Promoting Translanguaging in Special Education Classrooms Through Coaching

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Promoting Translanguaging in Special Education Classrooms Through Coaching

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Multilingual learners labeled as disabled have less access to bilingual educational programming compared to their nondisabled peers. As well, special education teachers have not been prepared to support multilingual learners. Therefore, the present study examined whether coaching may be an effective form of professional development for special education teachers to begin using translanguaging during literacy instruction using mixed methods single case research. Qualitative methods were used to understand teachers’ language ideologies and instructional approaches to supporting language development. Multiple baseline across participants design was then applied to determine the effects of a combined workshop and coaching professional development intervention on three special education teachers’ literacy instruction, all of whom provided English-medium instruction. Findings indicated that many factors contributed to special education teachers’ application of translanguaging.
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Dedication

To my father, who always believed in me.
# Table of Contents

List of Tables .................................................................................................................. ix

List of Figures .................................................................................................................. x

Chapter One: Introduction and Statement of the Problem ........................................... 1
   Education Policy ........................................................................................................ 2
   Policy at the Local Level ............................................................................................ 3
   Dominant Narratives in Policy and Practice ............................................................. 4

Chapter Two: Literature Review and Conceptual Framework .................................... 8
   Linguistic Knowledge and Comprehension .............................................................. 8
   Community Cultural Wealth ......................................................................................12
   Linguistic Capital .......................................................................................................12
   Bilingual Learning Opportunities for Multilingual Learners Labeled as Disabled ... 13
   Language Ideologies .................................................................................................15
   Translanguaging as Practice and Pedagogy .............................................................16
   Culturally and Linguistically Sustaining Framework .................................................18
   Drawing on Community Cultural Wealth to Advance CSP ....................................20
   Special Education Teacher Practice .......................................................................22
   Teacher Beliefs Inform Practice ...............................................................................23
   Teacher Identity Informs Practice ............................................................................25
   Teacher Preparation Informs Practice .....................................................................25
   A Model for Coaching ..............................................................................................26
   Transformational Coaching ......................................................................................28
   Purpose of the Present Study ...................................................................................30
# TRANSLANGUAGE IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

Chapter Three: Research Method ................................................................. 32
  Sampling Procedures ........................................................................... 32
  Consenting Procedures ......................................................................... 34
  Setting ................................................................................................. 34
  Participants ......................................................................................... 35
  Researcher Positionality ...................................................................... 39
  Intervention Description ....................................................................... 40
  Social Validity ..................................................................................... 45
  Qualitative Methods ........................................................................... 46
  Single Case Design ............................................................................. 48

Chapter Four: Qualitative Results .............................................................. 54
  Data Analysis ....................................................................................... 55
  Findings ............................................................................................... 56

Chapter 5: Single Case Results ................................................................. 74
  Data Analysis ....................................................................................... 74
  Results ................................................................................................. 78
  Video Data .......................................................................................... 78
  Visual Analysis Results ....................................................................... 80
  Tau-\(U\) Results .................................................................................. 82
  Understanding Findings Through Mixed Methods Single Case ............. 84

Chapter Six: Discussion ........................................................................... 85
  Teacher Preparation ............................................................................ 85
  Teacher Identity .................................................................................. 86
## List of Tables

3.1 Study Design ................................................................. 33  
3.2 Participants ............................................................... 36  
3.3 Intervention Implementation Fidelity ................................. 45  
3.4 Translanguaging Practices: Excerpts from Codebook ............. 50  
4.4 Interobserver Agreement for Coding of Translanguaging Practices Across Participants .... 53  
5.1 Video Data Lesson Length .............................................. 78  
5.2 Tau-\(U\) Coefficients ......................................................... 83
List of Figures

2.1 Factors Contributing to Teacher Practice ................................................................. 22

2.2 Theory of Change ........................................................................................................ 28

5.1 Number of Translanguaging Practices Observed (Rate Per Minute) ....................... 79
CHAPTER ONE

Introduction and Statement of the Problem

Multilingual students make up a significant portion of the student population in the United States (Harris & Sullivan, 2017; Wagner et al., 2005). It is also true that multilingual learners are the largest growing population of learners in the U.S. (Sheng et al., 2011; Wagner et al., 2005). Unfortunately, teachers are often not prepared to support multilingual learners’ language development needs (de Jong, 2013). More specifically, research shows that special education teachers are not prepared to effectively teach multilingual learners labeled as disabled (Miranda et al., 2019; More, 2017). This is a problem because 2015 data indicates that about 14% of all multilingual learners receive special education services (US Department of Education, 2017). Research also reveals that multilingual learners are disproportionately represented in special education (Artiles & Trent, 1994; Donovan & Cross, 2002; Samson & Lesaux, 2009). This lack of teacher preparation has contributed to differences in learning opportunities afforded to multilingual learners labeled as disabled (LAD). For instance, students receiving special education services are less likely to have access to bilingual educational programs (Cioè-Peña, 2017). In addition to insufficient preparation among special education teachers, deficit narratives regarding students of color and students LAD are pervasive in schools across the U.S.

The discourse around many bilingual students, especially Latino bilinguals, is often that of deficiency and failure. The increasingly large number of Latino students in U.S. schools is not reflected in the mostly white, English-speaking teaching force. We can see deficit-thinking and prejudice, even among the most well-meaning educators, and sometimes even among teachers who share linguistic and cultural characteristics with students. (García et al., 2017, p. 51)
Given these circumstances, practicing special education teachers require access to professional development opportunities designed to help them take up practices that promote equitable outcomes for all students. Beyond teacher preparation, education policy has played a role in the reification of deficit narratives pervading our schools (García et al., 2008). Therefore, I begin with an examination of the policy context for the education of multilingual learners LAD.

**Education Policy**

Special education and bilingual education have largely been addressed as separate areas, with little research and policy attending to the intersection of the two (Cioè-Peña, 2017). At the broadest level, we see this separation within policies and Supreme Court rulings offering protection to students who have been marginalized based on racial and ethnic identity, including multilingual learners, as well as children labeled as disabled (e.g., *Bilingual Education Act*, 1968; *Casteñeda v. Pickard*, 1981; *Civil Rights Act*, 1964; *Lau v. Nichols*, 1974). As exemplars of this phenomenon, I explore two federal policies here, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESSA) and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act: Language Instruction for Limited English Proficient and Immigrant Students (ESSA Title III) provides funding for supplemental services to support multilingual learners learning English as well as to support the academic performance of these learners in service of the overarching goals to advance equity and maintain accountability within our public schools. However, this provision is focused on supporting multilingual learners in developing English language skills without attending to the development of bilingualism and biliteracy.

When we look to special education policy, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA, 2004) ensures that students LAD receive the services needed to access a free and
appropriate public education. Although IDEA is primarily oriented toward the education of students with disabilities, within IDEA we see reference to multilingual learners and disproportionality: “Such discrepancies pose a special challenge for special education in the referral of, assessment of, and provision of services for, our Nation’s students from non-English language backgrounds” (§1400). While this statement acknowledges the difficulty in determining special education eligibility among, and planning services for, multilingual learners, it does not provide direction for teacher preparation programs or school districts to address these challenges.

Despite the inclusion-oriented goals of ESSA and IDEA, policies and practices in the United States reveal a long history of segregation based on race and ability. Thus, disproportionality within special education has been and continues to be an indicator of the inequities students of color face within our public schools (Skiba et al., 2008). Nationally, this inequity has been a focal area to address since the 1997 reauthorization of IDEA (Skiba et al., 2008). However, according to Cioè-Peña, "Although PL 94-142 brought children labeled as disabled out of the margins, it did not result in academic integration” (2017, p. 142). While PL 94-142 has evolved into IDEA, we continue to see that students with more significant impairments and students of color with disabilities tend to be placed in more restrictive settings (National Council on Disability, 2018). Multilingual learners LAD in particular experience significant oppression due to being multiply marginalized based on their intersectional identities (Cioè-Peña, 2017).

**Policy at the Local Level**

At the local level, we often see similar policies supporting the use of inclusive practices that encourage educators to address learning needs related to language learning and disability. In
a policy review of various districts, Pesco et al. (2016) found that policies in the U.S. and Canada either implied or explicitly stated that children labeled as disabled are capable of becoming bi-/multi-lingual and made statements that students with developmental disabilities should be included in bilingual learning opportunities. Policies reviewed included opportunities to engage in primary language instruction and/or support for students to learn the language of instruction. However, within the same districts participating in the Pesco et al. (2016) study, de Valenzuela et al. (2016) found that students with developmental disabilities (DD) had less access to bilingual education and language learning supports compared to their nondisabled peers as well as peers with less significant impairments. Similarly, in a review of the literature, Martínez-Álvarez (2019) found that, across a variety of disability labels, multilingual learners LAD not only had less access to bilingual education programs, but educators also encouraged families to speak to their children in the dominant language and recommended that multilingual learners LAD be removed from bilingual learning contexts. This lack of alignment between policy and practice requires further examination in the research with a focus on the full implementation of inclusive practices.

**Dominant Narratives in Policy and Practice**

Although policy can play an important role in creating more equitable learning opportunities, we also see, historically, that policy has sometimes been misguided. For instance, when students do have access to bilingual programs, these programs often reinforce monoglossic ideologies with program models that reinforce using each language separate from another (Garcia et al., 2017). Rather than using their languages in isolation, bilingual individuals naturally draw upon their full linguistic repertoires. For the purpose of this paper, bilingual
learning opportunities include those in which students may draw upon their full linguistic repertoires to communicate and make meaning as they engage in learning.

While many policies are intended to address inequities in education, deficit narratives continue to pervade education policy and practice. Past explorations of social inequity have focused on creating dichotomies and reinforcing deficit narratives surrounding communities of color in the assumptions made about being disadvantaged and lacking skills and knowledge (Yosso, 2005). "Deficit notions about the cognitive potential of individuals from nondominant communities have persisted in social science inquiry, particularly where literacy is concerned" (Gutiérrez et al., 2009, p. 212). These narratives may contribute to disproportionality in special education, as differences might lead to "'blaming the victim,' a practice in which policy and programs intend to change people rather than the systems in which people participate. Understanding social problems in terms of individual deficiencies results in programs designed to correct deficiencies..." (Gutiérrez et al., 2009, p. 218). These deficiency-based models are used to perpetuate dominant linguistic and cultural practices (Perez et al., 2016).

Alternatively, we may consider the intersecting forms of oppression students face as we seek to address inequities in our schools (Yosso, 2005). We can start by recognizing the ways in which home and school values related to literacy beliefs and practices, along with forms of interaction, influence the learning of culturally and linguistically diverse students labeled as disabled (Li, 2013). Further, we must consider the socio-historical context in which learning is situated. For example,

In many places around the world, bilingualism and even multilingualism are commonplace. In the United States, however, and in other societies like it, powerful social and political forces operate against the retention of minority languages...The
ideological stance is this: To be American, one must speak English. (Wong Fillmore, 2000, p. 207)

Rather than value multilingual practices and transnationalism, curricula used in schools treat such community wealth as obstacles that must be overcome (Lotherington et al., 2008). This is evident in the ways that students are expected to assimilate and the ways in which their identities are erased within our schools. As evidence of erasure, Perez et al. (2016) described the ways in which school administrators inaccurately labeled indigenous Mexican immigrant youth as Spanish heritage speakers, disregarding students’ linguistic identities.

Along with this erasure, use of English has been policed, not only by white monolingual English-speakers, but also by U.S. Latinx individuals (Rosa, 2016). For instance, bilingual individuals may experience pressure to speak unaccented English, and speaking monolingual English may be viewed negatively within Spanish-speaking communities, as Rosa (2016) reported. This offers only a brief illustration of the pressure multilingual learners experience to assimilate to dominant ways of speaking and being in U.S. schools (Wong Fillmore, 1991).

Wong Fillmore (1991) found that, as immigrant children learn English, they lose their primary languages, with evidence suggesting that learning English at a younger age is associated with greater loss of home language knowledge. This language loss can have detrimental and lasting effects. "The consequences of losing a primary language are far reaching, and it does affect the social, emotional, cognitive, and educational development of language-minority children, as well as the integrity of their families and the society they live in" (Wong Fillmore, 1991, p. 342).

With the understanding that language is central to identity (Miller et al., 2005), losing a language can have harmful effects on one’s sense of self and belonging (Garcia, 2009; Perez et al.,
2016). Thus, it is imperative that children LAD have opportunities to develop their full linguistic repertoires while simultaneously accessing special education services.

Although research and policy have attended to bilingual education and special education as two separate systems with unique needs, additional research is needed to better understand the intersection of the two (Cioè-Peña, 2017). In particular, research exploring opportunities for multilingual learners LAD to engage in bilingual learning is needed. This requires researchers to account for factors that influence bilingual programming and instructional practices, such as policy, teacher preparation, and the dominant narratives surrounding language use.
CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review and Conceptual Framework

There is a well-established relationship between language and literacy development (NELP, 2008; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998). Broadly, the Simple View of Reading (Gough & Tunmer, 1986; Hoover & Gough, 1990) offers a helpful frame for understanding the relationship between oral language skills and reading, indicating that reading comprehension is the product of decoding skill and linguistic comprehension. This view acknowledges the complexity of reading while suggesting that the component skills of reading can be understood through these two overarching areas, each comprising multiple complex subskills. Here, I will focus on the linguistic comprehension aspect of this model.

Linguistic Knowledge and Comprehension

The association between language development and early literacy skills has been documented for nondisabled children as well as those labeled as disabled (Hjetland et al., 2019; Lonigan & Whitehurst, 1998; National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000; Shapiro et al., 1990; Snow et al., 1998; Terry et al., 2013). This association has also been documented among multilingual learners (Bailey et al., 2008; Miller et al., 2006). For instance, Spanish oral narrative skill has been shown to predict reading comprehension in English, with the opposite also supported in the research (Miller et al., 2006). It’s also been documented that high-quality reading instruction is insufficient for multilingual learners without an additional focus on oral language development (August & Shanahan, 2006). In particular, oral language contributes to word reading and reading comprehension among multilingual learners (August, 2011). While these links are clear, the oral language skills multilingual learners bring to the classroom are not always recognized.
**Vocabulary Development**

Vocabulary size is one particular aspect of language that has been shown to predict literacy development and affect language comprehension (Adams, 1990; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998). However, vocabulary assessments may need to be considered differently for multilingual learners than monolingual English-speaking children. In a study completed with children ages three to ten, Bialystok et al. (2010) reported that when given the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (Dunn & Dunn, 1997), monolingual English-speaking children earned higher scores than bilingual children matched for age. However, when conducting an item analysis, they found that the children in each group performed comparably on vocabulary words used in school contexts, with the bilingual children performing less well on vocabulary that tends to be learned in a home context (e.g., food labels, household items, culture-specific terms) which were therefore not learned in English. Thus, vocabulary development may look different among multilingual learners than what we’ve come to expect in schools. Expectations for vocabulary development must consider development across languages rather than focusing on one language or the other. Vocabulary is just one aspect of oral language development that contributes to language comprehension.

**Oral Language and Narrative Skill**

When children have opportunities to develop their oral language, many aspects of linguistic and communicative knowledge develop simultaneously. As multilingual children have opportunities to use their different languages in varied contexts, they begin to learn rules for language use (e.g., pragmatics and grammatical structure) and expand their vocabularies in both languages, as described by Luke and Kale (2017) in a case study of one child. Multilingual learners also learn to construct oral narratives in their various languages. Research has shown
that oral narrative ability is predictive of later academic outcomes, including reading and writing performance (Terry et al., 2013). While narrative structure varies across cultural groups, constructing oral narratives helps children learn to organize their thoughts and make sense of the world (Caspé & Melzi, 2008). This can also include storytelling, which allows children to develop a range of skills including memorization and meaningful use of tone, volume, and pauses to convey meaning (Yosso, 2005). Caspe and Melzi (2008) also report that as children develop narrative skill, engaging in conversations with others allows multilingual children to learn the beliefs and values of the communities in which they live, which they bring into classrooms with them. While oral language development includes the development of rich linguistic and cultural knowledge, oral narrative ability tends to be evaluated through a dominant lens and may not be recognized or valued within school settings. (Michaels, 1984).

**Deficit Thinking**

Differences in linguistic practices across social strata and cultural groups have often been viewed with a deficit orientation, placing little or no value on alternative forms of narrative structure or ways of communicating that may be practiced within communities. For example, differences in narrative structure observed among multilingual learners may be perceived as less skilled by educators accustomed to dominant forms of narrative structure and English use overall (Michaels, 1984). Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) describes the ways in which such deficit orientations are reproduced within our school systems, creating dynamics where educators fail to recognize the rich linguistic resources their students bring into the classroom. This failure has implications for student learning. For example,

... it is culture, produced primarily via language, that endows experience with meaning and provides a deeply held sense of identity and social belonging. It is precisely because
of the central role of language and culture in sustaining selfhood that there is a vital need for pedagogical practices that sustain students’ language and culture in classrooms and other learning contexts. (Bucholtz et al., 2017, p. 45)

When policy and practice perpetuate deficit thinking, students lose opportunities to bring their full identities into the classroom and access our system of education. Given that much of the research on early language environments and language development have been centered around monolingual, Dominant American English-speaking individuals with middle class backgrounds, there are implications for children with linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds in terms of the educational opportunities and services made accessible to them. In special education, we have not often acknowledged the sociohistorical developmental contexts children have experienced. Rather, we have upheld notions of normality, comparing students from marginalized communities to the dominant nondisabled norm (Artiles, 1998). This tradition leads to the continued marginalization of students of color labeled as disabled. The centering of dominant forms of language use may prevent educators from recognizing and understanding the rich linguistic knowledge students bring into the classroom (Miller et al., 2005; Sparks, 2008).

Despite the deficit-oriented messaging often found in the research, we know that children representing diverse linguistic and ethnic backgrounds bring a wealth of linguistic knowledge and storytelling skill with them into the classroom (Yosso, 2005).

