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Language-Specific Professional Development: A Comparison of For-profit and Non-profit International Schools

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Abstract

The international school market is expanding, and the number of for-profit English-medium international schools is rising. Fueling the increase in international schools is the growing number of students seeking to enroll, many of whom are English language learners (ELLs). Ensuring ELLs have access to the curriculum requires international school staff to be trained to work with ELLs. The purpose of this study was to explore differences in professional development specific to working with ELLs between international schools in East Asia that are for-profit and schools that are non-profit. Additional areas examined include types of professional development, teacher efficacy, and teacher retention. This quantitative cross-sectional survey-based study had 548 participants, 157 of whom were administrators, and 391 were teachers. The main findings of the study revealed there are significant differences in the availability of language-specific professional development and retention rates of teachers between for-profit and non-profit international schools in East Asia.

Keywords: professional development; international schools; teacher retention; for-profit schools; ELLs

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Introduction

At the turn of the century, there were approximately 2,500 international schools (ISC, 2015). In 2012, International School Consultancy reported there were approximately 6,000 international schools in operation (Lewandowski, 2012). By the end of 2019, the number of international schools has grown to more than 11,000 (ISC Research, 2019), and the number of schools is expected to increase to approximately 16,000 by 2026 (Independent Education Today, 2016). East Asia has been experiencing extensive growth in the number of international schools, and a large portion of the growth has been in China (Emmett, 2017). Primary purposes for parents sending their child to an international school includes receiving an English-medium education (Sears, 1998) and future placement in a top foreign university (Custer, 2016).

The researcher has worked as a kindergarten teacher, ELL specialist teacher, and a whole-school ELL curriculum coordinator in international schools in countries in East Asia. Overall, the working experiences of the primary researcher international schools were focused on the acquisition of language by the students, who were primarily English language learners (ELLs). Many of these ELLs had limited English proficiency (LEP), and a number of them began their international school experience with zero English language ability.

Overall, there is a shortage of studies explicitly devoted to international schools, and Bunnell (2019), stated that “the diverse arena of ‘International School’ is continuously growing yet still underreported” (p. 1). According to Baker and Lewis (2015), there is a lack of empirical research concerning effective practices in working with ELLs in international schools. Furthermore, many of the methods of second language acquisition (SLA) used in numerous international schools are not based on what is considered best practices for working with ELLs (Gallagher, 2003). Moreover, while working in international schools, the principal researcher observed on numerous occasions how administrators and teachers had limited knowledge of second language acquisition and contemporary practices for working with ELLs.

Theoretical Framework

This study is grounded in Krashen’s comprehensible input theory. According to Krashen (1981), comprehensible input represents linguistic information that is within the learner’s ability to comprehend. Teachers who receive professional development for working with ELLs, such as sheltered instruction, can enable them to provide more comprehensible input to students. Sheltered instruction for language learners utilizes scaffolding such as visual cues, modeling, pre-teaching vocabulary, manipulatives, metacognitive development, and cooperative learning strategies (Freeman & Freeman, 1988; Shoebottom, 2009; Walqui, 2011). According to Echevarria and Graves (1998), sheltered instruction makes content subjects more accessible for ELLs while aiding in the development of English language ability.

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to explore differences in professional development specific to working with ELLs between international schools in East Asia that are for-profit and non-profit. To help the researcher explore these areas, the researcher developed the following four research questions.

- What is the difference in the frequency of language-specific professional development between for-profit and non-profit international schools?
- What are the differences in language-specific professional development between for-profit and non-profit international schools?

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- What are the differences in the levels of teacher collective efficacy and self-efficacy between for-profit and non-profit international schools?
- What are the differences in teacher retention between for-profit and non-profit international schools?

Literature Review

School Model: For-profit and Non-profit

Traditionally, international schools were non-profit and community-based (Benson, 2011). However, in recent years, the international school scene has changed from being traditional to non-traditional, and some of this change has been described as being a shift from non-profit to for-profit international education (Bunnell, 2016). Overall, there has been a rapid escalation in the number of international schools seeking to offer instruction in English for monetary profits. For-profit education is being primarily driven by the rising demand for English-medium education, especially in countries in East Asia (Dearden, 2014; Sears, 2015).

