

OUT OF THE BOOK AND INTO THE CLASSROOM

Applying Motivational and Self-Regulated Learning Theories to Daily Instruction With English Language Learners

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Teachers confront considerable diversity in today's classrooms. In terms of academic diversity, the average public school classroom, for example, contains students with abilities that can span multiple grade levels (Latz, Speirs Neumeister, Adams, & Pierce, 2009). Research also suggests that our schools are increasingly becoming racially, ethnically, and linguistically diverse. Correspondingly, statistics demonstrate that the number of English language learners (ELLs) is increasing. For example, between 2002–03 to 2011–12, the percentage of ELLs grew in all but 10 states (Kena et al., 2014). In New York City, the setting of the current study, 41% of the public school population speaks a language other than English at home (NYC Department of Education, 2014).

The solution to such diversity is often a one-size-fits-all approach in which teachers focus on the middle range of students' academic abilities and primarily employ whole-class instruction that may or may not be culturally relevant (Gay, 2010; Tomlinson, 2014). As a consequence, mounting evidence suggests that most teachers do not provide students with equal and optimal opportunities to learn; some are left consistently unchallenged, whereas others remain unable to grasp fundamental concepts. Research further suggests that students of color, including ELLs, are often among those who are left behind. Accordingly, there is an urgent need for teachers to learn how to differentiate instruction so that they can effectively and efficiently serve *all* youth.

To that end, the overarching purpose of this chapter is to describe a model of professional development aimed at increasing teachers' skills in differentiation, namely All Learners Learning Every Day (ALL-ED), and its impact on one NYC public high school serving immigrant students who have low literacy in their native languages. In what follows, we define the components and theoretical bases of ALL-ED and further describe how seven teachers used ALL-ED routines to serve ELLs.

What Is ALL-ED?

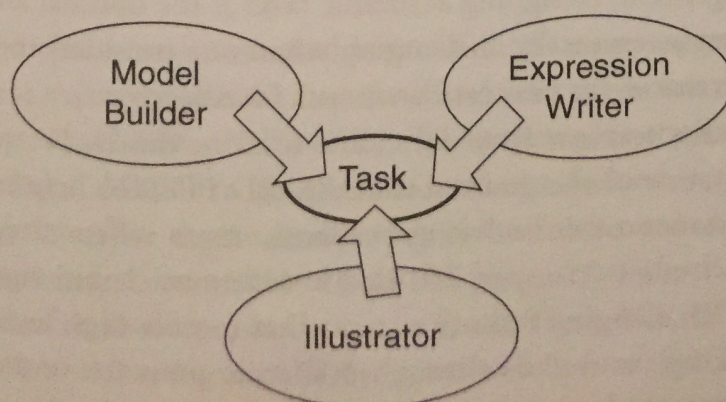
We approach these issues with the idea that there is no instructional silver bullet that will eliminate achievement disparities. Thus, rather than a single practice, ALL-ED encourages teachers to employ a network of behaviorally, motivationally, and cognitively supportive instructional routines into their daily practice so that teachers provide *all* students with equal and optimal opportunities to learn. Theoretically, ALL-ED is based in the literatures of student engagement, achievement motivation, and self-regulated learning (SRL). Corresponding to these theoretical bases, we briefly review below how ALL-ED promotes behavioral engagement, motivation, and SRL.

Increasing Active Participation

All too often, we see classrooms in which not every student actively participates in the lessons. Participation and academic learning time—key indicators of behavioral engagement—have been linked with important educational outcomes, including dropout rates (Reschley & Christenson, 2012). Finn's (1989) participation-identification model of student engagement, for example, identifies behavioral engagement as a key component of student engagement. Engagement theories, therefore, recognize behavioral engagement (e.g., paying attention to the teacher, responding to teachers' questions, completing assignments) as a fundamental and necessary component of academic success.

In many classroom settings, behavioral engagement cannot be taken for granted. Thus, one of the key goals of ALL-ED is to provide teachers with instructional routines to promote behavioral engagement. Group learning routines (GPLRs)—one of the hallmarks of the ALL-ED professional development (PD)—were specifically designed for this purpose.