**Bilingualism and Biliteracy in Schools**

While thinking about literacy, it is imperative to revisit the way schools have conceptualized what it means to be bilingual and (bi)literate. "Children from a diversity of backgrounds come to school with a rich heritage of talk and storytelling often unrecognized or unrecognizable to teachers and students from mainstream backgrounds" (Sparks, 2008, p. 275-
When deficit narratives persist, teachers use such narratives as justification for limiting opportunities available to their students (Adair et al., 2017; de Valenzuela et al., 2016). This includes opportunities to engage in bilingual learning (de Valenzuela et al., 2016; Kay-Raining Bird, et al., 2016). Shifting to a Community Cultural Wealth model, in which the rich linguistic resources of multilingual learners LAD are recognized and valued, a shift in pedagogy and practice must follow.

**Community Cultural Wealth**

Through Yosso’s (2005) model of community cultural wealth (CCW), we can shift away from deficit narratives and recognize that communities of color bring capital in the form of multiple strengths. Forms of capital include: aspirational, linguistic, familial, social, navigational, and resistant. While acknowledging the interconnected nature of these forms of wealth, here I am primarily concerned with the linguistic capital linguistically diverse children labeled as disabled bring into schools. Multilingual learners LAD bring rich linguistic resources that can support inclusion and the development of academic skills when this knowledge is given recognition and assigned value.

**Linguistic Capital**

According to Yosso (2005), linguistic capital includes intellectual and social skills. This construct recognizes that many students come to school with knowledge of multiple languages and rich communication skills. Multilingual children bring rich linguistic knowledge into classrooms based on their home and community language and literacy experiences (Caspé and Melzi, 2008; Yosso, 2005). When multilingual children enter school, they may have experience with various texts in languages other than English, including interaction with books, newspapers, and television and radio, helping them to develop an understanding of various genre and
purposes for literacy (Kenner, 2017). When students’ linguistic capital is recognized and valued by educators, opportunities for meaningful literacy learning can be designed in classroom settings.

**Bilingual Learning Opportunities for Multilingual Learners Labeled as Disabled**

While many have advocated for the full participation of emergent bilingual children and those labeled as disabled in our education system, this belief does not often seem to apply to multilingual learners LAD when it comes to supporting the development and maintenance of their home language (Cioè-Peña, 2017). Access to bilingual programs is limited for children labeled as disabled despite evidence that bilingualism is associated with many benefits. “One of the primary reasons for this is that in the United States while it may be beneficial to be bilingual, it is problematic to be an English language learner” (Cioè-Peña, 2017, p. 145). As described previously, this is reinforced by the emphasis in policy on developing English language skills rather than bilingualism. The separation of bilingual education and special education observed in our laws (ESSA Title III; IDEA, 2004) may also lead educators to attend to either language development or disability needs, but not both.

Evidence of this separation is observed in practice, even when district policies support equal access (de Valenzuela et al., 2016; Martínez-Álvarez, 2019; Pesco et al., 2016). Being exempted from language supports in these ways can negatively impact multilingual learners’ opportunity to learn the language of instruction and their home language(s) (Valdés et al., 2011). Limiting opportunities for bilingual education can harm multilingual learners LAD in other ways as well. This lack of opportunity reinforces deficit narratives that children labeled as disabled are not capable of becoming bilingual and biliterate, despite research indicating otherwise (Cioè-Peña, 2017; Martínez-Álvarez, 2019). Research has shown that when multilingual learners LAD
do have access to bilingual learning opportunities in school settings, they can communicate and learn bilingually (Martínez-Álvarez, 2019). This conclusion is drawn from a review of the literature including studies with children who have intellectual disabilities as well as Specific Language Impairment (SLI). In fact, evidence suggests that bilingual programs are essential for children with SLI to maintain both of their languages. Martínez-Álvarez (2019) also found that while there is less research on bilingual learning among children with Autism Spectrum Disorder, bilingual instruction appears to be more appropriate than a monolingual approach for this group of learners.

Despite these findings, multilingual learners who experience learning difficulties in school and those who are labeled as disabled have less access to bilingual learning opportunities compared to their peers (Cioè-Peña, 2017; de Valenzuela et al., 2016; Martínez-Álvarez, 2019). In conducting a review of the literature, Martínez-Álvarez (2019) concluded that “one serious consequence of being identified with a dis/ability in the U.S. is the lack of opportunities for such students to maintain their bilingualism, and to become biliterate” (p. 188). Further, Martínez-Álvarez reported evidence that when students did have access to bilingual programs, bilingual services in special education settings were not always available. Similarly, Hoover et al. (2018) reported a lack of culturally responsive instruction as well as approaches to supporting language development across languages in special education settings. They found that IEPs lack attention to the language needs of this population of learners with no evidence of culturally responsive instruction (e.g., opportunities for students to use their home language(s), attention to linguistic strengths and funds of knowledge). These discrepancies between learning opportunities for multilingual learners LAD and their nondisabled peers contribute to the inequities experienced by children labeled as disabled.
Even when disability status is not considered, Cioè-Peña (2017) reports, “while many children can be labeled as English language learners, a select few get to be ‘bilingual’” (p. 143), addressing the deficit-orientation often taken toward bilingual individuals who are learning English. With these known barriers facing multilingual learners LAD, exploring special education teachers’ underlying beliefs about language use is essential when it comes to resisting deficit narratives and supporting bilingual language development among this group of learners. If we are to enact inclusive practices in the way current policy suggests, we must begin to explore options to better serve students sitting at the intersection of bilingualism and disability. This includes the ways in which we look at language development as well as growth in academic areas.

**Language Ideologies**

Teachers may ascribe to language ideologies that maintain a deficit orientation and/or reify hegemonic language practices within schools. For instance, individuals commonly hold the misconception that learning a second language is quite simple for children, which has led to policy that holds children accountable for demonstrating English language proficiency in a limited period of time (Valdés et al., 2011). When children do not meet unrealistic expectations for developing knowledge of English, they may be positioned as struggling learners. Expectations for learning often include ideas about differences in the acquisition of “conversational” English and “academic” English, often with less value placed on conversational English skills even when we see poorly defined notions of what counts as one or the other. These expectations for language to develop in a linear fashion may be imprudent (Valdés et al., 2011). Deficit orientations may also present as justification for limiting instruction to English only. For example, de Valenzuela et al. reported that some teachers articulated a “belief that learning two
languages is more difficult than learning one and that perhaps should not be prioritized for students with DD,” resulting in the exclusion of these learners from language programs (2016, pp. 38-39). Maintenance of these deficit orientations contributes to the continued privileging of English in schools, particularly within special education settings.

Beyond expectations for learning English, we often see ideologies that keep languages isolated from one another. "Historically, bilingual education has valued keeping languages separate, as some attempt to keep them equal and to be able to measure competency separately in each language" (Pryzmus & Alvarado, 2019, p. 25). This is often observed in dual language programs, in which one classroom is associated with learning in English, and a second classroom is associated with learning in an additional language. However, a more natural way of engaging bilingually is through the use of translanguaging (Garcia, 2009).

**Translanguaging as Practice and Pedagogy**

Translanguaging is a way of engaging by using one’s full linguistic repertoire, a process that allows bilingual individuals to make sense of the world around them (Garcia, 2009). Translanguaging is also an act of social justice “because it creates the space for fair educational and assessment practices for bilingual students—without the linguistic prejudice that accompanies accepting only the linguistic features of standard English—the language of power” (García, et al., 2017, p. 11). Educators may think of translanguaging both as ideology and pedagogy. In terms of pedagogy, we might focus on one’s use of translanguaging and overall linguistic performance in place of the more traditional focus on developing proficiency in a language (García et al., 2017). This aligns with our knowledge of how individuals not only use languages together, but also how they learn new languages. For example, students draw upon their existing linguistic knowledge/resources when learning a new language, including linguistic
practices such as turn-taking and responding to questions (Valdés et al., 2011). When teachers understand translanguaging, they are positioned to recognize the rich linguistic resources and capital their students bring into the classroom and promote natural language use as students engage in learning. In this way, teachers are also positioned to help students develop their linguistic comprehension, contributing to improved reading outcomes for all learners.

When language ideologies such as translanguaging are supported and promoted through professional development, teachers are given the opportunity to resist deficit-oriented beliefs that can be harmful to students. It is also necessary to examine beliefs specific to multilingual learners LAD.

Although bilingual children and children labeled as disabled are both represented within their respective fields by strong advocates who believe that these children deserve full participation in mainstream education, that ideology is not often extended to emergent bilingual learners labeled as disabled (EBLADs) with regards to home language development and maintenance. (Cioè-Peña, 2017, p. 139)

This is important because teachers’ beliefs and assumptions about their students inform instructional practices (Siuty et al., 2018). Siuty et al., (2018) suggest that there is a bidirectional relationship between beliefs about students, teaching, and learning; self-efficacy and individualization of instruction. Therefore, teachers must receive training to help them reflect on their own cultural beliefs and practices, to better understand the beliefs and practices of their students, and to create instructional spaces that connect students' cultural practices to the curriculum (Li, 2013). This work can be facilitated through ongoing professional development, which should be rooted in a pedagogical framework that supports such efforts.
While we know language ideology matters, we do not yet know much about the language ideologies of special education teachers in the United States, nor do we know whether a professional development model based on coaching might be an effective means of shifting ideology or use of linguistic practices among special education teachers.

**Culturally and Linguistically Sustaining Framework**

Existing approaches to teaching and learning often view the cultural practices of students of color as deficits, with the goal of teaching dominant, white and middle-class norms and eliminating non-dominant cultural practices (Paris, 2012). Similar deficit perspectives have been upheld regarding views of students with identified disabilities through the normalizing role of ableism (Waitoller & Thorius, 2016).

Students with dis/abilities have experienced oppression with great consequence for who accesses learning, whose abilities are recognized and valued, and who participates in decision making in schools. Thus, pedagogies that value ethnic, racial, and language differences simultaneously and intentionally must be committed to disrupting those that have historically pathologized students’ abilities. (Waitoller & Thorius, 2016, p. 367)

Rather than emphasizing a deficit perspective of language use and disability, we must take a different approach to educating students with these identities. In recent years, we have seen an increase in the uptake of asset pedagogies. However, asset pedagogies lack a critical component, meaning they often are used as a way of promoting assimilation rather than facilitating opportunities for students to bring their full identities into the classroom (Irizarry, 2017, p. 83).

Therefore, I propose that special educators reach beyond asset pedagogies and seek to sustain students’ cultural identities. Culturally Sustaining Pedagogy (CSP; Paris, 2012) and Universal
Design for Learning (UDL; CAST, 2020) are two frameworks educators can use to drive this work.

CSP recognizes that, in following traditional deficit perspectives, students are expected to lose their cultural and linguistic practices (Paris, 2012) and assimilate to dominant cultural norms.

Culturally sustaining pedagogy, then, has as its explicit goal supporting multilingualism and multiculturalism in practice and perspective for students and teachers. That is, culturally sustaining pedagogy seeks to perpetuate and foster—to sustain—linguistic, literate, and cultural pluralism as part of the democratic project of schooling. (Paris, 2012, p. 95)

In consideration of multilingual learners LAD, here I am particularly interested in sustaining students’ linguistic practices given the central role of language in sense-making and identity development (Bucholtz et al., 2017) while simultaneously supporting literacy development. CSP, then, allows us to consider the ways in which special educators might invite multilingual learners LAD to draw upon their full linguistic repertoires within (and beyond) literacy instruction. Borrowing from Gutiérrez and Rogoff (2003), "By 'linguistic and cultural-historical repertoires,' [I] mean the ways of engaging in activities stemming from observing and otherwise participating in cultural practices" (p. 22). This view accounts for the dynamic nature of language and culture, creating space for educators to seek to sustain both traditional and evolving practices (Paris, 2012). Understanding the dynamic nature of language creates space not only for multiple languages, but also for the use of multiple Englishes.

While CSP addresses deficit narratives surrounding cultural and linguistic practices, UDL provides a means for educators to address deficit narratives related to disability by increasing
access to instruction for all learners (CAST, 2020). The UDL guidelines center on providing multiple means of engagement, representation, and action and expression in order to ensure that all students are supported to participate in learning opportunities. Addressing these guidelines can make educational contexts more accessible for students labeled as disabled.

Waitoller and Thorius (2016) called for a “cross-pollination” of CSP and UDL. Their proposal is in response to an observed need to address intersections of students’ multiple identities (Crenshaw, 1991), including race, gender, ability, and language. In suggesting cross-pollination, the authors hope to “contribute to such emancipatory pedagogies that advance inclusive education beyond merely including students receiving special education in general education settings or curricula” (Waitoller & Thorius, 2016, p. 368). Thus, when informed by CSP and UDL together, educators may not only be prepared to address exclusion and potential barriers to school participation, but also to begin to dismantle existing ability, language, race, and ethnicity hierarchies. In order to dismantle such hierarchies, we must also understand how students’ various identities intersect. Therefore, the cross-pollination of CSP and UDL provides a useful framework that allows us to understand intersections of language and disability.

**Drawing on Community Cultural Wealth to Advance CSP**

As mentioned previously, one way to resist ideologies that promote assimilation and reinforce deficit framing is through the use of translanguaging (Garcia, 2009). Translanguaging is “an approach to bilingualism that is centered, not on languages as has been often the case, but on the practices of bilinguals that are readily observable” (Garcia, 2009, pp. 43-44). These practices allow bilinguals to make sense of their worlds and include such things as making use of their full linguistic repertoires to communicate with others and even acting as translators. Applying the Community Cultural Wealth (CCW) model, we can engage educators and students
in the production of learning environments that promote translanguaging. This can be done in both bilingual and English-medium instructional contexts (Garcia, et al., 2017). Applying the CCW model is helpful in framing work with multilingual learners in general, as it also allows us to counter deficit framing with the commonly used identifier ‘English language learner,’ which positions students as lacking knowledge of English (Cioè-Peña, 2017). Instead, use of identifiers such as multilingual and emergent bilingual de-centers English and positions students as having knowledge of more than one language (Garcia et al., 2008).

Engaging a translinguaging approach to special education will allow children to develop and draw upon all of their languages. According to Irizarry, this approach has been used in general education spaces where students’ linguistic repertoires have been recognized “not only as a pedagogical tool to help students master the curriculum, which often omits or marginalizes the experiences and accomplishments of people of color, but as a sign of respect and affirmation of students’ cultural identities” (2017, p. 85). In this approach, students still have opportunities to receive support in learning English while having the ability to fully engage in learning with their broader linguistic repertoires. This not only validates students’ linguistic knowledge and practices, but also can contribute to more meaningful learning opportunities as students develop their English language expertise. Given that learning a new language is a slow process (Valdes et al., 2011), classroom environments that promote translanguaging ensure that children are still engaged in meaningful learning opportunities. While research indicates that translanguaging and culturally sustaining pedagogies are informing work in some classrooms (Bucholtz, 2017; Irizarry, 2017; Rosa, 2016), there is a paucity of evidence indicating similar pedagogies are being applied to special education contexts. Therefore, school districts and teacher preparation
programs must examine their role in facilitating such work. Here, I propose an approach to professional development for practicing special education teachers.

**Special Education Teacher Practice**

Special and general education teachers typically receive little preparation for enacting culturally sustaining practices or supporting multilingual learners while providing special education services (de Jong, 2013; Zeichner & Hoeft, 1996). Furthermore, educators who work with culturally and linguistically diverse populations tend to be white, monolingual English-speaking, middle-class women (Li, 2013). Educators may make assumptions or hold beliefs that prevent them from designing inclusive environments for their students (Adair et al., 2017; de Valenzuela et al., 2016; Siuty et al., 2018). This variety of factors that contribute to the teaching practices teachers choose to take up are represented in Figure 2.1 and elaborated upon below.

**Figure 2.1**

*Factors Contributing to Teacher Practice*
Teacher Beliefs Inform Practice

The beliefs and attitudes teachers hold about the students and families they work with, as well as about teaching and learning, contribute to their teaching practice in important ways (García & Guerra, 2004). These beliefs and attitudes are informed by policy as well as dominant narratives around language use (Farr & Song, 2011). Language policy can affect instruction in substantial ways, such as dictating who has access to bilingual education and for how long, as well as determining what model of bilingual education is available and must be taken up by teachers. While policy informs teacher practice, teachers also have agency to interpret such policies and make decisions about how to enact them (Farr & Song, 2011). These interpretations may inform or be mediated by teachers’ existing beliefs.

If we view curriculum as part of district policy, this may play a role in informing teacher beliefs as well. Siuty et al. (2018) suggest that there is a bidirectional relationship between curriculum and teachers’ beliefs about students, teaching, and learning. They found that teachers in a control group planned instruction based on student interests and needs. However, these teachers also planned based on students’ perceived abilities, relying on the beliefs and assumptions they held about their students, rather than using assessment data. Meanwhile, in the intervention group, teachers’ beliefs about students were challenged when they were supported to implement a new curriculum that helped them better understand their students’ abilities.

Teachers beliefs and attitudes toward culturally and linguistically diverse learners specifically, including beliefs regarding language knowledge and use, inform classroom practice as well (Vásquez-Montilla et al., 2014). García and Guerra (2004) found that teachers held assumptions that their students were not prepared for school, citing dominant narratives such as poverty and limited English proficiency as reasons to support such beliefs. While teachers’
beliefs about their students and teaching and learning inform instructional practice, their beliefs and values are essential to address through professional development intended to lead to greater equity (García & Guerra, 2004). As such, it is essential that special educators have access to high quality, ongoing professional development to facilitate improved instructional programming for multilingual learners LAD.

