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PUSH-IN LANGUAGE SUPPORT IN ENGLISH-MEDIUM INTERNATIONAL SCHOOLS

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Abstract

The number of English-medium international schools implementing a second language acquisition instructional model using push-in language support is increasing. With the escalation of push-in comes increased interaction between English language learner (ELL) teachers and classroom teachers. This quantitative survey-based study aimed to explore ELL push-in support in the early and primary years in international schools. Within the construct of English-medium international schools, the researchers sought to investigate teacher expectations during push-in. Areas explored include language policy and the specification of teacher roles, availability of planning time, in-class expectations for ELL teachers, and teacher satisfaction with push-in. The study results revealed that slightly less than half of the participants reported having a school language policy that defined teacher roles, and approximately one-third of the participants in schools using push-in were not provided with planning time. The researchers also found statistically significant differences in the rankings of ELL teacher roles during push-in between ELL and classroom teachers. Further, the study revealed no statistically significant difference in the reported level of satisfaction with push-in between the two groups; however, when the two groups were combined, only about half of the participants reported that teachers were satisfied with push-in ELL support in their school.

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1. Introduction

Over the years, the provision for English language learner (ELL) support in English-medium international schools has evolved from being traditionally a pull-out-based model (Carder, 2014) to be more of a mixture of pull-out and push-in (Lehman & Welch, 2020a). An English-medium international school can be defined as a school that uses English as the medium of instruction and does not use the curriculum of the host country. Due to the number of non-native English speaking students enrolled (ISC Research, 2019), many English-medium international schools implement a second language acquisition (SLA) instructional model (IM) to aid students in the development of English language ability. Pull-out and push-in language support are components of many of these SLA IMs. Pull-out language support occurs when ELL students are pulled out of the classroom and receive instruction from an ELL teacher.

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Push-in language support occurs when an ELL teacher works with ELLs in the mainstream classroom.

With the escalation of push-in comes increased interactions between ELL teachers and classroom teachers. At the same time, many personnel in international schools have a mindset that subject teaching is superior to ELL support teaching (Creese, 2005). Further, many educators see ELL support teaching as separate from teaching a subject or curricular content (Constantino, 1994) and fail to understand that teaching in English is not the same as teaching English (Torrance, 2005). These mindsets can lead to the marginalization of ELL teachers, and some authors and researchers have documented the marginalization of ELL teachers and departments (Carder, 2014; Creese, 2005; Harper, De Jong, & Platt, 2008; Holderness, 2001; Whiting, 2017). Moreover, there is documentation of how ELL support teaching is often not recognized as a stand-alone subject (Arkoudis, 2006; Carder, 2014; Creese, 2005). In brief, the marginalization of ELL teachers affects the relationship between the ELL and classroom teachers and the positioning of ELL students within the social construct of a school (Baecher & Bell, 2017).

Implementing an SLA IM using push-in will involve ELL and classroom teachers working simultaneously in the classroom. With increased interaction between ELL and classroom teachers, the need to negotiate roles and expectations will surface. Discussing the communicative interaction between ELL and classroom teachers in international schools, Holderness (2001) stated that "Colleagues will have to agree and be clear about the school's procedures for establishing the most efficient and effective lines of communication …" (p. 73). However, the potential for conflicts arises if teachers must interpret procedures. Additionally, conflicts may develop when teachers make decisions concerning the roles and responsibilities of each teacher without guidance that should be available in a transparent procedural policy document.

A policy document is a statement detailing what an organization "intends to do or not to do" (Birkland, 2014, p. 203). A school language policy should state the *what*, *how*, and *why* of instruction (Ricento & Hornberger, 1996). As more English-medium international schools implement the push-in SLA IM or the hybrid model using both push-in and pull-out (Lehman & Welch, 2020a), school leaders should provide support structures that facilitate the successful implementation of push-in support. In essence, the social well-being of the teachers and the academic and social well-being of ELL students are dependent upon teachers having a solid understanding of their roles (Shoebottom, 2009). Unfortunately, ELL teachers are sometimes unaware of their exact

role (Lehman, 2018), and classroom teachers often misunderstand the ELL teacher's role during push-in (Vintan & Gallagher, 2019). Therefore, the problem is that many teachers, especially ELL teachers, lack clarity in the expectations and responsibilities of teachers during push-in.