Common to all ALL-ED GPLRs are two features intended to prevent many of the common pitfalls of group work: roles and rounds. Similar to the jigsaw group strategy, we assume that GPLRs is more efficient when each member of the group takes on specific roles to accomplish a common goal and when the successful completion of the group work depends on each group member carrying out their role (see Figure 6.1 below).



Rounds, in turn, are when everyone in the group takes turns completing the same task in a circular fashion. For example, a group may use rounds to share a favorite part of the story, evidence to support a statement, or an answer to a problem. Rounds ensure that everyone talks and listens in a specified amount of time, thus ensuring behavioral engagement of all group members. In short, through roles and rounds, the teacher can prevent social loafing and facilitate productive collaborations, thereby promoting the effectiveness of group work (Kuhn, 2015).

It is important to note that we refer to these as GPLRs because we expect students to repeat the same steps—be it roles or rounds—until the process becomes habitual. We assume that in doing so, the learning process becomes more efficient by allowing students to focus on mastering new content rather than taking up limited class time to (re-)negotiate rules for group work, thus increasing time spent on tasks.

Facilitating Adaptive Motivation

Simply getting students to *do* the work only gets them so far. In order to sustain engagement in learning, students must also *want* to do the work. Indeed, we, like others (see Eccles & Wang, 2012; Skinner & Pitzer, 2012), generally assume motivation to be an important precursor to behavioral engagement. Overall, the collective body of research on achievement motivation demonstrates that when students feel competent in their abilities, find value in what they are learning, and perceive their learning environment to be inclusive and supportive, they are more likely to actively participate in their learning and ultimately achieve academic success (Maehr & Zusho, 2009).

Promoting Competence

ALL-ED promotes students' perceptions of competence in several ways. First, research suggests that one of the primary ways to increase students' competence is to ensure that academic tasks are at the appropriate level of challenge (Schunk & Pajares, 2005). Tasks that are perceived to be too easy are likely to engender boredom, whereas tasks that are perceived to be too difficult are likely to lead to frustration and disengagement. Designing academic tasks at the optimal level of challenge for *all* learners can be especially challenging when one considers the great diversity of learning needs that exists in most classrooms. Needless to say, it is not particularly surprising that many teachers have difficulties meeting this challenge.

Consequently, one of the goals of the ALL-ED PD is to help teachers understand the importance of considering academic rigor when designing tasks. In line with other studies (Cooper, 2014), we define academic rigor in terms of the provision of challenging tasks (i.e., tasks that require high levels of attention, effort, and thinking) as well as through academic press for understanding (i.e., an emphasis on complexity and use of techniques to probe understanding;

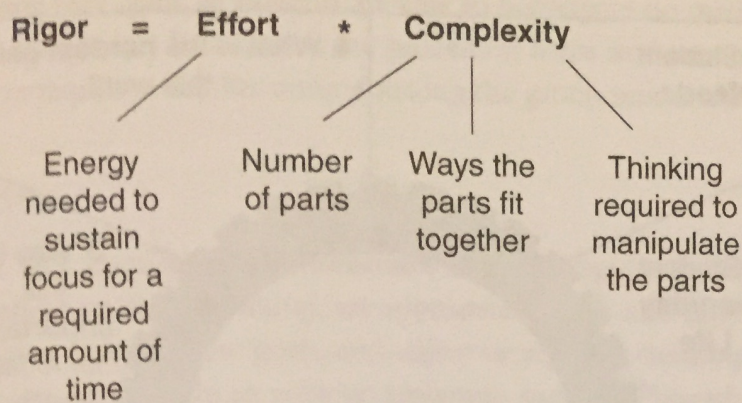


FIGURE 6.2 Rigor equation

Middleton & Midgley, 2002). In particular, teachers are taught a practical definition enabling them to measure and adjust the amount of rigor in a learning task. To provide a concrete tool for teachers, ALL-ED defines rigor through an equation: Rigor equals effort multiplied by complexity (see Figure 6.2). In this equation, effort equals the energy needed to sustain focus for the required duration. Complexity equals the number of parts, ways the parts can fit together, and type of thinking required to manipulate the parts.