Teachers must receive training to help them reflect on their own cultural beliefs and practices, to better understand the beliefs and practices of their students, and to create instructional spaces that connect students' cultural practices to the curriculum (Li, 2013). They require support to examine and challenge their own assumptions in order to provide equitable learning opportunities for their students (Siuty et al., 2018). In designing professional development that is likely to lead to changes in beliefs and practice, it is important to intentionally design professional development opportunities. With the goal of making instructional changes, professional development is most effective when it is ongoing (Knight, 2009; Wei et al., 2009). The literature also indicates that teachers are more likely to take up new practices when they receive professional development that is closely aligned with the curriculum they are currently implementing. This connection facilitates a willingness to try new instructional practices and increases the likelihood of success in doing so (Desimone & Stuckey, 2014). Given the relationship between curriculum and teachers’ beliefs, this compatibility is particularly important. There is also growing evidence to suggest that teachers are more likely to demonstrate changes in their instruction as the result of professional development that is focused on concrete behaviors (Desimone & Stuckey, 2014). Although supporting teachers in learning concrete strategies for classroom use can be effective, it is also essential to attend to teachers’ beliefs and attitudes. Understanding teacher identity can inform this work.
**Teacher Identity Informs Practice**

The practices used by special education teachers are dynamic and informed by various aspects of their identities. Teachers’ racial identities inform their perceptions of students of color as well as their conceptualizations of teaching (Cherng & Davis, 2019; Han et al., 2011). Language also plays an important role the ways in which teachers understand themselves as well as their students. Language can be used by teachers to position themselves and their students in particular ways, contributing to identity development (e.g., good reader vs. poor reader; Hall, 2010). Thus, word choice and expression within a particular language is an important aspect of language use. In this way, language might be used to affirm students’ identities or to further marginalize students (Hall, 2010). Linguistic and cultural identity also includes understandings about how various languages might be used, such as whether multiple languages may be used in a shared context or whether they should be kept separate. This may also include ideas about privileging the standard use of language over natural variations that occur within a particular language (Farr & Song, 2011). These views inform the kinds of linguistic practices taken up by special educators as well as how teachers use language to position themselves and their students.

**Teacher Preparation Informs Practice**

Teacher preparation also contributes to special education teachers’ practice. In a survey focused on special education teachers’ self-efficacy for working with multilingual learners LAD, teachers identified teacher disposition, preparation, experience, teaching skill, and language skill (e.g., teacher knowledge of the language(s) spoken by students) as especially helpful for working with this population of learners (Paneque & Barbeta, 2006). Further, of the twenty aspects of teacher efficacy included in the survey, the two lowest mean scores were reported related to knowledge of resources for multilingual learners LAD and supporting students’ native
language(s), topics which may be covered within teacher preparation programs. Importantly, the majority of teachers participating in this study held endorsements in both special education and English for speakers of other languages. Attending to ideological stances within teacher preparation programs is also important to consider. Siuty (2019) concluded that teacher candidates are often socialized into dominant ideologies throughout their lives, and that teacher preparation programs must play an active role in disrupting such ideologies. The degree to which teacher preparation programs address these needs informs special education teachers’ practice.

The combination of teacher identity, beliefs, and preparation intersect and interact to inform teacher practice. In order to fully meet the needs of multilingual learners LAD, special education teachers may benefit from a comprehensive approach to professional development that addresses each of these three overarching areas. Therefore, I propose a coaching model to support in-service special educators in examining their own identities and beliefs and working to develop culturally sustaining practices while applying the principles of UDL and drawing upon CCW.

A Model for Coaching

Coaching is one approach to professional development that has been proven effective at improving practice (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). One key feature of coaching that makes it effective is the ongoing nature of this form of professional development (Knight, 2009). Coaching is an appropriate model for supporting special educators in designing equitable, multilingual learning environments because it "... puts teachers' needs at the heart of professional learning by individualizing their learning and by positioning teachers as professionals" (Knight, 2009, p. 2). In addition, coaching has been shown to help teachers understand and shift their underlying beliefs, especially when those beliefs may be problematic (Aguilar, 2013; Gersten et
al., 1995). When teachers are working with culturally and linguistically diverse learners, it is important to not only provide professional development that supports teachers in learning effective teaching practices, but also supports teachers in examining their own beliefs about their students and language use in order to address any deficit-oriented beliefs that may be held. In fact, Killion (2009) explained that deep reform occurs when coaches facilitate a process where teachers can explore their own beliefs and identities, a process coaches must engage in themselves as well. This is particularly appropriate when working to address systems of inequity because, as Siuty (2019) found,

The ways in which teachers negotiate the inevitable tensions that emerged between the inclusive message of their preparation and their communities of practice mediates the ways that they construct their identity and, ultimately, position themselves to either reify or subvert oppressive systems. (p. 39)

In order to be effective in supporting teachers to evaluate their beliefs and practices, coaches must build relationships with teachers. Through the coaching process, teachers may experience anxiety, although some studies have shown that anxiety may subside as a coaching relationship continues (Gersten et al., 1995). When a relationship has been established and coaches prove to teachers that they are trustworthy, meaningful conversations about how to improve teaching and learning can take place (Killion, 2009). Working to examine teachers’ beliefs and goals is an essential part of the work, as this is where significant changes to beliefs and decision making occur (Killion, 2009). While these are features of effective coaching, a comprehensive coaching model is needed to engage special educators in meaningful professional development opportunities. I propose that transformational coaching offers such a model, as presented in Figure 2.2 and described below.
Figure 2.2

Theory of Change

Transformational Coaching

While many different models of coaching have been established, transformational coaching (Aguilar, 2013) is designed to address teachers’ underlying beliefs and assumptions as well as instructional practices with a goal of achieving greater equity, making this approach to coaching well-suited to supporting special educators in subverting systems of oppression. Importantly, although transformational coaching involves engaging in work to resist the reification of hegemonic ideologies, changes in instructional approach/pedagogy can be implemented by individual teachers and do not require systems level changes (Lotherington, Holland et al., 2008). This is not to say that systems level changes are not needed, but simply to indicate that meaningful changes can occur on a smaller scale. Transformational coaching maintains an explicit focus on equity. As such, it requires that teachers and coaches engage in conversation about race, class, and gender, as well as examining the systems within which they
are operating (Aguilar, 2013). Therefore, I suggest coaches adopt transformational coaching practices in order to support special education teachers.

**Shifts in Beliefs**

Transformational coaching offers a useful approach to facilitate the process of identifying underlying beliefs about teaching and learning when working with multilingual learners, as well as to shift beliefs and practices with a goal of creating equitable literacy learning opportunities. In this approach, coaching is situated in the context of each participating teacher’s current practices with a connection to the goal(s) established by each individual teacher. This aligns with recommendations to support teacher-established goals through coaching, with teachers being positioned to name the instructional problems they are working to address rather than coaches offering suggestions for teachers to comply with (Gersten et al., 1995).

While addressing teacher-established goals, this approach to coaching addresses three areas: the coachee’s beliefs, behaviors, and ways of being; the institutions and systems within which coachees are situated; and the broader educational context (Aguilar, 2013). It employs a systems approach, which can be helpful for identifying dominant ideologies and to facilitate change at the individual level with the coachees we are working with in a way that can affect change at other levels within the system.

**Knowledge of Language Use**

As teachers become more aware of their beliefs, they have an opportunity to examine their teaching practices and determine whether their practices align with their beliefs. This also presents an opportunity for teachers to learn more about the ways in which their students use language to engage as learners. Coaches are positioned to help teachers identify areas for their own learning as well as to share information and resources with teachers (Aguilar, 2013). This
aspect of coaching can allow special educators to learn more about language learning as well as identify particular ways to provide opportunities for students to draw upon their full linguistic repertoires in the classroom.

**Linguistic Practices in Instruction**

Transformational coaching can be applied as a way of examining beliefs and practices that directly impact multilingual learners LAD. This may lead to shifts in teacher practice that result in more equitable learning contexts. With a focus on language, transformational coaching has the potential to help special education teachers create learning opportunities in which their students can draw upon their full linguistic repertoires and bring their full identities into the classroom. As a result, this approach to coaching may provide multilingual learners LAD with greater access to bilingual learning opportunities within special education settings.

**Purpose of the Present Study**

Much of the existing research examining bilingualism has occurred outside of special education settings (Peña, 2016). Creating multilingual learning opportunities is one approach teachers can use to create culturally sustaining learning experiences in which students are able to bring their full identities into the classroom, which should be afforded to multilingual learners LAD as well as their nondisabled peers. Further, this practice may create opportunities for teachers to emphasize students’ knowledge and resources to disrupt deficit thinking and systems of oppression. Therefore, the proposed study seeks to answer the following questions:

**Qualitative Research Questions**

1. How do special education teachers describe their opportunities to learn about how to support multilingual learners with disabilities?

2. How do teachers describe their approach to linguistically responsive teaching?
3. How do teachers understand their students’ language and literacy development and engagement within school and home settings?

Single Case Research Questions

4. Does 1:1 coaching with special education teachers who provide English-medium instruction lead to increased multilingual learning opportunities for multilingual learners with disabilities during literacy instruction?
CHAPTER THREE

Research Method

The overall research design for this study is Mixed methods single case research (MMSCR; Onghena et al., 2018), using a combination of single case design and qualitative methods to answer the research questions. The integration of qualitative methods with single case allows researchers to provide additional context for an intervention. Use of MMSCR can also be useful when conditions are heterogeneous across participants (Onghena et al., 2018). In the present study, use of MMSCR was especially useful given the differences in linguistic identities and teaching contexts across participants, along with the variations occurring by day within individual participants’ teaching contexts. Overall sampling and consent procedures are described, followed by my positionality statement and coaching vision. Next, I provide a description of the intervention. Finally, data collection and analysis procedures are described separately for the single case and qualitative aspects of the study.

Sampling Procedures

Due to the qualitative portion of the study, nonprobability sampling was used to identify participants (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). More specifically, typical purposeful (Patton, 2015) sampling was applied in order to include participants that were likely to provide “information rich” data. Initially, I contacted a special education administrator in a nearby school district to distribute information about this research opportunity to practicing special education teachers. In order to screen teachers and identify potential participants, interested special educators were asked to complete a brief questionnaire (see Appendix A) to identify individuals who met inclusion criteria. Inclusion criteria were determined with both the qualitative and single case portions of the study in mind and required that participants (a) provided English-medium
instruction, either fully or primarily, (b) did not fluently speak the languages represented among their students outside of English, though some knowledge of other languages was welcome based on self-report (c) served bi-/multi-lingual students, (d) taught in an elementary school special education resource room setting, (e) taught literacy in a small group setting. Based on these criteria, a total of three participants were identified from within a single district.

Prior to implementing the intervention component of this study with each participant, baseline data was collected through video observation using a single case design approach. Once teachers met the inclusion criteria described previously, I observed each teachers’ literacy instruction during baseline data collection to confirm that they were not already using the variety of practices to be targeted through professional development. For example, if baseline data collection indicated that a teacher was already inviting students to speak, read, and write in multiple languages, the coaching model proposed in this study would not have served as useful professional development, so they would not have been retained as a participant. Additional details regarding design can be found in Table 3.1 below as well as the sections that follow.

Table 3.1

*Study Design*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research Process</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Reach out to District</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Ask interested teachers to complete questionnaire</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Review questionnaires to identify participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Obtain consent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Begin baseline data collection and interviews with all participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Exclude any participants already using these practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Make phase changes as single case data permits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Collect social validity data</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study Phases (staggered across participants):</th>
<th>Baseline Data Collection</th>
<th>Workshop followed by Data Collection</th>
<th>Weekly Coaching Intervention with ongoing Data Collection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Consenting Procedures

Once approval for this study was obtained from the university’s human subjects division, I applied to a nearby school district with a large population of multilingual learners seeking approval to complete the present study within the district. After approval was obtained from the district, I began recruiting participants. As individual teachers were identified for participation, I arranged individual meetings between myself and each teacher to answer any questions. During these meetings, I asked teachers to sign consent forms, as found in Appendix B. Because data collection involved video, students’ parents were also asked to sign consent forms and students were asked to assent before being included in video recordings.

Setting

The present study was completed across four elementary schools in one school district located in the Pacific Northwest. A total of three special educators participated in the study, with one teacher dividing her time across two schools, accounting for the fourth school in the study. Recruiting participants from a single district allowed me to become more familiar with the systems within which participating teachers were operating, an important aspect of transformational coaching (Aguilar, 2020). Participants taught in elementary school resource room settings as part of the continuum of services offered to students with disabilities through the district. Two of the four schools were dual language schools, with general education instruction provided in both English and Spanish at some or all grade levels. Special education services were provided in English and teachers provided small group reading instruction through a pull out model where they worked with students outside the general education classroom. Each
of the three special education teachers identified focal groups of students who received literacy instruction in a one-on-one or small group context. Instruction was provided four times per week, per the district model. Instructional groups included students representing different ages and grade levels, with all students qualifying for Specially Designed Instruction in the area of reading. At least one student in each group identified as multilingual.

Throughout the study, professional development was provided to each teacher individually within their respective classrooms. These sessions occurred before/after school or during teachers’ planning time based on teacher preference. An initial PD workshop session was provided to all participants and introduced participants to strategies and vocabulary related to translanguaging. The workshop lasted between 58 minutes and 1 hour 4 minutes across participants. Coaching was also provided to participants in 1:1 settings, with each session being personalized for the individual participant and lasting between 47 minutes to 1 hour. Additional information describing the nature of professional development is provided in sections that follow.

**Participants**

Participants include three elementary school special education teachers who met inclusion criteria. Each teacher’s name, identity markers, years of teaching experience, context, and reading group(s) are reported in Table 3.2 below. Pseudonyms are used to refer to individuals and schools to protect participants’ identities. Identity markers include each teacher’s self-reported preferred pronouns and race. Context includes descriptive information about the school setting such as the type of language programming available schoolwide (e.g., dual language school or English Language Learner (ELL) pull out, etc.). Reading group(s) provides information about the group(s) of students each teacher recorded for data collection relative to
this study. This included number of students, grade level(s), and languages represented. The label “ELL” is used to indicate formal school program options and the legal classification of students who are eligible for language services through the district.

**Table 3.2**

*Participants*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Identity Markers</th>
<th>Years of Experience</th>
<th>Context</th>
<th>Reading Groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Erica</td>
<td>she/her White monolingual English speaker (with elementary level knowledge of Spanish)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Shady Grove Elementary (English-medium instruction schoolwide with ELL pull out services)</td>
<td>Group 1: (Sessions 1 - 21) 4 students total; 1 bilingual and 1 trilingual learner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Group 2: (Sessions 22 – Session 37) 1 bilingual and 1 trilingual learner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joselyn</td>
<td>she/her White monolingual English speaker (with a small amount of Spanish knowledge)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Pine Trail Elementary (Spanish-English dual language program K-3, English-medium instruction 4-5)</td>
<td>Group 1: (Monday/Wednesday) 3 students total, 2 bilingual learners (Tuesday/Thursday) 2 bilingual learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monica</td>
<td>she/her White Bilingual (Danish and English)</td>
<td>11 years</td>
<td>Monday/Tuesday: Dogwood Elementary (English-medium instruction schoolwide); Wednesday/Thursday: Eagle Crest Elementary (Spanish-English dual language program K-5)</td>
<td>Dogwood: 1 bilingual learner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Eagle Crest: 2 bilingual learners</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Erica has a B.A. in Education and was a second-year teacher at Shady Grove Elementary at the time of the study. This school had a smaller population of multilingual learners compared
to the other schools in this study, with 14% of students classified as ELL based on 2021-2022 enrollment (Washington Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, n.d.). Erica worked with students who speak Spanish, Tarasco, Arabic, and English. Other languages were represented in the school, though not among the students on Erica’s caseload. English-medium instruction was provided schoolwide at Shady Grove. All of the students in Erica’s reading groups received Specially Designed Instruction in the area of reading and were eligible for services under the categories of Specific Learning Disability or Emotional and Behavioral Disability. Mid-study, Erica’s schedule changed due to an increase in caseload. This led to data collection focused one reading group for the first half of the study and another group for the remainder of the study.

Joselyn also has a B.A. in Education and was in her fourth year of teaching at the time of the study. She had been at Pine Trail Elementary all four years of her teaching career. This school had a large population of Spanish-speaking students, though many other languages were also represented among the student population, with 50% of the student population being classified as ELL during the 2022-2022 school year (Washington Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, n.d.). Pine Trail Elementary was a dual language school with a Spanish-English program. Students in grades K-3 were enrolled in the dual language program, while fourth and fifth grade students received English-medium instruction in their general education classrooms as well as in the resource room. The dual language program here was scheduled to expand by one grade level each year until it is implemented schoolwide. All of the students in Joselyn’s reading groups received Specially Designed Instruction in the area of reading. They were eligible for services under the categories of Other Health Impairment or Specific Learning Disability. In order to keep reading groups small in size, Joselyn rotated groups for reading. This
resulted in data collection for one group of fifth grade students on Mondays and Wednesdays and a second group on Tuesdays and Thursdays throughout the study.

Monica holds an M. Ed. in Special Education and is currently in her eleventh year of teaching. She was previously at one school in the district full time. However, the number of students at this school who received special education services declined due impacts from the Covid-19 pandemic. As a result, Monica was displaced and began teaching at two new schools during the 2021-2022 academic year. Her time was divided with .5 FTE at each school. On Mondays and Tuesdays, she taught at Dogwood Elementary, a school that provided English-medium instruction schoolwide. At this school, 32% of students enrolled in the 2021-2022 school year were classified as ELL (Washington Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, n.d.). On Wednesdays and Thursdays, Monica taught at Eagle Crest Elementary, a dual language school with a Spanish-English program implemented at all grade levels, with 50% of students classified as ELL during the 2021-2022 school year. Although general education instruction was provided in English and Spanish, Monica provided English-medium instruction. Monica alternated between schools on Fridays. All of the students in Monica’s reading groups received Specially Designed Instruction in the area of reading and were eligible for services under the category of Specific Learning Disability.

Monica was the only participant in this study who identified as bilingual. In addition to English, she speaks Danish, a language she grew up speaking with her family. She also has some knowledge of other European languages, including German and French. While Monica worked with many multilingual learners, she did not work with any students who speak Danish.
Researcher Positionality

I recognize the ways in which my own positionality informs and influences the ways in which I engage in research and analyze and interpret findings (Bhattacharya, 2017). I am a white, monolingual English-speaking woman. I am also a doctoral student, with 7 years of teaching experience working in special education and 9 years of total teaching experience. I hold reading, English language learner, and special education endorsements and am a National Board Certified teacher in the area of Exceptional Needs Specialist. My work as a special education teacher took place in an elementary school resource room, and the majority of my students were multilingual learners. For three years, I taught in a dual language school where I provided English-medium instruction. As I taught multilingual learners, I invited my students to use their full linguistic repertoires to engage in literacy instruction at times, and at other times I was unsure of how to create such opportunities. I would have benefited from coaching focused specifically on supporting multilingual learners with disabilities, although I did not have access to this type of coaching.