1.1 Theoretical Framework

Positioning theory centers around the interactions that occur between people. According to Harr and van Langenhove (1999), positioning theory focuses on the interactions between people and the social constructs in which the interaction transpires. Within positioning theory, van Langenhove and Harré (1999) identified the following types of intentional positioning:

- Deliberate self-positioning
- The deliberate positioning of others
- Forced self-positioning
- The forced positioning of others

With deliberate and forced positioning, an imbalance of power evolves, and many international schools have both hidden and overt power structures (Gallagher, 2008) that allow these imbalances to emerge and expand. Within these structures, ELL teachers often find themselves in positions of power imbalance, fighting for their rights and the rights of their students (Carder, 2013; Creese, 2005). Unfortunately, some ELL teachers marginalize themselves while other ELL teachers "have been trained into marginalization" (Elson, 1997, p. 59).

1.2 Purpose and Research Questions

This study aimed to explore ELL push-in support in the early and primary years in international schools. Within the construct of an international school, the researchers sought to investigate teacher expectations during push-in and outcomes. The researchers developed the following questions to guide the study.

- If there is a language policy, are the teacher roles defined within the language policy document?
- If push-in support is occurring, is planning time provided by the school?
- What are the differences in expectations concerning push-in support between ELL and classroom teachers?
- Is there a difference in the level of satisfaction with push-in as reported by ELL and classroom teachers?

1.3 Language Policy and Roles Defined

A policy in a school is used to inform stakeholders of the school's official position and should address a key topic while detailing actions to be taken that address the point of concern (McClelland, 2001). Many international schools choose to create a school language policy, and this policy should contain information that provides stakeholders with guidance concerning how language is taught, learned, and used. When an international school decides to implement an SLA IM that uses push-in support, the school should have a school language policy that defines teacher roles. However, not all language policies define teacher roles. Studying language policy in international schools and whether teacher roles were defined in the policy, Lehman and Welch (2020b) found that of 363 teacher and administrator participants who reported their school had a formal written language policy, only 54% (196) answered that the policy defined the roles of the teachers. Of the remaining participants, 32% (116) answered no, and 14% (51) revealed that they did not know if the school language policy defined teacher roles (Lehman & Welch, 2020b). A well-crafted and fully implemented school language policy defining teacher roles can serve as a support structure for successfully implementing an SLA IM using push-in.

1.4 Planning Time

According to Bell and Baecher (2012), many schools favor using a push-in SLA IM because it is considered a collaborative model. However, for collaboration to occur, school leaders need to provide organized opportunities for ELL and classroom teachers to collaborate. While most teachers are willing to collaborate with other teachers, time to meet is often unavailable (Baecher & Bell, 2017; Bell & Baecher, 2012; Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010; Vintan & Gallagher, 2019). Studying collaboration between ELL and primary classroom teachers, Vintan and Gallagher (2019) found that a prominent barrier to communication was the lack of scheduled time to plan together. Due to the lack of collaborative planning time, ELL teachers often do not have advance notice of the content of upcoming classroom lessons for which they will be providing push-in support (Creese, 2005). However, some schools negotiate this issue by having an online platform for teachers to post weekly lesson units accessible by ELL and other specialist teachers (Vintan & Gallagher, 2019). Ultimately, when possible, school leaders should arrange the school schedule to provide time for teacher collaboration, especially when more than one teacher is teaching in a classroom.

1.5 Expectations during Push-in

Vintan and Gallagher (2019) also reported that another prominent barrier to collaboration between ELL and classroom teachers was the misunderstanding of the role of the ELL teacher by classroom teachers. During push-in, ELL teachers may be assigned, choose, or fall into several roles, such as helping the teacher, being a co-teacher, working specifically with ELL students, or working with all students in the classroom. Not being the classroom teacher, ELL teachers can be positioned as teacher helpers by both the classroom teachers and students (Baecher & Bell, 2017) and the ELL teachers themselves. While the term co-teacher is sometimes used, the term itself does not assure equal status in the classroom (McClure & Cahnmann-Taylor, 2010). When doing push-in, the ELL teacher may have been trained or believe that their role is to only work with ELLs (Wlazlinski, 2014), while the classroom teacher may hold another expectation.