For example, if the task was to create a timeline of six events, then the number of parts is six, the ways the parts fit together is one, sequential, and the thinking required may be comparison to determine the order of the events or logical, organizing the events by actions before results. To increase the rigor of this task, obviously more events to sort would require more sustained focus time. Rigor could be increased in other ways, for example, by asking students to order the events by time and then reorder them in another layout that reveals a theme relevant to the topic. Another option would be for some students to order the events by time and others to order the events by time and perspective of people impacted. By understanding how to adjust rigor using the same task, teachers are better equipped to ensure all students experience optimal challenge with given tasks daily.

Promoting Value

Research on the classroom contextual bases of motivation suggests that students are more likely to value those tasks that they find relevant in some way (Blumenfeld, 1992). Thus, another way ALL-ED helps to promote student motivation is to improve teachers' abilities to design relevant tasks. Indeed, research on ethnic minority students further demonstrates that one of the reasons many minority students feel disengaged from school may be because of the lack of culturally relevant tasks (Zusho, Daddino, & Garcia, in press). Thus, ALL-ED PD includes a traction planning tool (see Figure 6.3) designed to first focus teacher attention on the cultural, experience, and academic strengths that students and teachers bring

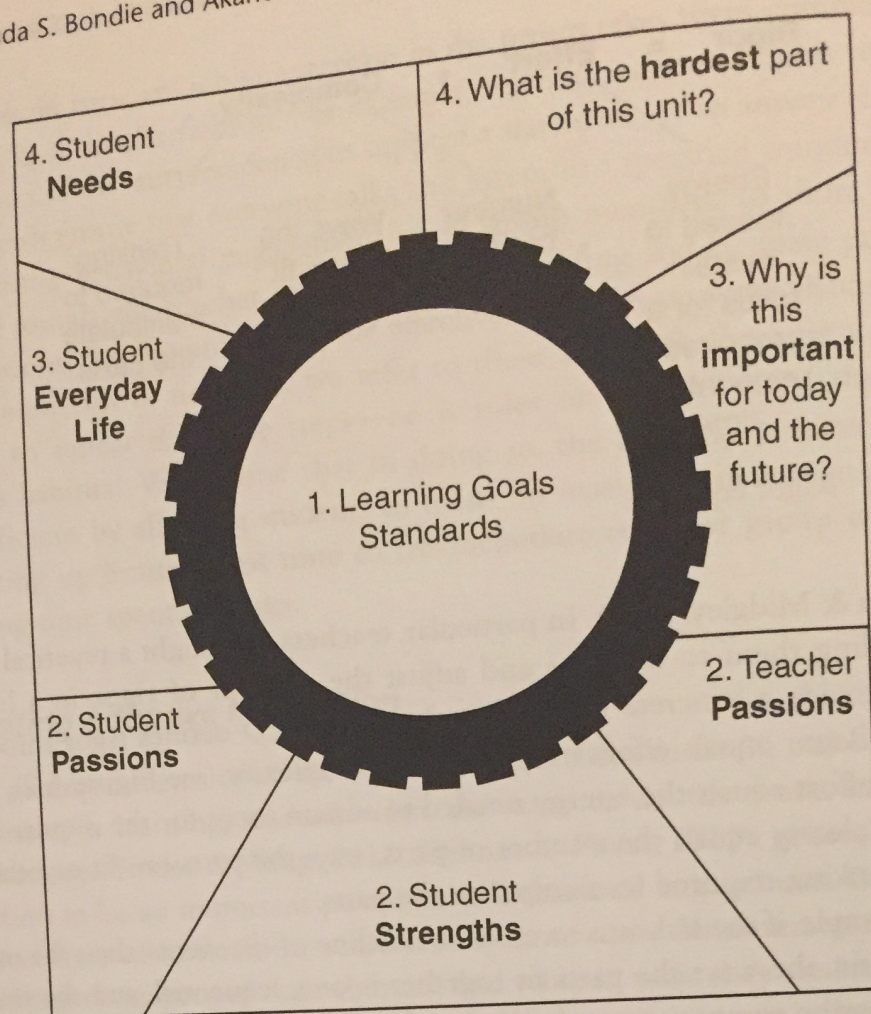


FIGURE 6.3 Traction planner with four key steps to gain relevance

to a unit of study. By rooting the new learning of a unit in strengths that learners already have, the students start with something that provides traction toward the new goals.

