

MEETING THE NEEDS OF MAINSTREAMED ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS
IN THE ELEMENTARY CLASSROOM

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**Meeting the Needs of Mainstreamed English Language Learners in the Elementary
Classroom**

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Abstract

This study examines the impact of a series of workshops intended to assist elementary interns in meeting the needs of mainstreamed students whose first language is not English. Throughout this dissertation, students whose first language is not English and who are in the process of learning English at school will be referred to as English learners or ELs. (Diaz-Rico, 2008). Selected elementary certification candidates enrolled in the University of Pittsburgh's internship program participated in the workshop series. The workshops were designed to be collaborative following a sociocultural perspective on learning. The workshops focused on two major issues. First, the workshops addressed English learners' socio-affective issues. Secondly, the workshops addressed teaching strategies designed for teachers with mainstreamed English learners.

Interns were asked to participate in a series of eight workshops and to incorporate instructional strategies presented in the workshops into their lesson plans. During the workshop series, qualitative data were collected and analyzed. The primary tools of data collection in this study were surveys, a questionnaire, videotaped classroom observations and workshop sessions, interns' lesson reflections and workshop reflections, interns' lesson plans, and writing samples

from the English learners. The data were analyzed for evidence of change in the interns' understanding of their English learners and change in interns' lesson planning and instruction.

The results of this study show that the interns learned to identify their English learners, learned about their English learners' cultural background and developed a deeper sense of empathy for the socio-affective issues encountered by English learners. The interns also learned to identify content vocabulary relevant to their lessons and use visuals to teach vocabulary; however, the interns did not learn to modify their teaching practices in ways that specifically meet the needs of English learners, such as teaching linguistic structures. Various implications on the field of teacher preparation can be made as a result of this study including the importance of training teachers to think linguistically and training teachers to have a positive view of culturally and linguistically diverse students.

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PREFACE

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1.0 FIRST CHAPTER: INTRODUCTION

1.1 PURPOSE STATEMENT

The purpose of this study was to examine the learning that occurred during a series of workshops designed for elementary teacher certification candidates with mainstreamed English learners. The workshops included discussion of English learners' socio-affective issues and strategies of instruction that have been designed as for mainstreamed English learners. Data collected during this study were analyzed for evidence of changes in the participants' understanding of mainstreamed English learners and changes in their planning and instruction to meet the needs of English learners. The interns' learning during the workshop series was monitored with surveys, questionnaires, videotaped classroom observations and workshop sessions, interns' reflections on lessons and workshops, lesson plans, and English learners' writing samples. The data collected provide an in-depth description of the participants' changes in their approach to English learners as a result of the workshops and contributes to the field of teacher preparation in meeting the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students.

Research questions

The study discussed in this dissertation will address the following research questions:

1. How does participation in the workshops influence the interns' understanding of ELs' socio-affective issues?
 - a. What knowledge do the interns have about their mainstreamed ELs before the workshops?
 - b. How are the interns' beliefs about mainstreamed ELs influenced by their mentor teachers and by their own background experiences with diversity?
 - c. How does the interns' understanding of ELs' socio-affective issues change over the course of the workshops?

2. How does participation in the workshops influence the interns' lesson planning and instruction?
 - a. How does knowledge of selected research in bilingual education and selected sheltered content strategies influence interns' planning for instruction?
 - b. How are the changes in the interns' planning and instruction reflected in their ELs' learning?
 - c. What do interns say that they have learned about teaching ELs as a result of the workshops?

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

One of the greatest challenges that face educators in the U.S. is how to best instruct English learners who have been mainstreamed into classrooms with students whose first language is English. Between 1992 and 2002, the population of English learners grew by 84% while the total population of students in grades K-12 grew by only 10% (Walqui, 2006). This fast-growing student population presents a challenge to educators because English learners enroll in U.S. schools with a wide variety of levels of English language proficiency. Students who enter U.S.

schools with little or no proficiency in English find themselves in classrooms where they have difficulty learning grade level content because the content is presented in an unfamiliar language. For this reason, English learners often struggle to keep up with their English-speaking peers.

Although English learners of all proficiency levels are integrated into classrooms in the U.S., many teachers find that they are not equipped to meet the needs of linguistically diverse students. The state of Pennsylvania, where this study took place, currently does not require any type of training in meeting the needs of English learners for teacher certification candidates, with the exception of those pursuing certification in English as a Second language, ESL (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, [NCES], 2006). The lack of requirements in teacher preparation for educating English learners in the state of Pennsylvania means that newly certified teachers of content areas in both elementary and secondary classrooms are not equipped to meet the needs of the English learners mainstreamed into their classrooms.

In preparation for the proposal of this study, I contacted elementary teacher certification candidates enrolled in a large, urban university in Pennsylvania. These certification candidates were in the process of completing a teaching internship in their assigned school site during the 2006-2007 academic year. I asked all of the elementary certification candidates enrolled in the intern program to complete a survey (see Appendix A). Those who indicated on the survey that they had English learners enrolled in their assigned classrooms were asked to respond to specific questions regarding their English learners. One of the questions on the survey asked the interns to identify how many English learners were enrolled in their classroom. Some interns indicated that they could not accurately identify the English learners in their classroom because they were under the assumption that only students with zero proficiency in English were classified as English learners. Interns were also questioned about their mentors' level of training in meeting

the needs of English learners. All of the interns stated that the mentor teachers at their school sites did not have any training in educating English learners and that the ESL teacher assigned to the school is the sole provider of language support for English learners. Although the teacher certification candidates contacted reflect only a small sample of teacher certification candidates and school districts in the state of Pennsylvania, the information learned from these surveys reflects the lack of attention given to the growing population of English learners in the state.