Along with my teaching experience, as a doctoral student, I gained prior experience as a coach working with pre-service teachers. Conducting this study provided my first experience coaching in-service teachers. My identity markers and prior experiences as a teacher and coach informed the ways in which I engaged with teachers during this study as well as the process of observing instruction and analyzing data. My own experiences allowed me to understand that while special educators may express dedication to improving their practice, they may need support to imagine new instructional approaches and navigate challenges that present as they try on new practices. Coaching offers a means for providing guidance as special educators examine
their own beliefs, identities, and teaching practice while supporting them to take risks in their teaching and try on new practices.

**Intervention Description**

Professional development related to the use of translanguaging was provided to each participant. PD consisted of two parts which were provided in two different phases of data collection. This included a single workshop session followed by ongoing coaching. Although research indicates that one-time PD sessions are not effective in changing teacher practice (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017), the workshop was included as a phase in the study to rule out the possibility that this approach to PD is sufficient in helping special education teachers take up translanguaging pedagogy in their classrooms. Further, a workshop may be useful to combine with ongoing coaching as a means to introduce any new vocabulary and possible strategies teachers might like to explore in greater depth during coaching. Both the workshop and ongoing coaching took place with each special educator individually. The workshop and coaching sessions focused on incorporating translanguaging into teachers’ existing literacy instruction. However, the content of the workshop was consistent across participants, while coaching varied in order to align with each teacher’s instructional approaches and personal goals. The application of transformational coaching allowed for coaching to be individualized to meet the needs of each participant and examine beliefs related to language use while also supporting teachers in taking up translanguaging pedagogy. I personally provided all PD for each participant.

**Workshop**

Following baseline data collection, each teacher participated in the workshop session. The workshop lasted approximately 1 hour and introduced special education teachers to translanguaging pedagogy. The objectives of the workshop were for the teachers to be able to (1)
define translanguaging, (2) describe strategies teachers can use to promote translanguaging in the classroom, and (3) to collaboratively plan instruction that promotes translanguaging. Video models were incorporated into the workshop to illustrate possible ways of taking up translanguaging pedagogy in classroom settings in which the teacher provides English-medium instruction. A total of six strategies that promote translanguaging were introduced through the workshop. These include: using materials in multiple languages, inviting students to draw upon their full linguistic repertoires during structured talk, inviting students to draw upon their full linguistic repertoires as they write, engaging in bilingual read alouds, comparing and contrasting languages (e.g., grammatical structure, orthography), and applying use of translation or interpretation. Once these strategies were introduced, each teacher worked collaboratively with the researcher to engage in planning to use one or more of these strategies in their upcoming instruction. A presentation slide listing objectives for the workshop session can be found in Appendix H.

**Coaching**

As described above, transformational coaching was applied to frame the coaching intervention. This approach to coaching was modified to include more directive feedback than would typically be utilized during transformational coaching due to the constraints of single-case design. Single-case research requires that interventions remain consistent across participants, meaning that coaching sessions needed to maintain a focus on translanguaging pedagogy. In addition, teachers required and requested specific examples of how to include translanguaging in their instruction because translanguaging pedagogy was unfamiliar.

I provided one-on-one coaching which began after the workshop session and workshop phase of data collection was complete relative to each participant. Each coaching session lasted
between 58 minutes and 1 hour 4 minutes in length, with sessions generally occurring on a weekly schedule. Each coaching session was held within teachers’ respective classrooms. The initial coaching session focused on building trust and seeking to understand the coaching context (Aguilar, 2020), which included better understanding the teacher’s current instructional practices, beliefs, and goals about language and literacy learning. During these initial meetings, I asked questions to learn more about the teacher (Aguilar, 2013). These initial coaching conversations allowed me to build on and clarify what I’d learned through qualitative interviews and observations up to that point. Some questions from our initial coaching conversations included: What are your current goals for students related to language and literacy development? Where do you see opportunities to incorporate translanguaging into your instruction? Are there any areas of your instruction that you would like to think about together as we engage in coaching? Information gained during qualitative interviews also informed initial coaching conversations. For example, during the first interview with each participant, I learned why they decided to become special education teachers and how they think about supporting their multilingual students. This initial coaching session was also used to collaboratively develop a coaching plan to drive our ongoing work (Aguilar, 2020). During this conversation, I also shared my personal vision statement as a coach as a way of being transparent and sharing some of my own beliefs, something I intended to ask participants to do through the coaching process as well.

As coaching continued, each meeting followed an agenda, with the agenda for the initial meeting determined by the coach, and all remaining coaching plans developed collaboratively between the coach and special education teacher. During each session, each special education teacher and I began by reviewing the previous meeting’s discussion. This allowed for an opportunity to reflect on prior work and determine how to extend the work that had already been
done as coaching continued. At the end of each session, the special education teacher and I collaboratively set a goal and focus for the next session. This collaboration drove the activities included in the agenda, which I then planned in more detail based on the coaching conversation. Although the focus of each session was on supporting teachers in taking up translanguaging pedagogy, teachers had agency to indicate what supports they found most helpful for their learning, how they saw various translanguaging practices fitting into their teaching (or not), and setting particular goals for their literacy teaching practice. Each coaching session included opportunities for teachers to receive feedback on their teaching (as observed during the week), engage in discussion focused on reflection, and collaboratively plan future instruction.

During coaching sessions, I asked questions to promote reflection and prompt teachers to examine their own beliefs and teaching practices. However, I also provided more directive coaching than would typically be included in a transformation approach to coaching. I chose this approach because translanguaging was a new concept for teachers and they required support to understand what it might look like to include translanguaging in their instruction. This more directive approach helped keep coaching sessions focused on translanguaging and supported teachers as they began to use translanguaging practices during literacy instruction.

Coaching Vision Statement. Aguilar (2013) recommends that coaches draft vision statements to guide their work. As described above, I shared my coaching vision statement during the initial coaching session with each teacher in an effort to build relationships and demonstrate transparency. My own coaching vision statement follows: I coach with the goal of creating equitable and inclusive learning opportunities for all learners. I coach teachers with a goal of learning from each other as well as learning from students and families. I coach with the belief that schools are a place where all learners must be able to bring their full identities as they
engage in accessible, high quality, culturally and linguistically responsive and sustaining learning opportunities.

**Procedural Fidelity**

An important aspect of single case design is maintaining fidelity to the intervention. Procedural fidelity (Ledford et al., 2018) was measured to ensure consistency in PD across participants. This was measured for both the workshop session as well as ongoing coaching through the use of checklists, which can be found in Appendix C. Procedural fidelity for the workshop session included the following elements: translanguaging was defined, differentiating translanguaging practice vs. pedagogy, describing the benefits and affordances of translanguaging, naming inequities for students in special education, watching and discussing translanguaging observed in video examples, describing ways to bring translanguaging into the classroom (6 ways total), collaboratively planning instruction, and including time for questions from the participant. Similarly, although coaching was flexible in nature in order to best support each individual teacher, a checklist was used to ensure key features of coaching were consistently implemented across participants. This checklist included: viewing the meeting agenda with an opportunity to revise the plan, sharing my coaching vision statement (first session), reviewing previous coaching conversations (following the first session), discussing recent literacy instruction (offering feedback, time for reflection), planning upcoming instruction, setting a goal for our next coaching session, and developing a rough plan for our next session.

In order to measure fidelity to the intervention, all workshop and coaching sessions were recorded, with the exception of one coaching session due to an error with technology. Recordings included audio as well as visual slides used during each session. Implementation
fidelity was measured based on the overall percentage of elements occurring during each session. For the workshop, this was calculated as the number of features observed divided by the total number of features measured (8) multiplied by 100. A similar procedure was implemented to calculate coaching fidelity, with a total of 7 features measured per coaching session. Fidelity of implementation for both the workshop and coaching can be found in Table 3.3 below, along with interobserver agreement (IOA). A graduate student assisted in measuring implementation fidelity in order to calculate agreement. IOA was calculated as the number of agreements divided by agreements plus disagreements, multiplied by 100. IOA was calculated for 33% of both workshop and coaching sessions. As shown in the table, workshop implementation fidelity was high, with 95.3% of features implemented on average across three sessions total, with 100% IOA. Coaching implementation fidelity was also high, with 100% of features implemented across all coaching sessions and 100% IOA.

**Table 3.3**

*Intervention Implementation Fidelity*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intervention Component</th>
<th>Implementation Fidelity</th>
<th>Interobserver Agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Workshop</td>
<td>95.3%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coaching</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Social Validity**

Along with intervention fidelity, it is important for researchers to collect data regarding the social validity of an intervention to determine whether it is perceived as socially important (Horner et al., 2005; Wolf, 1978). Wolf (1978) suggests attending to the goals, procedures, and effects of an intervention when measuring social validity.
In order to evaluate the social validity of the use of translanguaging practices in special education settings, a social validity questionnaire was developed. The questionnaire was also designed to evaluate the procedures used during the workshop and ongoing coaching. The social validity questionnaire included items designed to rate aspects of the professional development intervention on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from “not at all satisfied” to “very satisfied.” Scales evaluate satisfaction with the workshop and ongoing coaching in terms of supporting understanding of translanguaging pedagogy, supporting one’s ability to take up translanguaging pedagogy, impact on instruction, and perceived meaningfulness of the professional development. Additional short-answer and yes/no questions are included to gain further information regarding participants’ views of the professional development intervention. Questionnaire responses were developed to allow me to evaluate the outcomes of the workshop and coaching to determine whether teachers felt these forms of professional development were seen as socially important, useful, and effective.

**Qualitative Methods**

Qualitative methods were used to answer my first three research questions: (1) How do special education teachers describe their opportunities to learn about how to support multilingual learners with disabilities? (2) How do special education teachers describe their approach to linguistically responsive teaching? and (3) How do special education teachers understand their students’ language and literacy development and engagement within school and home settings?

These questions required an inductive method of data analysis to begin to develop a hypothesis about special education teachers’ understandings of language development and their multilingual students. This inductive method is central to qualitative research (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).
As I engaged in this research, it was important for me to examine my own positionality as researcher. Within this study, I held an insider/outsider positionality. My identity as a monolingual English-speaking individual is shared with two of the three participants, indicating that my positionality varied depending on which participant I was engaged with. My prior role as a special education teacher working in an elementary school with many multilingual learners represented an insider positionality. This allowed me to understand some of the challenges and questions that arose as teachers began to incorporate translanguaging in their lessons. However, I maintained an outsider status through my identity markers as a doctoral student who was not teaching children at the time of the study or working in schools with the teacher participants. This, along with my role as coach in the study, contributed to power dynamics that I needed to be cognizant of in order to build rapport and maintain positive relationships with participants. For instance, although I my position as a doctoral student gave me a position of power, I intentionally positioned teachers as experts by asking questions and centering their personal goals for themselves and their students within our coaching sessions. I shared information and strategies during our coaching sessions as well, but I offered these as possibilities for collaborative exploration rather than directing participants to use particular strategies. Thus, these aspects of my identity informed my interactions with teachers as well as the ways in which I analyzed data gathered throughout the study.

**Qualitative Data Collection**

According to Merriam and Tisdell (2016), in qualitative research, the researcher is the “primary instrument,” as they are collecting data and conducting analyses of that data. Therefore, the qualitative portion of this study consisted of interviews with special education teachers. Acting as a data collection instrument, I completed each interview. Examining trends across
Interview data from each participant allowed me to triangulate the data to confirm findings. Details regarding the use of interviews follows.

**Interviews.** I conducted semistructured interviews with each special educator at the onset of the study. This allowed me to gain insight into each teacher’s thinking prior to the onset of PD. The protocol used for this interview can be found in Appendix E.

Semistructured interviews facilitated gathering particular kinds of information while still allowing flexibility in the way questions were phrased and allowed me, the interviewer, to be responsive to interviewees. Conducting interviews allowed me to triangulate data across participants as well as learn about participants’ thoughts, feelings, and goals, which are not directly observable (Patton, 2015). Further, interviews included a variety of open-ended questions (Patton, 2015), with some questions asking participants to describe thoughts, feelings, or experiences and others targeting the beliefs teachers held. Interview data extended findings from the single case portion of the study described below by allowing me to gain a more in depth understanding of the role of language in special education and to explore a broader range of related questions.

**Single Case Design**

The use of single case design allowed me to answer my fourth research question: Does 1:1 coaching with monolingual English-speaking special education teachers lead to increased multilingual learning opportunities for multilingual learners with disabilities during literacy instruction? To answer this question, I completed a multiple baseline across participants design with 3 special education teachers who provided English-medium instruction in elementary school settings, each with a population of multilingual learners (Baer et al., 1968). Data was collected in three phases, with phases reflecting baseline, workshop, and ongoing coaching. The
intervention extended across two phases, including both the workshop and ongoing coaching, which were completed with each teacher individually. Phase changes were made when data was stable, with at least five data points in each phase. Additional information about data collection measures and analysis procedures follow.

**Single Case Data Collection**

Video recordings of literacy instruction were shared by each participant for data collection purposes. Literacy lessons were typically recorded four times per week, with some exceptions due to teacher absences, interruptions related to student needs, phase changes, technology failure, or participants forgetting to record. Video recordings allowed for coding the use of translanguaging practices, the dependent measure in the study. These practices are described in detail below. Baseline data collection began at the same time across participants while the independent variable, a PD intervention, began on a staggered schedule across participants (Horner et al., 2005). Phase changes occurred when data was stable and a minimum of five data points had been collected for a given phase. Once participants reached the coaching phase, a minimum of 5 data points were collected. Data was monitored until participants reached a mastery criterion rate of 0.6 translanguaging practices per minute across three consecutive lessons within this phase.

**Single Case Measures**

The dependent variable, translanguaging practices, is operationalized as opportunities for students to use their full linguistic repertoires to engage in listening, speaking, reading, or writing during literacy instruction. Translanguaging practices were coded as one of three codes: full linguistic repertoire, conversations about language, and teacher talk. These codes were developed with attention to listening, speaking, reading, and writing and through watching pilot videos of
teachers’ literacy instruction to determine what codes would capture instances of translanguaging through observation. Full linguistic repertoire includes opportunities for students to listen, speak, read, or write in their different languages. This occurred through reading or listening to texts printed fully or partially in students’ languages, watching videos that included different languages, engaging in group or partner talk using their preferred language(s), and so on. Conversations about language occurred when students were asked to translate words or sentences into different languages or when discussion focused on similarities or differences across languages (such as comparing letter sounds, cognates, etc.). Teacher talk occurred when teachers spoke in different languages represented among their students. For instance, teachers might look up a translation for a word and verbally share it with students or repeat words they are learning from their students. Codes for translanguaging practices are described in greater detail in the codebook, which can be found in Appendix G. Excerpts from the codebook can be found in Table 3.4 below for reference.

**Table 3.4**

*Translanguaging Practices: Excerpts from Codebook*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translanguaging Practices</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Nonexamples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Opportunities for students to use their full linguistic repertoires to engage in reading, speaking, listening, or writing during literacy instruction</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Students saying something that may not be in English, but not intelligible to confirm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Explicit invitations from the teacher for students to engage in reading, speaking, or writing using their full linguistic repertoire (e.g., “Feel free to speak to your partner in English or Spanish…”; regardless of whether students accept the invitation)</td>
<td></td>
<td>• Commenting about sounds/spelling patterns in English without making a connection to a different language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Teacher repeating the same word/question/statement just made by teacher (Teacher repeats her own directions) in a language other than English (either immediately or upon student request)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• Leading explicit conversations about language (e.g., interpreting or translating at the word/phrase/sentence/paragraph level, discussing cognates, comparing/contrasting languages in terms of grammar/syntax/spelling)
• Teacher talk where teachers may say/read aloud one or more words from a different language to make connections, name vocabulary words, or clarify directions

Translanguaging practices constitute a free-operant event given that they can occur at any time within an observation (Ledford et al., 2018). For this reason, the practices included in the defined codes were coded during data collection, while non-responses were not coded. Further, due to the variation in lesson length, data were reported in terms of rate per minute. Rate per minute was calculated by dividing the number of translanguaging practices observed by the total length of the lesson in seconds, multiplied by 60. The single case data collection form can be found in Appendix F.

Validity. Validity must be accounted for in single case research. The operational definition described above, along with a clear set of nonexamples to support the definition of translanguaging practices used within the proposed study support construct validity (Ledford et al., 2018). A complete codebook with examples and nonexamples for each code can be found in Appendix G. Pilot data was collected from two special education teachers who did not participate in the study to refine operational definitions. Translanguaging practices were not mutually exclusive and were often double or triple coded. For instance, if a teacher asked students to translate a sentence into their other language, this would be coded as full linguistic repertoire as well as a conversation about language.
External validity is another type of validity that must be addressed in single case research. “External validity of results from single-subject research is enhanced through replication of the effects across different participants, different conditions, and/or different measures of the dependent variable” (Horner et al., 2005). For this reason, three participants were included in this study, with each participant teaching in different school contexts with different groups of students.

**Reliability Measurement.** Reliability was calculated with a second observer. Literacy instruction was recorded for this purpose, with both observers coding recorded literacy lessons. In addition to myself, a graduate student was trained to code videos according to the translanguaging practices observed in each lesson in order to calculate interobserver agreement. IOA was calculated with a second graduate student rather than using the same coder who evaluated implementation fidelity so that this coder would be unaware of participants’ access to the PD intervention as they coded videos of reading instruction. Videos collected for piloting were used to establish agreement across coders. These videos were used to discuss coding protocols and practice coding until a minimum of 80% agreement was reached. Checks were scheduled periodically throughout the course of the study with IOA data being analyzed to make adjustments to definitions and provide additional training as needed (Ledford et al., 2018). Specifically, IOA was calculated by measuring point-by-point agreement. In this case, when translanguaging practices were observed within a lesson observation, observers recorded each event (e.g., translanguaging practices) at onset (Ledford et al., 2018). For example, if a teacher invited students to write a reading response in their preferred language, observers would record this event with a time stamp to indicate the onset of the practice, along with the code full linguistic repertoire. Finally, the number of agreements across observers was divided by the
number of agreements plus disagreements, multiplied by 100 in order to obtain an agreement percentage. Events recorded within a 3 second time frame across observers were counted as agreements. Calculating IOA frequently throughout the study helped to prevent observer drift, “the tendency of a data collector to depart from accurate use of definitions over time” (Ledford et al., 2018, p. 117), which can occur in SCD research.