As the number of international schools increases, so does the overall revenue acquired through school enrollment fees. In 2012, international school enrollment fees were estimated to be \$26. In December of 2019, ISC (2019) reported the amount to be exceeding \$51 billion. Earlier, ISC Research (2016) predicted the amount would reach \$89 billion in 2026. It has been reported that the rate of return on international schools as an investment is 20% (Khmeka, as cited by Machin, 2014), and the international school market is being viewed more and more as a recession-proof investment due to the continuous stream of revenue from the enrollment fees.

According to Scarborough (2015), traditional non-profit international schools reinvest monetary surpluses in the school. Contrarily, Waterson (2016) stated that monetary surpluses in for-profit schools are profits that go to the owner(s) or financial backers. According to James and Sheppard (2014), there is much confusion in differentiating for-profit and non-profit schools since some non-profit schools may not reinvest monetary surpluses in a way that benefits the school community. On the other side, there are for-profit schools that provide quality educational services that justify enrollment fees. In discussing which type of school is better, Scarborough (2015) stated that “Studies seem to be inconclusive: a good school is a good school, whether it is trying to make someone a profit or not.”

Types of Language-specific Professional Development

Professional development in international schools occurs in a myriad of ways. Some types of professional development can be more costly and complicated than others. While working in international schools in East Asia, the principal researcher observed the following types of professional development.

- online development,
- in-house development,
- outside provider,
- conference attendance, and
- monetary support for university credit.

Online professional development consists of professional development accessible on the Internet but not for university credit. In-house professional development can be led by a member of members of staff, such as ESL/EAL staff (Kalinowski & Carder, 1990; Shoebottom, 2009). Outside providers such as consultants and presenters who are not employed by the school regularly are sometimes used to provide staff with professional development. Sometimes organizations experience periods of organizational silence or employee silence for a variety of

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reasons (Milliken, Morrison & Hewlin, 2003), and outside providers can initiate progress or change in programs and schools. Another form of professional development occurs through staff attendance of presentations or workshops at conferences. Lastly, some schools provide staff members with a professional development stipend for continued study through a university in pursuit of a higher degree.

Language-specific Professional Development

While all of these are types of professional development, they do not always provide effective language-specific professional development for working with ELLs. According to Darling-Hammond, Hyler, and Gardner (2017), effective professional development is content-focused, has active learning, utilizes collaboration, incorporates curricular models and modeling, contains coaching and support, provides feedback and reflection, and is sustained in duration. Language-specific professional development should provide training in cultural competence. In studying the development of cultural competence amongst pre-service teachers, He (2013) found that enhancement of cultural competence occurred by focusing on the following:

- the discovery of teacher and student cultures;
- comparison of cultures between students and teacher;
- designing a method for interactive strategies; and
- reflecting on the delivery of instruction (p. 59).

Additionally, language-specific professional development should explore the functions of the teacher as a teacher of language. For example, Fillmore and Snow (2002) discussed five functions concerning language that teachers should learn about in teacher training programs. These functions pertain to the teacher as a communicator, educator, evaluator, educated human being, and as an agent of socialization. Teachers fulfill these five functions in the classroom, and specialized knowledge about each function would better prepare teachers to work with language learners.

In refuting administrators' and teachers' pursuits of one-size-fits-all methodologies of teaching, Bartolome (1994) encouraged the use of "humanizing pedagogy that respects and uses the reality, history, and perspectives of students as an integral part of educational practice" (p. 173). Regardless of the intentions of the curriculum, various stakeholders in schools experience instruction in a unique manner (Wiley, 2008), and culturally responsive teachers should have at their disposal scaffolding strategies to provide comprehensible input and make the curriculum accessible for ELLs (Lucas & Villegas, 2013). Since language is an integral aspect of all English-medium international schools (International Baccalaureate, 2011), administrators should understand how language-specific professional development can impact teacher self-efficacy and collective efficacy in working with ELLs. Further, the attitudes that teachers have towards ELLs affects student learning, and teachers that receive ELL training have a more positive attitude working with ELLs (Youngs & Youngs, 2001) and experience increased acquisition of language by ELLs in their classroom (Tong et al., 2015).

