



GETTING DOWN — TO FACTS II —

Technical Report

Teaching English Learners in California: How Teacher Credential Requirements in California Address their Needs

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About: The *Getting Down to Facts* project seeks to create a common evidence base for understanding the current state of California school systems and lay the foundation for substantive conversations about what education policies should be sustained and what might be improved to ensure increased opportunity and success for all students in California in the decades ahead. *Getting Down to Facts II* follows approximately a decade after the first *Getting Down to Facts* effort in 2007. This technical report is one of 36 in the set of *Getting Down to Facts II* studies that cover four main areas related to state education policy: student success, governance, personnel, and funding.

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Abstract

The underperformance of English Language Learners (ELs) in test scores and high school graduation rates raises important questions about teacher preparation in California. A small, but growing body of evidence suggests that teachers of ELs need specialized knowledge, dispositions and practices to effectively teach this population. ELs in the state are disproportionately more likely to be taught by novice or early-career teachers. Therefore, it is of particular concern that teachers in California enter classrooms adequately prepared. This study uses qualitative research methods to explore to what extent is teaching ELs addressed in credential requirements in California, and to what extent does the process require teachers demonstrate proficiency teaching ELs. The analysis finds that teaching ELs is a prevalent theme in preliminary credential program standards, and to lesser extent induction standards. Overall, however, the process has only a few external assessment points (mostly in the preliminary stage) that would allow independently verifying whether teachers implement EL-specific practices and knowledge. Induction especially lacks a clear focus on ELs. Proficiency in induction program standards is assessed through teacher self-reports. These are formative in nature, and have no real consequences as induction requires teachers to show growth only, not mastery. Mentors, by virtue of their qualifications or training could serve as quality controls, but whether they are able to fulfill this function is left to the individual programs to decide. This study provides further evidence that teachers of ELs may not receive adequate training in specialized knowledge and practices needed to teach this population. Results from this work can inform policies in California and other states that are grappling with how to better prepare mainstream teachers to educate linguistic minority students.

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Introduction

Close to five million students in the United States, or about one in ten public school students, are designated as English Language Learners (ELs).¹ California has the highest proportion of ELs of all states—close to one quarter of all public student ELs in the nation attend California schools.² Federal legislation requires that ELs participate in language assistance programs to help them attain English proficiency, while at the same time meeting the same academic standards that all students are expected to meet. Meeting these two goals is one of the most daunting challenges of today's public schools. Most ELs across the nation lag behind their non-EL peers in every measure of standardized achievement.³ In California, 72 percent of ELs in the class of 2015/16 graduated from high school, compared to 83 percent for all students statewide.⁴

While many ELs are socio-economically disadvantaged, an important part of the story of EL underachievement has to do with state policy and school practices. Research has shown that ELs are systematically excluded from access to key core content, tracked into lower level, non-college preparatory courses in secondary school, and exposed to classroom practices that result in less opportunity-to-learn (Callahan, 2005; Dabach & Callahan, 2011; Estrada & Wang, 2017; Umansky et al., 2015).

California schools are highly segregated. According to a recent report by The Civil Rights Project, close to 57 percent of Latino students in California attend schools where over 90 percent of the students are non-white (Orfield et al., 2016) Obviously not all Latino students are English Learners, but the proportion of ELs that are Latino is very high, over 80 percent (CDE, 2017). As Figure 1 shows, the bottom twenty percent of the schools in California have low EL enrollment: only 6 percent of the student body is designated EL. At the other end, the top twenty percent has a student body that is close to 40 percent EL.

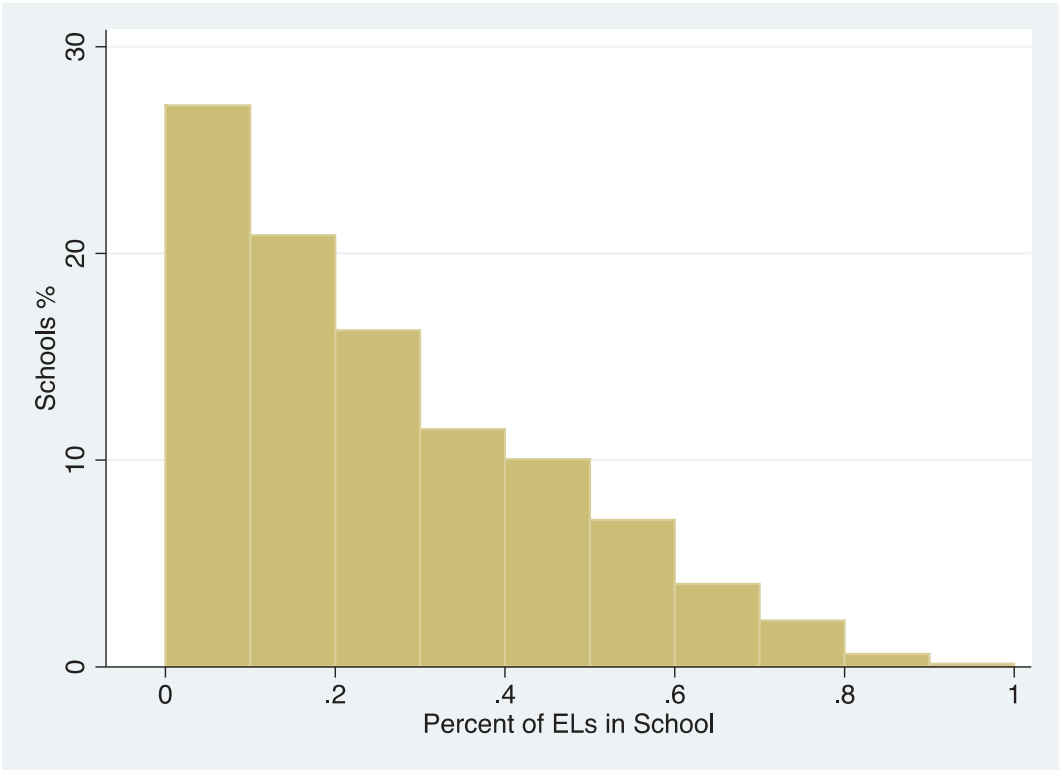
¹ We refer in this paper to students who speak a language other than English at home as "English Learners," although a more preferred term may be "emergent bilinguals." Several scholars who study ELs have begun to use this terminology first proposed by Garcia (2009). Garcia, and others, assert that ELs are more accurately described as *emergent bilinguals* given their "potential in developing their bilingualism." Because we don't have a good way of gauging whether these students are in fact developing their bilingualism, we use "ELs" in this paper, while acknowledging that the term could carry some deficit-connotations.

² Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Common Core of Data (CCD), "Local Education Agency Universe Survey," 2000-01 through 2015-16. (This table was prepared October 2017.) Available at <https://nces.ed.gov/ccd/elsi/>

³ A simple reason for this underperformance has to do with how the EL group is constructed. In most states, students will remain classified as ELs until they can show minimum scores on language proficiency tests and academic content standards – in addition to other measures. Thus almost by definition, a large proportion of ELs are performing below satisfactory on standardized tests, because anytime a student achieves an above proficiency score on a content standard test, she is likely to be exited from EL status and no longer be counted as part of the EL subgroup for achievement reporting purposes.

⁴ Source: CDE, 2017. "State Schools Chief Tom Torlakson Reports New Record High School Graduation Rate and Sixth Consecutive Year of an Increase." Release #16-38. May 17, 2016."

Figure 1. Histogram of Schools in California by Percent EL Enrollment (2011)



Source: Author's own elaboration with data from the CDE.

It is in these high EL enrollment schools where achievement tends to be lowest. Data from the California Department of Education (CDE) shows that schools where the majority of the students score proficient or above on the California Standards English Language Arts (ELA) or the Mathematics test have significantly lower EL enrollments than schools who perform worse (see Table 1).

Table 1. English Learner Population by School and Teacher Characteristics

	Average School EL Student Enrollment
Schools where >50% of students score proficient or above in ELA Standard Tests	18%
Schools where <50% of students score proficient or above in ELA Standard Tests	38%
Schools where >50% of students score proficient or above in Math Standard Tests	24%
Schools where <50% of students score proficient or above in Math Standard Tests	29%
Schools with median teacher experience between 0-5 years	33%
Schools with median teacher experience \geq 10 years	25%

Source: Own analysis with CDE school-level data for 2011

Teachers play a central role in student learning (OECD, 2005). Thus, one explanation for the low EL achievement rests with teachers. There is a body of evidence to suggest that teachers need a specialized set of skills and dispositions to effectively teach ELs (Faltis & Valdés, 2016; Lucas, Villegas, & Freedson-Gonzalez, 2008; Menken & Antuñez, 2001; Santos, Darling-Hammond, & Cheuk, 2012), and that teacher preparation programs are not equipping new teachers with these skills (Coady, Harper, & de Jong, 2016; de Jong & Harper, 2005).

In California, ELs are likely to be exposed to teachers with lower qualifications (i.e. emergency permits or credentials) (Gándara, Maxwell-Jolly, & Driscoll, 2005; Gándara, Rumberger, Maxwell-Jolly, & Callahan, 2003). In addition, teachers who have fewer than 5 years experience are more likely to work in schools with higher proportions of ELs relative to teachers with 10 years of experience or more (see Table 1).

This means that many new teachers in California are likely to encounter classrooms with significant academic and English language proficiency challenges, and multiple ELs (at various levels) in the classroom. This raises the stakes for teacher preparation to ensure newly credentialed teachers are prepared for the demands of teaching ELs well.

In 1998, California voters approved Proposition 227, which banned bilingual education in the state. This policy meant that ELs who were previously in bilingual classrooms, taught by

specialist (bilingual) teachers were now to be placed in mainstream English-only classrooms and taught using sheltered or structured English immersion (SEI) by non-specialist teachers. To deal with this new policy environment California teacher preparation programs made significant changes to their credential offerings. To ensure all teachers would be capable of teaching to ELs, as of 2004 all teachers in the state receive an EL authorization embedded within the basic preliminary credential.⁵ This authorization is earned based on teacher preparation coursework and has been sometimes referred to as the "infused credential" model (Lopez & Santibañez, 2018).⁶

The embedded EL authorization means that EL student needs and outcomes are addressed throughout teacher credentialing in California in both the preliminary credential and the induction phase. This focus on ELs, particularly at the preliminary stage (as we will see later on), means that teachers come out of teacher preparation programs (TPPs) feeling quite optimistic about their ability to meet the instructional needs of ELs. Respondents on the 2017 CTC survey of program completers reported a mean rating of 4.4 (on a 1-5 scale where 1 is "not at all," and 5 is "very well") when asked how well their teacher preparation program prepared them to meet the instructional needs of English learners (see Table 2). Eighty-five percent of respondents felt their teacher preparation program had prepared them well or very well to "meet the instructional needs of ELs." This was the only question related to ELs in the CTC surveys. This initial optimism appears to wane after teachers go through their first year in the classroom. A survey of induction program completers found that the proportion that felt their program had prepared them well or very well went down to 75 percent. Still, the majority of new teachers report relative confidence about their ability to teach ELs.

⁵ The Preliminary Credential is required of any teacher who wishes to teach in California's public schools, and it is valid for five years. Two options exist: the Multiple Subject (typically K-6th) or Single Subject (typically 6th through 12th) Credential. These credentials involve similar requirements. Both can be earned either through the "traditional" route (i.e. earning a credential before taking on full duties as a classroom teacher) or the internship route (i.e. earning a credential while employed as a classroom teacher and after only a "preservice" training period of 120 hours of coursework). See: <https://www.ctc.ca.gov/docs/default-source/commission/coded/030017/030017.pdf>

⁶ Teachers holding out-of-state credentials or credentials issued prior to 2001 can earn an English Learner authorization by taking the California Teacher of English Learners (CTEL) exam and taking CTETL coursework. Previously, these requirements were part of the Cross-cultural, Language, and Academic Development (CLAD) certificate.

Table 2. CTC Completers Opinions about Meeting Needs of English Learners

	Preliminary- Multiple subjects	Preliminary- Single subjects	Induction
Well + very well	85%	79%	75%
Adequately + poorly + not at all	15%	21%	25%

Source: “Credential Program Completer Surveys” (2017).

Available at: <https://www.ctc.ca.gov/educator-prep/completer-surveys>. Question: How well did your TPP prepare you do....Meet the instructional needs of English Learners?

Preliminary- Multiple subjects: N=4,213. Response Rate: 96.7%.

Preliminary- Single subjects: N=2,699. Response Rate: 97%.

Induction: N=10,151. Response Rate: 94.9%.

Veteran teachers, on the other hand, tell a different story. A survey conducted in 2015 among novice and veteran LAUSD teachers found that more than half of surveyed teachers felt their TPP had not equipped them well to teach ELs in areas such as organizing instruction to meet the needs of ELs and non-ELs in the same classroom, tailoring instruction to ELs with multiple levels of English proficiency, or using assessment data to inform teaching (Gándara & Santibañez, 2016). These results mirror those of previous research using state survey data (Gándara et al., 2005). Both Gándara and Santibañez and Gándara, Maxwell-Jolly and Driscoll, however, use surveys that report on a subset of teachers only—either because they use convenience samples or because they report results from one district only.

The fact that EL student needs are addressed throughout the credentialing process in California raises an important question. If teacher preparation "infuses" training for ELs, why does a significant proportion of teachers feel unprepared to teach them once they get to the classroom? This paper attempts to further our understanding of this question. We focus on how teachers in California are prepared to teach ELs. We describe the preliminary (preservice) credential process, but devote most of our focus to the induction phase--once new teachers face the real-world realities of teaching multiple ELs and non-ELs in the same classroom.

To date there have been few studies of how teacher preparation prepares teachers to effectively teach ELs in California. One important barrier to conducting these studies is the lack of suitable data. Currently, there is no statewide database in California linking teacher preparation data to school and student outcome data. This prevents answering basic questions such as how teachers with specific preparation, i.e. bilingual training or student-teaching experiences, are sorted across classrooms with different concentrations of ELs or whether any of these characteristics predict EL reclassification and performance. Some districts allow researchers access to of linked data, but obtaining access is difficult.⁷

⁷ GDTFII researchers, including the author, requested CDE linked teacher-student data for this study, but the request was denied by the CDE. We also requested teacher preparation and completer data from CTC, but at the time of writing this paper had not yet received this information. CDE will make available to the author individual teacher-

Consequently, little is known about how well teachers are being prepared to address the unique needs of EL students. What we know comes from surveys of teacher perception and self-efficacy including data from the Schools and Staffing Survey (Lopez & Santibañez, 2018) or surveys designed and administered by researchers (Gándara et al., 2005; Gándara & Santibañez, 2016) or the CTC.

Given these data limitations, this study uses a qualitative research design to answer two simple, but important questions. First, to what extent is the teaching of ELs addressed by credential requirements? And second, to what extent does the credentialing process require that teachers demonstrate proficiency teaching ELs? Both questions rest on the simple premise that teacher preparation has a lower likelihood of developing teachers into effective teachers of ELs if the process does not warrant that teachers develop these skills.

To answer these questions, we conducted a comprehensive document review and content analysis of CTC teacher preparation requirements and standards for teacher credentialing at the preliminary and induction ("clear") phase. This analysis is complemented using data from a small-scale qualitative case study of one university-based induction program in Southern California, as well as interviews with induction-related personnel from three other induction programs.

The analysis finds that despite the fact that teaching ELs is a prevalent theme in preliminary credential program standards, and to a lesser extent induction standards, the State has set a low bar for teachers to demonstrate actual proficiency in teaching ELs.

The case of induction is of particular concern, because it is precisely in induction where teachers are in the classroom and can put in practice what they learned during the preliminary phase. Because induction entails support by a coach that observes instruction and can provide feedback, it has been found to be a particularly useful tool to improve instruction (Ingersoll, 2012). Our analysis suggests, however, that in terms of teaching ELs, induction is a missed opportunity. The California Standards for the Teaching Profession (CSTPs), supplementary materials to the CSTPs ("Continuum of Teaching Practice," 2012), and program-specific documents include many references to ELs. However, many of these are embedded in tasks that call for teachers to attend to larger actions such as attending to student's diverse learning needs. And in the documents we reviewed of candidates moving through induction, no task was solely focused on ELs.

Further, there are no formal procedures in induction to assess proficiency teaching ELs. Induction is highly personalized and teacher-driven. Proficiency is often assessed through teacher self-reports. The ratings teachers give themselves are formative in nature, and have no real consequences as induction requires teachers to show growth only, not mastery. As long as teachers complete all assignments, meet with their induction coach, and show some progress in the standards, they will clear their credential. Coaches serve an important function as

level data linked over time from 2009/10 through 2016/17, linked to schools which can be used to complement this paper and/or support future analyses.

"warrantors" of teacher proficiency, but many are not specifically trained to help teachers increase their skill teaching ELs. In addition, all assessments and evaluations of teacher proficiency are internal to the induction program. This low bar for demonstrating proficiency teaching ELs at both the preliminary phase and the induction phase means that California has little assurance that novice teachers can actually teach ELs.

Two other findings of this study are worth noting because they help highlight the "missed opportunities" in induction. First, induction treats ELs as a monolithic group. Teachers can satisfactorily go through induction without ever having to account for how the varying levels of EL proficiency in their classes will impact their instructional strategies. This is further evidenced by many requirements throughout the credentialing process asking teachers to focus on one particular EL, or to show evidence of teaching in classrooms with at least one EL (at the preliminary phase).

Second, our fieldwork revealed that most teachers did not have timely, accurate information about their EL students and their proficiency levels at the beginning of the school year. Further, even when teachers received the information, they had little actionable knowledge about what to do with it. During induction, teachers receive little guidance either formally (through the written tasks and requirements) or informally (through guided interactions with the coach) to effectively teach ELs of varying language proficiency in their classroom.

One major implication that derives from this study is that preliminary and induction requirements need to be strengthened to focus on actions of teaching ELs that the literature suggests are important, such as: how to use information about language proficiency for instructional decisions, how to differentiate by language proficiency level, how to organize instruction for ELs and non-ELs in the same classroom, and how to work with families to support EL academic progress.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 begins with a general framework and literature on "effective teaching" for ELs that is used to guide the analysis used in the remaining sections of the paper. This section also discusses how skills to effectively teach ELs are addressed in teacher preparation, and how induction is expected to "bridge" preservice coursework and clinical practice and in-service, classroom practice. Section 3 reviews the requirements for the two phases of credentialing in California (earning a preliminary and clear credential). Section 4 discusses the methods and data used in the analysis. Section 5 contains the results of our analysis to answer the first research question and Section 6 answers the second research question. Section 7 provides concluding remarks and implications for policy in the state of California.