1.3 ORGANIZATION OF THE DISSERTATION

Following the introduction, chapter two of this dissertation is a discussion of the literature reviewed for this study. I have reviewed literature in the field of bilingual education and one of the current models of professional development for teachers with mainstreamed English learners, the SIOP Model (Echevarria, Vogt & Short, 2004). SIOP is a well-articulated, comprehensive model designed for teachers with mainstreamed English Language Learners who come from a variety of language backgrounds. Chapter three outlines the methodology for this study, including a detailed description of the workshop series. The findings of this study are presented in chapters four and five. Chapter four describes the participants' learning about their English learners' backgrounds and socio-affective issues. Chapter five is a discussion of the participants' learning of the strategies presented from the SIOP model that occurred as a result of the workshops. Finally, chapter six is a discussion of the implications that this study potentially has on the field of teacher preparation.

2.0 SECOND CHAPTER: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

One of the greatest challenges facing all educators in the U.S. is how to best instruct English Language Learners who have been mainstreamed into classrooms with students whose first language is English. English Learners (ELs) are defined as students whose first language is not English and who are in the process of acquiring English as a second language (Ovando, et al. 2006). An estimated 3.8 million of our nation's students are English Language Learners, sometimes referred to as Limited English Proficient, (NCES, 2006). Between 1992 and 2002, the population of English learners grew by 84% while the total population of students in grades K-12 grew by only 10% (Walqui, 2006). Because of this dramatic change in K-12 student population, the education of English learners has been the topic of many research studies (Cummins & Swain, 1986; Rosebery & Warren, 1992; Henze & Lucas, 1993; Genesee, 1994; Gersten & Woodward, 1995; Christian, 1996; Valdes, 1998; Fradd & Lee, 1999; Klingner and Vaughn, 2000; Duff, 2001; Gibbons, 2003; Ovando, et al. 2006; Walqui, 2006; Wright, 2006).

Federal law has attempted to address the growing population of English learners by enacting legislation that bans discrimination against students of limited English proficiency. The Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974 states that "the failure of an educational agency to take appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students

in its instructional programs,” is illegal. Another recent piece of legislation, the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001, calls for “all students to read and do math at grade level or better by 2014. To reach this goal, the education of Limited English Proficient (LEP) students must be made a top priority” (U.S. Department of Education, 2006). Legislation such as the Equal Educational Opportunities Act and the No Child Left Behind Act have demanded that states provide English learners with equal access to the education that is granted to students whose native language is English.

Despite the legislation that has been enacted to improve the education of English learners, students who are native speakers of English continue to outperform English learners (Genesee, 1994; Baker, 2001; Duff, 2001; Echevarria, Vogt and Short, 2004; Ovando et al. 2006). Quality of instruction for English learners is often blamed for their lack of success. This is partially due to the fact that many teachers of English learners have not been properly trained in strategies for teaching ELs. Some states with high populations of English learners such as California, Florida and Texas, require professional development for all teachers in strategies that will assist them in meeting the needs of English learners, but not all states require such professional development.

In the state of Pennsylvania, where this study took place, the population of English learners has grown by approximately two thousand students each year from 2000 to 2005 (Pennsylvania Department of Education [PDE], 2005). However, Pennsylvania does not require teacher certification candidates to receive any type of training in meeting the needs of ELs, with the exception of those pursuing certification in English as a Second Language, ESL (National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs [NCELA], 2006). This lack of training leaves the majority of Pennsylvania’s

elementary and secondary teachers without the knowledge of strategies that will assist them in meeting the academic needs of the English learners who are mainstreamed into their classrooms.

The combination of a growing population of English learners and the federal legislation enacted on their behalf has created a need for teacher training in strategies for instructing ELs. At the present time, the majority of certified teachers have little preparation in how to educate English learners (Costa, McPhail, Smith & Brisk, 2005). States with the highest population of English learners that offer teacher training opportunities are experiencing a shortage of qualified teachers. States with lower populations of English learners have limited teacher education opportunities available (NCELA, 2006).

Although most teacher education programs include the topics of multiculturalism or multilingualism in their curriculums, these issues are often covered as isolated topics rather than as issues that must be taken into consideration when planning daily instruction. In study at the University of Tennessee at Chattanooga, researchers examined textbooks that are used in courses designed for pre-service teachers. The researchers looked for evidence of instruction in particular strategies that can be incorporated into daily lessons to meet the needs of English learners such as instruction in making oral language comprehensible and alternative assessment techniques. None of the particular strategies identified by the researchers were a significant component of any of the textbooks reviewed for the study. (Watson, Miller, Driver, Rutledge & McAllister, 2005). Studies such as this show that materials designed for pre-service teachers in university courses do not provide adequate preparation in meeting the needs of English learners.

In addition to the lack of teacher preparation, the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 presents challenges to educators who teach English learners. Although NCLB advocates claim that the new legislation is working to improve the academic achievement of English learners, many

educators disagree citing unrealistic demands that are placed upon ELs. For example, students are required to meet a proficient level of achievement on state assessment tests before they become proficient in English, the language of the test. One year after their enrollment in a U.S. school, English learners are required to complete state assessments in reading/language arts, but few ELs can learn sufficient English in the span of one year to pass state reading tests (Wright, 2005). The state assessments place pressure on the English learners and their teachers who may not be trained in strategies that enable them to help ELs reach a proficient level of achievement.