Teachers in English-medium international schools need to receive professional development that provides them with critical language acquisition pedagogy for working with language learners. According to Dixon, Yssel, McConnell, and Hardin (2014), teachers who received higher levels of professional development in differentiated teaching reported higher levels of efficacy in the use of differentiation in the classroom. For teachers who receive cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) professional development, Tong et al. (2015) discovered a significant increase in the amount of time that classroom teachers spent developing CALP. The research by Tong et al. further reported that ELL student achievement in classes with teachers receiving CALP professional development excelled in the areas of vocabulary and retelling, especially in the

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transitional bilingual education classes. Research by Tong et al. (2015) confirmed the link between ELL-focused professional development and ELL academic performance and supported earlier assertions by Cummins (1981) concerning differences between basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and CALP. Additionally, findings from Tong et al. (2015) support the research of Cheung and Slavin (2012) concerning the relationship between teacher professional development and ELL academic performance.

One particular model of professional development that focuses on the use of sheltered instructional strategies is the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) model of professional development. In studying the SIOP model of professional development, Short, Fidelman, and Louguit (2012) found that extended teacher professional development in using the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) model had a recognizable effect on teacher use of sheltered instructional strategies and in English language learner (ELL) standardized testing performance. Short et al. (2012) also found that teachers in schools receiving SIOP model professional development scored higher in the use of sheltered instruction than teachers in other schools that did not receive SIOP model training. Also, there were noticeable gains in the use of sheltered instruction in the classroom as teachers received prolonged SIOP model professional development. Furthermore, analysis of ELL testing data reflected that students in schools that received SIOP model professional development had higher mean scores in writing, reading, and speaking when compared to ELLs in control group schools. The use of sheltered instruction is critical in providing language learners with comprehensible input (Krashen, 1996).

Teachers in English-medium International Schools

The need for teachers in international schools is increasing at an unprecedented rate. As of July 2017, there were approximately 449,000 teachers employed in English-medium international schools (ISC Research, 2017). In December of 2019, ISC (2019) reported that there more than 550,000 staff working in international schools, with predictions that the number of international school staff will top 1,000,000 by 2030.

The decision for teachers to work abroad can stem from numerous factors, including challenges of obtaining employment in their home country and the desire to experience life in another culture. While corporations usually provide acculturation services to employees that are recruited for positions abroad, teachers are not recipients of such opportunities, and as a result, teachers often begin their international work experience with an apprehensive mindset (Joslin, 2002). Most teachers arriving at their first teaching position abroad are ill-prepared to live in their new host country (Louis, 1980) and work with a classroom containing multiple cultures or with a class containing a high percentage of students with limited English proficiency. According to Walker, Shafer, and Iiams (2004), mainstream teachers who lack training in working with ELLs become quickly overwhelmed, and teachers new to the international teaching circuit will often quickly succumb to such feelings. New and veteran teachers in international schools should be afforded professional development that includes learning about second language acquisition to meet the linguistic needs of their students.

As English-medium international schools move towards being inclusive schools (Gaskel, 2016), inclusive-minded teachers are in greater demand. Of concern are the majority of classroom teachers who have little to no training in working with ELLs. Teachers tend to base their actions on the use of language or languages in the classroom on either pedagogic or ideological justification. However, pedagogical methods and strategies for working with language learners are often negated by teacher belief systems and national ideologies that are imported into English-medium international schools (Allan, 2002; Ainscow, Dyson, & Weiner, 2013; Carder, 2013). Moreover, classroom teachers often lack the knowledge and skills required to make an accurate assessment of their students with linguistic needs and instead rely upon general subjective

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impressions (De Jong, Harper, & Coady, 2013). Worse, some teachers pass blame on the ELLs instead of engaging in reflective practice and examining their teaching practice (Robinson, 2008). English-medium international schools have the responsibility to provide cultural and language-specific professional development for working with ELLs to counter teachers' lack of knowledge and skills in working with ELLs.