Theoretical and Empirical Perspectives

In this section we begin with a discussion of the framework we use to guide our discussion of what we mean when we say teachers should be prepared to teach ELs "well." Then, we discuss how teachers are expected to develop these skills, dispositions and knowledge

in preservice teacher coursework and clinical experiences. Lastly, we discuss how teacher induction expands on the foundations laid by the preliminary credential phase to prepare teachers for the challenges of teaching ELs in the classroom.

Conceptual Framework: Literature on Teaching ELs

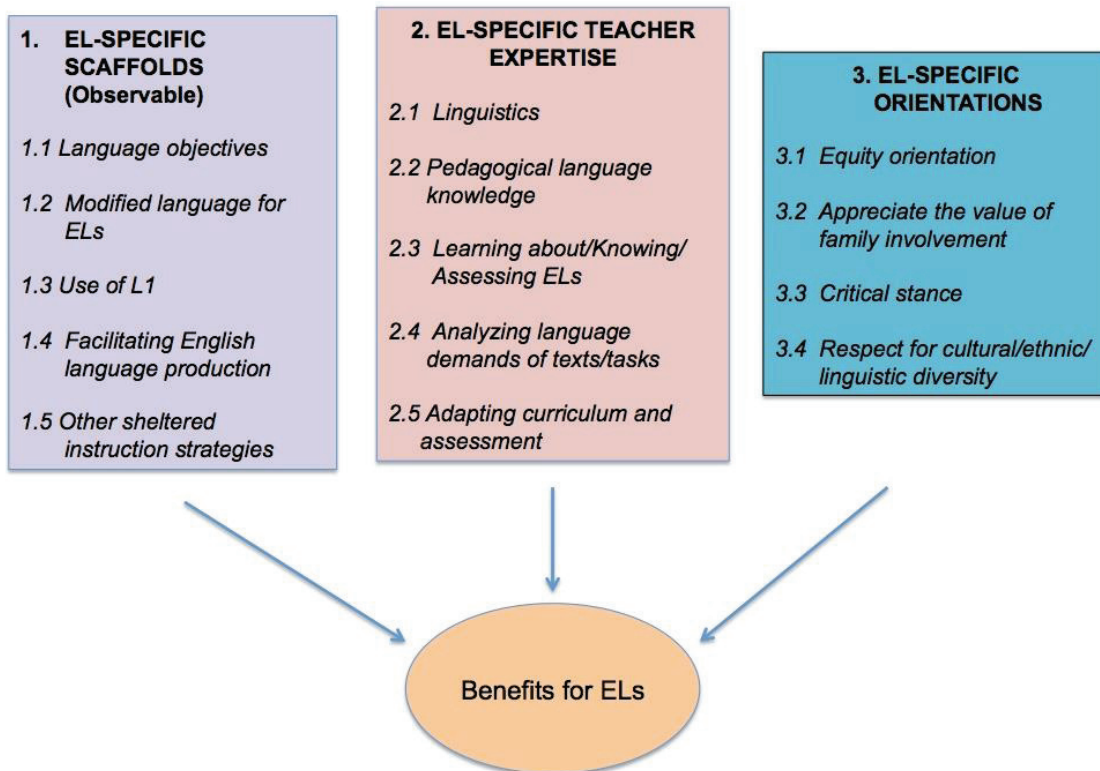
To guide our analysis, we first created a framework pulling together what the literature suggests is required of teachers to teach ELs “well.” Below, we first outline the framework in detail, and we then acknowledge some implications of the framework and our rationale for using it here.

"Effective teaching" of ELs. For decades now, scholars have addressed the questions of what teachers should know and be able to do to effectively teach ELs (e.g. Goldenberg, Coleman, Reese, Haertel, & Rodriguez-Mojica, 2012a; López, Scanlan, & Gundrum, 2013; Lucas et al., 2008; Menken & Antuñez, 2001). To date, few rigorous studies exist to demonstrate that there are unique skills that teachers need to improve EL student outcomes. There is reason to believe that in many ways good teaching for ELs is no different than the teaching that benefits all students (Goldenberg, 2013; Loeb, Soland, & Fox, 2014). A growing body of research, however, indicates that there are certain learnable practices that are uniquely useful for ELs (Coady et al., 2016; de Jong & Harper, 2005; Fillmore & Snow, 2000; González, Moll, & Amanti, 2005; Hopkins, Thompson, Linqianti, Hakuta, & August, 2013; Loeb et al., 2014; Master, Loeb, Whitney, & Wyckoff, 2016).

To facilitate the analysis, we group elements of what the literature has found to be important when teaching ELs into three broad domains (see Figure 2). These broad domains are based on elements that the literature suggests represent the abilities and dispositions teachers of ELs should develop (Faltis & Valdés, 2016; Lucas et al., 2008; Menken & Antuñez, 2001). The domains in Figure 2 are: (1) EL-specific scaffolds, (2) EL-specific teacher expertise, and (3) Orientations.⁸

⁸ The framework was developed as follows. First, a broad range of scholarship and literature from multiple traditions (e.g. linguistics, sociocultural theory, etc.) was consulted, with a focus on frequently cited texts and recent, comprehensive reviews of this literature (Faltis & Valdés, 2016). For each source, we generated a list of the skills and knowledge the authors discussed as being key for teaching ELs. We then compared lists, looking across the sources to create a synthesis of ideas and concepts. The framework pulls together the main ideas discussed in the literature around what teachers need to know and be able to do to effectively teach ELs.

Figure 2. Elements of EL-Specific Teaching - Key Categories



First, "EL-specific scaffolds" refers to observable differentiation strategies that benefit ELs, such as those captured by the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) (Echevarria & Short, 2004).⁹ Language objectives make explicit to ELs the language needed to achieve content objectives. An example of modified language for ELs might be history teachers taking dense primary sources and simplifying their language or shortening reading assignments so ELs can read for comprehension without overtaxing language processing (Reisman & Wineburg, 2012). Using students' primary language (L1) can include teaching reading strategies in L1, since strategy use transfers across languages (Krashen, 1982). Facilitating English language production is key because oral English development is critical to reading comprehension (August & Shanahan, 2006) and elicits complex thinking (Coady et al., 2016). One final category is a catch-all for various ways teachers make content comprehensible for students who are learning content and language simultaneously (Krashen, 1985). This spans a range of scaffolding strategies, such as using visuals or building off prior knowledge (Coady et al., 2016; Echevarria & Short, 2004; Goldenberg, 2013; Lucas & Villegas, 2013; Lucas et al., 2008).

⁹ Importantly, little empirical work confirms sheltered instruction actually does improve outcomes for ELs (Goldenberg, 2013). However, the literature on ELs in general is scholarly, not empirical research, so excluding these practices would mean excluding a major portion of the literature. Moreover, Faltis and Valdés (2016) argue that it is unlikely these strategies are *not* beneficial.

Next, we highlight five areas of “EL-specific teacher expertise” that may not themselves be observable, but that inform observable behaviors. The first subcategory is the field of linguistics, which includes sociolinguistics and its focus on how language use is tied to politics and power in society (Godley, Sweetland, Wheeler, Minnici, & Carpenter, 2006); and language acquisition theory, which examines the phases of language development (Krashen, 1982) and distinctions between “conversational” versus “academic” English (Cummins, 1979). Content area teachers have not historically considered themselves to be language teachers, but teachers with pedagogical language knowledge understand language and content to be inextricably linked (Bunch, 2013; Galguera, 2011).¹⁰ Knowledge of ELs refers to teachers’ ability to assess their ELs’ linguistic, academic, and cultural characteristics and to use this knowledge to adapt instruction (Coady et al., 2016; de Jong et al., 2013; Faltis & Valdes, 2016; Lucas et al., 2008; Lucas & Villegas, 2013). Knowing how to analyze the language and knowledge demands inherent in classroom texts and tasks means recognizing what vocabulary, syntactic and semantic features, and implied background knowledge make a text complex or a class assignment challenging, particularly for ELs (de Jong et al., 2013; Lucas et al., 2008; Santos et al., 2012). Finally, teachers must have expertise in adapting curriculum when it ignores ELs’ needs (de Jong et al., 2013; López et al., 2013; Menken & Antuñez, 2001) and recognize bias in assessments that ostensibly measure content but are actually more indicative of language proficiency (Lopez & Santibañez, 2018).

Lastly, “Orientations” refers to an asset-based mentality toward ELs, i.e. believing that they have valuable skills and knowledge even if they are not yet proficient in English. Also, if ELs are also low income students and/or students of color, they may be marginalized along multiple dimensions. Effective teachers of ELs are committed to equity for all students (Coady et al., 2016; Cohen & Lotan, 1997; de Jong et al., 2013; Godley et al., 2006). They recognize and value the impact of working closely with families, particularly those without social or cultural capital privileged by schools (Bourdieu, 1973; Carreón, Drake, & Calabrese Barton, 2005; Stanton-Salazar, 2001). They adopt a critical stance toward policy, history, legislation, and schools (Ladson-Billings, 1995; Menken & Antuñez, 2001). And they respect diversity, understanding linguistic diversity as a resource “worthy of cultivating” (Lucas & Villegas, 2013, p. 104).

The challenge of conceptualizing essential “knowledge” and “practices.” Our framework organizes concepts in the literature in an original way—but why did we create a new framework, given the number of EL-specific frameworks that have already been published? We did so because our goal was to analyze credential requirements through a “wide lens” that was broadly inclusive of what has been written. However, the literature is extremely fragmented, and previously published heuristics of the essential skills and knowledge for teaching ELs either zero in on key concepts (which provides conceptual unity) (Lucas et al., 2008), or are so widely inclusive that they do not lend themselves to being used as an analytical tool for data analysis (Faltis & Valdés, 2016). By way of illustration, Table 3 lists frameworks for teaching ELs from seven key sources.

¹⁰ This is also fundamental in the new standards (e.g. CCSS, NGSS) with their focus on discipline-specific language (Faltis & Valdés, 2016; Santos, Darling-Hammond, & Cheuk, 2012).

Table 3. Heuristics for Teaching ELs—Examples from the Literature

Source	What teachers need to know and be able to do
Menken & Antuñez (2001)	<p>3 forms of knowledge required in teacher education for teaching bilingual students:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge of pedagogy • Knowledge of linguistics • Knowledge of cultural and linguistic diversity
SIOP (Echevarria & Short, 2004)	<p>3 main categories of observable phenomenon subdivided into 30 sub-items:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Preparation • Instruction • Review/assessment
Lucas et al. (2008)	<p>6 essential understandings of second language learning for linguistically responsive teachers:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conversational language proficiency is fundamentally different from academic language proficiency • Second language learners must have access to comprehensible input • Social interaction fosters conversational and academic English • ELs with strong L1 skills are more likely to achieve parity with native English-speaking peers than those with weak L1 skills • A safe, welcoming classroom is essential • Explicit attention to linguistic form and function is essential <p>3 kinds of pedagogical expertise:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning about ELs • Identifying the language demands of instructional tasks • Scaffolding
CQELL (Goldenberg, Coleman, Reese, Haertel, & Rodriguez-Mojica, 2012b)	<p>6 generic lesson elements:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning objectives • Link new content to background experiences • Teacher modeling • Structured opportunities to practice • Teacher uses assessment • Engages all students <p>8 forms of additional EL support:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language objectives (2) • Adapting language • Adapting strategies • Using visuals • Language production in English • L1 support • Predictable and consistent routines
de Jong et al. (2013)	<p>3 dimensions of expertise needed for teaching ELs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contextual understanding of bilingual learners’ linguistic and cultural background • Knowledge and skills related to the instructional role of language and culture • Navigation of policies and practices to ensure inclusivity

Table 3. Heuristics for Teaching ELs—Examples from the Literature

<p>Lucas & Villegas (2013)</p>	<p>2 categories of expertise of linguistically responsive teachers:</p> <p><i>3 orientations</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sociolinguistic consciousness • Value for linguistic diversity • Advocates for ELs <p><i>4 forms of pedagogical knowledge and skills</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strategies for learning about ELs • Understand and apply principles of second language learning • Ability to identify language demands of classroom tasks • Repertoire of scaffolding strategies
<p>(Faltis & Valdés, 2016)</p>	<p>3 forms of knowledge by teacher educators for teachers of ELs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge of language • Knowledge of student characteristics • Teacher educator knowledge, practices, and advocacy to prepare teachers of ELL Students <p>What teachers of ELs need to know and be able to do: Pedagogical Language Knowledge (which includes scaffolding and interactive feedback)</p>

Clearly, synthesizing such a fragmented literature requires creative re-organizing. But our framework aims for inclusivity, not a grand unified theory. We felt this was especially appropriate given the dearth of empirical work validating what improves outcomes for ELs to begin with (Goldenberg, Haertel, Coleman, Reese, & Rodriguez-Mojica, 2013).

Moreover, as Cochran-Smith & Lytle (1999) famously highlight, the literature on teaching in general is underwritten by vastly differing notions about what “knowledge” and “practice” mean. From Shulman's (1986) landmark work on pedagogical content knowledge to influential elaborations on the concept (e.g. Ball 2005), scholars have spent decades unpacking what it means for a teacher to “know” something, and how that differs from what they are “able to do.” Adding to this complexity are the various ways “practice” is used in teacher education (Lampert, 2010). We found these issues in the EL-specific literature; some scholars focus on observable teacher “moves” in a classroom (e.g. SIOP, CQELL), while others describe discrete moves in the context of broad discussions of teacher knowledge (Lucas & Villegas, 2013). For the sake of clarity, we avoid using terms like “knowledge,” “practice,” or “pedagogy” because the literature from which we draw uses them differently. Instead, we use the organizing principle that some aspects of teaching are directly observable (i.e. classroom scaffolding) while others are more general forms of expertise (i.e. adapting curriculum).¹¹

¹¹ By way of examples: Will a teacher who is deeply knowledgeable about language acquisition theory automatically (and effectively) use scaffolding in the classroom? Does the use of sentence stems always indicate deep knowledge about linguistics? Can a teacher differentiate effectively and still be under the misconception that conversational fluency indicates reading/writing proficiency (Lucas, Villegas, & Freedson-Gonzalez, 2008)? These questions get at the heart of the relationship between knowledge and practice for teaching ELs, but resolution is beyond the scope of this paper.

Two points should be made about the framework. First, there is overlap across categories, because scholars often talk about similar concepts but group them in different ways. For example, pedagogical language knowledge (Bunch, 2013; Galguera, 2011) is a broad type of expertise that draws from all the other areas of expertise in its domain. As another example, culturally relevant (Ladson-Billings, 1995) and culturally sustaining pedagogy (Paris & Alim, 2017), though not in the framework, would span all three domains (it results in particular scaffolds, it draws from teacher expertise, and it requires particular orientations). Second, concepts sit peaceably side-by-side in Figure 2, but the literature is full of contestation. For example, work in linguistics (see Cummins, 1979) and second language acquisition (SLA) (see Krashen, 1982) have been dominant in teacher education for teaching ELs (see Lucas et al., 2008), but scholars strongly critique the use of these bodies of knowledge (Faltis & Valdés, 2016), arguing that research on SLA is thin, limited to adult learners, and not empirically linked to improving outcomes (Bunch, 2013). Literacy scholars especially critique the distinction between “academic” and “non-standard” forms of English, arguing it pathologizes the English uses of linguistic minorities, students of color, etc. (Lee, 2006). To sum up, our purpose was to paint a picture of the whole landscape, not to iron out its conceptual fragmentation.

Scholarship on teacher education and training has addressed the question of how to prepare teachers to meet the needs of ELs. Below, we briefly review the literature on teacher training and support, focusing first on preservice education and then on induction.

Perspectives on Teacher Training—Preservice

The growing presence of ELs in American classrooms has led many teacher preparation programs to adapt mainstream practices to prepare all teachers to teach ELs (Lucas et al., 2008). Teacher education has made great strides in the past two decades to respond to changing demographics in the K-12 student population (Cochran-Smith et al., 2015), but many gaps persist. For example, while some states require specific coursework to teach future teachers how to teach ELs (California is one of these states), several states (15 total) have no requirements at all (Samson & Collins, 2012).

But what does the literature say helps preservice teachers teach ELs? This is an open question, largely because there is little consensus about the best way to train preservice teachers in general, or even what core skills and knowledge should be focused on in preservice (Zeichner, 2012). There is no magic program or feature when it comes to developing good teachers, but certain program elements such as the types and quantity of education coursework (Humphrey, Wechsler, & Hough, 2008; Kee, 2012), the quality of field experiences and opportunity to work with underserved populations (Ronfeldt & Reininger, 2012; Kee, 2012) and opportunities to study what they will be doing as novice teachers (Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2008) are predictive of teacher self-efficacy, retention, and student learning outcomes—for all students. A recent turn in the teacher education literature is a focus on breaking down instructional “moves” into very specific parts that are modeled in the university setting, rehearsed, tried on with real students, and then debriefed in the university setting—see for example Grossman et al. (2009) on representations, decomposition, and

approximations of practice in teacher education. There is some preliminary evidence that this strategy positively impacts “take up,” or a teacher’s ability to then enact what they have learned in real classrooms (Schneider Kavanagh & Rainey, 2017). To date, however, this literature has not specifically focused on how to promote preservice teachers’ “take up” of what they have learned regarding teaching ELs.

Other relevant problems are a persistent disconnect between university-based coursework and field experiences, and an overemphasis on unpacking (largely White, middle class) preservice teachers’ (presumably deficit) beliefs about students of color and/or low-SES students, without ensuring these changed beliefs have any impact on what teachers do in the classroom (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Cochran-Smith & Villegas, 2016). Cochran-Smith and colleagues highlight the challenges of preparing White, middle-class teacher candidates to teach students whose cultural and social biographies differ markedly from their own. Their review found that while teacher candidates came to think more complexly about diversity during the teacher preparation phase, there was little evidence of the “profound shift in perspective that many researchers consider fundamental to becoming equity-minded/socially just teachers” (Cochran-Smith et al., 2015, p. 116).

Overall, teachers do not emerge from teacher preparation programs accomplished teachers, and they do not emerge skilled teachers of ELs (Lucas & Villegas, 2013). It is possible that not all of these skills can be effectively taught at the preservice level. It is plausible that to become an effective teacher of ELs, teachers need to hone their skills in classrooms that have several ELs, ELs with varying levels of language proficiency, etc. It may take teachers many years to develop the skills to effectively teach ELs (and students as a whole). The preservice phase might be a first stage in a continuous process of learning how to teach ELs well (Lucas & Villegas, 2013).