Agreement is reported for each participant’s coded videos in Table 4.4 below. IOA was calculated for 24% of all literacy lessons included in the study. Overall, coders reached 77% agreement, with 52%, 93%, and 86% agreement for each participant. Agreement for Erica’s instruction is low due to poor agreement across three of her videos. In particular, as teachers began incorporating translanguaging in new ways, agreement needed to be re-established to determine when translanguaging practices would be coded as a new event. When codes were applied differently, such as in Erica’s case, observers met to discuss discrepancies and improve agreement as coding continued.

Table 4.4

Interobserver Agreement for Coding of Translanguaging Practices Across Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Erica</th>
<th>Joselyn</th>
<th>Monica</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IOA</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>93%</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>77%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER FOUR

Qualitative Findings

The purpose of the qualitative portion of this study was to understand how special education teachers think about language and literacy development in relation to providing specially designed English-medium instruction in reading. Interview data provided context for the PD intervention, allowing me to gain information about each teacher’s existing teaching practices, beliefs about language, and understandings of their students. Therefore, the following research questions were posed:

1. How do special education teachers describe their opportunities to learn about how to support multilingual learners with disabilities?

2. How do special education teachers describe their approach to linguistically responsive teaching?

3. How do special education teachers understand their students’ language and literacy development and engagement within school and home settings?

Prior to beginning video data collection for the single case portion of this study, each participant completed a semistructured interview. I addressed internal validity of the study through the use of member checks (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). In an effort to ensure findings were true to participants’ beliefs, practices, and experiences, I completed member checks by sharing my preliminary findings with each participant in writing. I did this after completing interviews with each teacher by emailing a summary of the interview and asking teachers whether they felt the summary accurately represented their remarks. Participants had the opportunity to clarify or add on to summarized data.
Data Analysis

All interviews were audio-recorded and later transcribed verbatim for analysis. Transcriptions were completed using web-based software and then updated manually by the researcher for accuracy. I updated transcriptions myself as a way of immersing myself in the data (Patton, 2015). I then listened to audio recordings and read transcripts initially to get a holistic view of the data (Ryan and Bernard, 2003). Next, transcripts were analyzed using inductive coding procedures in order to remain close to the data (Patton, 2015). Initially, I focused on coding larger units of information, often at the paragraph level, which resulted in seventy-one codes total. This included codes that labeled general ideas such as “becoming a teacher” or “description of students” as well as codes that related to specific research questions such as “PD related to multilingual learners.” Next, I went through each transcript again to complete another round of inductive coding focused on smaller units of data, which generated thirty-four additional codes such as “access to bilingual resources” and “drawing on students’ interests.” These codes remained close to the data and labeled specific ideas expressed by teachers. Once these codes were established, I grouped similar codes to develop eighteen high-level codes with seventy-three sub-codes. The high-level codes focused on larger categories represented within the full set of codes. For instance, I used the code “description of students” with the sub-codes “students linguistic backgrounds, home language and literacy practices, students’ language and literacy development, disability representation, students’ cultural and linguistic resources, family context, students’ learning needs, and student placement.” Next, clean copies of each transcript were coded using a priori themes developed based on transformational coaching: beliefs, behaviors, and ways of being. An additional a priori code was also applied based on the factors I proposed as being related to teaching practice: teacher preparation. The other factors, teacher
beliefs and teacher identity mapped onto the previously mentioned codes beliefs and ways of being, respectively. After coding, I compiled coded data into tables so that I could more easily compare data from each participant side by side. This led to two separate documents: one focused on the codes generated through inductive methods represented in the chart above using parent codes as headings, and one based on the codes applied deductively. This allowed me to visually compare across codes to identify themes and engage in constant comparative analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) by comparing statements provided across participants (Ryan and Bernard, 2003). This analysis led to the identification of five themes that consistently presented in the data and mapped onto a priori themes, including teacher preparation and professional development; behaviors: promoting language and literacy development; beliefs: school-centric perceptions of home literacy; and ways of being: making meaning based on personal experience.

**Findings**

Based on the recommendation of Gutiérrez and Rogoff (2003), findings are reported in the past tense to indicate reference to an observation rather than making a generalized statement. Thus, findings are reported to describe patterns and themes identified in the data within and across participants rather than seeking to generalize.

**Teacher Preparation and Professional Development**

Teachers were asked to reflect on opportunities to learn about supporting multilingual learners within their teacher preparation programs and professional development opportunities. This allowed me to answer my first research question: How do special education teachers describe their opportunities to learn about how to support multilingual learners with disabilities? Of the three, two teachers recalled taking specific courses related to multilingual learners in their teacher preparation programs. Joselyn reflected that she “took a few classes in college around
Despite having taken these courses, Joselyn did not describe any specific takeaways from these courses that supported her teaching. Similarly, Monica recalled taking one class focused on multilingual learners in her teacher preparation program, although she had trouble remembering specifics. Erica reflected that she studied elementary and special education in her program.

> With the sped, I remember us talking about how some, like, a lot of sped students can be bilingual and that it can be harder to get them qualified for services, and how that adds another layer, but I don't believe I've ever taken a course.

The lack of detailed memories of coursework focused on supporting multilingual learners with disabilities, or having no access to such courses as Erica reported, is notable. To some degree, teachers were able to recall more information related to supporting multilingual learners in the more recent professional development they’ve received as inservice teachers.

As inservice teachers, Monica and Joselyn were both able to participate in Guided Language Acquisition Design (GLAD) training provided through the school district. GLAD strategies are a set of strategies designed to support language development and teach academic content to students who are learning the language of instruction (Sanchez, 2015). Joselyn described how this opportunity was really focused on her students.

> I really do like going to professional developments that are put on by the special ed department because I feel like a lot of those are very connected to how to support students with disabilities, like specifically. And so, like with the GLAD training that I mentioned, I went to a specific GLAD training for, like, put on by the special ed department and the language department. So they kind of work together in terms of how to use these strategies with students with IEPs.
Monica elaborated on how the strategies learned in this same training felt useful for all of the students she works with.

I feel like a lot of it overlaps because a lot of strategies we use for ELL learners we also use for students who have learning disabilities, because there's a lot of visuals on the walls, you know, with the GLAD strategies, so I feel like that overlaps. But I do feel like it has been addressed, that a lot of those strategies are similar, and that they do overlap in those trainings, and I feel like the special education department has also added to their trainings how to support bilingual learners.

On the other hand, Erica was unfamiliar with GLAD strategies, which may be due to being a second-year teacher. Monica, who’s been in the district the longest, commented on how the pandemic has impacted professional development opportunities offered by the district, which may help explain Erica’s unfamiliarity with GLAD and limited access to other PD opportunities provided by the district.

While teachers did describe other professional development opportunities they’ve had, the GLAD training was the only district level PD opportunity described by participants with an explicit focus on supporting multilingual learners with disabilities. Further, Monica was the only participant who described school level opportunities to think about supporting multilingual learners with disabilities. Monica explained how she and another special education teacher have collaborated with the literacy specialist at her dual language school. She described the conversations they’re having about how best to support students as teachers learn the newly adopted reading curriculum.

So that’s like a big question that we're addressing right now, like, we have four days a week to do this instruction, and the bilingual students, they benefit from both languages,
but then if they have severe phonics needs, you really need almost four days a week to hit that. And so we're just looking at that really closely right now. So I'm learning so much from the reading specialist.

This comment is representative of the conversations Monica routinely engaged in as she worked to support her students’ language and disability related needs for learning. For instance, Monica described conversations she had with Spanish-speaking teachers and the speech language pathologist. She regularly sought out conversations with these colleagues when questions came up about her students’ language and literacy skills.

**Behaviors: Promoting Language and Literacy Development**

In addition to learning about opportunities teachers had experienced to learn about supporting multilingual learners with disabilities, it was important to understand how these understandings show up in their literacy instruction. While behaviors are often observed, the information described here is based on data gathered through interviews with each participant. In interviews completed at the beginning of this study, each teacher described their literacy instruction, focusing on the instruction they provided to multilingual learners or small groups that included both multilingual learners as well as monolingual English-speaking students with disabilities. This information allowed me to answer my second research question: How do special education teachers describe their approach to linguistically responsive teaching? Each participant described a focus on phonics instruction and vocabulary as well as opportunities afforded to their students to engage in translanguaging. The district had just adopted a new reading curriculum at the beginning of the school year, so teachers’ comments reflected their experiences using this curriculum as well.
Decoding. Each teacher described an explicit focus on phonics instruction with their students. Erica described her use of the new curriculum, with a focus on decoding. She described the process of engaging in word work and then asking students to read brief texts that include words with the spelling patterns they had just learned. For instance, she described reading words with the blend bl- in isolation, and then reading a short story that included words with this blend throughout. She described following the lessons and building in repeated readings to support students’ reading fluency, but reflected that the curriculum isn’t fully meeting the needs of her students. “It's missing a lot of practice opportunities, repeated practice.” Monica similarly described her experience with the new curriculum.

So I mean, we're learning a lot now with this new reading curriculum coming out that our students that are bilingual, but have severe phonics needs, they're struggling with the new program. So it's how to address those needs a little bit better, like do we give more Spanish instruction? Do we give more English instruction? Do we try to even it: two days a week, two days a week? And we're trying to learn a lot right now about that since we have this new program and these new materials. So it's a big learning curve. Right now, we're just looking at the data coming in.

Joselyn expressed greater satisfaction with the new curriculum and described how she finds it helpful to align instruction with students’ needs.

And each level has a lesson box that has a bunch of lessons tailored to the skills that they would need at that reading level and then to help support them to move up. It's very much a mix of phonics, comprehension, fluency. It's all kind of mixed into those toolkits, which is really nice because a lot of my students do qualify in all of those areas of reading.
Joselyn elaborated to explain how she was primarily working to support her students with decoding, but also made an effort to connect her instruction to the general education curriculum. She shared, “But also in here, I'm kind of going off of what they're doing in class, so when they were doing the ecosystems, we were also talking about ecosystems in here.” Joselyn described this process of collaborating with general education teachers to extend learning opportunities provided within the intervention component of the curriculum, which may have contributed to greater satisfaction with the materials. Across teachers, it was apparent that their students required explicit phonics instruction to support their overall literacy development.

**Vocabulary.** Along with this focus on phonics instruction, each teacher identified vocabulary as an important area for instruction as well. When thinking about her multilingual students, Erica explained, “I've noticed they have a very limited vocabulary of emotions or feelings… Their knowledge of vocab is a lot lower than others, especially domain specific. Especially, not only in literacy, but I see it more honestly in math right now.” Although Erica identified vocabulary as an area of growth for her students, she did not describe any instructional strategies she used to support vocabulary development. Importantly, when we began coaching, Erica identified vocabulary instruction as an area she would like support with.

Monica also identified vocabulary as an area where her multilingual learners needed support. However, she shared an observation differentiating the vocabulary knowledge of her students at the dual language school compared to the school providing English-medium instruction only.

I'm not noticing that as much at [Eagle Crest Elementary], but maybe they get more vocabulary development there with the Spanish and the English, and like they have that
base that they’re working from. And then I'm finding here that maybe the vocabulary isn't as strong. I never stopped to think about it, but that's really interesting.

This was an important reflection in which Monica recognized that having support to develop across languages may have allowed students to transfer knowledge of vocabulary words from one language to another more readily than those who receive instruction in one language only. She further described strategies she used to support vocabulary development.

I'm really explicit with words. Because I'm noticing, especially my students here with new IEPs, their vocabulary when they're reading just even simple books, there's a lot of words that they're not aware of or know what they mean. And so, I've always been good like, to bring up a picture on the computer just to be able to show what that is. I do a lot of that. I did a lot of that at [Prior Elementary] when I was there for a long time.

Using instructional strategies to support vocabulary development was something Monica articulated as being one of her priorities.

Joselyn also spoke about the importance of vocabulary. She focused on describing the strategies she used to support vocabulary development rather than evaluating students’ vocabulary knowledge. Her strategies overlapped with those described by Monica in the quote above. Joselyn described her use of GLAD strategies during instruction.

So GLAD has a lot of like, pictorial chart, like charts, and like pictorials, and so I incorporate those into what I'm teaching, as well some of their, like pre-teaching vocabulary strategies. So, like, for example, with ecosystems, we pre-taught a lot of vocabulary for those and were able to get like, real pictures off of the internet, which GLAD is really focused on like, real pictures, not like cartoony pictures. So using kind of those strategies in supporting, like vocabulary, I feel like is what I focus on a lot.
Having strategies for teaching vocabulary seemed to be an important distinction across teachers’ experiences. Erica, who did not describe strategies for supporting vocabulary, took up a deficit orientation as she described her multilingual students’ lack of vocabulary knowledge. On the other hand, Monica and Joselyn commented more on understanding differences in vocabulary knowledge and applying instructional strategies designed to support vocabulary development.

**Translanguaging.** Along with describing priorities related to teaching phonics and vocabulary, participants shared where their students had opportunities to draw upon their full linguistic repertoires during instruction. Relative to a student who speaks Spanish and Tarasco at home, Erica described that she heard him using his knowledge of Spanish in math to identify numbers, but this wasn’t extending into other areas. This example shows how, although opportunities for translanguaging weren’t necessarily incorporated directly into instruction, Erica was open to students’ drawing upon their full linguistic repertoires. Monica also described students’ using their knowledge of different languages in math to count. Outside of counting, when asked where students had opportunities to use their different languages in her classroom, Monica shared that these opportunities were limited.

I will ask them sometimes what that word would be in Spanish. So I would say overall, no. I would say my partner at [Eagle Crest Elementary] does better because he’s providing instruction in Spanish. I would say, he's doing a much better job at that than I am.

With her time being divided between two schools, Monica also reflected on how she and her partner teacher work together to provide special education services. Her partner teacher at the dual language school, Eagle Crest Elementary, spoke English and Spanish. Monica recounted a recent conversation they’d had.
For example, I have students that just need phonics four days a week, and I was talking to my partner yesterday about it. And the best we can do is I can give instruction two days a week in English and he can do two days in Spanish, just with the schedule and everything. But we're trying to be as flexible as we can, with as much as we can. This provides one example of how Monica was intentional in collaborating with colleagues to support students’ literacy development across languages.

Similar to Monica, Joselyn also described how she would ask students to share words from their other languages during literacy instruction. She described sometimes asking students to translate words similar to Monica, but also how she thinks about making connections across languages. Joselyn shared an example of how she aims to connect not only to students’ linguistic knowledge, but their personal interests as well.

But I like to incorporate opportunities where they're able to, like relate it back to a word or something that they know in their home language. For example, this just came up the other day, but we were talking about syllables and syllables kind of lean well into other languages. Two of my students were able to say like a different word. So yeah, then we were able to talk about, we were able to like find syllables in Spanish words and then one of my students who has an interest in anime knows a few words in Japanese, so we kind of were able to like, do some syllables in other languages, which was a nice.

These examples show how teachers invited students to draw on their full linguistic repertoires in ways that felt meaningful and possible based on their own knowledge of different languages. Monica’s reflection revealed how her own limited knowledge of Spanish might limit the opportunities for translanguaging extended to students. Later, we’ll hear a similar reflection from Joselyn as she reflected on her own experience as a monolingual English-speaker.
Beliefs

Throughout interviews, teachers’ comments reflected various beliefs they held related to language and literacy. These comments enabled me to answer my third research question: How do special education teachers understand their students’ language and literacy development and engagement within school and home settings? Two important themes emerged within teachers’ reported beliefs: a tendency toward a school-centric view of literacy and a general valuing of linguistic diversity. Relative to school-centric views of literacy, teachers tended to speak about students’ home literacy practices in terms of expectations for reading homework and other ways that literacy was expected to extend from the school setting into children’s homes. While teachers were able to identify some other ways that families engaged in literacy at home with prompting, these seemed to be secondary to the school-centric literacy behaviors. Despite this narrow understanding of home literacy practices, each teacher did express positive views of children maintaining their home language as a way of placing value on linguistic diversity.

School-centric Perceptions of Home Literacy. When teachers were asked to describe the home literacy practices their students engage in, they initially began by describing reading homework and the expectations schools have placed on families for engaging in literacy at home. For instance, Erica described how students should be reading at home because general education teachers usually assigned homework for students to read at home. She also explained that students were encouraged to participate in the “100 Book Challenge” in connection to the new reading curriculum. When encouraged to think more broadly, Erica provided a more expansive view of literacy as she described ways her students engage in literacy outside of reading books.

There's one student who, not so much reading, but listening to like, a lot of podcasts and stuff. His dad does that in the car, like motivational podcasts and stuff. He also watches a
ton of like, that's all he watches on YouTube is like motivational, like those cute little sports stories, right? So that's what he's really into. One of the students is into art a lot of the time or baking so she's reading things like that.

This remark from Erica shows how she has learned some of the ways that her students engage in literacy outside of book reading. Monica similarly described a focus on reading books initially.

Well, I know they're reading. I think the parents are supportive and making sure their children go to the library and get books and they're reading at home. That's great. There's parents that want their children to catch up, especially if they have IEPs and they're concerned about that. And so they'll ask us during IEP meetings, I'm noticing at [Eagle Crest Elementary], they really want to help their kids, what they can do to help them at home. And the dual language teachers have been wonderful to supply extra materials so parents can help.

When asked if home literacy typically involves books, Monica expanded on her response similar to the way that Erica had done.

I mean, storytelling kinda pops in my mind too. And I'm thinking like, how many, and I don't really know the answer to this question. I should ask more about it during IEP meetings, but like how my parents are reading to their children in Spanish, because I know we always recommend that, and I really don't know what the answer is to that. Now I need to find out more about that, ask more questions about that.