Teacher Efficacy

Teacher self-efficacy is a decisive factor in how long a teacher will persist in a given situation (Bandura, 1977). In addition, teacher self-efficacy coincides with teacher job satisfaction (Aldridge & Fraser, 2016). Without language-specific training and professional development for working with ELLs, self-efficacy for teachers working with ELLs is negatively affected (Tran, 2015). In their study of 90 classroom teachers participating in professional development programs for ELL endorsements, Eun and Heining-Boynton (2007) found that teacher self-efficacy and organizational support were predictors of future classroom performance. Teachers with high levels of self-efficacy have confidence and provide lessons that enhance student acquisition of language and content (Finnegan, 2013). Further, Eun and Heining-Boynton (2007) stressed their findings indicated that all teachers, regardless of years of experience, are in need of "strong efficacy beliefs and organizational support" (p. 43) as they seek to implement knowledge and skills acquired through professional development. Moreover, teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction are higher when teachers feel they receive support from their fellow teachers (Aldridge & Frazer, 2016). In sum, organizational support and training are examples of how self-efficacy is affected by a number of external social factors (Bandura, 2001).

Collective efficacy concerns the perceptions of the teachers as a whole (Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2000). When school structures exist that support the development of professional learning communities within schools, higher levels of collective efficacy occur (Gray & Summers, 2016). Developed by school leadership, these structures encourage trust amongst staff. ELL-specific professional development provided by school administration helps raise collective teacher efficacy in working with ELLs (Haworth, McGee, & MacIntyre, 2014). Additionally, collective efficacy is affected by student achievement (Goddard et al., 2000). Although self-efficacy is important, collective efficacy is also important since teaching in schools is a joint effort and is reflective of school-wide culture (Télez & Manthey, 2015).

Teacher Retention

International schools and administrators often fail to provide relevant language-specific professional development to teachers for working with ELLs. The perceived level of support that teachers receive from school leadership is a leading cause of staff turnover in international schools (Odland & Ruzicka, 2009). However, teachers that receive support from school administration have less stress, are more motivated, and have higher self-efficacy (Carder, 2013), which minimizes teacher burnout and turnover. Teacher behavior, including burnout and turnover, affects student engagement and learning (Skinner & Belmont, 1993). A reduction in turnover occurs when teachers believe the school administration is supportive, affords respect, and seeks faculty collaboration (Mancuso, Roberts, & White, 2010). In sum, structures of support provided by school leaders have an impact on student learning that is second only to teachers (Leithwood, Harris & Hopkins, 2008).

Instead of developing teachers, some schools try to non-renew contracts and replace teachers with teachers who have more training or who will be pliant to the status quo (Blandford & Shaw, 2001). On the contrary, more academic training does not always provide teachers with skills to meet the demands of a particular position and location. For example, Chin-Yin, Indiatsi, and Wong (2016) discovered that while pre-service teachers have a strong base in instructional theory, many feel

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lacking in instructional ideas. Further, many pre-service teachers are never provided with an opportunity to hone their skills by working directly with linguistic and culturally diverse students (He, 2013). Since each international school is unique and a ready-made teacher is not readily obtainable, international schools and school leaders need to provide teachers with professional development purposefully designed to facilitate teacher instruction, and increase teacher self-efficacy and collective efficacy, increase cultural competency, and meets the linguistic needs of the students.

Methodology

Instrument

The researcher used an observational quantitative research design that employed a cross-sectional survey to gather data (Creswell, 2012). With a cross-sectional survey design, the researcher does not desire to manipulate a variable but instead seeks to capture data at a single point in time. The researcher used the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) questionnaire developed by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) as a guide for the survey. According to He and Kubacka (2015), the TALIS questionnaire passed rigorous validation protocols in its development. Additionally, experts in the field were used to establish content validity (Creswell, 2012; Salkind, 2013). Because this study involved participants from fifteen countries and city-states in East Asia, an electronic survey using nominal and ordinal questions was used to gather data. The study received IRB approval through the university in which the researcher was pursuing a doctoral degree in educational leadership.

Participants

To acquire participants, the researcher searched the Internet for contact information of potential participants. Potential participants received a single email with a link to the survey. None of the questions in the survey were mandatory. Participants of the survey were administrators and teachers in international schools in countries and city-states located in East Asia. These locations included Cambodia, China, East Timor, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan, Laos, Malaysia, Mongolia, Philippines, Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan, Thailand, and Vietnam. The survey was active during the summer months of 2018. There was a total of 548 (N=548) participants, of whom 157 were administrators and 391 teachers.