Clearly, there is a need for teacher preparation to address the issues that will enable our nation's teachers to meet the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students. In this chapter, I will discuss the research that should be included in teacher education intended to prepare teachers to meet the needs of English learners. I will start with the theoretical framework behind the design of the workshops conducted for this study. Next, I will discuss the research conducted in the field of bilingual education that provides an understanding of English learners' linguistic and academic needs. After the discussion of the research in bilingual education, I will review the literature relevant to the design of the workshop sessions. Next I will discuss Sheltered English, one of the most common approaches to the instruction of English learners. I describe one particular method for implementing Sheltered English, called the SIOP model. The description of SIOP involves a review of literature related to the theory of comprehensible input. After reviewing literature related to the description of the SIOP model, I recommend that teacher education intended to prepare teachers to meet the needs of English learners must include background in diversity and ELs' socio-affective issues.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study is framed by a sociocultural perspective (Wood, Bruner and Ross, 1976; Cole, 1996; Hogan and Pressley, 1997; Wertsch, 1998; Lantolf, 2000) because of the ongoing collaboration that took place throughout the workshop series. The origins of sociocultural theory stem from the work of the Russian psychologist, Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934). Vygotsky believed that learning occurs as a result of the intersection of one's biologically inherited intellect and culturally constructed context (Lantolf, 2000). According to Vygotsky, social interaction is necessary to further one's biologically inherited ability.

One description of learning that takes place in a social context is situated learning, (Lave & Wenger, 1991) where learning is viewed as an integral and inseparable aspect of social practice (p. 31). In situated learning, the learners are more than passive observers, but active participants in a community of practice, (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Rogoff, Turkanis & Bartlett, 2001). Lave and Wenger define a community of practice as "a set of relations among persons, activity and world over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice," (p.98). In communities of practice, participants define their community by shared practices and beliefs.

In the workshops conducted for this study, the participants defined their community of practice with common experiences and beliefs. All four of the participants had background experiences with diversity, all were in the process of completing a teaching internship, all had English learners mainstreamed in their classrooms and all volunteered for the workshop series. The community of practice was also defined by common beliefs that evolved throughout the workshop series. Participants held positive views of English learners and discussed struggles encountered by ELs in a supportive and empathetic manner during workshop discussions. The

community of practice created by the workshops series facilitated learning via the collaborative discussion of shared experiences and beliefs. The learning that resulted from the workshops conducted for this study would not have occurred without collaboration.

The learning that occurred during the workshops was also supported by the mentoring I provided to the interns. Learning that occurs through mentoring is illustrated in Vygotsky's notion of the zone of proximal development (ZPD). The ZPD refers to "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978). The collaboration with more capable peers leads the learners to perform at a higher level than they could achieve on their own. This collaboration, often called assisted performance, leads to learning.

Vygotsky's belief in the collaborative nature of learning caused him to criticize educational practices that focus only on the students' actual level of development, rather than on the potential. He argues that assisted performance leads to independent performance; thus the potential becomes the actual level of development.

"an essential feature of learning is that it creates the zone of proximal development; that is, learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is interacting with people in his environment and in cooperation with his peers. Once these processes are internalized, they become part of the child's independent developmental achievement. Learning is a necessary and universal aspect of the process of developing culturally organized, specifically human, psychological functions," (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 90).

The assisted performance that helps learners to move beyond their actual level of development is described by Vygotsky as mediation; however, the term "scaffolding" has been

widely used when explaining mediation (Wood et al. 1976; Hogan and Pressley, 1997; Takahashi, 1998; Donato, 2000; Lantolf, 2000; Mantero, 2002; Gibbons, 2003). When Wood et al. (1976) described the interactions between teacher and student during assisted performance; they compared the assistance to a physical scaffold used by a builder, thus creating the scaffolding metaphor. The scaffolding metaphor has been criticized because of the lack of emphasis on the changing dynamics that occur between teacher and student during scaffolding. Scholars have argued that the literal implications of the scaffolding metaphor are one-sided, with the teacher imposing knowledge on the learner in small increments (Searle, 1984; Rogoff, 1990; Stone, 1998). Although the implications of the scaffolding metaphor are subject of debate, the term scaffolding will be used to describe the mentoring that occurred during the workshops conducted for this study.

One of the key notions of scaffolding relates to the idea of situated learning. Scaffolding implies that the learners became active participants in their own learning, rather than passive recipients of teacher-transmitted knowledge. Although scaffolding can be described as a process of “incremental assistance” (Hogan and Pressley, 1997, p. 78), it involves more than a logically sequenced lesson where a teacher paces learning tasks so that students advance in small steps towards a learning goal. Scaffolding requires a contribution from both teacher and student, which is often referred to as collaboration. Throughout the course of the workshop series, participants were supported by a mentor’s guidance during the discussions of workshop topics and interns’ lessons during the sessions. In addition to mentoring, participants were also invited to share their ideas for incorporating instructional strategies and to offer criticisms for their own and for each others’ lessons. In this way, knowledge was constructed by the learners as the mentor provided enough support to enable the learners to make progress on their own. The

ongoing cycle of mentoring and collaboration that took place during the workshop series created a supportive community of practice. This supportive community of practice allowed the interns to freely discuss their own ideas in the context of the workshop topics. In the following sections, I will review the research that comprised the discussions held during the workshop sessions.