Unbeknownst to the various stakeholders are often other influences such as previous experiences or lack of and imported home-country biases, all of which can lead teachers to make decisions that are not perceived in a positive manner by other stakeholders or deliberatively or forcibly place people in positions of inferiority. Additionally, parental expectations can impact push-in support, especially when parents of ELLs are paying an extra fee for ELL support in addition to the tuition fee (Carder, 2007; Lehman, 2020). Further, a school's hiring practices can contribute to the marginalization of ELL teachers since many international schools do not require ELL teachers to hold the same teaching credentials as required of classroom teachers (Lehman, 2021) and place them on a different contract with them a lower salary. However, some ELL teachers are highly qualified with credentials that match or exceed those held by classroom teachers, yet they sometimes find themselves in positions of disempowerment (Carder, 2013). Therefore, ELL teachers may need to differentiate themselves from the positions of teaching assistant, support teacher, and other paraprofessionals (Whiting, 2017).

1.6 Level of Satisfaction with Push-in

Although school leaders and many educators have a favorable view of inclusionary practices and models of instruction, not all teachers are satisfied with SLA IMs using push-in (Baecher & Bell, 2017; Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010; McClure & Cahnmann-Taylor, 2010; Spencer, 2021). The level of teacher satisfaction with push-in may be contingent on the support structures available to teachers and the school's overall culture towards ELL teachers and ELL students. According to Whiting (2017), school leaders should provide teachers with training to facilitate push-in and ensure the

teachers' roles are clearly defined. In addition to professional development for ELL and classroom teachers working together, school leaders should strive to create time within the school day for ELL and classroom teacher collaboration (Vintan & Gallagher, 2019). In sum, the actions or non-actions of school leaders can have a significant impact on the implementation of an SLA IM using push-in.

2. Method

2.1 Research Design

The researchers used an observational quantitative research design consisting of a cross-sectional survey. A cross-sectional survey does not manipulate a variable; instead, the survey collects data at a single point in time (Creswell, 2012). Each group of participants received a separate survey; the survey questions for this study were identical between the groups, except for question six, which was only on the ELL teacher survey. To establish content validity, three international school educators, who did not participate in the study, served as experts in the field (Creswell, 2012; Salkind, 2013) and reviewed the research questions and survey questions. The first two practitioners had been classroom teachers in various international schools in East Asia. The third practitioner had been an ELL and classroom teacher in an international school in South America.

2.2 Population-Sampling

The researchers used a random sampling to search school websites for names, positions, and contact information for potential participants. The researchers sent potential participants a survey request to their school email address, and all participants were working in an international school when they completed the survey. Participants were located in countries in Africa, Asia, the Middle East, and South America; most participants were in East Asia. The researchers sent a survey request to 476 ELL teachers and 1,836 Early Years and Primary teachers. Overall, 2,312 teachers received a survey request. The first, third, and fifth questions of the survey (see Appendix) were the qualifying questions. Additionally, the pool of potential participants included only ELL teachers who identified themselves as teaching Early Years, Elementary or Primary level students. After participants who did not answer the three qualifying questions were removed, 168 survey participants formed the data set for the study. Of the 168 participants, 54 were ELL teachers, and 114 were Early Years and Primary classroom teachers. The surveys were completed in May and June of 2021.

2.3 Data Collection Tools

Overall, the study used seven questions to address the research question for the current study (see Appendix). Table 1 shows which survey questions were used to address the research questions.