Joselyn described a similar trend in which families would ask how they can support their children with literacy development. As with Erica and Monica, Joselyn’s comment also emphasized book reading as the center of home literacy. Joselyn elaborated to describe challenges associated with encouraging reading in different languages.
I feel like one of the challenges is that we don't always have a ton of books in other languages. We have a lot in Spanish, but some of the other languages that our families speak, we don't have as many books in. So we encourage them to like go to the library and kind of like, find stories and things in their native languages. But I think a lot of times it's important for our families to know that it's good for them to read in other languages, it's good for them to speak their native languages at home.

When asked about other ways her students might engage in literacy at home, Joselyn described another way the school has worked to provide resources and encouragement to families regarding literacy activities, which again involved extending school recommendations into the home, although in a less traditional way.

It's like mostly kind of reading but then also like, just like speaking their native languages at home too and just being like surrounded by their native language. In the past, we've also done some, like, we had funds one year to buy a bunch of games. And so we were able to buy some like educational games that are in different languages.

The comments shared by teachers frequently reflected of narrow definitions of literacy, with a general privileging of practices recommended to families by the school.

**Valuing of Language Diversity.** To varying degrees, each teacher shared ways that they articulated to students and/or families that students’ knowledge of different languages is valued. Erica described how she invited students to share their language and culture in the classroom, noting a particular shift she’d seen in one student’s comfort level with bringing her cultural and linguistic identity into the classroom.
Last year, the girl who can speak Arabic wouldn't draw on Arabic or her culture at all. None. She would tell me about it. And then I would try to get her to like, tell the others like, oh, it's Ramadan, you know, sort of thing. And then she'd look at me.

Erica shared that this student was reluctant to explain Ramadan to her peers, but that this year she’s noticed a shift where this student seems to be more comfortable bringing these parts of her identify into the classroom. This increased comfort was revealed when Erica said, “But now, like, this year, she's teaching my paraeducator how to count from one to ten in Arabic. So that's been great.” Monica and Joselyn described ways they’d invited students to share parts of their cultural and linguistic identities into the classroom as well, but many of their comments emphasized the ways they’ve expressed a value of linguistic diversity in communication with families.

Monica and Joselyn both described how they have encouraged families to read and speak with their children in their home languages, emphasizing how valuable this is. Monica shared how the special education team at her schools have promoted multilingual engagement.

And I think, you know, when we're qualifying a student we're so, I mean, the psychologists and speech therapists are so aware of that too. But, in every IEP meeting, we've had with a dual language family, they're always encouraged to continue, because they're always asking, they're always asking if they should continue speaking their language at home, and they're concerned about it. Of course, they're always encouraged, every single meeting we've had, to do that, so.

Joselyn expressed similar communication with families.

I talk about this sometimes with families. A lot of them have concerns because if they don't speak English, they like, are concerned at home about how they can support their
literacy. And so we talk a lot in IEP meetings, and like [Multidisciplinary Team] meetings and things like that, when concerns come up about students of, you know, it's important to share books and language in their home language. It doesn't need to be in English at home. So it's something that we've collaborated with families about as well. These statements reflect the ways in which Monica and Joselyn have not only encouraged families to continue using their home languages with children, but also how they have aimed to reassure families when they express concern about how to best support their children’s education.

Along with expressing that students’ and families’ knowledge of other languages is valuable, Monica spoke frequently about how supporting development of the home language provides a strong foundation and support for learning an additional language. This idea is captured as she recounts a conversation she’d had with a family in which she attributed a child’s growth in reading to the strong support the child has had across languages. She described a student who was performing at a first-grade reading level in September and explained how she had been providing the student with explicit phonics instruction as part of her Specially Designed Instruction.

So I just had an IEP meeting for that student. And I tested her and I brought some materials and then I realized I didn't bring enough materials, which was a good thing. So she, I gave her the QRI [assessment] and she could read and comprehend, first grade, second grade, third grade 100%. And I was pleasantly surprised. I was just thrilled. And I told her you know how happy and how her skills have gone up... But the IEP meeting was really interesting. It was great to give that news to the family and to mom and so she had said during the IEP meeting that when her child was young, I want to say
kindergarten, first grade, I think was first grade, the teachers were concerned about her at that time. And they said keep talking to her in Spanish at home. Make sure she gets that exposure, and they did they really followed the advice of the school, and then she's in the bilingual program also and my teaching partner can give reading instruction, both reading and English. So she's getting that from my partner. And and then the [curriculum] is supporting that too with the Spanish materials and English materials, so and then she's getting the bilingual piece. She's actually in a standalone class this year, so, but her teacher is bilingual, so, but I think because she was getting exposure at home, and I can only think that's why she's taking off like she is. And then she's so bright too.

This story illustrates how Monica not only placed value on this child’s knowledge of Spanish and English, but that she was attributing the child’s reading growth to the combination of the child’s hard work and the support she’s had to develop her Spanish language skills in addition to English. This was an idea that came up many times throughout Monica’s interview.

**Ways of Being: Making Meaning Based on Personal Experience**

Throughout interviews, teachers made connections to their personal experiences and identities in relation to their students. These connections occurred to varying degrees across teachers, but each teacher drew on their own identities and personal experiences in some way. For Erica, this occurred as she worked to make sense of students’ disability needs as well as the impact of the pandemic, contrasting her students’ experiences with her own. Erica commented on how she had to adapt her expectations for writing.

I would say this is across the board, even with students who are just one language. I'm moving a lot from an actual writing goal, to just getting the stuff down on the paper, whether that's text to speech, handwriting, typing, I don't care. A scribe, whatever.
Because since the pandemic, when we lost that year, we have fifth graders who their handwriting looks like a kindergartner. And it's so hard for them to focus on creating the correct, you know, letter that they can't, they can't remember the sentence that they had. Right. And so that's frustrating. For them and for me, because I, I did not struggle with writing as a kid. So I think that's the hardest one for me to teach, because it was, came very easily for me.

This captures that, although it was difficult for Erica to relate to having trouble with writing, she aimed to find ways that would allow her students to experience success as writers, focusing more on their ideas as writers and less on actual handwriting. Joselyn also contrasted her own experience with that of her students, although her comment was more focused on linguistic identity.

So I feel like that's something that I've always kind of struggled with, in terms of like really being able to support my bilingual learners. I am a monolingual English speaker.

So I think sometimes part of it is that I don't really know how to support them in those other languages because I don't speak those other languages.

By reflecting on their own identities, Erica and Joselyn seemed to be working to better understand their students’ needs and experiences.

While Erica and Joselyn contrasted their experiences from those of their students, Monica shared many similarities between her own experiences and those of her students. On many occasions, Monica reflected on her own identity as a bilingual individual from an immigrant family and commented on how this helped her to understand what her students and families may be experiencing. This related to the ways she thought about supporting her students with academic skills as well as thinking about their social-emotional well-being. For instance, she
described her experience with language acquisition and how that connected to her own reading development.

And so I really, [my mother] spoke Danish to me when I was really young. And so I have a good understanding, just how you pick up those sounds when you're really, really young. And I think then later, when I was in middle school, I would go to Denmark with my parents, and I couldn't understand a lot of what was being said, and that frustrated me. So I just had my mom speak Danish to me. But I was able to pick up very quickly, I think, because I was young hearing those sounds. So I think I have a really good understanding of just that language acquisition, coming as an immigrant family.

This demonstrates how Monica related to her students’ experiences of growing up learning more than one language as well as how knowledge of a language can impact one’s connection to family and culture. She further described the importance of the connection between language and one’s cultural identity relative to the families she worked with.

Because a lot go back to Mexico, like we would go back to Denmark, and just that they're able to connect to relatives down there and speak to them, I think. From what I'm hearing it's really important for those families to have their children in dual language programs. They seem very appreciative.

Monica here used her own experience to make sense of values that are important to the families she worked with, providing her with a perspective that is distinct from Erica and Joselyn.

Monica continued to describe how her experience growing up with two languages also impacted her school experiences.

And then reading, I was behind in reading when I was in elementary school. And I still remember I made it, like the honors list in sixth grade. But it took me several years to get
to that point, and I remember the first moment that I read when I was in first grade, it was a wonderful moment. So, but anyhow, I mean I had some ELL issues coming into play. And I don't think I really appreciated until I was an ELL para, and then I realized my experience and that connection. But for example, there was some discussion if I should receive speech services. And then, but my mom thought strongly that it was because I was a language learner and that came into play with it.

This reflection from Monica demonstrates an understanding of parents as advocates for their children as well as making sense of her own childhood experience. Further, this comment illustrated her understanding of how language development relates to literacy development. Although each participant had varied experiences and identity markers, each drew on their own identities in some way to make sense of the experiences of the students and families they worked with.

Patterns in the data aligned well with a priori themes regarding factors that contribute to teachers’ literacy instruction. Teachers’ comments revealed strategies they already used to promote language and literacy development among their students while also indicating school-centric beliefs about their students’ home literacy practices. Gaining these understandings along with a sense of teachers’ personal experiences related to language and literacy informed my coaching work with each teacher, allowing for a more individualized approach to providing PD aimed at increasing the use of translanguaging practices during literacy instruction.
CHAPTER FIVE

Single Case Results

This chapter presents the findings from the single case portion of the present study. The purpose of the single case portion of this study was to understand whether a functional relationship exists between professional development and special education teachers’ use of translanguaging when providing reading instruction to multilingual learners. Further, this study sought to evaluate the social validity of such professional development as well as translanguaging as means for supporting multilingual learners who receive special education services in reading. Therefore, the following research question was investigated:

1. Does 1:1 coaching with special education teachers who provide English-medium instruction lead to increased multilingual learning opportunities for multilingual learners with disabilities during literacy instruction?

Data analysis procedures are described along with detailed descriptions of teachers’ use of translanguaging during each phase of the study: baseline, workshop, and coaching phases.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed in two ways in order to provide a more complete understanding of the data while examining whether visual and statistical analyses substantiate one another (Brossart et al., 2018). First, visual analysis is described relative to phase length, trend, level, stability, and percentage of non-overlapping data points. Next, statistical analysis of the data is described using Tau-$U$. Next, the two forms of data analysis are discussed relative to one another. Finally, social validity measures are discussed.
**Visual Data Analysis**

Visual analysis supported formative and summative evaluation of the data. Formative visual analysis was used to make decisions regarding phase changes (Barton et al., 2018). Summative visual analyses not only indicated whether a functional relationship was established, but also provided information regarding the magnitude of the relationship. Examinations of trend, level, and stability indicated when phase changes were appropriate (Barton et al., 2018). When observed trends were zero accelerating and lacking in variability (and therefore stable), a phase change from baseline to the PD intervention was implemented. Further, to ensure experimental control, the onset of coaching was staggered across participants (Horner et al., 2005). Line graphs featuring the data for each participant were utilized to support visual analysis (Lane & Gast, 2014). Detailed descriptions of visual analysis procedures are provided below, including definitions of key terms used as part of data analysis.

**Length.** Length describes the number of sessions included within a single phase of data collection. A minimum of five data points were collected per phase, as recommended by Kratochwill (2010). While obtaining no fewer than five data points per phase is recommended, single case research also requires that data must be stable across a minimum of three data points, leading some phases to extend past the five data point minimum (Ledford & Gast, 2018). This type of visual analysis informed phase changes from baseline to workshop and workshop to coaching, while a decision to end coaching was made when participants reached mastery criterion, described below.

**Trend.** Trend has been described as “the slope and direction of a data series” (Ledford & Gast, 2018, p.185). An upward trend in this study would indicate that teachers are incorporating increased instances of translanguaging into their reading instruction. Therefore, phase changes
were not made from baseline to workshop or workshop to coaching if an upward trend was observed. An upward trend was acceptable in the coaching phase as long as participants met mastery criterion.

**Level.** Level has been defined as the magnitude or value of behavior observed (Lane & Gast, 2014). According to Ledford and Gast (2018), this is a less useful way of analyzing data due to the potential for influence from outliers, which can impact how well level accurately represents the data. However, it can be helpful to examine whether there are immediate changes in level in combination with phase changes. In the present study, it was hypothesized that changes in the use of translanguaging practices would gradually improve with each phase change, leading to an upward trend over time. Therefore, immediate changes in level were not anticipated.

**Stability.** Stability can be thought of as the variability or similarity of data points (Lane & Gast, 2014). It’s recommended to change phases when data is stable across three to five data points within a phase (Ledford & Gast, 2018).

Decisions regarding phase changes were made in the present study with these features of data analysis in mind. In addition, a mastery criterion was established to determine when the coaching phase would come to an end, with a criterion rate of 0.6 translanguaging practices used per minute across a minimum of three data points, with a minimum of five data points included in this phase.

**Percentage of Non-Overlapping Data.** Percentage of non-overlapping data (PND) is a method for calculating effect size by examining overlapping data points between baseline and intervention phases in single case research (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1998). A high percentage of non-overlapping data (above 90%) indicates a highly effective intervention, while a percentage
ranging from 70% - 90% would be considered effective, with lower percentages offering less
evidence to support particular interventions. PND can be used between any two adjacent
conditions in single case research to determine effect size (Ledford & Gast, 2018). Therefore, in
the present study, PND was calculated to determine effect size of both the workshop as well as
coaching.

*Tau-U*

While single case research has traditionally utilized visual analysis alone, many scholars
have recently begun to advocate for a combination of visual and statistical analyses in single case
research (Brossart et al., 2018). Reliability is enhanced when visual and statistical analyses are in
agreement. Tau-\(U\) (Parker et. al, 2011) offers one approach to statistical analysis within single
case research and can be used to calculate baseline trend as well as intervention effects between
phases (Brossart et al., 2018). Tau-\(U\) effect size calculations can be interpreted according to the
following guidelines: 0.20 indicates a small effect, between 0.20 and 0.60 indicates a medium-
sized effect, between 0.60 and 0.80 indicates a large effect, and above 0.80 indicates a very large
effect (Vannest & Ninci, 2015).

*Social Validity*

A social validity questionnaire was developed to evaluate teachers’ satisfaction with a
workshop session and ongoing coaching as forms of meaningful professional development in
terms of impact on their own learning and on instruction for multilingual learners with
disabilities. Data collection to address social validity is ongoing.
Results

Video Data

Videos of literacy instruction were recorded by teachers daily, with literacy instruction typically occurring Monday-Thursday each week. There were some exceptions due to absences, unanticipated interruptions, and required state testing. Further, there were 17 occasions where data was missing due to teachers forgetting to record, technology errors, or unanticipated interruptions. Across teachers, recorded reading lessons ranged in length from 13:41 – 36:31, with a few outliers. The range and mean lesson length for each teacher is seen in Table 5.1 below, along with outliers for each teacher. Outliers are those lessons that lasted significantly shorter or longer than bulk of the lessons from each participant and were not included in mean calculations. Given the varied length of lessons, translanguaging was calculated as a rate per minute.

Table 5.1

Video Data Lesson Length

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Baseline</th>
<th>Workshop</th>
<th>Coaching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Range Lesson Length</td>
<td>Mean Lesson Length</td>
<td>Range Lesson Length</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note. Graphs indicate number of translanguaging practices used per lesson by participant, calculated as rate per minute. Hash marks on the x-axis indicate where coaching sessions occurred. On Joselyn’s graph, circle markers on the graph indicate lessons taught on Mondays and Wednesdays with the group centered in coaching conversations while triangle markers
indicate lessons taught on Tuesdays and Thursdays. On Monica’s graph, circle markers indicate lessons taught at Eagle Crest Elementary and triangle markers indicate lessons taught at Dogwood Elementary.

**Visual Analysis Results**

Figure 5.1 provides a detailed line graph of each participant’s data. It shows the number of translanguaging practices used by each teacher during each literacy lesson, calculated as rate per minute. The graphs indicate each phase of the study: baseline, workshop, and coaching. As well, coaching sessions are marked on the graph with hash marks for each participant. Visual analysis of the data indicates that professional development contributed to changes in teachers’ use of translanguaging practices to varying degrees.

**Baseline Condition**

Throughout baseline, all participants used translanguaging at a rate of 0 practices per minute, with the exception of one lesson in which Joselyn used translanguaging at a rate of 0.16 practices per minute. This occurred during the third lesson out of a total of 21 baseline lessons. This demonstrates stable baseline data across participants at a rate of 0 translanguaging practices per minute for most of baseline.

**Workshop Phase**

At the onset of the workshop phase, each teacher participated in a workshop session focused on translanguaging pedagogy. Following the workshop, teachers received a copy of the presentation slides used in the workshop along with access to a document providing background information on different languages. Included with the workshop, each teacher was also given a set of bilingual books for classroom use. Books were matched to represent the languages spoken within the respective classrooms and schools. No other professional development or resources
were provided in this phase. In the workshop phase, each teacher used translanguaging in their instruction for at least one lesson. Workshop effects are described for each participant below.

**Erica.** Upon completing the workshop, Erica had an immediate change in level up to a rate of 0.45 translanguaging practices per minute before returning to her baseline level of translanguaging in a downward trend. A second increase was observed in this phase before again returning to baseline and demonstrating stability in her use of translanguaging. This demonstrates 33% non-overlapping data, providing limited evidence of an intervention effect (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1998).

**Joselyn.** Similar to Erica, Joselyn had an immediate change in level upon completing the workshop, although the change in level was smaller in magnitude. In her initial lesson after completing the workshop, she used translanguaging at a rate of 0.09 practices per minute and then returned to her baseline rate of 0 translanguaging practices per minute. She then remained stable at this rate. The percentage of non-overlapping data is 0%, demonstrating that the workshop had no effect.

**Monica.** After completing the workshop, Monica had a change in level as well, with changes in level occurring within the phase as well. A difference can be seen in the translanguaging practices Monica used across her two schools, with higher data points reflecting her work in the dual language schools. The percentage of non-overlapping data is 78%, indicating the workshop was an effective intervention for Monica (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1998).

**Coaching Phase**

At the onset of the coaching phase, each teacher participated in a 1:1 coaching session. Coaching sessions continued to be scheduled approximately weekly until participants met the
established mastery criterion rate of 0.6 translanguage practices per minute across three consecutive data points within a phase containing five or more data points total. Outside of coaching sessions, no other materials or resources were introduced to participants during this phase.

**Erica.** After the onset of coaching, Erica’s data was unstable, ranging from a rate of 0 to 1.46 translanguage practices per minute. An increase in use of translanguage practices followed the first two coaching sessions, but not the third. Although Erica’s data was widely variable, this demonstrates 27% non-overlapping data, providing limited evidence of an intervention effect (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1998).