Promoting Belonging

Research consistently shows that students who perceive themselves to be a valued member of their learning community are more likely to display behaviors and engender feelings consistent with academic success. Research further reveals that feelings of belonging may be especially important for students of color, including ELLs (LeClair, Doll, Osborn, & Jones, 2009; Zusho et al., 2016). There are several ways the ALL-ED routines establish a culture of inclusion and respect. For example, the GPLRs mentioned earlier are designed to foster feelings of belonging and respect among students through the teacher establishing explicit norms and directions. These norms enable ELLs, especially newcomers, to participate in discussions such as, “*Confirm and Contribute*.” When using *Rounds*, students can either *contribute* a new response or *confirm* a response of a previous student. To confirm a response, the student simply points to the student who has spoken before and that student will repeat the response.

thereby ensuring that again, *all* students are able to participate no matter what their level of prior knowledge. In addition, the procedure helps students notice patterns and surprises in responses that are unique among the group members.

Promoting SRL

Research on SRL consistently demonstrates that self-regulated learners, or students who reflect on their thinking, set appropriate goals and plan for learning, monitor progress toward those goals, and adjust or regulate thinking, motivation, and learning are more likely to achieve academic success (Pintrich, 2000). Self-regulated learners are those strategic, conscientious students who employ an arsenal of cognitive, motivational, and metacognitive strategies and proactively seek help when needed (Pintrich, 2000).

One of the guiding assumptions of ALL-ED is that SRL is the key to sustained, personalized learning—teachers will not be able to address the diversity that exists in the classroom, and students will not be able to learn effectively without being in the driver's seat of their own learning. To that end, ALL-ED recruits both students and teachers to set goals, monitor actions, and evaluate performance on an ongoing basis. Specifically, the ALL-ED PD promotes teachers' ability to increase SRL through the use of a variety of formative assessments.

For example, rubrics are a tool used for goal setting, monitoring, and providing actionable feedback. Rubrics assist students in self-assessment, an important part of self-regulation, by enabling students to think about the quality of their work in terms of specific goals, providing a readily available source of feedback (Andrade & Valtcheva, 2009). In addition to rubrics, ALL-ED PD encourages teachers to embed SRL processes in routine instructional practices such as asking students to complete a performance summary after taking a weekly test (see

Standard	Q #:	Points	Cumulative Fraction	%	Mastery Calculations		
A.N.4 Understand and use scientific notation to compute products and quotients of numbers	7	/2	/4		Yes!	Almost	Need to Practice
	12	/2					
	13	/2					
	15	/3					
A.A.12 Multiply and divide monomial expressions with a common base, using the properties of exponents	1	/2	/6		Yes!	Almost	Need to Practice
	8	/2					
	9	/2					
	2	/2					
	14	/2					
	4	/2					

FIGURE 6.4 Performance summary for algebra unit with mastery calculations

Figure 6.4). The performance summary helps students measure progress toward each learning standard and provides data that students use to plan realistic learning goals. In addition, students use daily homework reflection charts to consider patterns in their performance over several days related to study conditions.

ELLs and ALL-ED

The foregoing principles of ALL-ED overlap greatly with the overarching literature on effective learning and instruction (Hattie, 2009). Thus, ALL-ED could ostensibly be applied in any classroom. However, we believe that the routines featured in ALL-ED may be especially powerful in promoting the academic success of ELLs.

Currently, ELLs make up approximately 10% of the total U.S. student population, with the greatest concentrations in the West (Kena et al., 2014). ELLs as a group are considered to be at risk for underachievement; for example, compared with non-ELLs, ELLs significantly underperformed on both the mathematics and reading sections of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP; Heritage, Walqui, & Linquati, 2015).

