounding for a promising direction for our field.

When content teachers are given the tools and resources to situate learning as social, teaching as assisting and situated performance, and knowledge as cultural and competent participation, the things that we know matter from research will be attended to and the conditions necessary for strong multilingual language development and grade level content learning can be created. Through focusing on strong theoretically and empirically grounded approaches to content teaching for multilingual students, teachers and teacher educators can meaningfully promote multilingualism and equity for multilingual students regardless of their level of English proficiency.

As we move forward, the kind of pedagogy described herein should be a foundation for the preparation of content teachers of multilingual students, both for in-service and pre-service teachers. The opportunity to create the conditions for high levels of content and language learning while also teaching to transform inequity is a powerful and necessary direction forward for TESOL in K-12 settings. The issues, approaches, and practices described in this chapter call for teachers and teacher educators to take on new roles, what Hattie (2009) describes as "teachers as activators, as deliberate change agents, and as directors of learning" (p. 25). Any program preparing content teachers of multilingual students must theoretically, pedagogically, and politically demonstrate in context that language, teacher learning, and pedagogy matter.

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