**Joselyn.** Joselyn’s data demonstrated similar variability during the coaching phase. Increases in use of translanguage practices were observed after three of four coaching sessions Joselyn participated in, with a range from 0 to 2.38 translanguage practices per minute. This represents 40% non-overlapping data.

**Monica.** Coaching will begin as data permits.

**Tau-U Results**

Tau-U coefficients were calculated for each participant. As well, an omnibus effect size was calculated across all participants. Tau-U coefficients were calculated using an online calculator (Vannest et al. 2016), with coefficients presented in Table 5.2.
Table 5.2

Tau-U Coefficients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Tau-U</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Tau-U</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Tau-U</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Erica</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.266</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joselyn</td>
<td>-0.10</td>
<td>0.564</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.667</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monica</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.001*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. This table presents Tau-U coefficients and p values calculated for baseline trend as well as intervention effect sizes for workshop and coaching phases. *p < 0.05

**Erica.** When examining Erica’s within phase data, no baseline trend was present (\(\tau - U_{trend,A} = 0, p = 1\)). Phase contrast between the workshop intervention and baseline indicated a small effect size (\(\tau - U_{A vs.B} = 0.33, p = 0.266\)) according to Vannest and Ninci (2015), although not statistically significant. Phase contrasts between coaching and the workshop phase indicated no effect beyond that of the workshop (\(\tau - U_{B vs.C} = 0.27, p = 0.305\)).

**Joselyn.** Joselyn’s baseline data also indicated no trend was present (\(\tau - U_{trend,A} = -0.10, p = 0.564\)). Similar to Erica, the effects of the workshop were not statistically significant (\(\tau - U_{A vs.B} = 0.13, p = 0.667\)). Phase contrasts between coaching and the workshop phase indicated no effect beyond that of the workshop (\(\tau - U_{B vs.C} = 0.28, p = 0.391\)).

**Monica.** Again for Monica, no baseline trend was present (\(\tau - U_{trend,A} = 0, p = 1\)). However, the workshop intervention proved to be statistically significant for Monica (\(\tau - U_{A vs.B} = 0.78, p = 0.001*\)) with a large effect size (Vannest & Ninci, 2015).

**Tau-U Combined Effects.** In addition to calculating Tau-U phase contrasts for individual participants overall effect sizes were calculated. Across participants, an overall effect
size for the workshop intervention \( (\text{Tau} - U_{A \text{vs.} B} = 0.45, p = 0.005) \). This is a moderate effect according to Vannest & Ninci (2015), although not statistically significant. An overall phase contrast demonstrating indicated the coaching intervention had no effect \( (\text{Tau} - U_{A \text{vs.} B} = 0.28, p = 0.190) \).

**Agreement Between Visual Analysis and Tau-U Effect Sizes**

Visual analysis and Tau-\( U \) effect sizes are consistent with one another, with the workshop being an effective intervention for Monica only. Although coaching was not found to have an effect on teachers’ use of translanguaging practices, changes in teaching practice may take time and therefore coaching is ongoing.

**Understanding Findings Through Mixed Methods Single Case**

Examining the qualitative and single case findings together, we can gain a more complete understanding of each participant or case (Onghena et al., 2018). In the present study, the single case data indicates that the PD workshop session had a large effect size for Monica, but not for Erica or Joselyn. The integration of qualitative data provides additional context, with data demonstrating how Monica draws on her own identity as a bilingual educator and her regular practice of collaborating with colleagues to improve her understanding of her multilingual students’ reading behaviors and development. This suggests that teachers’ identity markers in this study informed their teaching practice in meaningful ways both prior to and during the PD intervention.
CHAPTER SIX

Discussion

The results of this study provide insight into special education teachers’ experiences and understandings related to supporting multilingual learners labeled as disabled. Further, this study offers an initial look at whether professional development in the form of a workshop and ongoing coaching focused on translanguaging pedagogy might be effective for teachers to begin taking up translanguaging during literacy instruction. This offers a unique contribution to the research, as this has not yet been examined within special education settings. While a functional relationship was not established between PD and translanguaging practice, several factors seemed to influence the effect of the intervention. Teachers’ preparation programs and prior PD experiences played a role in teaching practice, as did teachers’ identities and experiences as well as their beliefs. Features of the PD intervention did contribute to teachers’ use of translanguaging practices, as seen in increased use of translanguaging immediately following coaching sessions. However, aside from the effects of the workshop intervention on Monica’s use of translanguaging, the PD workshop and coaching intervention was not found to have a significant effect. Contributing factors are explored below and recommendations are made for teacher preparation and research.

Teacher Preparation

Although special educators commented on opportunities to learn strategies for supporting multilingual learners with disabilities, these opportunities were limited. Monica and Joselyn both shared that they had some opportunity to learn strategies for supporting multilingual learners labeled as disabled within their teacher preparation programs, though they offered limited detail as to what this entailed. Teachers shared more detail related to PD provided by their district,
although Erica reported that she hadn’t had opportunities to engage in these kinds of PD. This suggests that while teachers may have had opportunities to learn a few helpful tools and strategies, their teacher preparation programs and professional development opportunities were fairly limited in this area. This aligns with research documenting the absence of preparation for special educators to support multilingual learners (de Jong, 2013; Zeichner & Hoeft, 1996). This lack of preparation also helps to explain the lack of translanguaging observed in baseline data. These findings support a need for special education teachers to have consistent access to PD centering multilingual learners labeled as disabled, both within and beyond their teacher preparation programs.

Teacher Identity

Prior to beginning the PD intervention, interview data indicated that there were relationships between teacher’s beliefs, identities, and preparation/professional development and their teaching practices. This showed up in the ways in which teachers drew on their own identities and experiences to make sense of what their students experienced. In doing so, Erica and Joselyn contrasted their own experiences with those of their students. Erica commented on how writing came easily to her as a child, making it difficult for her to understand the challenges her students experienced and effectively teach writing. Joselyn reflected on her identity as a monolingual English speaker and shared that this made it challenging for her understand how to support students in different languages. Conversely, Monica shared how her own identity as a bilingual individual from an immigrant family overlapped with her students’ experiences, allowing her to draw from this experience to better understand her students. This may have contributed to the response Monica had to the workshop portion of the PD intervention, as she was the only participant to frequently use translanguaging practices in her literacy instruction.
following the workshop. These relationships between identity and personal experience and teachers’ ability to understand their students are important given the research indicating that educators’ assumptions and understandings of their students influence their teaching behaviors (Adair et al., 2017; Siuty et al., 2018). Findings here support previous recommendations for PD designed to help teachers reflect on their own identities and values while working to understand their students and design culturally and linguistically responsive instruction (García & Guerra, 2004; Li, 2013).

**Teacher Beliefs**

These differences in identity markers may have also contributed to teachers’ beliefs regarding their students’ language and literacy knowledge (Michaels, 1984; Valdés et al., 2011). For instance, when Monica spoke of her students’ vocabulary knowledge, she drew on her understanding of language development and shared an observation contrasting students in her two schools. She shared a reflection that students in the dual language school seemed to have more vocabulary knowledge, which she attributed to the support students in this school received to develop language and literacy skills across languages, opportunities the students at Dogwood Elementary didn’t have while at school. Erica also commented on vocabulary, although she approached this more from a deficit orientation, naming that her multilingual learners had more limited vocabularies compared to their monolingual English-speaking peers (Artiles, 1998). This may be connected to Erica’s own identity as a monolingual English-speaker with limited knowledge of Spanish.

**Intervention Characteristics**

Consideration of the factors described above is an important aspect of transformation coaching. Transformational coaching incorporates strategies from directive and facilitative
coaching, although it primarily aims to affect individuals’ behaviors, beliefs, and ways of being along with influencing systems situated within schools and larger educational contexts (Aguilar, 2013). While the coaching intervention provided to special educators in this study did aim to center teachers’ behaviors, beliefs, and ways of being while seeking to understand and influence educational systems, a more directive approach to coaching was often implemented due to the single case aspect of the study design. The nature of single case design required that the intervention be aimed at promoting translanguaging pedagogy across teachers, which therefore led to a more directive approach to coaching than desired. Therefore, I recommend that future research in this area focus on qualitative methods in the interest of centering a more authentic transformational coaching approach. This would allow for coaching to center teachers’ needs and teaching contexts with an aim to promote translanguaging when each teacher was prepared for such a focus.

**Understanding Teachers’ Needs and Contexts**

Teachers in this study would have likely benefited from this more authentic approach to transformational coaching, as it would have allowed for a greater focus on individualized areas of need rather than centering translanguaging throughout the intervention. For instance, during the study, Erica determined that her students’ needs were not being met by the district’s recommended curriculum. She decided to stop using the curriculum, and at that point she would have likely benefitted from coaching that would support her in determining a new foundation for literacy instruction. A solely qualitative study may have allowed for coaching to focus in this new area before shifting to consider what it might look like to increase opportunities for translanguaging during literacy instruction. Instead, maintaining a focus on translanguaging throughout PD seemed to be less effective, as Erica shared that she had just stopped following
the curriculum in our first coaching session. Without an instructional foundation to work from, there were no opportunities to discover how translanguaging might be infused throughout instructional routines and strategies. This also made it challenging to keep coaching closely linked to the curriculum, a feature of effective coaching described by Desimone and Stuckey (2014). It’s possible Erica would have experienced greater success implementing translanguaging practices had she been following a consistent approach to literacy instruction, as was observed with Joselyn and Monica.

Although Joselyn consistently implemented the same curriculum throughout the course of the study, other contextual factors appeared to contribute to her use of translanguaging practices. An examination of the coaching phase of Joselyn’s graph in Figure 5.1 reveals a similar inconsistent pattern to Erica. Joselyn’s video data reflected two alternating instructional groups, with one group meeting weekly on Mondays and Wednesdays and another group meeting on Tuesdays and Thursdays. Each of these groups included fifth graders, but they were reading at different levels and were therefore engaged in different lessons within the curriculum. Our coaching sessions centered conversations related to one of the two groups of students. Therefore, the graph reveals that Joselyn implemented translanguaging practices as planned during coaching, but was not yet independently planning to consistently implement translanguaging across her other groups which were not centered in coaching conversations. Further, the graph shows how Joselyn returned to her baseline level of implementation after our second coaching session after she had been out sick for a week. This trend with an increase in translanguaging immediately after a coaching session can be seen in Erica’s data as well, which may indicate teachers’ need for support in planning for translanguaging at an early stage in their learning.
Monica’s data looks different from Erica and Joselyn’s, with the consistent use of translanguaging practices observed following the workshop. Erica and Joselyn showed some use of translanguaging following the workshop, but data in this phase largely remained at baseline levels of implementation for both of these teachers. This difference may connect to Monica’s identity as a bilingual educator, where her personal experience allowed her to more effectively reflect on her learning from the workshop and begin implementing new practices to create opportunities for translanguaging (García & Guerra, 2004). Monica was also using a different curriculum than Erica and Joselyn which followed a consistent pattern across each lesson daily. This consistent routine for instruction may have facilitated her consistent approach to incorporating opportunities for translanguaging as well. This aligns with findings from Siuty et al. (2018) in which curriculum influenced teachers’ beliefs about their students’ abilities.

**Professional Development Aimed at Shifting Teachers’ Beliefs and Practice**

Transformational coaching was developed with an explicit goal of addressing teachers’ beliefs and assumptions along with leading to shifts in instructional practice (Aguilar, 2013). By centering each teacher’s practice, this approach to coaching allows for an individualized approach to coaching. However, given the more directive approach taken in this study in order to align with single case research methodology, coaching may not have sufficiently helped teachers to examine their own identities and beliefs, preventing teachers from unpacking their beliefs in a way that would allow them to feel comfortable and able to consistently plan for the use of translanguaging in their instruction. With this in mind, centering teachers’ beliefs and assumptions in coaching conversations is essential (Aguilar, 2013; Li, 2013; Siuty et al., 2018), especially if teachers are to be supported in better understanding the Community Cultural Wealth (Yosso, 2005) their students are bringing into the classroom. Increasing the focus on these
aspects of coaching within the present study may have led teachers to develop deeper understandings of their personal beliefs as well as their multilingual learners, which may have allowed them to better apply their new learning to plan for translinguaging during literacy instruction. As well, spending additional time participating in a coaching intervention may lead to greater learning and use of translinguaging, as participants in this study received no more than four coaching sessions. These aspects of the coaching intervention implemented in this study may have been insufficient to lead to significant changes in instruction.

**Duration of Intervention**

In addition to factors relating to each teacher, it is also important to consider that shifts in beliefs, behaviors, ways of being, and teaching practice take time (Knight, 2009; Wei et al., 2009). It’s possible that with extended access to a coaching intervention, transformational coaching may prove to be an effective approach to supporting special education teachers in taking up translinguaging pedagogy. Given the influence of policy and dominant narratives on teachers’ beliefs (Farr & Song, 2011), teachers in this study may have needed more time to fully examine their own beliefs and determine how to effectively and consistently change their teaching practice to become more culturally and linguistically responsive. Therefore, additional coaching may support participants in this study in further increasing their use of translinguaging practices.

**Limitations**

The present study contributes to the research by examining one approach to bringing translinguaging into special education settings through the use of a PD intervention. This study offered an important first step to explore what effective professional development might look like to support special educators in taking up translinguaging pedagogy. However, there are
limitations to the present study. First, although the mixed methods approach offered a way to effectively measure the effects of PD on teacher practice, the single case aspect of the study also limited the depth of coaching conversations typically afforded by transformational coaching. Engaging in transformational coaching through qualitative methods alone would provide greater opportunity to follow teachers’ lead and examine teachers’ behaviors, beliefs, and ways of being within the context of their varied school systems. This could have allowed for greater flexibility in terms of pacing for coaching and the timing for introducing translanguage pedagogy to better align with individual teachers’ coaching needs.

An additional limitation is that interviews were conducted with teacher participants only at the beginning of the study. Gathering interview data throughout the coaching process as well as social validity data upon intervention completion would provide a way of obtaining valuable information regarding the ways in which teachers’ beliefs and ways of being may shift as they participate in PD.

A final limitation in the present study is the poor IOA in coding teachers’ use of translanguage pedagogy practices, specifically relative to Erica’s videos. The differences in coding relative to three of Erica’s videos led to a reduced overall IOA to 77%. Although meetings were held between coders to discuss coding protocols and to establish and maintain consistency, poor agreement was noted near the end of the study. For similar studies in the future, additional work should be done prior to beginning the study to establish a high rate of agreement, ideally 90% or higher, before formal coding begins, with a return to coding pilot videos periodically to prevent observer drift (Ledford et al., 2018). In the case of the present study, limited pilot videos were available in order to reach agreement, therefore limiting opportunities to re-establish strong agreement.
Recommendations for Future Research

Although single case research provides a valuable method for establishing whether a functional relationship exists between an intervention and desired outcome, a more directive approach to coaching would be better suited to single case research. Future studies taking up transformational coaching should be designed with qualitative methods in order to allow for a more authentic implementation of this approach to coaching. Given the relationships between teachers’ beliefs and understandings about their students and teaching practice (de Valenzuela et al., 2016; García & Guerra, 2004), it is recommended to approach translanguaging pedagogy with a form of PD that is well suited to exploring beliefs along with teaching practice. Decoupling transformational coaching from the single case methodology would also allow teachers more time to participate in PD according to their individual needs.

Future research should also aim to gather additional qualitative data throughout the coaching process, as this would provide further information about the relationships among teachers’ beliefs, identities, and ways of being and understanding how ongoing professional development might contribute to shifts in and among these areas, as well as shifts in teaching practice. Prior research documents the importance of examining teachers’ beliefs as central to changing practice (Killion, 2009; Li, 2013). With this in mind, future research may make use of additional interview data, written reflections from teachers, and analyzing coaching conversations to obtain a more complete picture of beliefs and attitudes teachers hold as they engage in PD opportunities. This would allow for a more in depth exploration of any changes participants may experience in their beliefs and understandings of their own identities, their students, and language use.
Recommendations for Teacher Preparation

Similar to prior research, participants in this study indicated limited preparation for supporting multilingual learners with disabilities (de Jong, 2013; Zeichner & Hoeft, 1996). As seen in baseline data in the present study, teachers did not draw on translinguaging pedagogy as part of their regular teaching practice. Therefore, it is recommended that special education teacher preparation programs include coursework on translinguaging as well as other strategies for supporting language development. Given the larger number of multilingual learners attending U.S. schools (Sheng et al, 2011), including those receiving special education services (U.S. Department of Education, 2017), it is imperative that all teachers be prepared to serve this population of learners. Teacher preparation programs also play a vital role in disrupting deficit narratives. Such programs are positioned to support teacher candidates in examining their own identities and exploring their beliefs about diverse learners before candidates enter into school systems, which can better prepare teacher candidates to not only recognize the deficit narratives that are reproduced within our schools (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000), but also to develop strategies for disrupting such narratives. Translinguaging offers one such way special educators may be prepared to disrupt deficit orientations.
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Appendix A

Screening Questionnaire

By completing this questionnaire, you agree that Melissa McGraw, lead researcher, and her advisor, Roxanne Hudson, will have access to your responses.

Name:
Email:

1. In which type of classroom/setting do you currently teach literacy? Check all that apply.
   - Resource room
   - Push-in
   - Co-teaching
   - Self-contained

2. If you teach in self-contained setting, do your students primarily communicate verbally?
   - Yes
   - No

3. Do you fluently speak a language other than English?
   - Yes
   - No

4. Do you currently teach reading?
   - Yes
   - No

5. Do students in your reading group(s) speak languages other than English?
   - Yes
   - No

6. If you answered yes to the previous question, do students within your group(s) have shared linguistic backgrounds (e.g., two or more students speak a shared language)?
   - Yes
   - No

7. If you answered yes to the previous question, which languages are represented among students in your reading group(s)?

8. Do your students read/write/speak other languages when they participate in literacy instruction with you? If so, please provide a description of what this looks like.

9. In the event you are not selected for participation in this study, would you be interested in being contacted for possible participation in future, similar studies?