2.3 RESEARCH IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION

2.3.1 The role of the first language

Educators and policymakers have debated the role of an EL's first language in the acquisition of English and their academic performance. Studies conducted since the early 1980's, including research on the Canadian French immersion programs, have argued that learning in the first language leads to improved second language skills and overall superior academic performance (Cummins and Swain, 1986). When ELs are in the process of learning to read in English, the first language is important to the development of their English language literacy. It is common for well-meaning teachers to discourage the use of a student's first language fearing that it could interfere with English language development. However, studies have shown that use of the first language does not interfere with second language development. Research conducted on the Canadian French immersion programs has shown that the use of a language other than English does not have a detrimental effect on English language development or academic achievement (Cummins & Swain, 1986; Freeman & Freeman, 1992; Genesee & Cloud, 1998; Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Ovando, et al. 2006).

Research studies in the U.S. have compared two-way bilingual programs and English immersion programs in order to learn what type of instruction best address the needs of English learners. In two-way immersion, English-speaking students are integrated with speakers of another language, often Spanish-speaking students, and all students receive instruction in both languages. The language of instruction is separated by teacher, subject or time of day. In English immersion programs, English is used as the language of instruction for all content areas at all times (Baker, 2001). In a large study comparing five bilingual and five English immersion programs, Slavin and Cheung (2003) found that students enrolled in bilingual programs either outperformed immersion students or reached the same levels of performance in reading. Christian (1996) reports from her study of two-way programs in California that 75% to 92% of non-native speakers of English were rated as fluent in English when enrolled in a two-way program that continues through at least fifth grade. These studies show that the use of an EL's first language in a bilingual setting does not interfere with their learning of a second language.

Although bilingual programs have a number of benefits, they are not practical in school settings where students come from a variety of first language backgrounds. Bilingual education is only possible when the population of ELs is homogeneous in first language background. However, the knowledge that has been gained from studies on bilingual education can be beneficial to classroom teachers with a heterogeneous group of ELs. With the knowledge of the relationship between first and second language development, classroom teachers can consider ways to include first language literacy development in their plans for ELs' instruction. In cooperative learning situations, English learners can be placed in groups with other students of the same language background to allow for discussion of content in the first language. In a study of high school classes described as effective for English learners, Henze and Lucas (1993) observed

students in small groups in a mathematics class using their first language to clarify ideas. The teacher did not discourage the use of the students' first language because students' exchange of ideas about mathematical concepts was the highest priority. Teachers who promote the learning of content by allowing students to use their first language to clarify concepts were described as highly effective teachers for ELs by the authors of this study.

2.3.2 Dimensions of Language Proficiency

The role of the first language is indeed an important issue in second language learning, but there are other factors that affect English learners. Researchers have suggested that differences between academic language and conversational language can create challenges for students in their comprehension of academic content (Heath, 1983, Cummins & Swain, 1986; Duff, 2001, Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders & Christian, 2006). In conversational language, students can rely on context and non-verbal cues to understand meaning. However, the academic language that is often associated with textbooks is a decontextualized and dense form of language. Textbook language or "school language" often includes vocabulary that is not part of conversational language. Without the non-verbal cues and familiar vocabulary found in conversational language, English learners may struggle to understand content in academic language. Examples of conversational and academic language can be seen in Gibbons' (2003, p.252) study of elementary science classes.

Conversational language

"We found out the pins stuck on the magnet."

Academic language

"Our experiment showed that magnets attract some metals."

Conversational language and academic language are further defined by Cummins (1986) as BICS and CALP, the two different dimensions of language proficiency. Basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) are defined as context-embedded interpersonal communication skills. Cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) is defined as competence in content-related academic language which is more likely to be context-reduced. According to Cummins, English learners can acquire language proficiency in a context-embedded situation (BICS) in approximately one to two years. English learners are able to build basic interpersonal conversational skills in a short period of time because conversational language allows for the opportunity to negotiate meaning and receive feedback. In context-reduced situations however, the lack of extra-linguistic cues and feedback adds to the ambiguity of meaning. Because of the increased complexity of academic language, it can take English learners approximately five to seven years to acquire CALP (Cummins and Swain, 1986). In a study of English learners in mainstream classes, Duff (2001) found that ELs at the high school level who have acquired conversational proficiency often remain silent during classroom discussions because their academic language proficiency does not match that of their English-speaking peers. Duff's study shows that students who appear to be proficient in conversational English may still struggle with academic language to the point that it prevents participation in classroom discussions.

The understanding of the concept of BICS and CALP is necessary for classroom teachers of ELs to gain because it provides teachers with a deeper understanding of the complexities of the relationship between academic language proficiency and student performance. Uninformed teachers may overestimate or underestimate an English learner's academic capabilities based upon judgments of conversational language skills. Teachers may overestimate a student's cognitive academic language proficiency because of the conversational skills ELs exhibit while

interacting with peers during non-academic portions of the day, such as recess or in the hallways. The overestimation of CALP is dangerous because teachers may cease to provide the necessary language support for their ELs. Underestimating students' abilities may be equally dangerous. ELs are often mistakenly identified as having a learning disability because their ability to express academic knowledge through language does not match their true cognitive abilities (Faltis, 1993; Valdes, 1998; Baker, 2001; Ovando, et al., 2006).

Teachers trained in second language acquisition realize there is a mismatch between a student's ability to comprehend the second language and their ability to produce in the language. Therefore, trained teachers understand that ELs are less able to produce lengthy discourse in a second language, such as giving descriptions or telling stories, even though they may be able to comprehend that level of discourse (Chinen, Donato, Igarashi Tucker, 2003). Tasks and assessments are purposefully designed so that students have the opportunity to show what they can do in the target language rather than what they cannot do. In typical class activities and assessments in academic content areas, students are required to produce academic language in order to show their understanding of content. An untrained teacher may be misinformed about an English learner's knowledge of content if the student's display of knowledge is dependant upon his or her ability to verbalize learning.