Procedure

All of the questions were nominal and ordinal; all Likert scale questions had five points. The researcher used the Pearson chi-square test to measure the distribution of frequencies (Creswell, 2012; Salkind, 2013). The researcher used SPSS software (v. 25) to perform Pearson chi-square tests (χ^2) with an alpha level of .05. For 2X2 contingency tables, the researcher reported the results of Fisher's Exact Test (McHugh, 2013).

Data Analyses

First, the researcher sought to explore the frequency of language-specific professional development provided between for-profit and non-profit international schools. The result of a Pearson chi-square revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in the frequency of language-specific professional development between for-profit (Group 1: $n = 308$) and non-profit international schools (Group 2: $n = 223$), $X^2 (5, N = 531) = 13.934, p = 0.016$.

Next, the researcher sought to look closer at the provision of language-specific professional development and to focus on the availability of the following mediums of professional development.

- online development,
- in-house development,
- outside provider,

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- conference attendance, and
- monetary support for university credit.

The results of multiple Pearson chi-square tests examining differences between various types of professional development revealed that there were some statistically significant differences in professional development opportunities specific to language teaching made available to classroom teachers between for-profit and non-profit international schools (see Table 1).

Table 1. Language-specific professional development

Dependent variable	Non-profit Group 1	For-profit Group 2	<i>Pearson chi-square</i>	Observed value	Fisher's Exact Test
PD available	<i>n</i> = 224	<i>n</i> = 313	$X^2 (1, N = 537)$	8.818	<i>p</i> = 0.003
Online	<i>n</i> = 224	<i>n</i> = 313	$X^2 (1, N = 537)$	2.562	<i>p</i> = 0.120
In-house	<i>n</i> = 224	<i>n</i> = 313	$X^2 (1, N = 537)$	2.535	<i>p</i> = 0.123
Outside provider	<i>n</i> = 224	<i>n</i> = 313	$X^2 (1, N = 537)$	7.349	<i>p</i> = 0.008
Conference	<i>n</i> = 224	<i>n</i> = 313	$X^2 (1, N = 537)$	21.459	<i>p</i> = 0.000
Monetary support	<i>n</i> = 224	<i>n</i> = 313	$X^2 (1, N = 537)$	9.636	<i>p</i> = 0.002

Seeking to examine differences in the levels of teacher collective efficacy and self-efficacy between for-profit and non-profit international schools, the researcher conducted two Pearson chi square tests. The results of the first Pearson chi-square test revealed there was no statistically significant difference in the levels of teacher collective efficacy between for-profit and non-profit international schools (see Table 2). The collective efficacy results included data from both administrators and teachers. The results of the next Pearson chi-square test revealed there was a statistically significant difference in the levels of teacher self-efficacy between for-profit and non-profit international schools (see Table 2). Only teachers were asked to identify their level of self-efficacy.

Table 2. Teacher collective efficacy and teacher self-efficacy

Dependent variable	Non-profit Group 1	For-profit Group 2	<i>Pearson chi-square</i>	Observed value	Pearson
Collective efficacy	<i>n</i> = 222	<i>n</i> = 308	$X^2 (4, N = 530)$	8.493	<i>p</i> = 0.075
Self-efficacy	<i>n</i> = 143	<i>n</i> = 239	$X^2 (4, N = 382)$	11.748	<i>p</i> = 0.019

Seeking to examine differences in the retention rates of classroom teachers and ESL/EAL teachers between for-profit and non-profit international schools, the researcher conducted two Pearson chi square tests. The results of both Pearson chi-square tests revealed there were statistically significant difference in the retention rates of classroom teachers and ESL/EAL teachers between for-profit and non-profit international schools (see Table 3).

Table 3. Teacher retention

Dependent variable	Non-profit Group 1	For-profit Group 2	<i>Pearson chi-square</i>	Observed value	Pearson
Classroom teachers	<i>n</i> = 221	<i>n</i> = 309	$X^2 (4, N = 530)$	30.604	<i>p</i> = 0.000
ESL/EAL teachers	<i>n</i> = 212	<i>n</i> = 301	$X^2 (4, N = 513)$	34.951	<i>p</i> = 0.000

Discussion

Frequency of Language-specific Professional Development

While there are for-profit and non-profit schools that do not provide any types of language-specific professional development, participants of the study revealed that non-profit schools tended to provide a higher frequency of language-specific professional development than for-profit schools. While many English-medium international schools are providing staff with language-specific professional development, more than half of the participants in the study reported that their school either did not provide or had a very low and low frequency in providing professional development specific to working with ELLs (see Figure 1).