Table 1. *Survey and research questions.*

Survey Question	Research Question
1	1
2	1
3	2
4	3
5	3
6*	3
7	4

*ELL teacher survey only

2.4 Data Collection Process

In the introductory email, potential participants were informed of the intentions of the study. Additionally, a website link was provided, allowing potential participants to view the research questions and additional information about the study, including biographical information about the primary researcher. The website also provided a contact box so potential participants could ask questions before and after choosing to complete the survey. The potential participants were not promised any reward and were not coerced into completing the survey. Participation was voluntary, and when taking the survey, none of the questions were mandatory. The researchers used Survey Monkey to host the surveys; all data were stored via a password-protected laptop and password-protected external hard drive.

2.5 Data Analysis

The researchers used SPSS software (v. 27) to perform Pearson chi-square tests (χ^2) and Mann-Whitney tests with an alpha level of .05. The Pearson chi-square test is a nonparametric test used to analyze nominal data (Creswell, 2012; McHugh, 2013), and the Mann-Whitney test (U) is a nonparametric test used to analyze ordinal data (Creswell, 2012; Salkind, 2013). For post hoc analysis of the Mann-Whitney tests, the researchers used SPSS software to calculate pairwise comparisons.

3. Findings

Of the 168 participants, 114 (67.9%) revealed that their school had a language policy, while 16 (9.5%) answered that their school did not have a language policy, and 38 (22.6%) did not know if their school had a language policy. Of the 114 participants reporting a language policy, 78 (68.4%) revealed that the language policy specifically stated the roles of the ELL and classroom teachers, while 25 (21.9%) answered that the policy did not define the roles, and the remaining did not know. Of the 168 participants, 138 answered that push-in occurred in their schools, and 30 answered that push-in did not occur. Of the 138 who answered that push-in occurred, 90 (65.2%) participants answered that time was provided for ELL teachers and classroom teachers to meet and plan, while 48 (34.8%) answered that planning time was not provided.

The researchers asked participants if ELL teachers should have a prepared lesson plan for each push-in class, and with ELL and classroom teachers combined, 54.5% answered yes, 31.7% answered no, and 13.8% answered do not know. When the groups were analyzed separately, the results of a Pearson chi-square test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in the expectation of whether an ELL should have a prepared lesson plan for each push-in class between ELL teachers (Group 1: $n = 54$) and classroom teachers (Group 2: $n = 113$), χ^2 (2, $N = 167$) = 8.269, p = 0.016 (see Figure 1).