2.3.3 Representations of Linguistic and Cognitive Demands in Communicative Activity

Another part of Cummins' bilingual education research that can benefit teachers of ELs is the four-quadrant matrix he designed to show the range of cognitive and linguistic demands that are involved in academic tasks. In the first quadrant, Cummins places cognitively undemanding context-embedded communication. The second quadrant contains context-reduced cognitively

undemanding communication. The third and fourth quadrants contain cognitively demanding communication with the third being context-embedded and the fourth context-reduced. (Cummins and Swain, 1986).

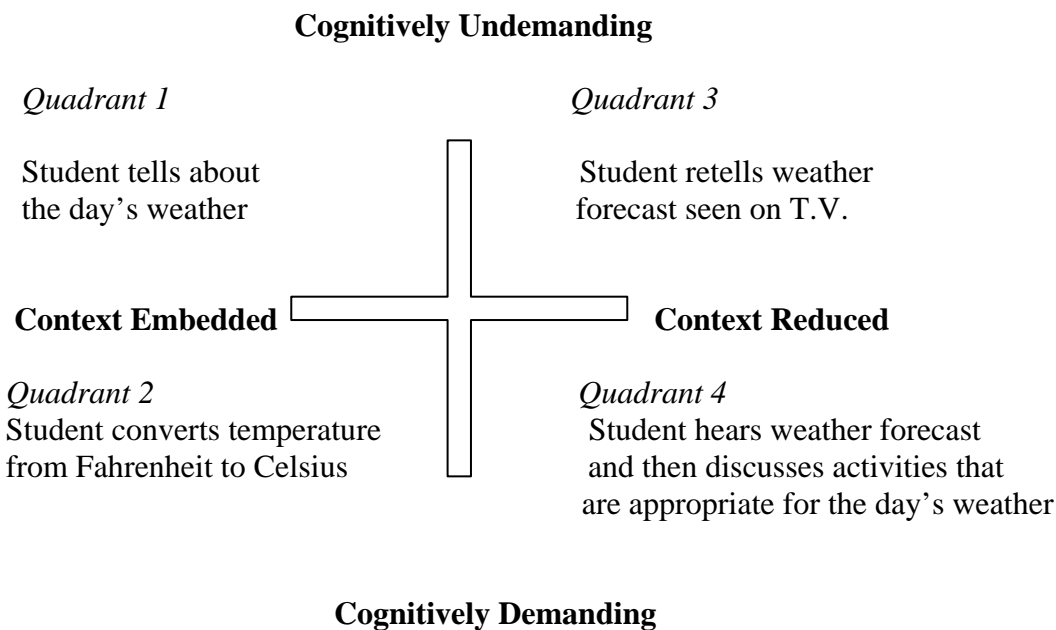


Figure 1: Range of linguistic and cognitive demands in communicative activity (Cummins, cited in Baker, 2001, p. 144). Examples not included in original text.

According to Cummins' explanation of his representation of communicative activity:

“The distinction between context-embedded and context-reduced language proficiency relates to the range of contextual support for expressing or receiving meaning. Context-embedded language proficiency refers to the students' ability to achieve their communicative goals in situations where the linguistic message is embedded within 'a flow of meaningful context' (Donaldson, 1978, cited in Cummins, 2001, p. 145), i.e. supported by a wide range of situational and paralinguistic (e.g. intonation, gestures, etc.) cues. The vertical continuum relates to the degree of active cognitive involvement in the task or activity; in other words, to the amount of information that must be processed simultaneously or in close succession by the individual in order to carry out the communicative activity,” (Cummins, 2001, p. 145).

The use of Cummins' representation of communicative activity pictured in the four quadrants can help teachers to plan lessons that make cognitive academic language more accessible to English learners. Because the language of academic content is challenging to ELs, teachers cannot introduce new learning that involves cognitively and linguistically demanding tasks at the same time. In a study of how science inquiry is used with linguistically diverse elementary students, Fradd and Lee (1999) found that teachers argued for a balanced approach between explicit teaching and inquiry-based teaching in science classes. Explicit teaching is defined in this study as instruction where the teacher leads students through predetermined activities. Inquiry-based teaching is exploratory in nature where teachers guide students to pose their own questions about science. The teachers in the Fradd and Lee study favored using explicit teaching to introduce new scientific concepts to their English learners. As students gained experience with science, teachers were able to incorporate more inquiry into their lessons. The teachers who participated in this study found that their ELs were not prepared to do cognitively and linguistically demanding tasks early in their study of new science material.

In a study of science classrooms at the high school level by Rosebery, Warren and Contant (1992), researchers interviewed students about scientific problems at the beginning of the school year and again at the end of the year. At the end of the year, the students were able to handle cognitively demanding tasks they could not have performed earlier such as hypothesizing and reasoning through a problem using scientific language. Their success was due in part to their participation in a bilingual program giving students the opportunity to receive science instruction in their first language. The bilingual program allowed students to learn cognitively demanding science content with lowered linguistic demands.

Research conducted in the field of bilingual education can inform teachers of English learners about the concept of academic language proficiency and the role of an EL's first language in second language development. However, research in bilingual education is insufficient when students come from a variety of language backgrounds. Therefore, various models of instruction using English as the medium of communication have been implemented in schools serving ELs. The next section investigates Sheltered English, one of the most common models of English-only instruction.