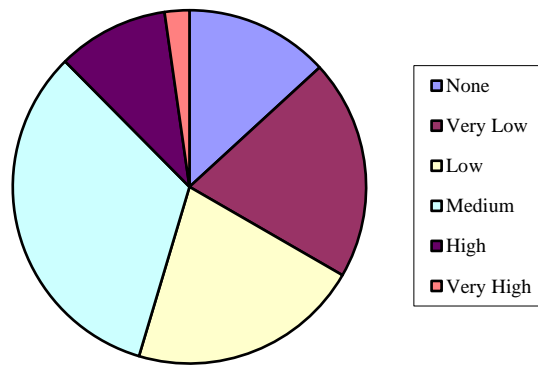


Figure 1. Level of language-specific professional development

Figure 2 shows a side-by-side comparison of the frequency of language-specific professional development for-profit and non-profit schools. The levels are provided in percentages of responses for each of the categories.

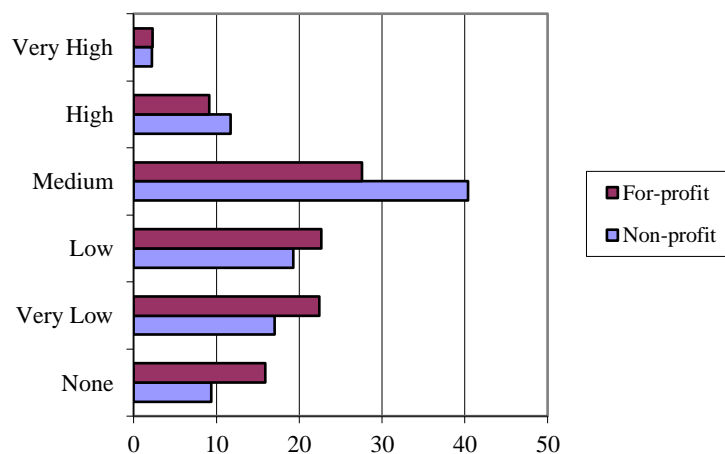


Figure 2. Level of the frequency of language-specific professional development (given in percentages)

Language-specific Professional Development

There were no statistically significant differences in the provision of online and in-house professional development between for-profit and non-profit schools. The use of these two types of development for language-specific purposes has the potential to be both tailor-made and cost-effective for schools. For example, language-specific professional development provided by ESL/EAL staff can be developed to target the unique needs of the school in addition to saving money by using resources already within the school.

More participants in non-profit schools reported that outside providers were used for language-specific professional development than participants in for-profit schools. When schools are afflicted by a stagnant staff culture, organizational silence, or employee silence, outside providers have the potential of bringing in new ideas. However, the question arises as to whether the content of the professional development will be long-term, or if it will produce long-term results. To make the most of outside provider language-specific professional development, English-medium international school leaders must realize that the structures of support provided and constructed through their leadership (Leithwood et al., 2008) can aid in the implementation of learning acquired from outside providers.

Numerous respondents in both for-profit and non-profit schools reported that their school offered professional development in the form of conference attendance. The high number of participants reporting conference attendance is a cause for concern due to questions that arise. For example, does conference attendance produce lasting change or long-term results? Also, does conference attendance imply that strategies for working with ELLs can be quickly acquired by attending a workshop or seminar? While the availability of any form of language-specific professional development is often welcome by teachers working with language learners, the use of conference attendance to facilitate long-term change is unlikely unless the school leadership supports the change(s) and provides reinforcement (Leithwood et al., 2008) for the changes over a sustained duration of time (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017).

More participants in non-profit than for-profit schools reported that their school tended to offer monetary support for pursuing higher-level university degrees or diplomas as a means of professional development. Although studies towards a higher degree or diploma may provide access to modern trends in education and language acquisition pedagogy, the actual course of study would most likely need to be in a field of study specializing in working with ELLs, such as ESL, TESOL, and bilingual education. According to De Jong and Harper (2005), many educator programs in the U.S. fail to provide training for working with ELLs. While in the U.K., Mehmedbegović, Skrandies, Byrne, and Harding-Esch (2015) found that “Newly Qualified Teachers (NQTs) in England mostly arrive in schools having had very little input, often one lecture, on working with EAL learners” (p. 23). Further, those individuals who have a bachelor’s degree and pursue a Postgraduate Certificate in Education (PGCE) may receive up to two days of training for working with EAL students (Mehmedbegović et al., 2015).