10. Is there anything else about your teaching context you’d like to share?
Appendix B

Participant Consent Forms

Promoting Bilingual Engagement in Special Education Classrooms Through Coaching

Investigator: Melissa McGraw, mcgram2@uw.edu, (206) 503-7316
Doctoral Student at the University of Washington

Faculty Advisor: Dr. Roxanne Hudson, rhudson@uw.edu

Investigator’s Statement

I am requesting your participation in a research study I am completing as part of my doctoral coursework at the University of Washington. The purpose of this consent form is to give you all the information needed to help you decide whether or not to participate in the study. Please read the form carefully. You may ask questions about the purpose of the research, what I plan on asking of you, the possible risks and benefits, your rights as a volunteer, and anything else about the research or this form that is not clear. When all your questions have been answered, you can decide if you want to be included the study or not. This process is called “informed consent.” I will give you a copy of this form for your records.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to determine whether a professional development workshop and ongoing coaching are effective at supporting special education teachers in learning about and applying translanguaging pedagogy. Translanguaging pedagogy involves designing instruction that provides opportunities for emergent bilingual students to engage in learning using all of their languages. This can be done even when teachers themselves are not bilingual. Further, this study is designed to gain an understanding of the ways special education teachers think about language use in the classroom.

PROCEDURES

If you choose to be in this study, I would like to interview you three times, observe your literacy instruction frequently, and engage in ongoing professional development together. Professional development will include a one-on-one workshop followed by ongoing weekly coaching sessions for approximately 6 weeks. Classroom observations will occur in person weekly, with video recorded lessons daily. Interviews will occur across the study, with the first taking place prior to professional development, the second after coaching has begun, and the final interview taking place once coaching has ended. I would like to audio-record interviews for later transcription. The interviews and observations will be completed with the goal of understanding your thinking about language use, understanding your thoughts about the professional development you are engaging in, and to describe what your instruction looks like relative to the professional development work.
I expect each interview to take between 1 hour and 90 minutes to complete. The workshop is expected to last approximately 1 hour, and weekly coaching sessions are expected to last between 45 minutes and 1 hour in length.

After completing this work, I plan to take this information, as well as information gained from other teachers who choose to participate, and write a paper for publication. Prior to this, I will share my findings with you to be sure I am depicting an accurate representation of your views, comments, and practices.

With your permission, I would like to audio-record your interviews and video-record your literacy instruction so that I can have an accurate record of our conversation and your teaching. I will transcribe interview recordings without identifiable information. A research assistant, my advisor, and myself will have access to the recordings, which will be stored on a secure drive. If you would like a copy of each interview transcript, I will gladly provide you with one.

**RISKS, STRESS, OR DISCOMFORT**

Some people feel that providing information for research is an invasion of privacy. I have addressed concerns for your privacy in the section below. Some people feel self-conscious when notes are taken or interviews are recorded. No personally identifiable information will be reported in the findings or shared with others at any point during this study beyond myself, my advisor, and a research assistant.

**BENEFITS OF THE STUDY**

I hope you will experience the professional development offered through this study as a personal benefit. In addition, I would like to offer you a gift card for $49.99 as well as a set of bilingual books for your classroom. More broadly, a benefit to this study is to begin to develop a body of research that is focused on creating more inclusive and equitable opportunities for students to engage in bilingual learning opportunities. Currently, students labeled as disabled have less access to bilingual instruction compared to their nondisabled peers. This study may inform teacher preparation programs as well as school-based coaching practices to address this inequity.

**OTHER INFORMATION**

Taking part in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate and you are free to withdraw from this study at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Information about you is confidential. I will assign you a pseudonym and code the study information. I will keep the link between your name and the pseudonym code in a separate, secured location until the study is complete. Then I will destroy the document linking your information to the pseudonym. If the results of this study are published or presented, I will not use your name, or any other identifying information.

I may want to re-contact you for future related studies. Please indicate below whether you give permission for me to re-contact you. Giving me permission to re-contact you does not obligate you in any way.

If you have any questions about this research study, please contact Melissa McGraw at the telephone number or email listed at the top of this form. If you have any questions about your
rights as a research subject, please contact my advisor overseeing this project: Dr. Roxanne Hudson at rhudson@uw.edu.

______________________________  ________________________________  ____________
Signature of investigator     Printed Name  Date

**Participant’s statement**

This study has been explained to me. I volunteer to take part in this research. I have had a chance to ask questions. If I have questions later on about the research, I can ask the investigator listed above. If I have questions about my rights as a research subject, I can contact Dr. Roxanne Hudson. I will receive a copy of this consent form.

____ I give permission for this researcher to audio-record my interviews.
____ I do NOT give my permission for the researcher to audio-record my interviews.

____ I give permission for this researcher to video-record my literacy instruction.
____ I do NOT give my permission for the researcher to video-record my literacy instruction.

____ I give permission for the researcher to re-contact me to clarify information.
____ I do NOT give permission for the researcher to re-contact me to clarify information.

______________________________  ________________________________  ____________
Signature of participant     Printed Name  Date

Copies to:  Investigators’ file
            Participant
Dear Parent or Guardian,

I am writing to inform you about some classroom observations and video recording that will occur in [teacher’s] class. This letter explains the purpose of the observations and recording, what it will entail for your child, and how the video will be used. A consent form for your child’s participation is at the bottom of this letter.

I am a graduate student in the University of Washington’s College of Education. I am also an experienced elementary school special education teacher. Currently, I am studying how special education teachers can create opportunities for their bilingual students to use all of their languages as they learn. This study is intended to offer support to teachers to create opportunities for students to speak, read, and write in different languages during reading instruction. To do this I would like to observe literacy instruction and video-record reading lessons in your child’s classroom daily for approximately 12 weeks. Videos will be stored on a secure drive that only myself, my university advisor, your child’s teacher, and a research assistant will have access to. You and your child may refuse to participate and are free to withdraw from participation at any time without penalty.

No extra time will be asked of your child during or after class. These observations and recordings will be of great help to my research, though I understand you or your child may be uncomfortable with them being recorded. As I view each recording, I plan to note strategies your child’s teacher is using to create opportunities for students to use different languages in the classroom. I also plan to interview your child’s teacher to better understand how they think about literacy instruction and language in the classroom. The results of this study may help other teachers use similar strategies to promote bilingualism and biliteracy in special education classrooms.

I am willing to answer any questions you might have about this important work. You may also contact Dr. Roxanne Hudson, who is my faculty advisor.

Thank you,

Melissa McGraw
mcgram2@uw.edu

Dr. Roxanne Hudson
rhudson@u.washington.edu
Please return this form by [insert date here].

Observations and Video Recordings

☐ YES, I give my consent for my child to be present during classroom observations during literacy instruction.
☐ NO, I do not give my consent for my child to be present during classroom observations during literacy instruction.

☐ YES, I give my consent for my child to be included in video recordings during literacy instruction.
☐ NO, I do not give my consent for my child to be included in video recordings during literacy instruction.

☐ YES, I give my consent for my child to be referenced in any publications that result from this study. His/Her/Their first name will be replaced with a pseudonym if referenced in any papers published regarding the study.
☐ NO, I do not give my consent for my child to be referenced in any publications that result from this study even though his/her/their last name and other identifiers will be removed to protect privacy.

___________________________________
PRINT Parent/Guardian’s full name

___________________________________
Parent/Guardian’s signature
Description of Student Assent Process

Although most students are not considered participants in this research, they are involved in the classroom observation aspects of this project. I will visit each class in-person to verbally describe the purpose of my work to all students using the script below:

I work with teachers who want to improve their teaching. I am also interested in how teachers work with bilingual students. Over the next several weeks, I will be in your classroom regularly during reading instruction to notice how your teacher creates opportunities for you to use your different languages while you learn. I will also ask your teacher to record reading lessons so that I can view the videos later on.

While I’m in the classroom, I’ll be taking notes about what I see you and your teacher doing in reading. I might listen in on some of your discussions or look at the work you are completing and take notes about what I see and hear. In my notes, I will not use your name, and I will not share your name with anyone; I will use a made-up name to describe your work instead. I hope to use this information to help other teachers learn how to work with bilingual students.

I would like to know if you are comfortable being present while I observe in your classroom and being included in videos or my notes. Please be honest with your permission. It is okay to say no. You will still participate in the reading lessons whether you check ‘yes’ or ‘no,’ but if you pick ‘no’ I will not include in videos or in my notes. Below, please put a check mark on yes or no for being included in the video and my notes. Also, during these lessons, you can tell me if you don’t want to be included in videos or my notes, even if you checked ‘yes.’ Does anyone have a question?

Each student will be given a slip of paper with the following assent form. They can opt-out (‘NO’) even if their parent or guardian opts them in (‘YES’). However, if their parent/guardian opts their child out (‘NO’), then they will be excluded from data collection even if students themselves opt-in (‘YES’).
Student Permission Slip

Student Name: _____________________ Teacher Name: ___________________

Put an X in the ‘yes’ or ‘no’ box. Please tell me or your teacher if you change your mind later.

**Video Recording**

- ☐ YES, you can include me in video recordings.
- ☐ NO, I do not want you to include me in video recordings.

**Notes**

- ☐ YES, you can use a pretend name to describe me in your notes.
- ☐ NO, I do not want you to describe me in your notes, not even with a pretend name.

Write your name: ___________________________ Date: __________

*Assent Form (Students) Version 1 (11-30-13)*
### Appendix C

**Workshop Fidelity Checklist**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date:</th>
<th>Teacher Pseudonym:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Fidelity (Y/N)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Translanguaging was defined</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast practice vs. pedagogy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe benefits and affordances of translanguaging</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Describe inequities for students in special education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Watch and discuss video example of translanguaging in a classroom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Describe ways to bring translanguaging into the classroom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Materials</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Opportunities to draw upon linguistic resources</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Writing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Text choice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Compare/contrast languages</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Translation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Collaboratively plan a lesson</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q&amp;A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Features included: __/7

Implementation (number of features included/7 x 100): __%
## Coaching Intervention Fidelity Checklist

Coaching Fidelity: Session # __  
Teacher Pseudonym: 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Fidelity (Y/N)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>View meeting agenda</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offer an opportunity to revise agenda</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review prior meeting’s discussion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discuss recent literacy instruction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Offer specific feedback</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Engage in discussion focused on reflection</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plan upcoming lesson(s)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Set a goal for next coaching session</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop agenda for next coaching session</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Features included: ___/7  
Implementation (number of features included/7 x 100): ___%
Appendix D

Social Validity Questionnaire

Use these guidelines to rate the following aspects of the intervention:

1 - not at all satisfied  
2 – somewhat satisfied  
3 – satisfied  
4- very satisfied

Initial Workshop Session

1. Overall, how satisfied were you with the workshop session in supporting your understanding of translanguaging pedagogy?

   1  2  3  4

2. Overall, how satisfied were you with the workshop session in supporting your ability to take up translanguaging pedagogy?

   1  2  3  4

3. How satisfied are you with the impact the workshop session had on your instruction?

   1  2  3  4

4. How satisfied are you with the structure of the workshop as a form of meaningful professional development (independent of coaching)?

   1  2  3  4

Ongoing Coaching

5. Overall, how satisfied were you with the ongoing coaching in supporting your understanding of translanguaging pedagogy?

   1  2  3  4

6. Overall, how satisfied were you with the ongoing coaching in supporting your ability to take up translanguaging pedagogy?

   1  2  3  4

7. How satisfied are you with the impact the ongoing coaching had on your instruction?

   1  2  3  4
8. How satisfied are you with the structure of the ongoing coaching as a form of meaningful professional development? 

1 2 3 4

Short Answer Questions

9. What aspects of the workshop session or ongoing coaching, if any, were most useful for your learning?

10. What aspects of the workshop session or ongoing coaching, if any, hindered your learning?

11. Are there any aspects of the workshop session or ongoing coaching that you would have changed?

Yes/No Responses

12. Would you recommend the workshop PD session to other special education teachers who work with multilingual learners?

Yes No

13. Would you recommend the ongoing coaching to other special education teachers who work with multilingual learners?

Yes No
Appendix E

Interview 1 Protocol

Preamble:

I want to thank you again for agreeing to participate in this study. This project is focused on literacy, so I’d like to begin to understand how you think about literacy instruction, in particular for your emergent bilingual learners. When I was teaching, the majority of my students were emergent bilinguals, so I’m really interested in how other special education teachers plan instruction for these students. As we continue our work together, I look forward to learning more about the strategies and practices you use with your students. As you consider each question, I’d like to hear your honest responses. That said, if there are parts of the interview that are particularly sensitive, or if you’d like to stop the interview at any time, please let me know.

Because I am just getting to know you, I expect this interview to take 60-90 minutes. If you’d like to take a break at any time during the interview, please let me know. As I mentioned previously, I’d like to record this interview so that I can listen to your responses later for transcription. Do you consent to an audio recording?

Questions:

1. I’d like to start by getting to know a little bit about you. Can you please tell me how you became a teacher? And how you came to teach here? Probe for: years of experience, languages spoken, how ended up working with this population…

2. I’d also like to know about the students you teach. Can you tell me a little bit about your students? Probe for: languages spoken, engagement with reading, disability labels, how long they’ve been in special education…

3. What kinds of opportunities have you had to learn about instructional practices that support language development when teaching emergent bilingual learners? Probe for: content in teacher preparation program, PD opportunities, self-directed learning…

4. Many of your students are emergent bilingual learners. I’m curious what you notice about your students’ linguistic knowledge. How you see your students drawing on their knowledge of two or more languages?

5. Tell me about your students’ home literacy practices. What do you know about how your students engage with literacy at home?

6. To your knowledge, how are your students’ families involved in their literacy development?

7. That gives me a good sense of students’ literacy experiences at home. I’d also like to understand what literacy experiences look like at school. What practices do you use during reading instruction to support students’ language and literacy development?
8. You mentioned using ___ and ___ to support language development. How do these practices support your language/reading goals for your students?

9. Please also describe how these practices support instruction relative to students’ disability labels.

10. How do you go about developing IEPs and writing goals for your bilingual learners?

11. Thinking back to your professional development experiences, I’m also curious about how teachers are supported to serve emergent bilingual students labeled as disabled. How has the professional development you’ve received applied to emergent bilingual learners with disabilities specifically, if at all?

12. In what ways, if any, did you notice your instruction change as a result of this professional development?

13. Finally, what opportunities do students have to read and engage in other languages during literacy instruction in your classroom? School?

Closing: Thank you so much for making time to speak with me today. I appreciate the opportunity to learn from you about the work you do with your students. As we continue working on this project together, we will be able to engage in professional development through a workshop, followed by coaching. I have two more interviews planned, which I expect to take approximately one hour each to complete. Do you have any questions about next steps for this project?

   Based on your responses here, I plan to type up a summary of what I heard and share it with you electronically. That will provide us with an opportunity to confirm that I understood your responses correctly and clarify any misunderstandings. My goal is to accurately represent your thinking throughout this study.
Appendix F

Single Case Data Collection Form

Teacher/Participant ID: 
Date: 
Observer: 
Observation #: 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translanguaging Practices</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Examples</strong></td>
<td><strong>Nonexamples</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• See Codebook</td>
<td>• See Codebook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opportunities to draw on full linguistic repertoire</th>
<th>Conversations about language</th>
<th>Teacher Talk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FR</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>TT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observation Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Timestamp/Code/Description:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total Length of Lesson (minutes: seconds):
Total seconds:
Rate Per Minute: (Number of practices/total seconds) x 60 =
## Appendix G

**Single Case Codebook**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Non-example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FR: Full Linguistic Repertoire</td>
<td>Opportunities for students to use their full linguistic repertoires to engage in <strong>reading, speaking, listening, or writing</strong> during literacy instruction</td>
<td>Opportunities to use full linguistic repertoires initiated by someone other than a student or the teacher (e.g., paraeducator, someone over the intercom)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher (or a peer) asks: How do you say __ in __? (This would also be coded as C: conversation because this involves a direct translation)</td>
<td>Proper nouns (e.g., names of people, places)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Explicit invitations from the teacher for students to engage in reading, speaking, or writing using their full linguistic repertoire (e.g., “Feel free to speak to your partner in English or Spanish…”; regardless of whether students accept the invitation)</td>
<td>Asking one student to translate directions into another language for a peer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Invitations to brainstorm words in different languages that have particular characteristics (e.g., certain sounds represented, multiple meanings, different spelling patterns)</td>
<td>Students speaking another language socially (e.g., as they enter the room) rather than as part of the lesson (Once students sit down for the lesson we’ll count all instances of translanguaging)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Each new turn in a conversation will be coded with a new timestamp (e.g., if the teacher says something in Spanish and then a student does afterward, each turn will be coded as FR)</td>
<td>Students saying something that may not be in English, but not intelligible to confirm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C: Conversations About Language</td>
<td>Leading explicit conversations about language (e.g., interpreting or translating at the word/phrase/sentence/paragraph level, discussing cognates, comparing/contrastings languages in terms of grammar/syntax/spelling)</td>
<td>Commenting about sounds/spelling patterns in English without making a connection to a different language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Continuing comments about the same feature of language that has already been coded as C (e.g., at 1:05 discussion about vowel sounds in different languages and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **TT: Teacher Talk** | Conversations about differences in punctuation or orthography across languages  
Teacher (or a peer) asks: How do you say ___ in ___? (This would also be coded as FR: full linguistic repertoire because it requires students to think about their knowledge of other languages)  
 at 2:10 discussing that same topic; *however, discussion about a different feature of language would count as a new conversation code) | Teacher talk where teachers may says/read aloud one or more **words** from a different language to make connections, name vocabulary words, or clarify directions  
Asking a new question or making a new statement in a language other than English (fully or partially) in a separate conversational turn  
Repeating students’ comments made in a different language in connection to the lesson  
Teacher repeating the same word/question/statement just made by teacher (Teacher repeats her own directions) in a language other than English (either immediately or upon student request)  
Teacher naming letter sounds in a different language (focused on letter level only) |


Appendix H

Workshop Objectives

The image below shows a slide used during the workshop with each participant.

Workshop Objectives

By the end of this workshop, you will be able to:

- **Define** translinguaging
- **Describe** strategies teachers can use to promote translinguaging in the classroom
- **Plan** a lesson for your students that promotes translinguaging