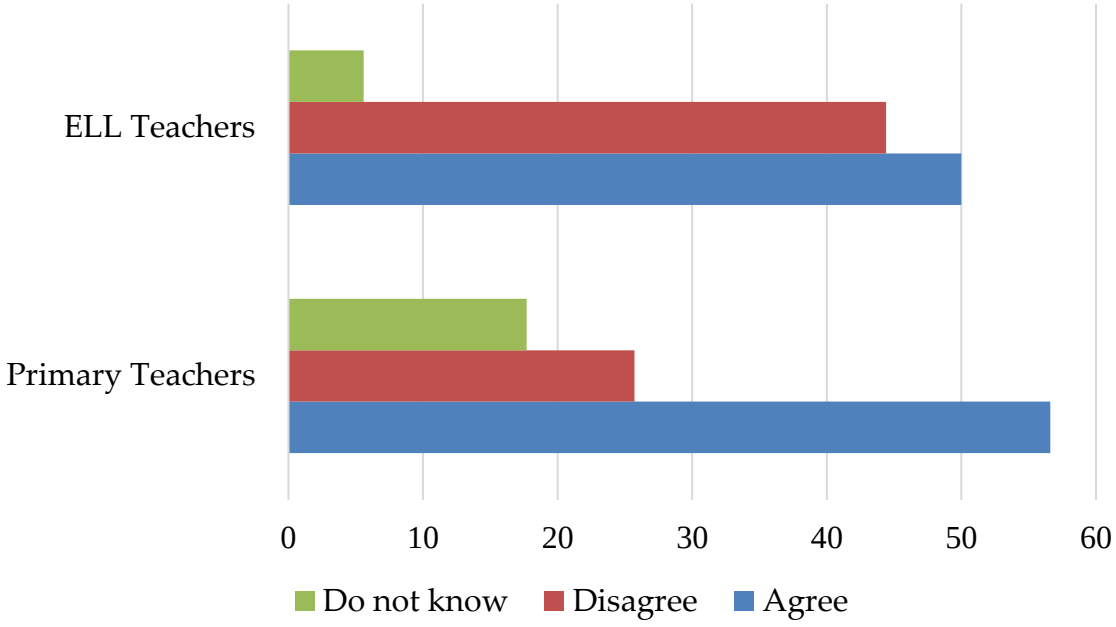

Figure 1. *ELL teachers should have a lesson plan for push-in (in percentages).*

The participants were asked to rank four possible roles of the ELL teacher when doing push-in. These roles were as follows.

- Help the classroom teacher
- Teach the class as a co-teacher
- Work with ELL students
- Work with all students

A Mann-Whitney test indicated that there were statistically significant differences in the ranking of *help the teacher* (U=2321.0, p = 0.006), *work with ELL students* (U=2587.0, p = 0.047), and *work with all students* (U=2413.0, p = .018) between ELL teachers and classroom teachers. The Mann-Whitney test revealed no statistical significance between the two groups concerning the role of *teach the class as a co-teacher* (U=2543.0, p = 0.060) (see Table 2).

Table 2. *Possible roles of the ELL teacher with Mean Rank.*

ELL teacher role	ELL Teacher	Classroom Teacher
Help the classroom teacher	n = 54 Mean Rank = 98.52	n = 114 Mean Rank = 77.86
Teach the class as a co-teacher	n = 54 Mean Rank = 74.59	n = 114 Mean Rank = 89.19
Work with ELL students	n = 54 Mean Rank = 93.59	n = 114 Mean Rank = 80.19
Work with all students	n = 54 Mean Rank = 72.19	n = 114 Mean Rank = 90.33

ELL teachers were asked if their school imposed an ELL fee charged to parents of ELLs in addition to tuition and other school fees. Of the 54 ELL teachers, 25 (46.3%) reported that there was a separate fee for ELLs in addition to the school tuition fees; 29 (53.7%) of ELL teachers reported there was not an additional ELL fee.

Lastly, the researchers wanted to explore the level of teacher satisfaction with push-in. Participants were asked to rate the current level of satisfaction between ELL and classroom teachers with push-in. The results of a Pearson chi-square test revealed that there was not a statistically significant difference in the reported level of satisfaction with push-in between ELL teachers (Group 1: n = 49) and classroom teachers (Group 2: n = 81), χ^2 (2, N = 130) = 1.557, p = 0.459 (see Figure 2).