Research studies have shown that long-term professional development promotes student learning (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017), and long-term language-specific professional development emphasizing sheltered instruction promotes language acquisition by ELLs (Short et al., 2012). Long-term language-specific professional development that supports the use of sheltered instruction (Krashen, 1996) can equip teachers with the knowledge and pedagogical skills that facilitate English language acquisition by ELLs while providing content instruction (Short et al., 2012). Finally, the implementation of long-term language-specific professional development can stymie the evolution of a mindset that ELL specialist teaching is just a series of strategies that classroom teachers can check off (Harper, De Jong, & Platt, 2008).

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Teacher Efficacy

While Eun and Heining-Boynton (2007) stressed the relationship between efficacy beliefs and professional development, the results of the current study are not in alignment with how language-specific professional development helps raise teacher collective efficacy when working with ELLs (Haworth et al., 2014). Although, in this study, there was no statistically significant difference in the levels of teacher collective efficacy, there was a statistically significant difference in the level of teacher self-efficacy between for-profit and non-profit schools. According to Tran (2015), without training and professional development for working with ELLs, self-efficacy for teachers working with ELLs is negatively affected. The data in this study showed that non-profit schools tend to provide more language-specific development and have higher levels of teacher self-efficacy.

Teacher Retention

The classroom teacher and ESL/EAL teacher retention were considerably higher in non-profit schools than in for-profit schools. Earlier, the participants revealed that non-profit schools provide language-specific professional development, more types of language-specific professional development, and have teachers with higher levels of self-efficacy. According to Tran (2015), without training and professional development specific to working with ELLs, teacher self-efficacy is negatively affected. However, teachers with high levels of self-efficacy have confidence and provide lessons that enhance student acquisition of language and content (Finnegan, 2013). Furthermore, teacher self-efficacy is related to job satisfaction (Aldridge & Fraser, 2016) and is a decisive factor in how long a teacher will persist in a given situation (Bandura, 1977).

Conclusion

In summary, the data from the present study indicated that staff in non-profit English-medium international schools tend to receive more opportunities for language-specific professional development than staff in for-profit schools. Additionally, non-profit schools tend to retain classroom and ESL/EAL teachers for more extended periods. Finally, non-profit schools tend to have teachers with higher levels of self-efficacy than for-profit schools.

While some international schools may be multinational and have upwards of forty languages represented within the student population, some schools may have a student population that has a handful of languages, dialects, or just one native language spoken by the students. Regardless of the number of languages found within schools, all schools should be concerned with providing ELLs with access to the curriculum and social structures of the school. Students who are more prone to suffer from marginalization in English-medium international schools are the students who have the lowest skills in English. Additionally, to increase levels of teacher efficacy and retention, it is imperative that staff working with ELLs in international schools receive language-specific training for working with English language learners.

Assumptions and Limitations

The researcher of this study assumed that participants answered questions truthfully. The researcher also assumed that participants participated and responded to questions in the capacity of being a professional educator. With that stated, a limitation of this study is that each participant of this study had a unique perspective based upon experiences that differ from other participants. Consequently, the data obtained will be specific to participant experiences in a single school in one specific geographical location. Although data from this study can be relevant to all English-medium international schools, each school is unique, and administrators and teachers at English-

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medium international schools may need to interpret and re-contextualize data for their particular circumstances.

Concluding Remarks

The researcher undertook the study because empirical research is deficient in the literature specific to international schools concerning effective pedagogical practices in working with language learners (Baker & Lewis, 2015). Although this study fills gaps in the literature specific to international schools, additional research, both quantitative and qualitative, is warranted in the study of language-specific professional development in English-medium international schools. First, the researcher recommends future studies concerning the relationships between language-specific professional development, teacher collective and self-efficacy, and teacher retention. Additionally, the researcher encourages the additional study of language-specific professional development comparing for-profit and non-profit schools.

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