Further challenging ELLs is the increasing prominence of college and career readiness expectations including the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) and Next Generation Science Standards (NGSS), which emphasize extensive and complex language use. For example, the CCSS in English language arts call for “regular practice with complex texts and their academic language” (“Key Shifts in English Language Arts,” n.d.). Similarly, the NGSS advocates for students constructing complex and reasoned explanations and engaging in evidence-based arguments. As Heritage et al. (2015) note, these standards “present both a challenge and an opportunity for ELLs, who regularly must do ‘double the work’—acquire content knowledge and analytical practices at the same time as they are learning English as an additional language” (p. 2).

Against this backdrop, the importance of the ALL-ED routines for ELLs should become evident. The GPLRs, for example, provide ELLs multiple opportunities to speak and use academic language (Bondie, Zusho, & Gaughran, 2014). Opportunities available to only a select few students in a more teacher-centered environment are now available to all students through the use of roles and rounds. Such practices are in line with the limited research on ELLs, which suggests that small-group collaboration is one effective way to promote the academic success of this group (Applebee, Langer, Nystrand, & Gamoran, 2003).

Considering the many academic challenges ELLs face in school, it is not surprising that ELLs sometimes report lower levels of self-efficacy when compared to non-ELLs (Taboada Barber & Gallagher, 2015). Routines such as *confirm and contribute* help further build the confidence of ELLs—as students develop expressive language skills, they can point and repeat a response and then add onto a response. This procedure ensures that all students participate and offer a response

regardless of their proficiency with English, oral language skills, or knowledge of the discussion's topic.

Research also demonstrates that ELLs may struggle with self-regulation (Taboada Barber & Gallagher, 2015). When studying reading instruction with ELLs, Taboada Barber and Gallagher (2015) noted that teacher practices of setting goals and offering feedback are critical for ELLs, who may not always be aware of effective strategies in reading. Consistent with this research, in the ALL-ED classroom, formative assessments such as rubrics and performance summaries provide ELLs with clear goals and feedback to improve their performance.

To summarize, the limited body of research on ELLs suggests that these students face additional challenges in school. Research also demonstrates that creating an inclusive, supportive, relevant yet academically rigorous classroom environment could potentially promote their motivation. In what follows, we present both quantitative and qualitative data on 45 New York City Public School high school teachers who serve ELLs and attended the ALL-ED PD during the 2013–15 academic years. Our overarching goal is to describe the ALL-ED PD and its preliminary impact on these teachers' instructional practices. The quantitative portion of the study was guided primarily by a quest to document the frequency of instructional practices related to ALL-ED, as well as to understand what effect, if any, the ALL-ED PD had on these teachers' use of the routines. The qualitative portion of the study provides more detailed accounts of how teachers used ALL-ED routines with ELLs.

Method

Description of Participants and Schools

The participants in this study were part of a network of 23 high schools located throughout New York City's five boroughs. The schools were primarily International High Schools serving students with low literacy both in their native language and in English. The students (ages 14 to 21) attending these schools are typically recent immigrants to the United States, representing about 47 countries and 32 different languages. As such, many are new to formal schooling and are being exposed to the content of the American curriculum for the first time. Where the case studies took place during the 2013–14 academic year, the 4-year graduation rate was 40% and the 6-year graduation rate was 66%. The teachers ranged in terms of their experience working with ELLs from novices who are in their first 5 years of teaching to accomplished master's-level teachers with more than 10 years of experience.

The teachers highlighted in this chapter all received the ALL-ED PD through the New York City Department of Education (NYC DoE). Forty-five teachers from 17 of the network's 23 schools participated in the ALL-ED PD. Teachers from all subject areas including English, math, science, social studies, special

education, and electives (shop, drama, foreign language, etc.) attended the PD. The years of teaching experience of the participants ranged from 1 year to more than 30 years. However, most teachers had less than 6 years of experience. Common to all teachers were that 100% of their students were ELLs, although the ELLs ranged widely in terms of their level of English proficiency.

Description of the ALL-ED Professional Development

The ALL-ED PD consisted of three all-day workshops during the 2013–14 school year. The PD's content focused on GPLRs, self-regulation, and planning for specialized instruction. The following year, 2014–15, the PD was divided into ALL-ED 1 (similar to the previous year) and ALL-ED 2 for returning teachers who had participated in ALL-ED the previous year. The content for ALL-ED 2 focused more on SRL and planning curriculum that was more in line with CCSS. ALL-ED 1 continued to be offered across 3 days spread out over 3 months, and ALL-ED 2 was offered for 2 days with 1 month in between workshops.