2.4 SHELTERED ENGLISH INSTRUCTION

Sheltered content teaching was first developed by Stephen Krashen at the University of Southern California in the early 1980's. The three main features of sheltered content teaching include comprehensible input, a focus on academic content and segregation from students who are native speakers of English (Faltis, 1993). Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis states that "we acquire (not learn) language by understanding input that is a little beyond our current level of (acquired) competence," (Krashen & Terrell 1983, p. 32). According to Krashen (1983), the ability to speak and write in a second language is not a result of instruction, but will emerge over time with exposure to language that is just slightly above our current level of language proficiency. Comprehensible input is often referred to as I+1; "I" is the language at our level of comprehension and "plus one" is slightly above that level.

While the central idea of the comprehensible input hypothesis remains a key concept of Sheltered English, the speech emergence aspect of Krashen's theory has been disputed. Cummins and Swain (1986) explored the speaking abilities of Canadian French immersion

students and found that the reason immersion students could not produce language with native-speaker like competence was not related to their exposure to comprehensible input, but was due to the fact that their experience with comprehensible output was limited. The immersion students were not given enough opportunities to use French in the classroom. According to Cummins and Swain, (1986)

“Simply getting one’s message across can and does occur with grammatically deviant forms and sociolinguistically inappropriate language. Negotiating meaning needs to incorporate the notion of being pushed towards the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed, but that is conveyed precisely, coherently and appropriately. Being ‘pushed’ in output, it seems to me, is a concept parallel to that of the $i+1$ of comprehensible input. Indeed, one might call this the ‘comprehensible output’ hypothesis”(p. 132).

Another controversial aspect of Krashen’s model of Sheltered English includes the ELs’ complete segregation from native speakers of English. Complete segregation has benefits for English learners such as greater opportunities for participation and a sense of community (Faltis, 1993). But sheltered English programs have evolved since the creation of the original model by Krashen. Some argue that ELs need interaction with English-speaking peers in order to improve their English proficiency (Faltis, 1993; Valdes, 1998; Baker, 2001; Duff, 2001) and suggest models of Sheltered English instruction that do not involve complete, full-time segregation from native speakers of English. Sheltered English can occur in mainstream classes where ELs have the opportunity to receive instruction with English-speaking peers.

2.5 THE SIOP MODEL

Because Sheltered English has taken various forms over the years, researchers from the Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence (CREDE) developed a comprehensive, well-articulated model of instruction to prepare teachers to work with ELs. The CREDE researchers began work on the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) in 1996 and then finalized the model in 2000. Teachers who participated in this project received training on how to prepare lessons for mainstream classes so that ELs receive content instruction with English speaking peers. The SIOP project was piloted with a cohort of middle school teachers from both the east and west coasts who participated in order to learn techniques that would help them meet the needs of their English language learners. Some of the teachers were trained in English as second language (ESL) while others were trained as teachers of an academic content area. Teachers who participated in the SIOP project were invited to monthly meetings where they had the opportunity to collaborate with other teachers and researchers in order to refine their use of the SIOP model and to receive feedback that would help the teachers improve instruction. The teachers videotaped lessons and brought student work samples to the monthly meetings for professional development purposes. Groups of teachers and researchers worked together to assess student comprehension based upon the videotape and student performance on the work samples. Participant teachers received feedback on their incorporation of the SIOP model (CREDE, 1999).

The SIOP model was published in 2004 as a tool for professional development entitled, *Making Content Comprehensible for English Language Learners: The SIOP Model*, by Jana Echevarria, MaryEllen Vogt, and Deborah Short. The SIOP model involves the use of a comprehensive checklist of strategies that teachers can use in their lesson planning and during

instruction to make content comprehensible to English learners. The strategies suggested in SIOP are grounded in the research in second language acquisition, bilingual education and sociocultural theory (CREDE, 1999). The SIOP model consists of three main areas: preparation, instruction and review/assessment. Each of these three areas contain numerous headings and subheadings that help to guide the teacher in making the academic content in lessons more accessible to mainstreamed ELs. There are a total of thirty headings and subheadings, called indicators in the SIOP model. In order to condense the information for the figure, only the headings are listed. Figure 2 outlines the three main headings and highlights the main indicators of the SIOP model.

Preparation	Instruction	Review And Assessment
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Clearly defined content objectives - Clearly defined language objectives - Supplementary materials - Adaptation of content - Meaningful activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Building background - Comprehensible Input - Teaching and learning strategies - Small group interaction - Practice and Application - Scaffolding 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Review of key vocabulary and concepts - Regular feedback provided - Assessment of student comprehension

Figure 2: Outline of the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol

The preparation and instruction sections of the SIOP model are most relevant to this study because they include the concepts of language objectives and comprehensible input. In addition to language objectives and comprehensible input, the SIOP model directs teachers to use a variety of strategies that assist English learners in their comprehension of the lesson. For example, teachers are instructed to introduce new concepts by building on students' background knowledge. The SIOP model encourages teachers to allow ELs to use their prior experiences to make connections to new learning. Another strategy that is recommended by SIOP is small

group activities that actively engage ELs in learning and require them to verbally interact with English-speaking peers. Not only do they benefit from the hands-on learning that is common in small group activities, but they have the opportunity to use the language of the content area with their peers.

2.5.1 Language objectives

One of the key concepts of the SIOP model lesson preparation section is that teachers must plan both language and content objectives. The language that is used to communicate the academic content is an objective of equal importance to English learners as the content objective. For example, when teaching a social studies lesson, a teacher of ELs must be aware of the language students need to learn in order to understand and participate in the lesson. If the social studies lesson were focused on a period of history, ELs need instruction on the formation of the past tense in order to write an essay about a historical event.