Perspectives on Teacher Training—Induction

To help ease the transition between student teaching and serving as the teacher of record, induction programs in California provide support and coaching to help teachers put in practice what they learned. This transition can be rough for some, and may not be enough, to ensure mastery. Several studies have highlighted “the challenges teacher candidates experience when they try to transfer ideas learned in campus classes to their work with students in schools, particularly when those ideas run counter to standard school practices” (Cochran-Smith et al., 2015, p. 111). Nevertheless, induction can be an important bridge between what candidates learn as part of their preservice preparation and what they learn on the job. At the very least, induction can serve as a space where teachers are expected to demonstrate not just growth toward mastering the standards, but an adequate level of proficiency when addressing ELs in real-world situations. Below, we briefly discuss the literature on the aims, best practices, and outcomes of induction. All the literature consulted focused on early career supports, though we expanded our review to include literature on mentoring for novices (i.e. not explicitly described as “induction” programs).

Aims of induction. The induction literature points to multiple aims of induction. One aim is fostering new teacher growth, with induction conceptualized as a point on the larger “professional learning continuum” and an extension of the development that began during preservice (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Another aim of induction has been teacher socialization into the profession (Feiman-Nemser, Schwille, Carver, & Yusko, 1999).

A third aim has been retention— keeping new teachers in the classroom long enough to become proficient. Teacher experience is one of the most important predictors of student learning outcomes: students with teachers in their first three years of teaching will have much lower achievement scores than those with more experienced teachers (Rockoff, 2004). Darling-Hammond (2010) notes that “[r]etaining teachers is a far greater problem in the United States than recruiting new ones—and also is a key to solving teacher ‘shortages’ and improving teacher effectiveness,” adding that “[t]he 30% of new teachers who leave in the first few years (50% in some urban areas) create a revolving door that destabilizes schools, especially in high-need communities, reducing their overall effectiveness and costing the nation more than \$2 billion annually” (p. 5). Mentorship has been found to significantly decrease attrition (Darling-Hammond, 2010). In short, induction attempts to serve the double goal of accelerating teacher growth in the early years, and retaining teachers long enough to become proficient. Effective induction programs “do not regard the outcome of induction to be a great teacher,” but rather they see induction “as a distinct but not isolated phase in a teacher’s life,” “part of the continuum of a teacher’s life, from preservice through continuous inservice learning” (Britton, Raizen, Paine, & Huntley, 2000).

In California, although induction was initially conceived of as focusing on ELs, this explicit focus was removed in early phases of induction due to public opposition to bilingual programs in the 1990s (Marquez-Lopez & Oh, 2010).

Induction: Best practices. The literature points to some critical elements of induction programs. Mentors must elicit trust and adapt to their candidates’ needs (Abell, Dillon, Hopkins, McInerney, & O’Brien, 1995), mentors need training (Aspfors & Fransson, 2015; Bullough, 2012; Langdon, Alexander, Ryde, & Baggetta, 2014), mentors must be carefully selected and matched with their mentee (Hobson, Ashby, Malderez, & Tomlinson, 2009) and subject-specific induction is more effective than pairings with mentors who do not have subject-specific expertise (Bianchini & Brenner, 2009; Ingersoll, 2012). International reviews find that exemplary induction programs provide adequate time for novice reflection (Howe, 2006), are well structured formal programs (Kearney, 2014), and—much more than offering merely an emotional “safety net”— push novices to address subject-specific issues in curriculum and instruction (Britton et al., 2000). Finally, some research points to the relatively greater impact of mentoring through a “constructivist” (i.e. active learning building off prior knowledge) than a “transmissive” (i.e. accumulation of new information) theoretical framework (Richter et al., 2013).

Induction: Quality, outcomes and needs. Overall, findings of the impact of induction are mixed. Some studies point to a positive impact along a variety of factors, such as retention and

job satisfaction, classroom instruction, and even student outcomes (Ingersoll, 2012; Ingersoll & Strong, 2011; Molner Kelley, 2004). Others paint a much less sanguine picture of the impact of induction (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Long et al., 2012; Wang, Odell, & Schwille, 2008). Some studies find no difference between “comprehensive” (i.e. intensive, multi-faceted) induction relative to less comprehensive induction (Glazerman et al., 2010). Some suggest that two years of induction are preferable to one year (Evans-Andris, Kyle, & Carini, 2006; Luft et al., 2011), and others find that it is only after three years that any impact on student outcomes is noticed (Glazerman et al., 2010), suggesting that the impact of induction on student outcomes is a long-term proposition. Above all, there is relatively little research documenting its impact on student outcomes (Wang et al., 2008), though some scholarship points to promising methodologies for surmounting the complexity of linking induction to student achievement (Huling & Resta, 2010).

Other findings highlight the variability of induction program characteristics and quality. For example, there is great variability across programs in terms of format, structure, and duration (Luft et al., 2011) as well as quality of mentor training, even though this is crucial for effective mentoring (Hobson et al., 2009).

One key finding for the purposes of this analysis is that there is very little research on the impact of induction on improving teachers’ instruction for ELs. There is some discussion of how induction can address novices’ equity orientations to students (Bianchini & Brenner, 2009). One single-case study of a beginning science teacher (Ortega, Luft, & Wong, 2013) finds induction had a positive impact on her ability to enact instruction that benefitted ELs (reading and interpretation activities, small group discussions, presentations, journal writing, and focus on academic language). Finally, Achinstein and Athanases’s (2010) study of mentoring for equity finds that novices with a higher percentage of ELs in their class (61-100%) spent more time in mentoring conversations about teaching ELs than those with a lower percentage ELs (0-30%). Though this is predictable, the authors note:

The pattern raises questions about the degree to which novices with few ELLs receive breadth and depth of mentoring to serve their ELLs who are a small but important minority in the class. If ELLs must be enrolled in classes with a critical mass of ELLs to ensure their teachers receive extensive mentoring to support their learning, equity questions arise. (pp. 197-8)

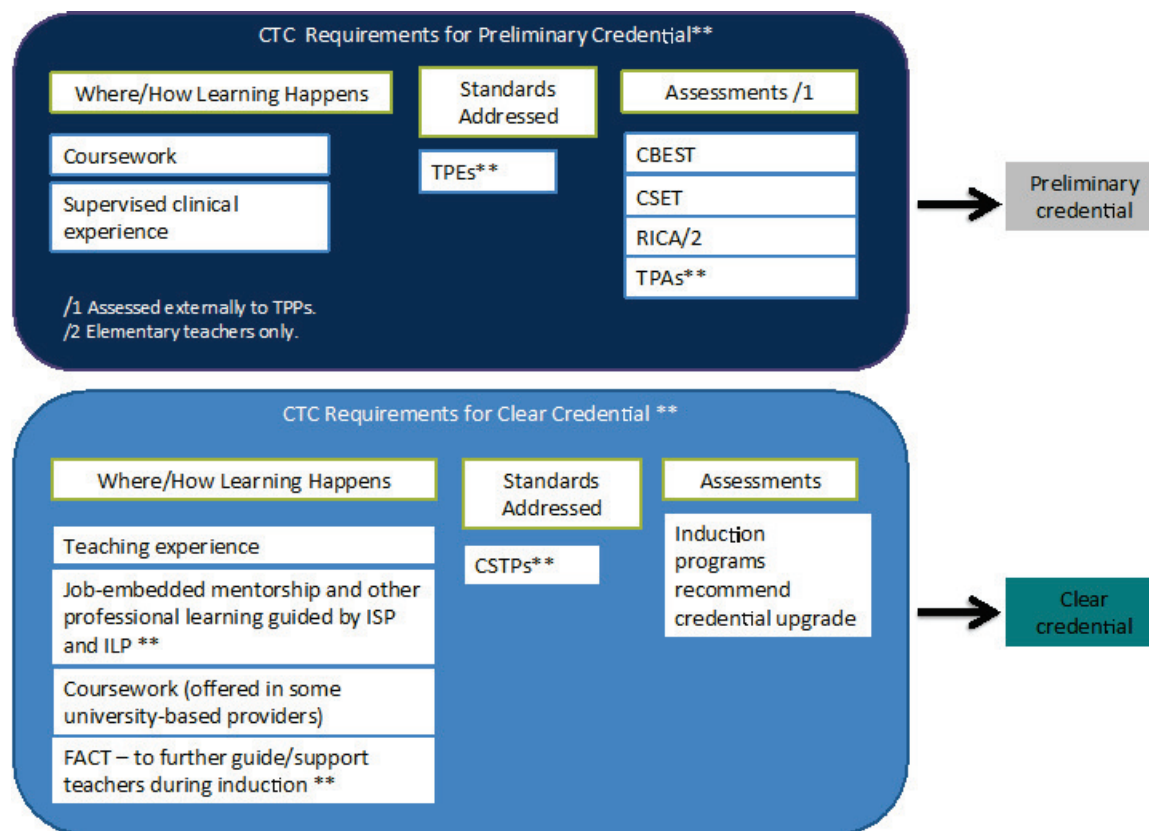
Despite the proliferation of mentoring in the US, there is a critical need for research and policy to address induction. In the research, induction is under-theorized, and “mentoring and induction practices appear primarily to be the result of on-going and site-specific tinkering and testing” (Bullough, 2012, p. 70). The profession lacks a strong conceptual understanding of mentoring for equity and ELLs and “which EL-related topics in mentoring conversations get taken up by novices more readily, which have the greatest impact on ELL student learning, and how mentoring conversations can maintain focus on ELLs when there is not a critical mass of ELLs in a class” (Achinstein & Athanases, 2010, p. 202). Finally, despite California’s induction policy, the realities of the state’s teacher shortage is such that many new teachers are not adhering to the linear plan of teacher preparation-induction. As a result, most of California’s

new teachers follow “a much longer, bumpier and more circuitous path into the teaching profession than state policymakers currently recognize” (Koppich & Humphrey, 2014, p. 1).

Teacher Credentialing Requirements in California

Figure 3 presents a stylized version of the key steps for teachers to become credentialed in California. (Asterisks in Figure 3 refer to the documents we coded during data analysis, see below.) Below we review the requirements for earning the preliminary and clear credential, focusing more on the latter given its central focus in this paper.

Figure 3. Teacher Credential Requirements and Assessments in California



Source: Own elaboration with information from the CTC (2015) and other sources.

Preliminary Requirements

To obtain a preliminary credential, teacher candidates must go through coursework and a supervised clinical student-teaching experience, and must pass a series of state-determined assessments. The “Teacher Performance Expectations,” or TPEs, guide the preliminary phase. The TPEs contain significant references to teaching ELs.¹² These standards are the backbone of

¹² There are many other requirements for teachers seeking this credential, but these other requirements have no content specific to teaching ELs. These are: hold a baccalaureate or higher degree; satisfy a basic skills requirement;

teacher preparation; preservice teachers are directly assessed on their mastery of the TPEs through (1) teacher education coursework; (2) their clinical work in school settings, which must include ELs, and (3) the Teacher Performance Assessments (TPAs) (“Preliminary Multiple Subject and Single Subject Credential Program Standards,” 2017). Finally, preliminary candidates must satisfy the *Developing English Language Skills, including Reading* requirement (“Educator Preparation Program Specific Preconditions: General Education (Multiple and Single Subject) Programs Preliminary Multiple and Single Subject,” 2016). This is met by completing a reading instruction course, which can be embedded within teacher education coursework.¹³

Clear Credential Requirements

Once teachers have earned their preliminary credential, they have five years to “upgrade” it to the clear (i.e. permanent) credential. The way most teachers do this is through induction,¹⁴ a two-year, job-embedded, highly individualized process that entails a “robust mentoring system” and professional development (“Induction Program Preconditions and Program Standards, 2017, p. 2)¹⁵ offered by an accredited teacher preparation program or district. As of this writing, the total number of institutions that offer Clear Credentials is 181 (though not all these offer the General Education Clear Credential). Of these, 85% (153 of the 181) are Local Education Agencies (e.g. school districts in which the teachers are employed). The remaining institutions are Private/Independent Institutions (14), Cal States (12), and UCs (2) (“Commission-Approved Educator Preparation Programs,” 2017). Some programs require that the teacher pay for their induction, others are provided free of cost.

Goals and structure of induction. The overall goals of induction in California are to “strengthen the candidate’s professional practice” and to “contribute to the candidate’s future retention in the profession” (“Induction Preconditions and Program Standards,” 2017, p. 2). The

verify subject matter competency; demonstrate knowledge of the provisions and principles of the U.S. Constitution; and complete a technology course on the use of computers in educational settings (“Single Subject Teaching Credential Requirements for Teachers Prepared in California,” 2016).

¹³ In a sense, the TPEs even bear on a new teacher’s induction work. At the end of the preliminary program, a new teacher and her clinical supervisors and faculty must draw up a plan for her continued professional development and growth based on her strengths and challenges as demonstrated in the preliminary program. This plan is called the Individual Development Plan, or IDP. Later, when the new teacher and her induction program draw up her Individual *Learning* Plan (ILP, discussed in detail below), this induction plan must be “guided by” that earlier transition plan created during her preliminary preparation (“Induction Program Preconditions and Program Standards, 2017, p. 2).¹³The purpose is to promote continuity and coherence across a teacher’s preliminary preparation and her early career professional support.

¹⁴ There are two other options available for clearing the credential. First, preliminary credential holders who are certified by the National Board of Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) receive a clear credential in the subject area of their national certification. Second, certain teachers who earned their preliminary credential before 2004, or those for whom induction programs are not available, may clear their credential through a Commission-approved clear credential program (“Single Subject Teaching Credential Requirements for Teachers Prepared in California,” 2016).

¹⁵ Preconditions are the “foundational components” for an induction program, and the Program Standards are the “program requirements that must be provided to candidates” (“Adoption of Program Preconditions and Program Standards,” 2015, p. 1).

central work of induction is mentoring; mentoring is “foundational to induction” (“Adoption of Program Preconditions and Program Standards,” 2015, p. 1). The CTC claims that “a high quality, job embedded mentor program is the most effective means of delivering support and assistance to new teachers” (“Teacher Induction,” 2017). (Programs vary in how they refer to mentors. Here, we retain the term used by our participants—mentor or Induction Support Provider, depending on the program.)

Induction is driven by an Individual Learning Plan (ILP), the central “road map” of induction, which articulates the teacher’s goals, steps for achieving growth, and measurable outcomes. Goals must be drawn from the California Standards for the Teaching Profession (CSTPs), comprised of six domains subdivided into 38 elements and aligned to the TPEs. The ILP is developed at the start of induction, in collaboration between the candidate and the mentor. The ILP is developed “based on needs determined by the teacher and [induction] program provider, in consultation with the site administrator and guided by” the growth plan outlined by the preliminary program (“Induction Program Preconditions and Program Standards, 2017, p. 2). In other words, the ILP is a totally individualized professional growth plan that is drawn up collaboratively based on the judgment, expertise, and needs of the candidate, the induction program, and the employer.

The above description reflects significant changes in induction that went into effect in 2016. These changes were initiated in response to the CTC’s assessment that induction needed to focus on the ILP; that it needed to emphasize “high quality mentoring” focusing on “meeting the new teacher’s immediate needs and supporting long-term teacher growth”; and that it needed to avoid “unnecessary and time-consuming documentation activities” (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2015).

Measures of growth. To help candidates and mentors determine what evidence of growth toward the ILP goals might look like, the CTC has provided the Continuum of Teaching Practice (the Continuum), a rubric that operationalizes performance in the CSTPs. Each of the 38 elements is broken into five proficiency levels (see Table 4 for an excerpt from this Continuum).

Table 4. Excerpt from Continuum of Teaching Practice

CSTP 3: Understanding and Organizing Subject Matter for Student Learning

***Evidence of Practice:** Understanding that the levels become increasingly complex and sophisticated while integrating the skills of previous levels, what examples from your teaching practice and students’ performance inform your self-assessment? 1) List evidence in the first column 2) Assess level of practice 3) Date*

Element	Emerging	Exploring	Applying	Integrating	Innovating
<p>3.6 Addressing the needs of English Learners and students with special needs to provide equitable access to the content.</p>	<p>Is aware of students’ primary language and English language proficiencies based on available assessment data.</p> <p>Provides adapted materials to help English Learners access content.</p>	<p>Seeks additional information describing elements of culture and language proficiencies in listening, speaking, reading and writing. Uses multiple measures for assessing English learners’ performance to identify gaps in English language development.</p> <p>Attempts to scaffold content using visuals, models, and graphic organizers.</p>	<p>Identifies English language proficiencies and English learner strengths in the study of language and content. Differentiates instruction using one or more components of English language development to support English learners.</p> <p>Creates and implements scaffolds to support standards-based instruction using literacy strategies, SDAIE, and content level English language development in order for students to improve language proficiencies and understand content.</p>	<p>Integrates knowledge of English language development and English learner’s strengths and assessed needs to language and content instruction.</p> <p>Develops and adapts instruction to provide a wide range of scaffolded supports for language and content for the range of English learners.</p>	<p>Engages English learners in assessment of their progress in English language development and in meeting content standards. Supports students to establish and monitor language and content goals.</p> <p>Is resourceful and flexible in the design, adjustment and elimination of scaffolds based on English learners’ proficiencies, knowledge and skills in content.</p>

Source: “Continuum of Teaching Practice,” 2012, p. 26

The Continuum is a “tool for self-reflection, goal setting, and inquiry into practice” (“Continuum,” 2012, p. 2). It is not a “stand-alone observation or evaluation instrument,” but rather a resource to help candidates and mentors set specific, measurable. The Continuum prompts candidates to use it to assess their instruction, adding notations about “examples from your teaching practice and students’ performance inform your self-assessment” (“Continuum,” 2012, p. 26).

Induction as evaluation. The 2016 revisions also set “a greater focus on candidate outcomes,” i.e. what candidates should know and be able to do at the end of induction. Also, whereas previously, induction was primarily about non-evaluative support, induction now has a quasi-evaluative dimension. Programs are charged with making “determinations” of “candidate competence” before recommending them for the clear credential (“Induction Preconditions and Program Standards,” 2017, p. 3). Specifically, the program “must assess candidate progress towards mastery of the [CSTPs] to support the recommendation for the clear credential.” Progress must be demonstrated in order for the candidate to clear. That progress must be documented, and there must be evidence that the candidate has successfully completed the activities laid out in the ILP. The program must “verify that the candidate has satisfactorily completed all program activities and requirements.” Also, there must be a transparent, defensible process by which the program makes the recommendation for the clear credential, “based on a review of observed and documented evidence.”¹⁶

Acceptable evidence of teacher growth. Another shift that occurred in 2016 related to the deliverables candidates must complete for the induction process. Prior to 2016, Program Standards called for “a system of formative assessment” completed by candidates, and the state developed a model called the Formative Assessment for California’s Teachers (FACT) (used from 2010-2016). However, “today’s standards no longer require a system that all participants must complete but instead call for an individualized plan, with the focus of the program being the mentoring relationship” (“California Teacher Induction,” 2017). That means that programs now have significant latitude in determining the documents and processes that constitute evidence of teacher growth. In fact, there is no specific guidance around what that documentation should look like, provided the process is transparent and defensible.