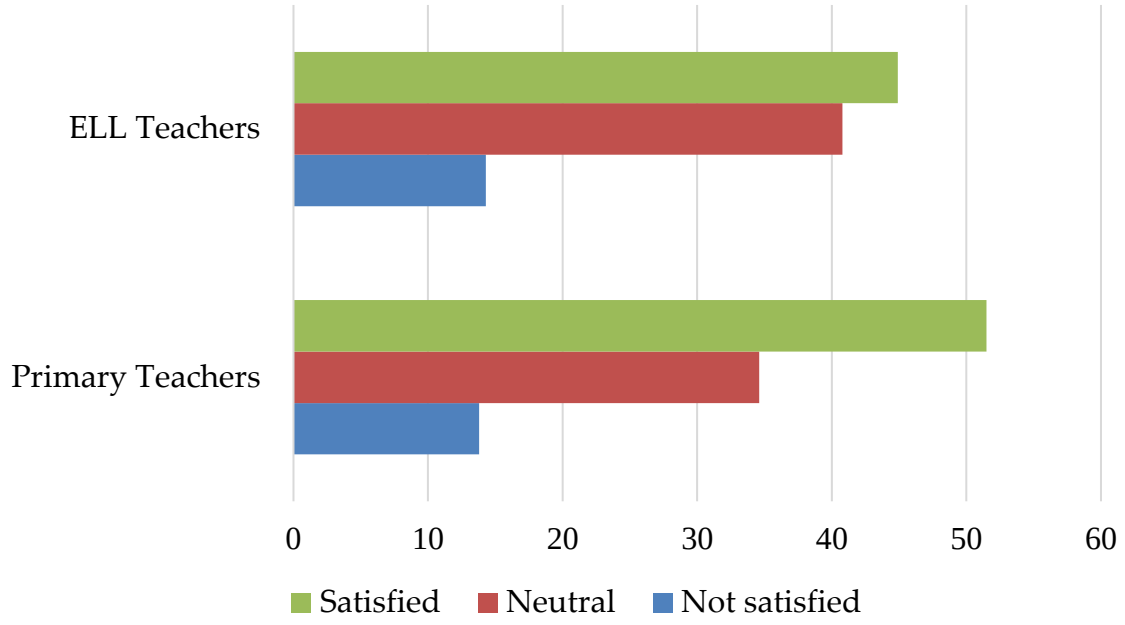

Figure 2. *Level of reported teacher satisfaction with push-in (in percentages).*

4. Discussion

4.1 Language Policy and Roles Defined

The percentage of participants (67.9%) who answered that their school had a language policy was slightly higher than the percentage of teachers (61.5%) who reported having a language policy by Lehman and Welch (2020b). According to the data in the present study, of the 67.9% answering that their school had a language policy, 68.4% revealed that the language policy specified teacher roles, while 21.9% said no and the remaining did not know. In the study by Lehman and Welch (2020b), of 363 teacher and administrator participants reporting a school language policy, 54% answered that their school language policy defined teacher roles, while 32% answered no and 14% did not know. See Table 3 for a side-by-side comparison.

Table 3. *Comparison of language policy (LP) defining teacher roles.*

Defines Teacher Roles	**Current Study Yes to LP (*n*=114)**	**Previous Study* Yes to LP (*n*=363)**	**Current Study All (*N*=168)**	**Previous Study* All (*N*=544)**
Yes	68%	54%	46%	36%
No	22%	32%	-	-
Did not know	10%	14%	-	-

*Lehman & Welch (2020b)

A comparison of the data in Table 3 reveals an increase in the percentage of staff reporting that their school's language policy defined teacher roles and decreases in the percentages of staff who revealed their school's language policy did not specify teacher roles or did not know. Additionally, there was an increase in the percentage of staff answering that their school had a school language policy that defined teacher roles when comparing and including the whole sample for each study. However, there is still a sizeable percentage of teachers in international schools that must negotiate their position, position themselves, or be positioned into a particular role.

4.2 Planning Time

Planning is an essential act for teachers to provide quality instruction, and this is a critical component of the teaching process when more than one teacher is providing instruction in the classroom. According to Honigsfeld and Dove (2010), school leaders must strive to make planning time available for teachers and ensure that planning time occurs regularly and has specified outcomes. Approximately two-thirds of the participants, who reported their school used push-in to support ELL students, revealed that they were provided with planning time for ELL and classroom teachers to meet, while planning time was not provided to the other third of the participants. As reported by Vintan and Gallagher (2019), a significant barrier to communication between ELL and classroom teachers is the lack of scheduled planning time to plan lessons collaboratively. Lack of planning time can lead teachers to guess and make assumptions about what the other teacher should or should not be doing. These assumptions develop into expectations and can cause rifts and dissatisfaction to develop and fester.

4.3 Expectations During Push-in

Overall, there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups of teachers concerning whether or not ELL teachers should have a lesson prepared for each push-in class. As discussed by Creese (2005), sometimes ELL teachers doing push-in support do not have advanced knowledge of the lesson content. This lack of knowledge can be due to not having planning time, conflicting teacher schedules that do not allow for planning time, and the ELL teacher's caseload size, which may not allow planning with classroom teachers. Not being provided planning time to meet poses a prominent barrier, as reported by Vintan and Gallagher (2019), for one-third of the participants and allows room for unchecked expectations to develop that could lead to adverse effects for either or both of the teachers and students. While Figure 1 showed that half of the ELL teachers and slightly more than half of the classroom teachers think that ELL teachers should have a prepared lesson plan for each push-in

class, Figure 1 also reveals a debatable point amongst ELL teachers since they were close to being equally divided concerning this topic. This is a point of concern that all ELL departments in international schools implementing push-in should address.