A wide variety of language objectives can be incorporated into content area lessons, but the teacher must carefully choose which language objectives are most appropriate for the lesson and for the students. When the teacher is aware of the language skills necessary for a particular lesson, English learners benefit in two ways. The teacher can make the academic content more comprehensible to ELs by teaching language skills during the lesson and the teacher can integrate activities that help ELs to acquire those language skills.

2.5.2 Comprehensible Input

Comprehensible input is a key concept of the instructional section of the SIOP model that requires explicit training for teachers. Classroom teachers can modify speech that they use in their delivery of lessons to all students so that verbal communication is comprehensible to ELs. This type of modification includes a combination of simple and complex changes in speech. Simple modifications include a slower rate of speech, clear enunciation and avoiding ambiguous vocabulary or phrases. The complex modifications involve changes in word choice and sentence structure that result in simplification of speech without simplification of the content. In addition to modifications in speech, the use of supplementary materials such as visuals is essential in making the language of the lesson more comprehensible to ELs.

Studies have been conducted on foreign language teachers' use of contextual support to make the second language comprehensible for their students. This contextual support comes in various forms such as visuals, objects and gestures (Donato, Tucker, Wudthayagorn and Igarashi, 2000) and aids the learner in linguistically demanding tasks by reducing the cognitive load (Cummins and Swain, 1986). According to Cummins (2001) context-embedded situations are those which provide non-verbal support to ensure understanding. The Japanese teacher who participated in the Donato et al. study used visuals to teach the meanings of new vocabulary and integrated the new vocabulary within a context. In a lesson observed for the study, the teacher integrated the teaching of colors with the language function of requests. One task required the students to ask the teacher for a piece of candy by the name of the color in Japanese (p. 387).

2.5.3 SIOP Research

Research on the use of SIOP includes a test to establish the reliability and validity of the SIOP model. According to the study by Guarino, Echevarria, Short, Shick, Forbes and Rueda (2001), the SIOP model was found to be a highly reliable and valid measure of sheltered instruction. Two studies were conducted on the use of SIOP from 1997 to 1999. Researchers compared a group of ELs enrolled in classrooms whose teachers had been trained in using the SIOP model to a control group (teachers who had not been trained in the use of SIOP). The two tasks required students to complete a writing task; the first using a prompt for narrative writing and the second for expository writing. The students whose teachers had been trained to use SIOP scored significantly higher in both tasks than the control group.

The SIOP checklist is an explicit model that can serve as a framework for the preparation of teachers to work with ELs; however, it is not all-inclusive. Although the SIOP model briefly mentions the fact that a mismatch between an ELs' culture and the culture of U.S. schools can pose challenges, the SIOP model does not include training regarding how teachers should handle these differences. In addition to the lack of attention to culture, the SIOP model does not give enough attention to the research conducted in bilingual education such as the role of an ELs' first language or the concept of academic language proficiency. Although these points are mentioned briefly in the introduction to the SIOP model, the introduction does not go into enough depth for teachers to understand how the research impacts teaching and learning.

2.6 SOCIO-AFFECTIVE ISSUES OF ENGLISH LEARNERS

In addition to the bilingual education and sheltered instruction research reviewed thus far, teachers who work with English learners must understand how culture and background experiences influence learning. Teachers of ELs who do not have a background in foreign languages and cultures may have difficulty understanding the challenges encountered by ELs (Valdes, 1998; CREDE, 1999; Baker, 2001; Genesee et al., 2006; Ovando, et al., 2006). According to the NCES data for the 2003-2004 school year, 86% of teachers in the U.S. are classified as white/non-Hispanic. However, approximately 40% of all students enrolled in grades K-12 in the U.S. public schools are classified as Hispanic, African American or Asian American. Without an understanding of the cultural differences between English learners' homes and the school, teachers may mistakenly judge ELs as behavior problems and insist that ELs acquire the cultural and linguistic norms of the mainstream middle class (Espinosa & Laffey, 2003).

The behavioral characteristics valued by teachers are usually displayed by middle-class children who know how to conform to school norms because of prior experience. In Shirley Brice Heath's study (1983) of children in two working-class communities, the children that were viewed more favorably by teachers had the opportunity to "learn school," meaning its rules and expectations. In a study by Espinosa and Laffey (2003), students who displayed behavior problems were rated as less competent academically by their teachers. According to Espinosa & Laffey, this may be especially critical for children who enter school with limited opportunities to learn the social skills necessary for successful participation in traditional school practices. Many ELs who have recently arrived in the U.S. have not had the opportunity to learn the traditional

school behaviors that are expected by teachers. As a result, teachers may view ELs as inferior to English-speaking students who have already learned the expected school behaviors.

In some segregated sheltered English programs, ELs may even be refused promotion into integrated classes because of behavior problems (Valdes, 1998). The false assumption that culturally and linguistically diverse students must assimilate into the mainstream culture in order to be successful in school is aligned with the deficit perspective (Baker, 2001). The deficit perspective is held by those who believe in the superiority of one's own ethnic group (Ovando, et al. 2006) and view children whose norms do not match the cultural norms of the majority culture as cognitively and socially deficient (Delpit, 1995). The deficit perspective has affected school policies that prevent language minority children from using their first language in educational settings, often resulting in ELs' resistance of school (Ovando, et al. 2006).