Quality assurance. The chief external check on program quality is the accreditation process, which occurs every seven years, and which entails extensive review of the ways in which programs are meeting CTC program requirements. In addition, programs must “regularly assess the quality of services provided by mentors to candidates” using criteria including “the quality and perceived effectiveness of support provided to candidates in implementing” their ILP (“Teacher induction program Preconditions and Program Standards,” 2017, p. 4). To illustrate how one program meets these requirements, we asked the CGU induction Program

¹⁶ The full text is here: “The Induction program must assess candidate progress towards mastery of the *California Standards for the Teaching Profession* to support the recommendation for the clear credential. The documentation of candidate progress must reflect the learning and professional growth goals indicated within the Individualized Learning Plan and evidence of the candidate’s successful completion of the activities outlined in the ILP. Prior to recommending a candidate for a Clear Credential, the Induction program sponsor must verify that the candidate has satisfactorily completed all program activities and requirements, and that the program has documented the basis on which the recommendation for the clear credential is made. The program sponsor’s verification must be based on a review of observed and documented evidence, collaboratively assembled by the candidate, the mentor and/or other colleagues, according to the program’s design. The Induction program’s recommendation verification process must include a defensible process of reviewing documentation, a written appeal process for candidates, and a procedure for candidates to repeat portions of the program, as needed” (“Induction Program Preconditions and Program Standards,” 2017, p. 3).

Coordinator about quality assurance checks. She described a multi-pronged approach, including collaborative team meetings between herself and the ISPs where they reviewed all candidates' "road maps"; a Completion Verification Committee, which convenes before determining a candidate should be recommended for the clear, and which reviews evidence provided documenting growth; and biannual Advisory Boards, drawn from leaders of induction programs at neighboring school districts, and which provides CGU with input on all program documents and processes.

Summary

The process of being recommended for a preliminary credential includes multiple internal "gatekeeping" mechanisms (CSETs, CBEST, TPAs, etc.) that are external to the TPP. In induction, the process is wholly internal to the program, though internal and external quality checks exist. The induction program makes the recommendation to upgrade a teacher's credential based on tasks that were completed and monitored within the program, by program staff, using documents authored by the program.

Data and Methods

This study uses a primarily qualitative research design to answer our two research questions about the extent to which teaching ELs is present in credential requirements in California; and the extent to which teachers are required to demonstrate proficiency teaching ELs to obtain a credential.

Participants and Context

Our sample included 12 educators who collectively held six different induction-related roles (four teachers, four ISPs, one principal, one induction course instructor, one co-creator of an induction program, and one program coordinator). Though all but two were women, they were ethnically diverse (one African American, one Korean American, one Filipina, one Chinese national, three Latinos, and five Whites), and they represented a range of years of experience (from preservice to over 40 years in education) and school contexts (two universities, three CMOs, and four public districts). See Table 5 for a list of participants and profiles. Though we cannot make claims about the generalizability of this small convenience sample, our sampling is appropriate given the exploratory nature of our study (Babbie, 2016).

Table 5. Interview Participants- Profiles and Number of Interviews

#	Name	Induction Role(s)	Institution for Induction	Credentials and Experience	Demographics (aggregated to preserve anonymity)	# of Interviews
1	Teacher 1	Induction Candidate	CGU	See Table 6	1 Latino (non-Spanish speaking), 1 Chinese female, 2 White females	3
2	Teacher 2		CGU	See Table 6		3
3	Teacher 3		CGU	See Table 6		3
4	Teacher 4		CGU	See Table 6		3
5	ISP 1	Induction Support Provider (ISP)	CGU	MA; Clear & Administrative credential	1 African American female, 1 Korean American male, 1 Filipina, 1 Latina	3
6	ISP 2		CMO #1 (urban)	MA; Clear credential; teacher for 4 years; ISP for 1.		1
7	ISP 3		CMO #2 (urban)	MA; Clear & Administrative credential; Director of Curriculum; teacher for 14 years; ISP for 3.		1
8	ISP 4		Dual language public school (metropolitan, school district)	MA; Clear & Administrative credential; former Language Programs Coordinator; teacher for 17 years; support provider for 4 years; CA induction mentor for 1 year		1
9	Principal	Principal	Dual language public school (metropolitan, school district)	MA; Clear & Administrative credential	1 Latina, 3 White females	1
10	Induction Course Instructor	Induction Course Instructor	CGU	MA, PhD		1
11	Induction Program Developer	Creator of two induction programs; former ISP	Various	MA; Clear & Administrative credential. Former elementary & middle school principal; former overseer for large district induction program); former university Master Teacher; founder of two induction programs.		1
12	Induction Program Coordinator	Leader of program	CGU	MA. Former teacher.		1

Teachers: Recruitment, sampling, and context. To recruit our teacher sample, we collaborated with CGU’s induction program during the academic year 2016/17. Recruitment was done among all teachers enrolled in CGU induction who had ELs in their classrooms. Four teachers consented to be part of the study (see Table 6 for teacher profiles). The sample includes two high school, one middle school, and one elementary teacher. Three teachers work in traditional public schools and one teacher in a charter school. Except for one school, the majority of students in our sample schools are socioeconomically disadvantaged. Most ELs in these schools speak Spanish as their home language. The range of ELs in classrooms went from a very small percentage (1-3 students) for two of the observed classrooms, to more than a quarter of students in the other two observed classrooms. Only one of the observed teachers shared a common home language with her EL students.

Table 6. Teacher Participant Profiles - Induction Sample

		Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 4
Teacher profile	Subject(s)/ grade(s) taught	11 th /12 th grade social studies	K/1 st grade	7 th grade social studies	10 th grade ELA
	Highest Degree	MA	MA	MA	MA
	Years as full-time teacher of record in credential area, including year of data collection	2	017	1	2
School site profile*	Type of school	Traditional high school	Public elementary (K-6)	Traditional middle school (6-8 th grade)	Charter, 6 th -12 th
	Geographic context of school	Urban	Suburban	Urban	Urban
	Total students enrolled	1,867	400	1,147	745
	% Socioeconomically disadvantaged	90%	14%	78%	73%
	% ELs in school	25.9%	4.5%	18.8%	7.8%
	English Learner Progress	High	N/A	Very high	Very high
	ELA status	N/A	High	Low	Low
	Mathematics status	N/A	High	Low	Low
	Graduation rate	Low (82%)	N/A	N/A	Very high (96%)

*Source: California School Dashboard (California Department of Education, 2017)

CGU induction has two main components. The first is the academic component; teachers must take two courses through the university. During the period of data collection, the

¹⁷ During the year of data collection, Teacher 2 was a volunteer in a master teacher’s K/1 classroom, though she was given many opportunities to plan and teach lessons independently. Nonetheless, she was not, nor had she ever been, a teacher of record in her credential area.

fall induction academic course was taught by the Director of Teacher Education and included focus on classroom management, and the spring course was taught by the Induction Coordinator and focused on teaching ELs. The second is the clinical component, i.e. the job-embedded professional learning, which includes work with the university-employed ISP. Since the period of our fieldwork, CGU's induction has significantly changed, owing to 2016 revisions to induction. For teachers in our study, CGU induction lasted two semesters (one academic year). At a minimum, induction coaches conducted two formal observations of teachers in the fall semester and one in the spring, though some conducted more. The clinical component was still structured at that point around the FACT.¹⁸

Because of time and other resource restrictions, we did not conduct interviews with teachers going through the preliminary credential. We believe that observing teachers going through induction provides more valuable information about how credentialing focuses on ELs than observing teachers in their clinical/student teaching experiences during preservice coursework. This is supported by previous research noting a disconnect between what teachers learn in their preservice preparation and what they do in-service. For example, during preservice teachers may report strong beliefs in student-centered instruction, but engage in teacher-centered instruction once in the classroom (Simmons et al., 1999).

Other induction participants. We also interviewed eight participants holding various induction-related roles. ISP 1 mentored our four participating teachers, and we interviewed the overall program coordinator. ISPs 2 and 3 were mentors at different Charter Management Organizations (CMOs) and selected via purposive sampling (Krathwohl, 2009); the second author reached out to them specifically because they represented a range of mentoring experiences (ISP 2 was a first-year mentor) and contexts.¹⁹ We used snowball sampling to reach four other people, all referred to us by participants (Krathwohl, 2009). ISP 4 was a mentor at a dual language school, and we also interviewed her principal to give us her perspective on working with the district's induction program. The online instructor had a unique perspective because her portion of CGU's induction program is wholly virtual, and most of her candidates are overseas (meaning California induction has, in her words, "a global reach"). Finally, we interviewed a veteran educator who had developed two induction programs and was a former principal, district induction program coordinator, and Cal State faculty member.

Data Sources and Collection

We collected data from October 2016 through May 2018. We used three data sources: interviews, classroom observations, and official credential-related documents (see Table 7 for data sources and coding procedures).

¹⁸ Currently, all induction lasts two years (though an Early Completion option lasts one year). At CGU, there are more required lesson observations by the ISPs (16 required observations over two years) and documentation has significantly changed (discussed further below).

¹⁹ The second author had previously worked closely with both ISPs 2 and 3, and had also been ISP 2's mentor when he was clearing his credential.

Table 7. Data Sources and Coding

Data Source	Analytic Method	Coding
<p>1. Interview transcriptions</p> <p>a. 4 teachers in induction (Table 6)</p> <p>b. 7 induction-related staff (ISPs, principal, induction course instructor, induction program developer) (Participants #5-12, Table 5)</p>	<p>Qualitative</p> <p>Qualitative</p>	<p><i>a priori</i> coding using framework in Figure 2</p> <p>Open coding, focusing on coaches' selection, training, and strategies</p>
<p>2. Classroom observations & field notes</p>	<p>Quantitative</p>	<p>CQELL</p>
<p>3. Documents</p> <p>a. CalTPAs (old and new), CTC credential documents, CSTPs, CGU induction documents (FACT and new) (Items #1-8, Table 8)</p> <p>b. Accreditation Files (Item #9, Table 8)</p>	<p>Qualitative</p> <p>Qualitative</p>	<p><i>a priori</i> coding using framework in Figure 2</p> <p>Open coding, focusing on coaches' selection, training, and strategies</p>

We conducted semi-structured interviews with our 12 participants. Our interview protocol focused on the nature of induction at the participants' site and the participants' perspectives on the degree to which induction focused on teaching ELs. All interviews were audio recorded and then submitted to an online transcription service. We began interviews and fieldwork in late October of 2016, after clearing all necessary IRB procedures. Classroom fieldwork consisted of three observations of one classroom period for each teacher. Observations were conducted in November/December, February/March, and May of the 2016-17 school year. Each observation was accompanied by a 1-hour interview with each teacher. Observation notes were recorded to note researcher impressions and cross-reference with interview and FACT data.

We also reviewed nine different kinds of credential-related documents spanning both preliminary and clear credentialing (see Table 8). One reason for the large number is that, over the period of time of data collection (2016-2018), credential documentation changed significantly. In the cases of documents that have changed since data collection began (TPAs, induction documentation), we reviewed both the old and the new versions.

Table 8. Document Data Sources for Content Analysis

Credential Phase	Category of Documents	Documents Description
<i>Preliminary Credential</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Outgoing CalTPA (phasing out fall 2018) 2. 2018 Field Test version of new CalTPA 3. CTC preliminary credential documents (include TPEs) 	<p>Four take-home exams uploaded to an online portal; unlimited time; two require submission of student work; one requires video submission.</p> <p>Two take-home exams uploaded to an online portal; multiple videos are required for each exam; the second requires submission of student work. Candidates entering teacher education programs in August 2018 will be required to take this version. Currently, only prompts are publicly available (not rubrics).</p> <p>62 pages detailing the requirements for teacher education programs (“Common Standards,” 2016; “Educator Preparation Program Specific Preconditions: General Education (Multiple and Single Subject) Programs Preliminary Multiple and Single Subject,” 2016; “General Institutional Preconditions,” 2016; “Preliminary Multiple Subject and Single Subject Credential Program Standards,” 2017); 12 pages clarifying clinical requirements (“Guidance on Clinical Practice and Supervision of Teaching Candidates,” 2017); 45 pages for the four CalTPAs (“CalTPA,” 2017); 16 pages specific to intern programs (“Preconditions for internship programs,” 2016; “Program Sponsor Alert: Intern Preservice, Support and Supervision Requirements: Preparation to Teach English Learners,” 2013); and a two-page summary of Preliminary requirements (“Single Subject Teaching Credential Requirements for Teachers Prepared in California,” 2016).</p>
<i>Clear Credential</i>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Induction Preconditions and Program Standards 5. CSTPs and Continuum 6. CGU FACT (blank) 7. CGU FACT (completed by teachers) 8. New CGU induction documents (blank) 9. Accreditation files- induction 	<p>Requirements set for induction programs by CTC</p> <p>California Standards for the Teaching Profession and the Continuum of Teaching Practice</p> <p>Formative Assessment of California Teachers (discontinued 2017); blank templates uploaded to Canvas</p> <p>Completed tasks uploaded to Canvas; tasks completed by teacher participants and their ISP.</p> <p>Blank versions of new documents, uploaded to Google Drive</p> <p>Accreditation reports for: CGU, UCLA, LAUSD, LACOE, Tulare County</p>

Preliminary credential documents. First, we reviewed several groups of documents pertaining to the preliminary credential (Items #1-3 in Table 8). These included Teacher Performance Assessments, which are required of any teacher who seeks the preliminary

credential. There are several versions available; the most common version is the CalTPA₂₀ (and is the one CGU uses). TPAs are in transition; the current models are being phased out and the new version being phased in for fall 2018. Due to resource constraints, we reviewed only the CalTPA, but we reviewed both the outgoing and new versions (as of this writing, the new version is still in field test form, and rubrics are not yet publicly available). We also reviewed CTC documents regulating teacher education programs (both traditional and intern pathways), including the Teacher Performance Expectations (TPEs).

Clear credential documents. We reviewed many clear credential documents (Items #4-9 in Table 8). The first were CTC requirements for induction programs (Program Standards)—at only four pages, it is slim in comparison to the 80 pages on preliminary credentialing. The second is the California Standards for the Teaching Profession (CSTPs) and the accompanying Continuum of Teaching Practice, a rubric for the CSTPs.

The next are a set of documents from CGU induction. At the time of our fieldwork, CGU used FACT, which constituted the sole written account of candidates' induction progress (as well as ISP's interaction with them). Participants uploaded their FACT documents to CGU's learning management system, Canvas, and CGU gave us access to all Canvas documents for our four participating teachers. We reviewed the blank versions of all FACT documents as well as all our participants' completed FACT documents (uploaded between September 2016 and June 2017). CGU now uses a new set of induction documents, and we reviewed the blank versions of these forms.

Our ninth and final category of documents was CTC accreditation reports, which are publicly available reports prepared by the CTC articulating grounds for granting accreditation (or not) at the end of the seven-year institutional accreditation cycle ("Accreditation Reports," 2018). We reviewed files for five institutions: CGU, University of California Los Angeles (UCLA), Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD), Los Angeles County Office of Education (LACOE), and Tulare County Office of Education.²¹

²⁰ As of January 2017, 49 programs were using the CalTPA, 24 were using the edTPA, 18 were using PACT, and 1 was using FAST (Wayne Bacer, personal communication, October 10, 2017).

²¹ We used purposive sampling (Krathwohl, 2009). For our Private/Independent Institution, we purposively sampled CGU (Krathwohl, 2009), given its central presence in our study. Among UCs, UCLA was the only possible choice because it alone offers the General Education Clear Credential. We found that no Cal States issue Clear Credentials for General Education, so no Cal States were included. We then sought three LEAs to bring our sample to five. This felt appropriate as a total number (given our aim to use this data to cross-reference major findings) and three LEAs out of five total institutions is reflective of the dominance of LEAs in the induction landscape. We purposively sampled LAUSD, given it is the largest Clear credential program in the state. Next, we chose only from those LEAs that were accredited in 2018, the year of this writing, both in an effort to get the most recent reports possible and because these would reflect the 2016 changes to Induction Program Standards. Of these, we selected the two that had the most number of program completers listed for the previous year: Los Angeles County Office of Education (LACOE) (308 program completers) and Tulare County Office of Education (131 program completers). Also, located in the Central Valley, Tulare provides geographic diversity in a sample otherwise dominated by institutions from Southern California. Our final sample of five institutions yielded 14 total documents: two each for the three LEAs (six documents total), and four each for CGU and UCLA (eight documents total). Accreditation for CGU and UCLA

Data Coding and Analysis

Quantitative analysis. We generated quantitative data on our teachers' observed lessons using the Classroom Qualities for English Language Learners in Language Arts Instruction (CQELL). This observation protocol was developed by Goldenberg, Haertel, Coleman, Reese and Rodriguez-Mojica (2013) to assess instruction for English learners in elementary schools, but it can be used in other grade levels, as well. This data was helpful as a cross-reference on what teachers had self-reported about their instruction in interviews and how they wrote about their instruction in their FACT documents. The second author, who was in charge of CQELL scoring and had been certified in its use, scored all observation rubrics according to CQELL master codes and training manuals.²²

Qualitative analysis. For our interview transcripts and documents, we hand-coded using two main strategies of qualitative coding: our *a priori* framework (Figure 2) and open coding (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 2011).

Both authors were involved in coding interviews and documents using the framework in Figure 2. The first author began by hand-coding the teacher interview data using the framework domains and categories, also adding one theme related to teachers' perceptions about the induction process both generally and in terms of how it supported teaching ELs. The second author hand-coded our document data set. All pages from CalTPAs (outgoing and field test materials), CTC preliminary and induction documents, CSTPs, and blank CGU induction materials (both FACT and the new documentation system) were reviewed. However, it was not possible to code the entire data set of *completed* CGU FACT documents. At CGU during our year of data collection, teachers completed 62 discrete assignments over the course of the year (36 FACT tasks in the fall and 26 in the spring). Multiplied by four teachers, that yielded 248 completed assignments totaling thousands of pages of teacher-submitted documents. Therefore, we reduced the data set by purposively sampling (Krathwohl, 2009) nine FACT tasks per teacher. Our criteria for inclusion were: included tasks should reveal a diverse array of teacher tasks (lesson planning, teacher self-reflection, etc.); potentially address all three domains of our framework; and include tasks authored by the ISP (some FACT documents housed ISP notes, comments, and evaluations).

Once the full document data set was assembled, passages were selected to code using the search function to isolate all passages containing to key search terms (*English Language*

included more documentation than for the LEAs because these two institutions both initially received the rating *Accredited with Stipulations*, which meant the Accreditation Committees visited them twice (once to issue the initial report, a second time a year later to confirm the programs had made all required improvements and to issue full Accreditation).