Overall, more than half of the participants were in situations where the school language policy did not define teacher roles, their school did not have a language policy, or did not know. This represents a potentially significant barrier to collaborative relationships between ELL and classroom teachers and may lead to some teachers experiencing a form of intentional positioning (van Langenhove & Harré, 1999). The results of the Mann-Whitney tests and data in Table 2 revealed significant differences between ELL and classroom teachers concerning the expectations of what an ELL teacher should be doing during push-in. Table 4 provides a side-by-side comparison of the rankings of the four possible roles of the ELL teacher when doing push-in.

Table 4. *Comparison of the possible roles of the ELL teacher (ranked).*

Ranking	ELL Teacher	Classroom Teacher
1*	Help the classroom teacher	Work with all students
2	Work with ELL students	Teach the class as a co-teacher
3	Teach the class as a co-teacher	Work with ELL students
4	Work with all students	Help the classroom teacher

* Number one is the highest-ranking

The rankings in Table 4 present a quandary from which extrapolations can be made, and questions can arise as to why the rankings have occurred. For example, ELL teachers thinking their role during push-in is to *help the classroom teacher* could be an example of how ELL teachers marginalize themselves or "have been trained into marginalization" (Elson, 1997, p. 59). Another example would be classroom teachers expecting ELL teachers to *work with all students* when as an ELL teacher, some people would expect those teachers to work with the ELLs, which represents why the ELL teacher is in the classroom. The rankings in Table 4 reveal the importance of why an international school language policy should define teacher roles, especially when implementing an SLA IM using push-in.

Many classroom teachers in international schools are unaware of whether their school charges an extra fee for ELL support in addition to the fee for tuition. As the international school market continues to shift from being traditionally non-profit to more and more for-profit (Bunnell, 2016), many schools are charging parents an extra fee for ELL support. Of the ELL teacher participants in the study, 46.3% reported their school charged an additional ELL fee. This extra fee has implications for the role of

ELL teachers during push-in since the parents of ELLs are paying extra money for in-class ELL support of their child and not for the support of non-ELL students.

4.4 Level of Satisfaction with Push-in

Satisfaction with push-in often relies on the support structures provided by school leaders. These structures include the provision of regularly scheduled planning times (Vintan & Gallagher, 2019), clearly expressed outcomes for planning sessions (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010), professional development to facilitate push-in (Whiting, 2017), and transparent expectations for teacher roles in the classroom (Whiting, 2017). Although there was no statistically significant difference in the level of satisfaction with push-in as reported by ELL and classroom teachers, when the two groups in Figure 2 are combined, only 51.5% of the participants reported that teachers were satisfied with the push-in model. Additionally, 34.6% of the remaining portion expressed a neutral position towards push-in, and 13.8% reported that teachers were not satisfied with the push-in model. The relatively low percentage of teacher satisfaction with the push-in model is a concern since a large percentage of international schools are implementing an SLA IM that uses push-in, and a sizeable percentage of staff in international schools prefer an SLA IM that uses push-in to support ELLs (Lehman & Welch, 2020a).

5. Conclusion and Suggestions

Overall, the percentage of teachers (67.9%) reporting that their school had a language policy was slightly higher than the percentage (61.5%) reported by Lehman and Welch (2020b). Further, there was an increase in the percentage of teachers reporting there was a language policy and that the policy defined teacher roles between the current study (68%) compared to the previous study (54%) by Lehman and Welch (2020b). Furthermore, there were declines in the percentages of teachers reporting that their school's language policy did not define roles or did not know if their school language policy defined teacher roles compared to the results reported by Lehman and Welch (2020b). Overall, a sizable number of the participants in the current study working in schools that implement an SLA IM that uses push-in are not being provided with language policy-based guidance concerning teacher roles during push-in, which may lead some teachers to self-position themselves or be positioned into subordinate roles.