Sources of Data

Quantitative Measures and Analyses

As part of the ALL-ED PD, all teachers completed a survey measuring the frequency of instructional practices related to the ALL-ED PD. More specifically, participants were invited to assess the extent to which their instruction emphasized and/or promoted rigor, SRL, GPLRs, relevance, access, structured choice, and mastery-oriented instructional practices. Teachers were also asked to respond to questions assessing their overall teacher efficacy. With the exception of the teacher efficacy scale, which was measured on a five-point scale where 1 = never to 5 = a great deal, all of the other items were assessed on a five-point scale where 1 = never to 5 = daily.

Rigor was assessed through a three-item scale ($\alpha = .72$, e.g., "I don't let my students just do easy work, I make them think") measuring the extent to which teachers cognitively challenged students. These items were adapted from the academic press scale of the Patterns of Adaptive Learning Scales (PALS; Midgley et al., 2000). SRL was assessed through a seven-item scale ($\alpha = .83$, e.g., "I ask all students to self-assess or try to determine which concepts they don't understand well throughout the unit"), adapted from the Regulation of Learning Questionnaire (RLQ) developed by McCardle and Hadwin (2015). The SRL scale measured teachers' support of goal setting, monitoring, and reflection, as well as use of formative assessments to guide instructional decisions. Relevance was measured using a three-item scale ($\alpha = .72$, e.g., "I help my students apply what they're learning in my class to their life") and focused on whether academic tasks were

tied to students' life experiences. GPLRs were assessed using a five-item scale ($\alpha = .71$, e.g., "When working in groups, there are established routines for students to follow so that everyone knows what to do"), measuring the extent to which teachers utilized GPLRs related to ALL-ED. Access was measured through three items ($\alpha = .57$, e.g., "I adjust my lesson plans to meet the needs of high-achieving students and low-achieving students simultaneously"), focused on the extent to which the teacher differentiated their lesson to meet the needs of all learners. Structured choice, in turn (three items, $\alpha = .60$, e.g., "I ask all students to help me decide which activities are best for them") focused on a teacher's emphasis on providing students with learning options. The measure of mastery-oriented instructional practices was adapted from the PALS and assessed the extent to which a teacher focused on using instructional practices that emphasized growth and improvement (three items, $\alpha = .76$, e.g., "I ask all students to help me decide which activities are best for them"). Finally, teacher efficacy was adapted from the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale, Short Form (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001) and was assessed through an eight-item scale ($\alpha = .85$, e.g., "How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level of individual students?"). Data were analyzed using correlational methods.

Qualitative Methods and Analyses

Following the PD, three case studies were conducted to understand how the routines from the ALL-ED PD were used with ELLs. Data collected for the three case studies included seven classroom observations, curriculum materials, transcripts of conversations with teachers and students, and reflective memos. A grounded theory approach was used for coding data, generating a theoretical explanation through constant coding "grounded" in the data examined (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Results

Quantitative Results

As mentioned earlier, the major goal of the quantitative portion of the study was to document the instructional practices of the teachers attending the ALL-ED PD. Table 6.1 displays the means and standard deviations of the various instructional practices related to the ALL-ED PD for the total sample ($N = 45$), as well as broken down by those who attended ALL-ED 1 and those who attended ALL-ED 2. Overall, the results show that the various practices are not part of teachers' daily routine, considering that the means were mostly in the 3.00 range (recall that the scales were assessed on a 1 = never to 5 = daily scale). Frequencies were lowest for provision of choice, followed by self-regulated learning routines. The use of GPLRs was also relatively low.