²² We did not have the resources to double-code all observations. However, both authors were trained in the use of this protocol by one of the rubrics' designers, Dr. Rhoda Coleman. Also, the first author accompanied the second author on about one-quarter of the observations, discussed the codes with the second author, and compared notes. At the conclusion of the study, we presented these final means by teacher to their ISP (ISP 1). We had not written the teachers' names on her copy of the document, but she correctly guessed the names by looking at the means, offering some evidence of reliability.

Development, ELD, English Learners, linguistic, language, culturally appropriate, and culturally relevant). The second author coded these passages using the framework domains and categories.

Once all documents were coded, the authors collaboratively reviewed the coding and made adjustments, including re-formulating the framework in some areas. As we compared notes and discussed emerged findings, we noted the inconsistency that, although teachers were claiming induction did not address ELs, a large number of FACT documents did explicitly address ELs (discussed below). As a result, we recoded the completed FACT tasks, looking this time not merely for *occurrences* of search terms related to ELs, but evaluating more holistically the relative importance these EL references had in induction work overall. This allowed us to analyze not merely *what kinds* of EL-specific tasks teachers were engaged in, but *how important* they were (or felt) in relation to all the other induction work.

Preliminary findings from this coding were shared with the participating ISP, other ISPs at CGU who had not participated in the study, and CGU's Induction Coordinator. All confirmed that the preliminary findings aligned well with their personal insights and experiences as induction professionals.

To provide a more nuanced discussion of coaches' work in induction and their potential role in addressing and assessing teaching ELs and to cross-reference our earlier findings, we expanded our data set to incorporate eight interviews with induction personnel (ISPs). Further, we analyzed CTC accreditation reports detailing institutions' induction programs to provide information about how coaches are selected and trained, among other matters.

For these new data sources, we used an open coding strategy (Emerson et al., 2011). Since our purpose was to delve deeper into how exactly mentoring looks in induction, we began First Cycle coding with guiding questions in mind (*How are mentors hired? How are mentors trained? What EL-specific training do mentors receive? etc.*) and used descriptive coding to name the topics that emerged (e.g. *mentor training, mentor qualifications, etc.*). In Second Cycle coding, we refined, collapsed, and expanded these topic-based codes (Saldana, 2016) to align to our Research Questions around ways that ELs are addressed and assessed in induction.

In Sections 5 and 6 below, we present our findings organized by research question. For each question, we focus on preliminary and then induction requirements, organizing findings by categories of our framework (Figure 2). Table 9 summarizes the results of our analysis, providing exemplars (when available) from our complete data set for each category from the framework.

Table 9. Data Exemplars From Across Our Data Set, Using the Framework

Framework		Data Exemplars	
		Preliminary Credential (Items #1-3, Table 8)	Induction Documents (Items #4-9, Table 8)
1. EL-specific Scaffolds	1.1 Language objectives	Preservice content for interns: "...develop effective instruction that promotes students' access to and achievement in the academic content standards (e.g., development of content and language objectives... structured oral interaction)" (pp. 2-3).	Teacher Interview: "One of the things that [the university EL class] did that really, really helped is I feel like I finally understand language objectives...Understanding that, now I can see, okay ELs might need a bit different path to get to the language object. I'm like, 'Ahh'" (Teacher 4)
	1.2 Modified language for ELs	<i>No specific references found</i>	<i>No specific references found</i>
	1.3 Use of L1	<i>No specific references found</i>	Teacher Interview: "[Last year,] I would give a summary in English and then kind of give the translated version of the original hand-out in whatever their native language was." (Teacher 1)
	1.4 Facilitating English language production	Preservice content for interns: "...develop effective instruction that promotes students' access to and achievement in the academic content standards (e.g.... structured oral interaction)" (pp. 2-3).	ISP Interview: "The Scripting tool lead to the conversation about how can you get students to sit and talk more. This is not just about EL students. Just in general, how can you get more students to be discussing academic content during... either group work, activities or classroom discussions... [T]he push towards finding ways to get students to interact more with the language of science..." (ISP 2)
	1.5 Other sheltered instruction strategies	TPE 1: "Connect subject matter to real-life contexts"	CSTP Element 1.2: "Connecting learning to students' prior knowledge, backgrounds, life experiences, and interests."
2. EL-specific Teacher Expertise	2.1 Linguistics	Single Subject Credential Requirement: requirement for "the systematic study of phonemic awareness, phonics, and decoding"	<i>No specific references found</i> ("Single Subject Teaching Credential Requirements for Teachers Prepared in California," 2016)
	2.2 Pedagogical language knowledge	Program Standards: "assure that all students are provided curriculum and instruction that effectively merges literacy within each content area...[E]mbrace the concept that English Language and literacy development is a shared responsibility of all content area educators"	<i>No specific references found</i>
	2.3 Learning about/Knowing / Assessing ELs	TPE 5: "Interpret English learners' assessment data to identify their level of academic proficiency in English as well as in their primary language, as applicable, and use this information in planning instruction."	Continuum for CSTP Element 3.6: "Uses multiple measures for assessing English learners' performance to identify gaps in English language development."

	2.4 Analyzing language demands of texts/tasks	Preservice for interns: “[L]earn to analyze and articulate the language and literacy demands inherent in content area instruction for English language learners (e.g., linguistic demands, language function and form... academic vocabulary...)”	<i>No specific references found</i>
	2.5 Adapting curriculum and assessment	TPE 3: “Adapt subject matter curriculum, organization, and planning to support the acquisition and use of academic language within learning activities to promote the subject matter knowledge of all students, including the full range of English learners, Standard English learners...”	Continuum for CSTP Element 3.6: “[A]dapt instruction to provide a wide range of scaffolded supports for language and content for the range of English learners.”
3. EL-specific Orientations	3.1 Equity orientation	TPE 6.2: “Recognize their own values and implicit and explicit biases, [how they] may positively and negatively affect teaching and learning, and work to mitigate any negative impact on the teaching and learning of students”	<i>No specific references found</i>
	3.2 Appreciate the value of family involvement	Preservice for interns: “[L]earn and understand the importance of students’ family and cultural backgrounds, and experiences in planning instruction and supporting student learning. Candidates communicate effectively with parents and families” (p. 2)	Teacher Interview: “I really thought that Mexican family, or EL family, [sic] they don’t value education... Because they don’t do anything at home. They don’t help them... They just want to be construction workers, or ... I don’t see them as someone who wants to go towards doctor career or teaching...after reading [Guadalupe Valdes’ “Con Respeto” in the university-based induction class]... I was like ‘whoa.’ It talks about how every family they interview, the parents actually cares (sic) a lot about education.” (Teacher 2)
	3.3 Critical stance	Program Standards: “critically analyze... the context, structure, and history of public education in California... [and examine] issues of equity and justice within the structures and contexts of public education”	<i>No specific references found</i>
	3.4 Respect for cultural/ ethnic/ linguistic diversity	TPE 1: “[U]nderstand and value the socioeconomic, cultural, and linguistic background [and] funds of knowledge... of students, families, and the community and use [them]...to establish and maintain positive relationships in and outside the classroom.”	Reflective Questions for CSTP Element 2.1: “Promoting social development and responsibility within a caring community where each student is treated fairly and respectfully. As teachers develop, they may ask, “How do I...” or “Why do I...” ... help all students accept and respect diversity in terms of cultural, religious, linguistic, and economic backgrounds...”?

To What Extent is the Teaching of ELs Addressed by Credential Requirements?

This section discusses where and how credential requirements address teaching ELs. We review each phase of credentialing (preliminary and clear) in turn, using the categories from our framework.

Addressing ELs—Preliminary

Overall, teaching ELs is strongly emphasized in preliminary credential requirements. This is largely a result of the embedded credential model that California adopted in 2004.

Addressing EL-specific scaffolds (preliminary). During the preservice training period for interns, candidates must receive instruction in “a wide variety of strategies for including English learners in mainstream curriculum, providing scaffolding, modeling, and support while maintaining access to academic content and providing opportunities for language development” (“Preconditions for internship programs,” 2016). These skills include differentiation by English proficiency level and providing “linguistic scaffolding,” among other things (“Preliminary Multiple Subject and Single Subject Credential Program Standards,” 2017, p. 5). TPPs determine how they will address this content, but it might be presented in coursework on subject-specific teaching methods, and then modeled in clinical settings by supervisors, mentors, or faculty members. To take a specific example: programs are likely asking candidates to work with the new English Language Development Standards (“California English Language Development Standards: Kindergarten Through Grade 12,” 2012) and other supporting materials (“English Language Arts/English Language Development Framework for California Public Schools: Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve,” 2015); write lessons drawing from these resources; and then teach these lessons in their clinical settings.

Addressing EL-specific expertise (preliminary). Linguistics is heavily emphasized in credential requirements. All candidates must complete “a comprehensive reading instruction course that includes... the systematic study of phonemic awareness, phonics, and decoding... and diagnostic and early intervention techniques” (“Single Subject Teaching Credential Requirements for Teachers Prepared in California,” 2016). There are frequent references to developing ELs’ (and all students’) academic language, and one passage in the TPEs is devoted to Language Acquisition and Development (“Preliminary Credential Program Standards,” 2017).

The outgoing CalTPA featured a great deal of assessment on linguistics, and preliminary Program Standards emphasize knowledge of ELs. The TPEs make repeated references to candidates learning to obtain information about ELs regarding life experiences, prior schooling, home languages, and linguistic, socioeconomic, family, and academic backgrounds. Credential documents speak to multiple ways teachers should be able to collect information about ELs, including interpreting assessment results “to distinguish between students whose first language is English, English learners, [and] standard English learners (“Program Standards,” 2017, p. 10).

Preliminary requirements include references to candidates assessing ELs’ English proficiency levels and differentiating accordingly. For example, the TPEs require candidates to

“[i]nterpret English learners' assessment data to identify their level of academic proficiency in English as well as in their primary language, as applicable, and use this information in planning instruction.” For interns, preservice content must include instruction in how to “acquire and demonstrate the ability to use initial, diagnostic, formative, and summative assessment information (including performance based assessment) to identify students’ language proficiencies and to develop effective instruction...” (pp. 2-3).

The proficiencies discussed above are assessed through the teacher education program, but the CalTPA also places a significant focus on candidates’ ability to learn about ELs. Both the outgoing and the new CalTPA require that candidates provide a detailed profile about an EL in their clinical setting and make instructional decisions about ELs based on these accounts.

An additional strategy for learning about ELs assessed in the both the outgoing and the new CalTPA is analyzing actual student work. In the present field test materials, candidates must submit actual copies of work from students in their class and, based on their assessment, decide what to “do next instructionally to meet their content learning and language development needs” (“Analysis of formal assessment results template,” 2017, p. 1).

Credential requirements highlight the ability to identify the language demands inherent in classroom tasks. For example, preservice content for interns must entail “learn[ing] to analyze and articulate the language and literacy demands inherent in content area instruction for English language learners (e.g., linguistic demands, language function and form, audience and purpose, academic vocabulary, comprehension of multiple oral and written genres)” (“Preconditions for internship programs,” 2016). Finally, there are multiple references in preliminary requirements to candidates using the ELD Standards in their content area instruction (“Preconditions for internship programs,” 2016; “Preliminary Multiple Subject and Single Subject Credential Program Standards,” 2017).

Programs determine how they will ensure candidates are introduced to, practice, and are assessed on this EL-specific expertise. Since it is by definition abstract knowledge, much is likely addressed in coursework. In fact, it is likely at least one subcategory—linguistics—is a staple of teacher education course syllabi because this is actually a major point of criticism in the EL literature. Despite decades of controversy around the validity (and utility) of language acquisition theory for teachers and disagreement over distinctions between “conversational” vs. “academic” English (Cummins, 1979; Krashen, 1982), critics lament their domination in teacher education programs, which continue to present them to candidates uncritically (Faltis & Valdés, 2016).

Addressing orientations (preliminary). Personal beliefs and commitments are addressed throughout preliminary credential documents. For example, one of the six TPEs is devoted exclusively to teacher professionalism and “the profession’s code of ethics” (p. 12), and it specifies candidates must “recognize their own values and implicit and explicit biases, the ways in which these values and implicit and explicit biases may positively and negatively affect teaching and learning, and work to mitigate any negative impact on the teaching and learning of students” (p. 11). Also, candidates must “exhibit positive dispositions of caring, support,

acceptance, and fairness toward all students and families” (p. 11), “take responsibility for all students' academic learning outcomes,” and “hold high expectations for all students” (p. 12). Requirements specify a personal commitment to equity for ELs, specifically. Finally, candidates must “understand and value the socioeconomic, cultural, and linguistic background, funds of knowledge, and achievement expectations of students, families, and the community” (p. 4). These references gesture toward resisting deficit mindsets regarding ELs, their communities, or their linguistic and cultural resources (de Jong et al., 2013; Lucas & Villegas, 2013).

Requirements also involve taking a critical stance toward social, historical, and contextual factors relevant to education. For example, candidates must “critically analyze... the context, structure, and history of public education in California” (“Preliminary Multiple Subject and Single Subject Credential Program Standards,” 2017) and examine “issues of equity and justice within the structures and contexts of public education” (p. 12). These calls for “critical analysis” and examination of “issues of equity and justice” align with what Lucas and Villegas (2008) refer to as an advocacy stance. Though programs determine how they will meet these requirements, examples of how this might be addressed is through courses relating to diversity, social justice, and education policy; and through assigned readings in classic texts on critical theory (e.g. Freire, 1970), critiques of US schools through the lens of class or race (e.g. Delpit, 2006; Hooks, 2000), and other popular readings on “savage inequalities” (Kozol, 2012).

Diversity is also highlighted in terms of the schools in which candidates learn to teach. Candidates must work in schools that “provide candidates with opportunities to... experience issues of diversity that affect school climate” (“Common Standards,” 2016). Although this standard serves a pedagogical purpose, it is likely that this is also intended to promote personal commitment to, and comfort with, teaching these populations. Such references point to the importance of an asset-oriented mindset toward ELs, their communities, and their linguistic and cultural resources (de Jong et al., 2013; Lucas & Villegas, 2013); and they often gesture toward (but never explicitly reference) culturally relevant pedagogy (Ladson-Billings, 1995).

Clear Credential Phase: Addressing ELs

Whereas the teaching of ELs is strongly emphasized in preliminary credential requirements, the same is not true in induction. The guiding document for induction is the Induction Preconditions and Program Standards, and on this four-page document, there is not a single reference to ELs. There are several references to ELs in the California Standards for the Teaching Profession (CSTPs), but most appear in text meant to amplify or elaborate on the 38 Elements. Of the 38 Elements themselves, only one explicitly references ELs.

The larger issue is that, just because the induction documents reference ELs, candidates are not obliged to focus on them. Compared to preliminary, induction is a much more open-ended process. Candidates and mentors jointly decide the candidate’s goals, and while these need to be aligned to the CSTPs, it is not *required* that they address any particular CSTP Element. Consequently, the emphasis of induction on teaching ELs varies to the degree that teachers (or their mentors) elect to focus on them. University-based programs can elect to offer

courses specifically tailored to help new teachers address EL needs (CGU does this), but this is entirely left to the programs. As currently structured, the State has little external assurance that teaching ELs is addressed effectively during induction.

In the following discussion of how induction addresses teaching ELs, we first present results from our content analysis of the CSTPs and accreditation reports, and then we turn to data from our CGU case study (analysis of CGU documents and interviews).

Addressing EL-specific scaffolds (induction). Across all the 38 elements of the CSTPs, the only one that address ELs is Element 3.6: candidates should “[a]ddres[s] the needs of English Learners and students with special needs to provide equitable access to the content.” This reference is vague, but there is more specificity in supplementary material. In the Continuum (i.e. the rubric) for that Element, there are several references to scaffolding, differentiation and SDAIE strategies. As one example: teachers at the Emerging level (i.e. the lowest) merely “provide adapted materials to help [ELs] access content,” but at the Innovating level (the highest), teachers are able to flexibly adjust and eliminate those scaffolds. In other words, they go from being able to provide adaptations, to knowing how to flexibly create and adjust those adaptations and even remove them in response to ELs’ needs. Finally, there are CSTPs that reference EL-specific scaffolds, but without explicitly addressing ELs. One is Element 1.2: Connecting learning to students’ prior knowledge, backgrounds, life experiences, and interests. None of these areas constitute required areas of focus.

We also reviewed accreditation reports for evidence of induction programs addressing EL-specific scaffolds. We found one instance, in a university-based program in which induction coaches were expected to coordinate site-based PD on special topics including SIOP training.²³

In terms of our case study data, we found that of the four ILPs for our teacher participants, none had specific goals in their ILP related to ELs. Table 10 shows the extent to which teaching ELs was addressed in our sample teachers’ ILPs. This finding is explored more below.

²³ "Accreditation Revisit, UCLA," 2013.

Table 10. Inclusion of EL-specific Teaching Behaviors, Areas of Expertise, and Orientations in key Induction Documents and Activities

	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 4
Individualized Learning Plan - Extent to which ILP includes an explicit focus on teaching ELs				
Focus of the induction plan: Does the focus area(s) for induction include teaching for ELs?	No	No	No	No
Examples of focus areas chosen by teacher	Innovative curriculum and experiences	Small-group interactions	Student empowerment	"Brain-breaks"
Focus of induction plan: Does the focus question include teaching for ELs?	No	No	No	No
Action plan: Does the section on measurable results include ELs?	No	No	No	No
Observation Notes - Extent to which observation includes specific focus or mention of teaching ELs (organized by CSTP)				
CSTP 1: Engaging and supporting all students in learning	No	No	Yes	No
CSTP 2: Creating and maintaining effective environments for student learning	No	No	No	No
CSTP 3: Understanding and organizing subject matter for student learning	No	No	No	No
CSTP 4: Planning instruction and designing learning experiences for all students	No	No	No	No
CSTP 5: Assessing students for learning	No	No	No	No
Other				
Post-observation reflection (focuses on any EL-related issue and provides evidence on how it was handled), 10/2016	n.a.	No	No	No

Source: B-3 Initial classroom observation (collected October, 2016), Form B-4 Post-observation notes (collected October, 2016) in FACT. Form C-1, ILP in FACT (collected November 2016).

As noted, FACT was discontinued after our period of fieldwork, and the Induction Coordinator is still in the process of revising and writing documents for Year 2 of induction (2018-2019). Content analysis of the spring 2018 documents reveals that broadly speaking, the new system is dramatically pared down and more focused. For example, there are only 10 forms for teachers to fill out for spring 2018 compared to 26 for spring 2016. However, there are also dramatically fewer references to ELs across documents. Only two of the 10 forms contain any mention of ELs or EL-specific scaffolds, but these include writing language objectives and differentiating for ELs.