Approximately one-third of the participants in schools implementing an SLA IM using push-in reported not having planning time provided to meet collaboratively and plan. Additionally, half of the ELL teachers and slightly more than half of the classroom teachers think ELL teachers should have a prepared lesson plan for each push-in class.

During a class with push-in, there were statistically significant differences in the ranking of the possible roles for an ELL teacher between ELL and classroom teachers. ELL teachers ranked *help the teacher* the highest, followed by *work with ELL students*, *being a co-teacher*, and *work with all students* in the classroom. The classroom teachers ranked *work with all students* in the classroom the highest, followed by *being a co-teacher*, *work with ELL students*, and *help the teacher*. These rankings show statistically significant differences in the expectations and assumptions that ELL and classroom teachers have towards the role of the ELL teacher during push-in classes. These differences warrant investigation by school leaders and provide cause for schools to ensure a language policy is implemented and clearly defines the roles of the teachers, especially when implementing an SLA IM using push-in. Lastly, international school staff should be cognizant of whether the school charges ELL fees in addition to tuition and consider this possibility when defining teacher roles.

The level of teacher satisfaction with an SLA IM using push-in is dependent upon support structures provided by school leadership, and these structures include providing regularly scheduled planning times with clearly expressed expectations of the outcomes, professional development to facilitate push-in, and transparently and clearly expressed teacher roles, especially when push-in occurs. In the present study, only 51.5% of the participants reported that teachers were satisfied with the push-in model, while 34.6% were neutral and 13.8% were not satisfied. Because many international schools are implementing an SLA IM using push-in and numerous staff members prefer push-in (Lehman & Welch, 2020a), it is imperative that school leaders provide support structures that successfully facilitate the implementation of an SLA IM using push-in.

The researchers assumed that the participants responded to questions with understanding and truthfulness. The researchers further assumed that the participants from each group formed representative samples. One limitation of the study was the number of participants for each group. Another limitation was that the study only included participants from schools whose contact information was available on the school website or the Internet.

The researchers recommend that international school leaders ensure their school has a formal written language policy accessible to all stakeholders and provides detail of teacher roles, especially when implementing an SLA IM using push-in. The researchers further recommend that school leaders in schools using push-in provide regular opportunities for ELL and classroom teachers to plan lessons with clearly expressed expectations of planning session outcomes, provide professional development to

facilitate push-in, and ensure teacher roles are expressed clearly to staff. In international schools implementing an SLA IM that uses push-in and charging an extra ELL fee, the researchers recommend school leaders reexamine expectations concerning the role of the ELL teacher during push-in. Lastly, the researchers recommend that international schools remove extra ELL fees.

The researchers suggest future research into the different types of intentional positioning (van Langenhove & Harré, 1999) and how that relates to teachers working in schools implementing an SLA IM using push-in. Further, the researchers suggest future research investigating ELL teacher self-positioning during push-in and why ELL teachers position themselves accordingly.

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Appendix

Survey

(1) Does the school have a language policy?

I do not know if there is a language policy

Yes, the school has a language policy

No, the school does not have a language policy

(2) Does the language policy specifically state the roles of the classroom teachers and the

ESL/EAL/ELD/TESOL specialist teachers?

Yes

No

No language policy

I do not know

(3) If ESL/EAL push-in support is used in your school, is there planning time provided for teachers and ESL/EAL teachers to meet and plan?

Yes

No

No push-in support occurs at my school

(4) When doing push-in support, ESL/EAL teachers should have a prepared lesson plan for each push-in class.

Agree

Disagree

I do not know

(5) Whether or not ESL/EAL push-in support occurs in your school or not, please rank the following in order of importance when an ESL/EAL teacher is doing push-in.

Help the teacher

Teach the class as a co-teacher

Work with ESL/EAL students

Work with all students

(6) In addition to school tuition fees, is there a separate fee for ESL/EAL? (ELL teacher survey only)

Yes

No

(7) If your school uses a push-in model for language acquisition, please indicate which of the following best describes the current level of satisfaction between classroom teachers and ESL/EAL/ELD/TESOL personnel with push-in.

Not satisfied

Neutral

Satisfied