TABLE 6.1 Descriptive statistics of instructional routines for total sample and by group

	Total Sample (N = 45)		ALL-ED 1 (n = 31)		ALL-ED 2 (n = 14)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Rigor	3.88	.72	3.84	.79	3.98	.55
SRL	3.08	.70	3.10	.81	3.04	.38
Relevance	3.49	.88	3.37	.55	3.37	.93
GPLRs	3.12	.75	2.94	.71	3.54*	.71
Access	3.96	.72	3.91	.78	4.05	.54
Structured Choice	2.77	.79	2.67	.87	3.00	.55
Mastery	4.09	.79	3.99	.82	4.31	.70
Efficacy	3.97	.59	3.85	.62	4.23*	.42

Note. * $p < .05$.

To assess the impact of the PD, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted whereby the instructional routines and teacher efficacy were entered as dependent variables, and group (ALL-ED 1 and ALL-ED 2) was entered as the independent variable. The overall multivariate test for group was found to be statistically significant, $F(8, 36) = 2.42, p = .03$. Closer examination of the univariate tests revealed a significant main effect of group for GPLRs, as well as for teacher efficacy. In both cases, those teachers who attended ALL-ED 2 (i.e., had more experience with ALL-ED instructional routines) reported, on average, higher levels of use of GPLRs and more teacher efficacy (see Table 6.1).

Qualitative Results

The case studies sought to understand how teachers implement the routines learned in the ALL-ED PD to meet the needs of academically diverse ELLs. The case studies focused on a teacher team and two individual math teachers, one novice and one experienced.

First Case Study: Science Department Teacher Team

The first case study followed five teachers who comprised a high school science department providing life science, biology, chemistry, and physics courses. A common concern across all teachers was a lack of student engagement during whole-group instruction, specifically when teachers demonstrated problems on the board.

To address this problem, the teachers decided to change from "going over the problem with the whole class" to using the ALL-ED *Domino Share* GPLR for corrections. During the routine, after the 5 minutes of independent work, the teachers asked students to share their answer to the problem one at a time, going

around in a circle at their table. The teachers described the process like the game of standing up dominos, and when one is pushed, each falls one after the other. The students each took turns each completing the same task, and if someone had a different answer then the group stopped to talk about whether there could be two correct answers or if something was wrong. At the end of the *Domino Share*, a reporter from the group shared out an answer representing the discussion of the group. Other group members listened to these responses, identifying contributions of vocabulary words, explanations, illustrations, and examples that increased the quality of a correct answer.

After 5 months, the result of the *Domino Share* was total student engagement. As one science teacher reported, "Students put pressure on each other to complete the problem independently before sharing with the group. Students don't want their friends to think that they didn't try to solve the problem." Another science teacher reported that "students bring questions to the group and get them answered much faster than if I took questions one by one." The routine helped students recognize their growth, "At first, I did not understand, but by the time we participated more . . . I saw people transform the way they report the problem . . . now I like it." Teachers confirmed student comments, noting that the benefits for "language development are big because some students who did not speak before are talking now, they are all communicating . . . they don't have any time to say, 'I am not talking today.' They have to. They have to use the vocabulary and [listen for] it."

The routine has changed the purpose of teacher-to-student interactions. Prior to the *Domino Share*, at the beginning of class the teachers always asked students to open their notebooks and start the assignment. Now, teachers spend time with each group asking and answering questions, often focused on challenging student thinking. Rarely are teachers managing behavior; instead, everyone is discussing the lesson's topic. The procedure ran smoothly within the first month of school, solving the problem of engagement at the beginning of class and enabling teachers to learn more about their students while ensuring rigorous thinking for ELLs.

Second Case Study: Novice Math Teacher

The second case study involved observing a novice-level math teacher over 2 years. The math teacher participated in both the ALL-ED 1 and ALL-ED 2 PDs and received coaching on a monthly basis from one of the researchers. The teacher created his own GPLRs and successfully implemented the routine three times per week with all of his classes. He reflected on how ELLs become independent when routine, practice, and expectations are clear:

We have students who arrive with little English and we have to make it so they can participate and discuss. [GPLRs] take a lot of practice and as you . . . set-up structures and a time frame, then it becomes a routine and they are doing the work without someone asking them . . . It has to be organized first and the rest will take care of itself. Some of the things I want

to try are a script for them in the first few weeks to make them feel safe . . . [like having] a few training wheels.