Our interviews with induction coaches suggest that scaffolding for ELs is addressed in varying ways, according to the coaches' experience and context. ISP 4, an expert teacher at a dual language school, works on specific classroom behaviors with her candidate like slowing down and using visuals. Induction coaches working in more traditional contexts also referenced ways they had tried to steer candidates to address ELs. ISP 3 was emphatic about her teachers differentiating by CELDT level, possibly because she is also a site administrator and improving EL outcomes is a site-wide priority. ISPs 2 and 3 talked about mentoring protocols that are natural

jumping off points that help candidates think about differentiation. Both referenced how the New Teacher Center's (NTC) "Analyzing Student Work" protocol helps candidates think about differentiation, because it involves sorting work into subgroups by proficiency level and then tailoring future instruction to the needs of each group.²⁴ A final scaffold mentors talked about was facilitating the production of academic language. ISP 2 mentioned that the NTC tool of "Scripting" a lesson, or taking verbatim notes of teachers' and students' words, helped candidates think about how to promote greater use of academic language:

"The Scripting tool kind of lead to the conversation about how can you get students to sit and talk more. This is not just about EL students. Just in general, how can you get more students to be discussing academic content during... either group work, activities or classroom discussions. So... [an EL focus is] not necessarily documented there, but the push towards finding ways to get students to interact more with the language of science in the classroom was probably somewhere documented there." (ISP 2)

Addressing EL-specific teacher expertise. As with EL-specific scaffolds, there are some references to EL-specific areas of expertise in the supplementary text of the CSTPs, should the candidate choose to focus on them. These include determining goals that address language abilities and monitoring and assessing ELs' learning. In particular, passages focusing on ELs in the supplementary text of the CSTPs address the importance of teachers knowing their EL students and using that knowledge to design "responsive" instruction. For example, one of the 38 sub-elements of the CSTPs calls on teachers to "use knowledge of students' academic readiness, language proficiency, cultural background, and individual development to plan instruction" (p. 11). Other passages list dimensions along which teachers should know their students and use that knowledge to build instruction, including prior knowledge and experiences; students' lives; and "families' racial, cultural, linguistic, and socioeconomic backgrounds" (p. 16).

In our interviews, several mentors talked about guiding candidates toward greater knowledge of ELs, especially given candidates' tendency to construct ELs as a monolithic group:

Where they struggle the most is in differentiation... For them they see [students] all the same, but they're not all the same." (ISP 1, Interview 3).

"The fact that you describe your English Learners all as, 'I have 15 English Learners,' tells me you don't know your English Learners. That's not who they are. They're not just English learners. They have different needs and different skills....[I] push them to really disaggregate." (Induction Course Instructor)

Induction coaches and program coordinators explained that candidates struggle to determine ELD levels largely because they mistakenly think they have to use formal test scores, i.e. CELDT (or the English Language Proficiency Assessments for California or ELPAC, the successor of CELDT as of 2018). This is a problem because ELD test data is not always available at the

²⁴ Though they worked for different CMOs, both induction programs had been developed in partnership with NTC.

beginning of the year (or, in the international settings the induction course instructor dealt with, not available at all). But candidates should have the ability to conduct informal assessments anyway (short writing prompts, reading diagnostics, etc.).

Addressing orientations (induction). Finally, there are references in the CSTPs to the needed personal orientations for teaching ELs. For example, CSTP Element 6.4 calls for candidates to “[w]ork with families to support student learning.” Also, CSTP Element 2.1 includes supplementary text indicating that candidates should “[p]romote social development and responsibility within a caring community where each student is treated fairly and respectfully,” and “help all students accept and respect diversity in terms of cultural, religious, linguistic, and economic backgrounds”

We also found some evidence of this focus in our fieldwork. During the spring semester of induction, CGU teachers were enrolled in an academic class at CGU focused on ELs, and it helped teachers recognize the importance of family involvement and actively minimizing personal bias. One of our teacher participants had had limited experience with Latino students, and for her, the connection between formal induction classes and what she had experienced in her own classroom proved a valuable learning opportunity:

I really thought that Mexican family, or EL family, [sic] they don't value education.... Because they don't do anything at home. They don't help them... They just want to be construction workers, or ... I don't see them as someone who wants to go towards doctor career or teaching...after reading [Guadalupe Valdes' "*Con Respeto*" in the university-based induction class]... I was like 'whoa.' It talks about how every family they interview, the parents actually cares (sic) a lot about education. However, ... the misunderstanding part is in their mind as long as they send their kids, make sure they're in the school, it is the teacher's job to do the rest. They don't know the core American value....Reading is something you should do at home. They don't do that... I thought that they just don't care, but no, all of them do.... they talk with anger when one of the kids drop (sic) out of high school. They said would do anything to get the daughter to go back to school. (Teacher 2)

In short, our document analysis, interviews, and fieldwork pointed to several examples of how ELs are or can be addressed in induction.

One final point to make here is that across the CSTPs and program-specific documents we analyzed, ELs are almost uniformly referenced in phrases that include students with special needs—including the single reference to ELs of the 38 CSTP Elements (teachers must learn to address “the needs of English Learners and students with special needs”). The concern we would raise here is not a concern about whether credentialing devotes enough “air time” to either group. In fact, for preliminary credentialing, a major change in the revised TPEs from 2016 is a much stronger emphasis on general education teachers supporting students with disabilities in their classrooms (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2017). Rather, the point we would make is that their persistent coupling constructs them as a monolithic

group, similar in their learning profiles, when they are not. Also, the frequent use of language in these passages around “needs,” “learning needs,” and “specific needs” works to “other” them in ways that mark them as deficient. And aside from deficiency mindsets being inappropriate from an equity standpoint, deficit orientations toward linguistic diversity in particular is strongly critiqued in the scholarship (Delpit, 2006; Faltis & Valdés, 2016; Lee, 2006; Paris & Alim, 2017).

The Role of the Mentor in Addressing ELs

Next, we consider ways that teaching ELs is addressed in induction in ways that may be harder to capture. This is because what happens in mentoring may fly somewhat “under the radar.” Nowhere in the four pages of CTC induction Program Standards is any particular approach to mentoring outlined: programs have latitude in deciding what mentoring looks like. Also, induction is so open-ended that records like accreditation files will not capture the specific topics mentors and their candidates focus on in their ILPs. And now that FACT has been discontinued, the documentation process is so program-specific that, if programs do not require ISPs to record EL-specific conversations, it is unlikely there will be any record they happened (if at all).

That said, our interviews with induction mentors did provide evidence that mentors address teaching ELs, even if it is not required or formally captured. ISP 1 was emphatic that teaching ELs was a necessary area of focus in induction. Rather than taking the sequential view that learning to teach ELs is an “advanced” topic best reserved for later years, she argued:

They need to initially focus on the English Learner. Even if they aren't a level of proficiency to do it to the highest level that it needs to be done, they still need to do it. I really genuinely think that they still need to do it because for their own awareness ...Granted, the longer they do it they will become better at it, but it's not that you have to...wait till I get better to start doing it (ISP 1, Interview 3).

For her, even waiting a few months is inappropriate:

[These candidates] work in Southern California. They really can't afford to take three or four months before they know what to do with this kid who has been in your classroom since August (Interview 3).

Other induction personnel described many strategies for addressing ELs in mentoring. One mentoring strategy almost all participants touched on was the “art” of conversations that steer a candidate toward focusing on ELs (or any goal) while making the candidate *feel* she arrived at the goal herself. By being less overt and directive, the candidate has more “buy in” than if the mentor had imposed the goal (Induction Program Developer).

In short, mentors work with their teachers to address teaching of ELs even though this is not formally stated in program documents or an explicit requirement. The extent of their work and how much this was a part of teacher-coach conversations varied by mentor, and by school context.

What Does “Addressing” Really Mean?

We offer one final reflection on the question of to what extent induction addresses ELs. We have treated the question as a matter of finding occurrences of the word “EL” in induction documents. However, whether induction “addresses” teaching ELs may actually be a matter of perception.

Across our interviews, CGU teachers and induction personnel reported that ELs was not a focus of induction. This was somewhat in conflict with two findings, though. First, although candidates are not required to focus on ELs, there are several references to ELs in supplementary materials for the CSTPs. In particular, when we did a content analysis of FACT for the year of field work, we found that *over half* of the blank FACT tasks explicitly referenced ELs.²⁵ Simply by filling out the required boxes, induction addressed a host of EL-specific scaffolds.

To try to reconcile apparently contradicting findings – i.e. teachers saying ELs was not a focus of induction, but FACT documents containing many EL-specific tasks – we recoded the FACT documents to look more holistically not just for occurrences of references to ELs in FACT, but for the relative importance of these tasks. We noted that in just under half the tasks (14 out of 24), no task was solely focused on ELs: all references were embedded within larger tasks with a more global focus. In other cases, the EL-specific portion was optional or minimal.²⁶ Although FACT was filled with references to ELs-specific scaffolds, those references were somewhat buried. This is similar to the finding that although there are references to ELs in the CSTPs, they are largely in supplementary text, not the 38 CSTPs themselves. In short, participants’ perceptions of induction may suggest that mere references to ELs is by no means enough to guarantee teachers pay attention.

FACT has now been discontinued and programs have leeway to create their own FACT-like templates or to use other ways of guiding candidates through their ILP. At CGU, the new document contains fewer explicit references to ELs. Other programs may elect to use forms that prompt teachers to consider ELs to varying degrees-or not at all. Recent teacher education research suggests that preservice teachers tend to “take-up” and apply that which has been carefully taught and focused on (Anderson & Stillman, 2013; Schneider Kavanagh & Rainey, 2017). Whether and how induction programs use this open-ended process to maximize teacher learning—in any particular area, as well as teaching ELs—remains to be seen. ²⁷

²⁵ As an example, the FACT lesson plan template (which teachers had to complete and submit on three separate occasions) had required fields for the lesson’s Language Objective, ELD Standards and Proficiency levels, and notes for differentiation for ELs.

²⁶ That state test was the California English Language Development Test (CELDT). In 2017-2018, the CELDT was replaced by the English Language Proficiency Assessments for California (ELPAC) (“About the ELPAC,” 2018).

²⁷ The CGU Coordinator noted that based on preliminary findings from this study, she is working to add more references to ELs into the revised forms for fall 2018. When asked what made her so committed to doing so, she explained, “EL is my passion, so I’m always going to ‘go there.’” But these findings have led her to believe she cannot just assume her ISPs would naturally address ELs even if not prompted to do so: “[I]n looking at the [study] data, and

To What Extent Does Credentialing Require Demonstrating Proficiency?

The previous section analyzed whether credential requirements *addressed* teaching of ELs. We now turn to our second Research Question: to what extent are teachers *assessed and required to demonstrate proficiency* in teaching ELs? As above, we review each phase (preliminary and induction) in turn, again considering how documents, interviews, and fieldwork revealed whether teachers were required to demonstrate proficiency. We also incorporate our analysis of the teachers' proficiency levels in these areas, drawing from the CQELL ratings of observed lessons, and analysis of the work teachers uploaded to FACT.

Preliminary Phase: Demonstrating Proficiency

There are multiple mechanisms in place at the preliminary phase for assessing candidate proficiency in teaching ELs. The TPEs contain frequent reference to ELs, and the guide every element of teacher preparation and certification. For example, TPEs are assessed through coursework, clinical settings, and the TPAs. The process is systematic and teacher preparation programs must meet stringent requirements around fidelity to these rules in order to maintain accreditation. Also, candidates must pass the TPA requirement, and both models of the TPA reviewed here involve assessment of teaching ELs. The "outgoing" model had EL-specific sections on all four tests; the field test model for the "new" version has fewer explicit references to ELs, but it addresses language proficiency throughout.

We wish to qualify this claim in one sense, though. Though preliminary contains a multitude of EL-specific benchmarks, none of them in and of themselves stand in the way of a candidate earning a credential. In other words, there is no single, objective, externally imposed benchmark on proficiency in actually teaching ELs that candidates must meet. For example, although teachers must be assessed on EL-specific TPEs throughout preliminary, programs have latitude in determining criteria for success (ex: what "passing" an EL-specific TPE looks like, or how many chances a candidate has to "redo" an assessment, are internal program decisions).

Moreover, although candidates must pass the TPAs to earn their credential, these are not unqualified indicators of proficiency because of a) how they are scored and b) what they assess. In terms of scoring, the outgoing CalTPA model meant that candidates could struggle in some sections (and even fail exams) if they compensated with especially strong performance elsewhere.²⁸ Passing scores have not yet been set for the new CalTPA, but it appears that it will be possible to pass even if candidates receive a score of 2 (out of 4) on some of the rubrics (Rebecca Watford, personal communication, May 14, 2018).

In terms of what they assess, the outgoing CalTPA was an untimed, take-home writing

everything, it's not necessarily the case. So I'm trying to prompt the ISPs, not only in the forms but also in their guide of how to walk [candidates] through and the syllabus..."

²⁸ For the outgoing model, each of the four CalTPAs are graded out of 4 points by an evaluator (with local or centralized scoring available); teachers must earn a minimum total score of 12 (out of 16) across the four TPAs. However, with a minimum passing score of 12 out of 16, a teacher can fail one TPA (with scores of 2, 3, 3, and 4) and still be eligible for the credential.

exam on which candidates could get significant assistance; it only required one video of classroom instruction; and that video was not specifically evaluated for EL-specific teaching. The new CalTPA field test materials call for multiple videos, and it is reasonable to assume these will be assessed for proficiency in meeting the needs of language learners, but rubrics have not been publicly released so it is not possible to determine how candidates' videos will be evaluated.

Nonetheless, it is clear the preliminary phase contains frequent, varied assessment of proficiency in teaching ELs. It is so infused in preliminary, in fact, that those who earn this credential automatically obtain their EL Authorization. Teachers receiving a preliminary credential have demonstrated some level of proficiency in teaching ELs. As we shall see, assessment of proficiency in induction is a much more nuanced issue.

Clear Credential (Induction) Phase: Demonstrating Proficiency

In contrast to the preliminary credential process, which is systematic and fairly standardized in how it requires candidates to show teaching proficiency, induction is highly personalized. The flexible, open-ended nature of induction is premised on the idea that teachers have acquired and demonstrated foundational levels of proficiency at the preliminary stage, and induction is a vehicle for supporting further development as teachers apply what they have learned.

...the big take away for me is I have the answers. I have everything I need. I've got the instinct. I've have the desire to do a good job. I care about my students. I've got it. It's just a matter of figuring it out and it's not going to be perfect immediately. (Teacher 4)

This assumption has been called into question by studies showing that even teachers with strong content knowledge in their assigned subject (i.e. math or literacy) need assistance to grapple with complex aspects of teaching those subjects (Britton et al., 2000). Also, there is a sizable body of literature on teachers' difficulties retaining and enacting things they learned in teacher education once they become classroom teachers themselves (Ball & Cohen, 1999; Ball, Sleep, Boerst, & Bass, 2009; Lampert, 2010). This is likely to be the case for teaching ELs. Even though teacher education programs include coursework and assessments on teaching ELs, teachers struggle to adequately translate this knowledge in their own classrooms (Faltis & Valdés, 2016; Lucas & Villegas, 2013).

As a vehicle for teacher learning, induction is designed very differently than the preliminary credential phase. It is a process not just to initiate teachers into the classroom, but to further their development, socialize them into their new role, and build confidence (Bullough, 2012; Feiman-Nemser et al., 1999). To obtain the clear credential teachers must show growth toward the goals stated in the ILP. The level of growth a teacher makes is based on her self-assessment, as well as on assessments made by her induction coach and program coordinators (i.e. the district or university faculty). There are no standard rubrics to assess mastery of these goals (as there are in the preliminary credential). And there is no requirement

that teachers are assessed at any level of competency (i.e. beginning, developing, etc.). Further, teachers must have “multiple opportunities” to demonstrate growth (p. 2). The tension between support and assessment is inherent to induction. Induction coaches must walk a fine line between providing unconditional support and gaining the trust of teachers. Trust, which is such an important component of the mentor-teacher relationship, could be undermined if the coaches' role is one of high-stakes evaluator (Bullough, 2012).

Our observation data using the CQELL rubric exposed some contradictions between teachers' self-assessments and what we observed in their classrooms. Our observations made us question whether teachers really did “have the answers” when it came to addressing EL students. Below, we review findings from teacher interviews, CQELL ratings of observed lessons, and content analysis of document analysis, organized by the three categories of our framework (Figure 2). We find mixed results in terms of teachers' demonstrated proficiency—and in induction's capacity to measure it.

Assessing EL-specific scaffolds (induction). Above we noted that teaching ELs well did not appear to be a focus of teachers' ILPs (see Table 10). Despite this, we found little evidence of teachers either reporting or demonstrating proficiency in these areas. Consistent with the research on beginning teachers (Britton et al., 2000; Bullough, 2012; Feiman-Nemser et al., 1999; Glazerman et al., 2010; Kauffman, Johnson, Kardos, Liu, & Peske, 2002; Veenman, 1984), teachers struggled with generic elements of instruction during induction, such as establishing consistent management and routines in their classroom, finding innovative ways to teach content, or increasing student engagement. For most teachers, this concern overrode everything else on their list of immediate priorities, as seen by their areas of focus in their ILPs. This was also reported in interviews to be the main focus of teacher-coach interactions, and it was corroborated by analysis of coaches' observation notes and teachers' FACT reflections.

Although addressing how to teach ELs well did not appear to be a focus of teachers' ILPs or teacher-coach interactions, in interviews all teachers reported struggling with several key aspects of their teaching to ELs including addressing language objectives, providing instruction on language objectives, adapting instruction and language for ELs, providing primary language support, and organizing classroom instruction according to EL proficiency level. In a few instances we saw evidence of the coach trying to redirect the teachers' attention toward ELs. One note sent through Canvas is the gentle suggestion that because “[h]alf [your] class is RSP and/or EL,” it would be a “[g]reat opportunity for differentiation and assessment monitoring” (Teacher 2, “A-1: Class Profile”).

Except for one case, none of the teachers in our sample spoke the language of their ELs. They were therefore limited in the amount of primary language support they could give. The one teacher who spoke the primary language of her EL student relished her ability to do so. Interestingly, she was also the one most attuned to the use of visual aids and other supports.

So it really her boost her confidence because she doesn't speak a word of English when she first came. And then she's always quiet and then she play with her friends with body language, basically... (when she started school) she couldn't say any

numbers in English. However, because I know her language, when I asked her to say it in Chinese, she could count up to over 20... But in English she could only do 1, 2, 3 (Teacher 2).

All three teachers who did not speak the primary language of their ELs struggled with this element of their teaching and wished they could provide it. They were also resourceful in coming up with ways to provide this support through other means.

I'd like to know the language that they speak...I mean, it can be done. It's just more challenging I would give like a summary in English and then kind of give the translated version of the original hand-out in whatever their native language was. Last year I had Spanish and also Vietnamese. And I don't know ... Vietnamese... And Google Translate isn't 100%... it was difficult to figure out... (Teacher 1)

Often, the main instructional strategy for all EL students regardless of level was to pair them up or have them work in small groups with more fluent students.

One major scaffold and modification that I do is I put them... I strategically place them next to people who I think will be a benefit to them... Whether it's they speak the same language, or speak the same language at home. (Teacher 1)

I get myself bogged down on helping students who are lower, and then I have a lot of students who finish the lesson in 10 minutes or finish the objective in 10 minutes and they're ready to move on. I think being able to differentiate between the different EL levels and really focus on it. I feel like we talked about it, and we talk about differentiating but putting it into action is another story. (Teacher 3)

Teachers expressed a need for more differentiation strategies and did not feel like they had sufficient tools.

I wish that ... I could just see this is what it looks like... Here's how we get through a novel in six weeks, with kids who don't read and English learners....You can read about it, you can talk about it, but no one ever shows us, from beginning to end, what that looks like... (Teacher 4)

Teachers were aware that these were limited strategies, and that often times they did not have the necessary tools or skills to do a better job differentiating instruction.

I think that all of my EL students have really strong verbal skills. They speak really well, it's the writing that's hard for them. I thought, 'If I can get them at least speaking to each other, can they support each other enough that it'll get them through?' I think the answer is no. (Teacher 4)

I had a really hard time with like how am I supposed to divide and conquer? So I think, coming to- coming to terms with the fact that like Rome was not built in a day. (Teacher 1)

They also recognized the complexity of the task, and wished they could get more support or coaching on how to do this exactly.

These struggles notwithstanding, we observed a pronounced misalignment between the proficiency level demonstrated in classrooms, and the proficiency levels they reported in self-assessments. One of the FACT tasks was to self-assess three times a year on the CSTPs and CGU's specific induction standards. These included many references to ELs. Unfortunately, these self-assessments are not always clear because EL-specific scaffolds are often buried within other goals (i.e. "CSTP 1: Using a variety of instructional strategies, resources and technologies to meeting students' diverse learning needs"). This makes it sometimes difficult to ascertain what kind of EL-related performance, if anything, is being assessed. That said, the self-assessment data points clearly to some patterns across our four participants. This was collected three times during the academic year: October, December, and May. Table 11 summarizes teacher self-assessments by the program standards that focus on EL-specific skills including using knowledge of students' language proficiency, promoting English language development, using language supports, and language learning objectives.

Table 11. EL Teaching Proficiency and Inclusion of ELs - Teacher Self-Assessments

CGU Induction Program Standard	Teacher			
	1	2	3	4
Participating teachers plan and differentiate instruction using multi-tiered interventions as appropriate based on the assessed individual, academic language and literacy and diverse learning needs of the full range of learners (e.g... English learners, speaker of non-dominant varieties of English...).	3, 3, 4	1, 2, 3	1, 2, 2	3, 3, 3
To ensure academic achievement and language proficiency for [ELs], participating teachers adhere to legal and ethical obligations for teaching [ELs] including the identification, reclassification and monitoring processes. Participating teachers implement district policies regarding primary language support services for students. Participating teachers plan instruction for [ELs] based on the students' levels of proficiency and literacy in English and primary language assessed by multiple measures such as state language proficiency assessments, state standards assessments, and local assessments. Language Supports: <i>I use measures of English language proficiency to make instructional decisions.</i>	2, 2, 3	1, 2, 3	1, 2, 3	2, 3, 3
Based on teaching assignments and the adopted language program instructional model(s), participating teachers implement one or more of the components of [ELD]: grade-level academic language instruction, ELD by proficiency level, and/or content-based ELD. ELD Instruction: <i>I support my students' development of academic language and [ELD].</i>	2, 2, 3	1, 2, 3	2, 3, 3	3, 3, 3
Participating teachers demonstrate effective strategies that support student learning and lead to mastery of academic common core standards and objectives. Differentiated Instruction: <i>I differentiate instruction based on my students' culture, levels of acculturation, proficiency in English and/or prior schooling.</i>	2, 2, 3	1, 2, 3	2, 3, 3	2, 2, 3
Participating teachers also develop language objectives to address language and literacy demands inherent in content area instruction (e.g., linguistic demands, language function and form, audience and purpose, academic vocabulary, comprehension of multiple oral and written genres). Language Learning Objectives: <i>I develop language objectives to address language and literacy demands inherent in content area instruction.</i>	2, 2, 3	1, 2, 3	2, 3, 3	3, 3, 3
Participating teachers appropriately identify factors that could affect the determination of an [EL's] language/learning disability. Collaboration: <i>I collaborate with special services/general education personnel to identify factors that could affect the determination of an [EL's] language/learning disability and ensure that the assessed needs of students are met.</i>	3, 3, 4	1, 2, 3	2, 3, 4	3, 3, 3

Source: Form E-2.1 Self-assessment of CSTPs, collected October, December, and May of 2016/17.

Ratings range as follows (from lowest proficiency to highest proficiency): beginning, developing, competent, accomplished.

One or more of the following evidence must accompany each rating: TPA - Teaching Performance Assessment, CFTL - Context for Teaching and Learning, PE - Prior Experiences, O - Observation, LP - Lesson Plans, R - Reflection, SW - Student Work

Results on Table 11 suggest initial low levels of proficiency in meeting EL-specific (or EL-related) CSTPs and program standards. By the end of the year, however, most teachers self-

reported high levels of teaching proficiency with most rating themselves with at least a 3 (“competent”). This was not matched with what we heard from teachers in interviews or in the observations we conducted in February and May of 2017. Table 12 shows scores on the CQELL on areas that touch on the standards on which teachers assess themselves.

Table 12. CQELL Means, by Teacher across three observations

GENERIC LESSON ELEMENTS	Tchr #1	Tchr #2	Tchr #3	Tchr #4	Element (mean)/¹
B. The lesson addresses one or more learning objectives.	2.0	3.7	1.3	2.7	2.4
C. The teacher/lesson explicitly links new concepts to students' background experiences and past learning.	2.0	1.0	0.0	1.3	1.1
D. The teacher provides accurate input and models skills, strategies, and concepts related to the lesson objective.	2.0	3.7	0.3	2.7	2.2
E. The teacher/lesson provides structured opportunities for students to practice and consolidate skills, strategies and concepts.	2.7	4.0	1.3	2.7	2.7
F. The teacher uses assessment as part of instruction.	2.3	3.7	0.7	2.3	2.3
G. The teacher uses techniques designed to engage all students.	4.0	4.0	2.33	4.0	3.6
Means by Teacher	3.3	1.0	2.6	2.5	
ADDITIONAL EL SUPPORT	Tchr #1	Tchr #2	Tchr #3	Tchr #4	Element (mean) /¹
H. The lesson addresses one or more language objectives targeted for ELLs.	0.0	2.3	0.0	0.0	0.6
I. The teacher provides instruction on the language objective.	0.0	2.3	0.0	0.0	0.6
J. The teacher uses strategies to adapt instruction for students with limited English proficiency. Teacher adapts LANGUAGE.	0.7	2.3	0.3	1.7	1.3
J. The teacher uses strategies to adapt instruction for students with limited English proficiency. Teacher adapts STRATEGIES.	2.7	4.0	1.7	1.7	2.5
K. The lesson uses materials and visuals to clarify and illustrate concepts.	3.0	4.0	2.3	3.3	3.2
L. The teacher/lesson provides opportunities for interactions that encourage student language production in English.	3.0	2.7	2.0	2.3	2.5
M. The teacher/lesson provides primary language support during lesson.	0.0	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.8
N. The classroom uses predictable and consistent management and routines.	4.0	4.0	2.0	3.0	3.2
Means by Teacher	1.7	3.1	1.1	1.5	

¹ All ratings reported here are averaged across three observations. Ratings are as follows: 0 = Not Observed; 4 = Very Prominent

Observation ratings on the CQELL rubric for EL-specific instruction were far lower than those for generic practices. Teachers struggled with several key aspects including addressing language objectives, providing instruction on language objectives, adapting instruction and language for ELs, providing primary language support, and organizing classroom instruction according to EL proficiency level.

Teachers were prompted to justify their self-assessment ratings, but justification consisted of adding single- or double-letter notations like “PE” for prior experiences or “R” for reflection (see legend, Table 11). But this is a low bar as far as substantiating evidence goes. Prior experiences and reflection are not independently verifiable as indicators of proficiency. The questionable nature and wide range of evidence that is listed as acceptable to justify teachers’ self-assessments further underscores the mismatch between how teachers rated themselves and what an external observer recorded. There are several examples in the FACT documents of teachers submitting evidence for EL-specific scaffolds that cannot actually be verified by the induction coach or documented in any external way. For example, all teacher lesson plans contained a section for ELD. The guiding questions for this section are: How will students engage in the following mode(s) of communication? What scaffolds, structures, and supports will be used? Illustrative teacher responses are:

- EL students will be given a copy of PowerPoint slides to follow along, translated in the students’ native language if needed. Students may work in small groups...students will be assigned readings based on the difficulty of the reading and ability of students in the group; worksheets/handouts may be provided in students’ native language. Students will work in groups with peers who speak their native language, etc.” (Teacher 1)
- Students will work on communicating with a partner and being able to summarize the lesson using proper academic English; Students will work together to answer review questions on vocabulary; Students will write complete sentences as they write a summary of the lesson for the day (Teacher 3)
- Reading closely literary and information texts and viewing multimedia to determine how meaning is conveyed explicitly and implicitly through language; Pair-share in a review of the previous day’s lesson (Teacher 4).

Once these lesson plans are submitted, teachers implement these strategies in the classroom while the coach observes and provides feedback. The degree to which this happens rests on how the coach conducts the observation and reflection exercise. There is no requirement for a paper trail to document the feedback loop. The observation notes (drafted by teachers), which refer to the lesson observed by the induction coach and conducted according to the lesson plan, include few specific references to actual evidence of teaching ELs (see Table 10). Similarly, the post-observation notes offer few specifics on how the lesson went as far as teaching ELs.

Another example of mismatch between self-assessment and verifiable evidence relates to language objectives. Teacher self-assessments of language objectives (see Table 11) suggest that two teachers felt “competent” by December to implement language objectives and two

teachers felt they were “developing” this skill. However, across the board, teachers in our sample demonstrated limited proficiency in writing them (see Table 12, CQELL means).

This raises the question of how induction does operationalize “proficiency” in EL-specific scaffolds to begin with. As we noted before, there is an inherent tension in induction between support and assessment. Usually, trust is viewed as the highest “mentor virtue” and this is taken to mean that the coach offers unqualified support--leaving the responsibility for judging teacher quality in others' hands (Bullough, 2012).

In the second semester of induction, CGU offered a class on teaching ELs. As part of this class teachers learned how to plan a lesson with a language objective. Several teachers in our sample mentioned that the class prompted more conversations between teachers and their coach about EL instruction strategies, and helped them bring what they were learning into their own classroom teaching:

One of the things that [the class] did that really, really helped is I feel like I finally understand language objectives...Understanding that, now I can see, okay ELs might need a bit different path to get to the language object. I’m like, ‘Ahh.’
(Teacher 4)

Several teachers in our small sample expressed a similar sentiment. What is curious about this is that language objectives are emphasized in the preliminary credential. Given Teacher 4’s comments (and the sample’s CQELL ratings on language objectives), this begs the question of whether teachers went through their preliminary credential without having actually learned how to write language objectives, whether they learned them but had already forgotten them, or whether they learned them in a way that didn’t “click” until they were faced with multiple ELs in the classroom.

A final task teachers completed was analyzing student work by three focus students, one of which had to be an EL. This was a feature of the old FACT document, but programs can elect to retain this element. CGU continues to have an “EL Focus” student as a way to prompt teacher reflection and evidence around ELs. Descriptions of the student work teachers submitted for analysis can be found on Table 13.

Table 13. Evidence of EL teaching proficiency in Key Induction Documents and Activities

	Teacher 1	Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 4
Examples of student work submitted -- for the EL focus student (12/2016)	Written script about the Battle of Gettysburg (group assignment)	Picture of flower with labels for various parts in English and Chinese	Worksheet of questions related to the day's lesson (i.e. Who introduced Islam to West Africa)	Self-assessment of engagement and activities during English class
Examples of student work analysis (Form C-7) -- for the EL focus student (12/2016)	Student reported working in group with non-ELs that speak Spanish. Student memorized lines and spoke clearly. His information was accurate.	Student explained poster in English and Chinese. She placed all labels correctly and wrote out English words with a marker. Was able to verbalize the words.	Student colored and labeled map properly. Student engaged with classmates and work together to get any aid he needed.	EL focus student was disengaged. Alternate EL focus student participated moderately in activity.

Source: Form C-7 Analysis of Student Work (collected December 2016).

As can be seen in Table 13, teachers varied in the kind of student work that was presented—from worksheets to essays to a student questionnaire around engagement. Variety is to be expected—even in our small sample we had elementary and high school teachers, but it raises the question of what kind of evidence should be gauged “acceptable” student work in the sense that it can truly demonstrate proficiency teaching ELs. When asked to analyze student work, teachers’ assessments were quite varied and for the most part, superficial. Teachers commented on whether students seemed engaged, whether students were able to work well in small groups, or whether students filled out the worksheet or wrote the essay correctly. One teacher submitted a group essay, making it difficult to see exactly what was the EL students’ contribution. Teacher analysis of student work in some cases was very brief, consisting of one or two sentences about what teachers were doing on that day.

These concerns notwithstanding, all these analyses of student work, lesson plans, teacher reflection notes (post or pre-observation), and observation notes evidently all constituted acceptable evidence to demonstrate growth towards achieving proficiency in the various CSTPs and program standards.

Assessing EL-specific teacher expertise (induction). Across the whole sample, our candidates did not demonstrate EL-specific areas of expertise. One subdomain of this category refers to knowing how to assess ELs’ levels of proficiency and use that to differentiate instruction. One striking finding from our fieldwork was how little actionable information teachers had about their ELs. It is unclear to us whether, during the first few months of the

school year, all teachers had accurate information about the number of ELs in their classrooms. Teacher 3 did have information from an online roster that could be accessed anytime. Other teachers reported having to gain this information through informal channels—i.e. personally approaching the campus EL coordinator. Teacher 1 claimed she had struggled to obtain this information at all and the reported numbers of ELs given by this teacher seemed to shift across observations. Without reliable data on their students’ language proficiency levels, it is difficult to imagine teachers being able to use EL-specific scaffolds.²⁹

Once they had this basic information about ELs, however, teachers did not seem to know what to do about it. The following quote illustrates a generalized sentiment among teachers in our sample:

I have a very cursory understanding of all the different English Level Development (ELD) levels, but I don't really know what the difference is, other than, “This kid over here knows a little bit more than that kid.” Why is it important to divide them into five categories? I'm not really sure. I don't want to lump all EL learners in one big lump, because they're not... How am I supposed to take a classroom and individualize it for each kid? How do I know when they're ready to move on? (Teacher 4)

Teachers struggled throughout the year with ways to make sense of these English proficiency levels. The lack of actionable information and an inability to implement what they learned in their teacher preparation program was a source of frustration. This inability to make sense of the information about English proficiency levels may help explain why teachers seem to all use a very similar strategy to tailor instruction: pair EL students up or have them work in small groups with more fluent students.

But here again, there was a mismatch between what teachers reported in interviews (and revealed in observations) and how they assessed themselves. All teachers felt at least “competent” in differentiating instruction by May, and two even reported feeling competent in December (see first row of Table 11). At the same time, as described in the previous section, teachers reported in interviews feeling unsure about how to differentiate based on proficiency levels, in those cases where they had this information at all. Our observations also did not show any evidence of teachers explicitly organizing instruction or differentiating by language proficiency level (see Table 12).

Assessing orientations (induction). Teachers in our sample were well attuned to the concepts of equitable access to content and knowing the traditions of cultural/ethnic groups so they could better support and value diversity in the classroom. However, in the case of the

²⁹ One FACT task due in September prompted teachers to provide detailed data on a class roster, including students’ individual characteristics and whether any were ELs or had special needs. Despite interview data indicating teachers had trouble ascertaining EL levels, that this task was due in September suggests induction assumed (or hoped) teachers could begin the year taking linguistic diversity into account in their instruction.

three teachers who had significant numbers of ELs in their classroom, often at different English proficiency levels, a constant was a feeling of being "spread too thin."

But, when it's like half a class ... How do you make it equitable? How do I, how am I supposed to give my time to the EL's, but also give my time to the mainstream students as well? And I know some EL's need more of my help than other EL's, and I know some of the mainstream students need more of my help than other mainstream students..." (Teacher 1)

FACT tasks revealed teachers showing some proficiency in EL-specific Orientations. One task was a running log of all contact teachers had with families over the course of the year, and the four teachers listed a total of 280 contacts with families (70, 29, 64, and 45, respectively). Though the nature of the contact was not always specified— some were required IEP meetings, others may have been auto-generated “robocalls” teachers could send through an online service—280 points of family contact evidences recognition of the importance of family involvement.

The Role of the Mentor in Assessing Proficiency

Our findings suggest that, as in the case of *addressing* teaching ELs, there is little external assurance that proficiency in teaching ELs *is required* to obtain the clear credential. As previously argued much of this work falls on the induction coach, even if this is not formally mandated or captured. Induction coaches are formally not evaluators—as one CGU induction staff member put it, "we are ushers, not bouncers." As evaluators, mentors play a different role than the TPAs do in the preliminary phase. And as the literature on induction notes, programs across the nation grapple with whether to provide support, to assess teachers, or to do both (Britton et al., 2000; Bullough, 2012; Smith & Ingersoll, 2012).

Induction coaches, however, assess all the time. For one thing, induction Program Standards require that induction programs “assess candidate progress toward mastery of the [CSTPs] to support the recommendation for the clear credential,” and coaches are the central figures in induction (“Induction Program Preconditions and Program Standards,” 2017, p. 3). Accreditation files are filled with references to how programs assess candidates. For example, at LACOE, “candidates are continuously assessed” through “mentor evaluations” and “mentor observations and logs” (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2018a). Also, mentors complete “progress surveys” which include “evidence of reflective practices, personal and professional growth, and overall teacher competence; all of which is measured against the state standards” (p. 18).³⁰ The consequences of poor assessments are significant:

[C]andidates who complete all requirements move on to Year 2. Those who do not meet all the requirements are counseled and provided a plan that addresses all components not met and when they will be completed... Struggling candidates are identified by the

mentor first, who attempts to work directly with candidates to alleviate the concerns. If the problem or problems persist, the mentor will enlist the help of a program coordinator who can create an assistance plan with the candidate and mentor (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2018a).

In short, though induction coaches are not formally assessors, they are key players in how induction programs assess candidates. It seems reasonable to assume that mentors act as quality controls for entry into the profession. We further discuss below two elements of mentoring that explain how and why mentors can act as quality controls.