To further clarify a progression of expectations for participation from novice to mastery and establish quality criteria for discussions, the teacher implemented a rubric so that students could self-assess their progress in the group discussion skills of speaking, listening, and thinking as well as measure the quality of their responses (connections, vocabulary, and volume). The teacher reported, "I made a checklist of group discussion expected outcomes . . . it is for students an eye opener providing a simple tool, indicative of where they are heading toward."

Classroom observations revealed that when "triad stations" were formed, the energy in the room increased dramatically. Students confirmed this feeling with enthusiastic responses when asked to describe how GPLRs work in their classroom. For example, one student stated, "[When teachers] are explaining something, we are tired, but when we do [group discussion routines], the hard work becomes easier. When we get in teams, [I want to] say something good for my team." Another recognized that "when I write, I just copy; when I listen, I remember more." When asked about their perceptions of the benefits of GPLRs for ELLs, students agreed with one student who stated, "I learned . . . how not to be scared about what I am presenting. It gives me confidence." Students agreed that GPLRs are "awesome, when we move into triad stations, the routine is not boring."

Third Case Study: Experienced Math Teacher

A second, experienced math teacher was observed regularly over the past 2 years. She was immediately able to integrate group-learning routines into her practice without any coaching. She reflected that the ALL-ED PD fit with her instructional beliefs. She observed that through GPLRs, "students are helping each other and becoming their own teachers, which is more powerful than having me lecture." When interviewed, her students confirmed the teacher's observations of how GPLRs empower ELLs and helps students value their own diversity. For example, common themes are represented in student statements such as, "not everybody has the same capability; more people understand much better when classmates explain . . . [This] makes you know your classmates better and what they are capable of." An additional common benefit of GPLRs included peer support. For example, students said, "If I am absent then I can't get the missed knowledge. But now, I don't have to go to the teacher . . . with [daily group discussion], my friends teach me quickly."

The experienced teacher reported making changes in the GPLRs to solve problems as they occurred in the classroom. For example, more talkative students and those with greater English skills were consistently volunteering to report the group's findings to the class. In addition, the principal noticed that boys were

volunteering to be the reporter more often than girls. The teacher described how she changed the routine to address this problem:

This time I said I will choose the reporters and everyone got tense. I saw the seriousness they put into it. I picked the students who do not speak often and they did fabulous. Sometimes I let them pick and sometimes I say I will choose or I let a student from another group, choose a reporter in a different group . . . they like it, you can see the pride in their eyes.

Students confirmed the success of this solution, saying, "If we don't know who the group's reporter will be then everyone has to be prepared." The teacher summarized her reasoning for using GPLRs on a daily basis, often two or three times in a 60-minute period. She reflected, I use GPLRs to "let students be in charge of their own learning. They are hands on and participating. I am feeding them and transmitting knowledge, but they are in charge of their own learning. I learned everything from them. We learn from each other."

During the second year, GPLRs were observed on every classroom visit. The purpose of the GPLRs varied to achieve a specific instructional goal. For example, the researcher observed students struggling with independent practice following a direct-instruction mini-lesson. Many students had not started the problems and appeared confused. She asked those students who were finished and who could explain how they solved the problems to stand with their notebooks around the room. Then she assigned two students to each group leader. The group leader answered questions until both listeners could explain how to solve the problems. The teacher reported that everyone came in the next day with the assignment completed. This teacher reported using GPLRs to resolve issues of academic diversity such as confusion or lack of understanding, differences in background knowledge and experiences, ability to know and use vocabulary, and knowledge due to absences from school.

Discussion

Overall, the results of the quantitative portion of the study indicated that although teachers do not necessarily implement ALL-ED instructional routines every day, with increasing exposure to the ALL-ED PD, they are more likely to report greater use of GPLRs and teaching efficacy. Qualitative data confirmed that teachers were able to implement GPLRs and some SRL after participating in the ALL-ED PD. Implementation patterns such as the need to take time to practice the routine with students and to vary the routine to solve problems in student engagement and accountability were common among all teachers.

Table 6.2 illustrates how ALL-ED routines enabled teachers to provide regular opportunities that specifically addressed the learning needs of ELLs.