Mentor qualifications and knowledge. Mentoring is at the heart of induction: on the 3 ¼ pages of requirements governing induction from the CTC, the word “mentor” appears 37 times (“Induction Preconditions and Program Standards,” 2017). Given the centrality of their work to induction, it is not surprising that there are explicit rules governing their qualifications, selection, and training. They must have “knowledge of the context and the content area of the candidate’s teaching assignment.” In terms of training, mentors must receive “guidance and clear expectations” about their role from the program. At a minimum, these expectations include providing “just in time” support for their candidates (i.e., support on pressing issues in the candidate’s classroom) as well as “longer-term guidance” on skills to be developed over the course of the candidate’s career. They are also expected to model, guide reflection, and give feedback on their candidate’s instruction. Finally, they are expected at a minimum to provide candidates with useful resources and periodically review the ILP.

Accreditation files make frequent reference to how programs meet these requirements. In the LAUSD report, “rigorous,” “thorough” and “intense” are repeatedly used to describe the mentor application and selection process. Screening involves a teaching demonstration, a “simulated mentoring experience,” and letters of reference attesting to a mentor’s “knowledge of the academic content standards” and “implementation of differentiated instruction” (“Accreditation Visit, LAUSD,” 2012, p. 35). Mentors are experienced teachers (Tulare), administrators and faculty (CGU) who often hold advanced degrees (LAUSD). Programs monitor mentor performance (UCLA, LACOE) against clear criteria and based on feedback from program leadership, site administrators, and candidates alike (LAUSD).

As noted in Bullough (2012), there is little research on how induction coaches are trained, supported and evaluated in their role. The literature on induction suggests coaches have their own styles of mentoring reflecting their beliefs and commitments; this influences the quality of feedback and guidance they can provide beginning teachers (Harrison, Lawson, & Wortley, 2005; Young, Bullough, Draper, Smith, & Erickson, 2005).

In our convenience sample of eight induction personnel, all held advanced degrees (seven MAs, one PhD); five held administrative credentials; and two of the ISPs had previously been school principals and district leaders (see Table 5). The passages and the accreditation reports of mentor qualifications and knowledge contain no mention of qualifications *in teaching ELs*. However, it is likely that most experienced teachers in Southern California would have some knowledge pertaining to ELs. To take ISP 1 as a case, her interviews included

references to almost all subdomains in EL-specific expertise (Figure 2). She described recent work helping a Spanish language teacher with students' language acquisition (Linguistics). She firmly believed that strategies for teaching ELs should not be seen as a "topping" in teaching, but "should be infused all the time in everything that you're doing" (Interview 3) (Pedagogical Language Knowledge). She also talked about how she was usually able to show better judgment about who might be ELs than her candidates, even after only one classroom visit (Knowledge of ELs). Referencing a previous candidate who taught in a district with a high proportion of ELs, she explained:

[She said] she did not have any English learners and I was going to Hacienda Heights, *hello!*... In [my first observation of her], I noticed [ELs]. I was situated so that I could hear some of the side conversations. I could hear them clarifying with each other things that she missed... I watched the lack of differentiation for a table of students... They were a table group of six and I would say half of them were English Learners in a classroom that 'didn't have any English learners.'... They clarified for each other in Spanish, after she said whatever she said. In the post-conference [mentor meeting] I was saying, 'First of all, you have them seated too far away from you.'... The distractions and the things when they went off task were related to them not understanding, that you were moving on before they were ready to move on, and you check for all of that. Again, because of my background with English Learners, I was able to with her walk her through. Then when she identified her focus area she picked a completely different message, [I said], 'You might want to look at differentiation.' (ISP 1, Interview 1)

Mentor training. Another way mentors likely serve as a "quality control" on candidate proficiency in teaching ELs relates to their training. Programs are also required to give mentors ongoing training, which must include training in coaching, goal setting, "use of appropriate mentoring instruments," adult learning, and program processes. Programs must also provide mentors with support for reflection and professional collaboration with other mentors ("Induction Preconditions and Program Standards," 2017, p. 3).

Accreditation reports provide examples of how these requirements are met. At CGU and Tulare, ISPs have summer training and ongoing monthly meetings. UCLA has online mentor training modules that support mentoring best practices. At LAUSD, there is annual required PD for mentors "to increase their knowledge and skill" in "instructional mentoring," providing "a strong knowledge base and set of skills in coaching and application of adult learning theory" ("Accreditation Visit, LAUSD," 2012, p. 22). LAUSD ISPs reported these "coaching academies and the mentor academy" were useful in improving their instruction and helped them "further refine their skills in the areas of communication, coaching, and content delivery" (p. 22). Finally, at LACOE, mentors "are part of a two-year onboarding program," including monthly Mentor Forums in which "receive training for 'just in time' support, as well as mentoring and coaching tools" (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2018a, p. 16).

These findings were corroborated by our interviews. ISP 4 had mentor training every other month. ISP 2 explained that in his two-day mentor trainings four times per year, they

practice “mentoring language,” which gave him “practice and the tools and the resources and experience.” The induction program developer described that when developing two induction programs, she insisted, “You need to front load the [mentor] training. If they don't have the training, you can't just throw them into the fire without frontloading the training, and then you need to have ongoing training every single month.”

Overwhelmingly, these trainings make no mention of attention to ELs. The sole exception from our sample was CGU's initial accreditation report (2014), which noted an EL-specific focus in ISP training:

In the spring of 2014, all induction documents were modified to include the new EL standards. All induction support providers and participating teachers were trained on the modified documents and new EL requirements. (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2014, p. 35)

This was corroborated in interviews with CGU induction staff who described an EL focus in ISP training in 2016-2017, and plans for an even greater focus for 2018-2019.³¹ However, overall, while it is clear mentors are trained, we cannot claim that mentors are trained in teaching ELs or in mentoring other teachers to teach ELs. Given the professional credentials and ongoing training of mentors, it is reasonable to assume that at least some are addressing and assessing teaching ELs in their work with candidates. But this is neither mandated, nor do we have evidence of this occurring.

The fact that mentors are not required to show any EL-specific training or background, and that they are not specifically trained in EL pedagogies, connects to a generalized perception that ELs need just need “good” teachers in the general sense—without recognition of a small, yet growing body of evidence suggesting teachers of ELs need specialized skills and training.

Mentors as quality controls? An open question. It is important to highlight that mentor qualifications and training do not in themselves guarantee all mentors act as quality controls. Teacher 3, for example, cleared the credential after acknowledging during our interview limited proficiency teaching ELs (something also evident in low CQELL ratings, Table 12). The teachers' induction coach stated in her final interview that she never observed Teacher 3 differentiating or making language accommodations. She also acknowledged the teacher had shown little growth in proficiencies related to teaching ELs.

³¹ CGU's accreditation report stated, “In the spring of 2014, all induction documents were modified to include the new EL standards. All induction support providers and participating teachers were trained on the modified documents and new EL requirements” (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2014, p. 35). More recently (2016-2017), CGU ISPs had two days of training on language objectives, the new ELD standards, and findings ways to bridge the mentoring work with what the Coordinator was teaching the candidates in her academic induction class. Also, in 2018-2019, the Coordinator reports there will be a strand of EL-specific training running through the entire year of ISP training.

We have no basis to make determinations about why Teacher 3 was permitted to “barely pass” induction, but we can make some more global comments about why we should be careful about assuming mentors are proficiency gatekeepers in teaching ELs. For one thing, not all mentors are equally adept at mentoring in general, much less at “steering” mentoring to focus on ELs. We found that in our own small convenience sample, ISP 2 was in his fourth year of teaching, and he did not yet feel proficient in teaching ELs, “even in my own classroom.” It is therefore not surprising that he admitted that EL-specific issues were “not even a priority” in his mentoring. Similarly, ISP 3 said that in her three years as a mentor, she had never had a candidate choose ELs as their focus in induction.

According to the induction program developer, this is the danger of having a personalized, open-ended induction program: people will only reliably do things for which they are being held accountable.

Another issue is that although all mentors are trained, that does not mean that all training is equally good. In fact, the literature points to great variability in mentor training (Hobson et al., 2009). Finally, induction program structures and procedures clearly vary in ways that could impact coaches' abilities to effectively mentor teachers on how to teach ELs. Induction documentation is not standardized—in our sample, two programs drew tools from NTC, while CGU and the district both developed their own. This may result in differential levels of effectiveness, as is clearly indicated in this critique of Tulare County by its accreditation committee:

[T]here is no convincing evidence that the Individualized Learning Plan (ILP) provides the road map for candidates' Induction work during their time in the program...[The ILP] should be the foundation of the teacher's learning in induction, and based on what that individual teacher needs to improve in their craft... [However], there are 45 program documents that need to be completed and uploaded into the induction website during a nine month period. Only five (5) of the 45 are ILP related. (California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2018b, pp. 19-20)

For all these reasons, while coaching represents a *potential* quality control, there is no guarantee it always is. If attention to ELs is not mandated in induction it remains an open question whether coaches will screen for it.

Concluding Remarks and Implications for Teacher Policy in California

Close to five million students in the United States, or about one in ten public school students, are designated as English Language Learners (ELs). California enrolls the highest number of ELs in the nation--about one quarter of all public school ELs reside in the state. Federal legislation requires that ELs participate in language assistance programs to help them attain English proficiency, while at the same time meeting the same academic standards that all students are expected to meet. Meeting these two goals is one of the most daunting challenges for schools and teachers.

A small but growing body of evidence finds that teaching ELs requires specialized skills and dispositions that go beyond what some scholars call "just good teaching" (Faltis & Valdés, 2016; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Lucas et al., 2008; Menken & Antuñez, 2001; Santos et al., 2012). Further, there is evidence to believe that teacher preparation programs are not equipping new teachers with these skills (Coady et al., 2016; de Jong & Harper, 2005).

This paper focuses on how teachers in California are prepared to teach ELs, particularly during the induction phase of teacher preparation. We focus on induction because of its critical role in supporting teacher growth, increasing retention, and improving instruction and student achievement (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). Further, a recent meta-analysis of experimental studies found coaching to be most promising model of in-service, professional development in its potential to improve instruction (Kraft, Blazar, & Hogan, 2018).

In California, as in many other states, teacher preparation is structured around the notion that teachers acquire and demonstrate foundational levels of proficiency, but need additional supports and coaching to enact what they have learned once they become classroom teachers. Given the complexity of teaching ELs, teachers can struggle even more to adequately apply what they have learned in their own classrooms (Faltis & Valdés, 2016; Lucas & Villegas, 2013)

Given the data at our disposal, we cannot show in this study whether induction or preservice preparation actually provide teachers with the skills and knowledge they need to become effective teachers of ELs. Instead, we take a more narrow view of the issue and explore two simple, but important questions: (1) To what extent is the teaching of ELs addressed by credential requirements? and (2) To what extent does the credentialing process require that teachers demonstrate proficiency teaching ELs? Answers to these questions can provide important clues to understand whether the process, as currently structured, has the potential to better prepare teachers to teach ELs.

Embedded in these questions are two underlying premises. First, that a process that does not explicitly address and measure EL teaching proficiency will be ineffective at ensuring all new teachers enter the classroom duly prepared. Second, that earning a clear credential *should* be a stamp of proficiency in teaching ELs. That may not be appropriate. Teachers learn a great deal on the job (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Perkins & Salomon, 1994), and experience has been found to be one of the strongest predictors of student learning (Rockoff, 2004). It may be unrealistic to set proficiency benchmarks in something as complex as teaching ELs when teachers are just beginning their careers.

At the same time, teachers on emergency-style permits are three times as likely to teach in California's high-minority schools and twice as likely to teach in high-poverty schools as in more advantaged schools (Sutcher, Carver-Thomas, & Darling-Hammond, 2018). These are precisely the kinds of schools that concentrate the majority of ELs in the state. The state should be concerned if new teachers, who are already struggling with so much, are particularly under-prepared to teach ELs. Ensuring that novice teachers are adequately prepared with the specialized skills, knowledge and dispositions to teach ELs is of paramount importance to a

state that concentrates one-quarter of all ELs in the nation—an extremely vulnerable and at-risk population by any measure.

For this study, we conducted a comprehensive review of teacher credentialing documents, standards and requirements, as well as interview and observation data from a small sample of 4 teachers and 8 induction-related personnel. Our analysis suggests that ELs are very present in preliminary credential requirements, such that the credential confers an EL-authorization. At the preliminary phase, EL-specific scaffolds, teacher expertise, and orientations are developed and assessed through coursework, clinical practice, and the TPAs. The preliminary phase contains multiple benchmarks to assess EL-teaching proficiency, including CalTPAs (which, in their new form, require multiple videos of teachers' instruction).

How ELs are addressed in induction is hazier. First, the CSTPs, the (now discontinued) FACT, and CGU's new induction documents all include references to ELs. However, many of these references are embedded in larger tasks, such as the requirement to submit a lesson plan that includes a language objective. The key question is here is relative focus: only one element of 38 CSTPs explicitly references ELs. Induction is driven by an individualized learning plan (ILP) that contains teachers' stated goals, and these goals may or may not be tied explicitly to ELs. Since the teacher-mentor relationship is structured around the ILP, if the ILP is not explicitly tied to ELs, teachers and mentors may miss opportunities to engage around EL issues.

Second, the decision to grant a clear credential is based on growth toward the goals stated in the ILP, not demonstrated proficiency. As long as teachers complete all assignments, meet with their induction coach, and show some progress in the standards, they will clear their credential. Whether teachers who have cleared a credential are actually proficient (in some minimum or adequate level) teaching ELs in real-world classroom situations is an open question. It is likely that teaching ELs is informally assessed by mentors, and mentors *may* act as quality controls by virtue of their qualifications and training for candidates entering the profession—but we are reluctant to say more beyond that.

Induction lacks external assessment points that would allow independently verifying whether teachers implement the EL-specific scaffolds called for by the CSTPs. Moreover, mentors are not required by state accreditation standards to have any specific qualifications or training around ELs. Induction programs could decide to emphasize expertise in teaching ELs when recruiting and training mentors. They could also elect to offer courses or other activities in induction related to ELs. But these are all decisions left to the individual programs—not mandated by the state.

Our observations using the CQELL rubric and based on a limited, small sample of teachers showed that more often than not, self-assessments of EL proficiency did not match observed levels of proficiency. Moreover, the self-assessment process sets a low bar for the evidence teachers needed to present to justify how they rate themselves. There were several examples in our sample of teachers submitting evidence of meeting the needs of ELs that could not actually be verified by the induction coach or documented in any external way—beyond the teachers' self-report. The analysis of student work was often superficial, without attending to

important matters such as gauging progress toward language proficiency, explaining how the work results from a specific strategy (i.e. differentiation, primary language support), etc. Coaches also report seeing teachers struggle with teaching ELs, even though in the end all teachers were able to successfully clear their credentials.

Two other findings are worth noting. Although both preliminary and induction documents call for teachers to be able to differentiate according to their ELs' language proficiency levels, the induction work we observed seldom asked teachers to demonstrate proficiency in doing so. Instead, we observed teachers treating ELs as a monolithic group. Our sample of teachers could satisfactorily go through induction without ever having to account for how the varying levels of EL proficiency in their classes would impact their instructional strategies. A very common strategy in induction documents, as well as both the outgoing and the field test materials for the CalTPA, is to isolate an EL "focus student" and then differentiate for that student. However, teachers who have ELs in California seldom have one EL only. This single case approach, though presumably intended as a learning tool, seem shortsighted in the face of data showing that the majority of EL students attend schools where more than one-third of the student body is composed of ELs (Gándara et al., 2003).

Additionally, our fieldwork revealed teachers may not receive timely, accurate information about their ELs and their proficiency levels at the beginning of the school year. And even when they receive it, teachers seem not to know what to do with this information. This appears to be an area where preparation can be strengthened both at the preliminary and the induction level—as differentiation by language proficiency is a crucial skill that teachers of ELs need to have to be able to effectively tailor instruction (Saunders & Goldenberg, 2010).

Policy Implications for California

This study suggests that even though ELs are present (in standards, requirements and procedures) at both the preliminary and induction stages of teacher credentialing, ensuring that new teachers are proficient teaching ELs at a minimum or adequate level is an open question. This study provides further evidence that teachers of ELs may not receive adequate training in specialized knowledge and practices needed to teach this population. Admittedly our sample is much too small to make any grand statements about potential conflicts between self-assessment and observed practice, or to question the validity of the evidence submitted by teachers. It does highlight, however, the ways in which the process can fail to ensure new teachers are equipped to teach one of the States' most vulnerable populations. As currently structured, the State has little external assurance that teaching ELs is addressed effectively during induction.

The state should consider revising policies around induction to ensure it is not a missed opportunity in terms of teaching ELs. We offer four main recommendations.

First, program standards should be more fine-grained in the ways they address, describe and document EL learning. ELs should not be seen as a monolithic, homogenous group, but should be presented and addressed in a more nuanced way. Grouping ELs into one

homogenous group, or grouping them with other at-risk populations, such as special education students, does not serve them well.

Second, state policymakers and CTC officials should consider ways to require teacher candidates, especially those moving through induction, to demonstrate proficiency actually teaching several ELs of varying proficiency levels in the classroom. Proficiency should be independently verified and should include guidelines for what constitutes acceptable student work. Teachers should demonstrate proficiency teaching ELs as the diverse population that they are. Because ELs are such an important population in California and are among the state's lowest performers, more explicit attention should be paid in induction to assessing specific EL-teaching scaffolds, areas of expertise, and orientations.

Third, induction program guidelines and accreditation standards should better articulate how mentors can effect this growth and could establish benchmarks to maximize the capacity of mentors to act as “quality assurance” mechanisms. This can be accomplished by requiring requirements for mentors to obtain specialized training in supporting teachers of ELs, or to have demonstrated skills teaching these populations.

Fourth, school districts may want to think about more expedited ways of making sure teachers receive all pertinent information about their ELs at the beginning of the school year. Professional development should also emphasize differentiation and scaffolding strategies that use this information in meaningful ways.

This has been a period of tremendous change for California schools. During our study's data collection and drafting alone, there were major changes to the credential processes we were studying (FACT was phased out; the CalTPAs are about to be significantly changed); EL student assessment (the CEDLT was replaced by the ELPAC); and institution-specific programming (the length and structure of CGU's induction changed). These came on the heels of earlier, equally significant changes: induction Program Standards had been revised in 2016 (mandating induction last two years³²); and new content standards (Common Core, NGSS, etc.) and English Language Development standards (2012) had recently been adopted. California has clearly demonstrated responsiveness and flexibility in meeting the needs of teachers and the students they serve. In this spirit of continual improvement, we offer these recommendations for improving outcomes for some of California's most underserved students. And given what one of our participants called the “global reach” of California credentialing, these improvements have the potential to impact students far beyond the state's borders too.

³² A one-year Early Completer Option exists for some candidates with extensive previous experience.

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