“Dominant group institutions and representatives of those institutions (e.g. teachers) require that subordinated groups deny their cultural identity as a necessary condition for success in the mainstream society where the gatekeepers are invariably representatives of the dominant group, or at lower levels, compliant subordinated group members who have accepted the rules of the game. Many students resist this process of subordination through “disruptive” behavior, often culminating in dropping out of school,” (Cummins, cited in Baker, 2001, p. 272).

When teachers are not educated in issues of cultural diversity and are not able to identify their own deficit perspective, their deficit views may undermine any effort to instruct ELs. Teachers who hold deficit views of ELs may unknowingly hold lowered expectations for ELs that can influence their instructional decisions. Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) conducted a study that showed student performance can be affected by teacher expectations. When teachers expect quality work from students, the students are likely to meet the teacher's high expectations. Low

teacher expectations are likely to result in low student achievement. This “self –fulfilling prophecy” claim states that it is possible to improve student performance by creating higher teacher expectations.

Teacher education programs must prepare future teachers to understand the ways that the deficit perspective can impact their expectations of students and their instructional behavior (Costa et al. 2005). Teacher education students need positive experiences with cultural diversity to challenge any deficit views before they begin their careers as teachers. Programs such as service learning (Eyler & Giles, 1999), which will be discussed further in chapter six, are designed to provide students with diversity experiences guided by discussions and assignments connected to a university course. The culture and behavioral norms of the school may vary significantly from the cultural and behavioral norms of ELs; however, teachers with the necessary knowledge base and positive attitude towards diversity can provide a classroom environment where ELs can be successful (Brock & Raphael, 2005).

2.7 SUMMARY

The growing number of ELs in the U.S. has led to a need for more training for teachers who work with ELs. The SIOP model is the only explicit model for the training of teachers in sheltered instruction and serves as an excellent starting point for teacher preparation. SIOP gives teachers a well-articulated checklist that they can use in lesson preparation to make their lessons in academic content more comprehensible to ELs. SIOP includes research-based strategies such as providing comprehensible input and teaching language objectives. However, the SIOP model

lacks important components that were discussed in this literature review. Teachers need a background in research in the field of bilingual education, such as Cummins' dimensions of academic language proficiency, the role of the first language in second language literacy and the concept of BICS and CALP. In addition to a background in research, teachers of ELs need training in the relationship between culture and learning so that deficit views about ELs do not guide instructional decisions. In the next chapter, I suggest a workshop program for elementary teachers with mainstreamed ELs.

3.0 CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Although English learners (ELs) are integrated into classrooms in all parts of the U.S., many elementary teachers find that they are not equipped to meet the needs of linguistically diverse students. Some states require training for all teachers in their certification programs, but not all. In the state of Pennsylvania, the population of English learners has grown by approximately two thousand students each year from 2000 to 2005 (PDE, 2005). Pennsylvania does not require teacher certification candidates to receive any type of training in meeting the needs of ELs, with the exception of those pursuing certification in ESL (NCELA, 2006). The aim of this study is to examine the learning that occurred during workshop sessions that were designed to assist interns seeking elementary certification in the state of Pennsylvania to meet the academic needs of their English language learners.

The study addressed the following two major research questions followed by three subquestions:

1. How does participation in the workshops influence the interns' understanding of ELs' socio-affective issues?
 - a. What knowledge do the interns have about their mainstreamed ELs before the workshops?

- b. How are the interns' beliefs about mainstreamed ELs influenced by their mentor teachers and by their own background experiences with diversity?
 - c. How does the interns' understanding of ELs' socio-affective issues change over the course of the workshops?
2. How does participation in the workshops influence the interns' lesson planning and instruction?
- a. How does knowledge of selected research in bilingual education and selected sheltered content strategies influence interns' planning for instruction?
 - b. How are the changes in the interns' planning and instruction reflected in their ELs' learning?
 - c. What do interns say that they have learned about teaching ELs as a result of the workshops?

The participants in the workshop sessions that were conducted for this study included four interns enrolled in the University of Pittsburgh's Master of Arts in Teaching certification program in Elementary Education. The University of Pittsburgh offers a teaching certification program where students with an undergraduate degree can obtain teaching certification and a Master of Arts in Teaching (MAT) in one year. The students enrolled in the MAT program are typically called interns because they apply for an intern certificate which allows them to teach in a classroom under the guidance of a mentor teacher for one entire school year. The MAT interns teach at the internship site during the school day while completing the graduate coursework necessary to earn the Master's degree in the evening.

3.2 PRELIMINARY PROCEDURES

3.2.1 Surveys

As a preliminary step in data collection, all elementary education MAT interns at the University of Pittsburgh were asked to complete a survey during October of 2006 (see Appendix A). Interns were asked to provide information about their teaching assignment and their English learners. Interns were asked to supply information such as the number of ELs enrolled their classes, information about their mentors' prior experience with ELs and the educational and language backgrounds of their ELs. After surveys were collected and reviewed, results showed that nine elementary interns who had ELs enrolled in their classes stated that they were willing to participate in the study.

3.3 THE SETTING AND PARTICIPANTS

3.3.1 The Setting

Four interns were chosen to participate in this study. The four interns chosen for this study were in the process of completing their internship at the Falk School during the 2006-2007 academic year. The Falk School is a private school which enrolls approximately 300 children from kindergarten through grade eight. The school functions as a laboratory school that was established through a partnership with the University of Pittsburgh and serves as an observation and research site for those pursuing degrees in education. The mission of the Falk School is to

promote progressive teaching methods, generate new knowledge about teaching and support the inquiring attitude in its students. The school provides multi-age classrooms, modified team teaching and nongraded instruction in three curricular areas: science, mathematics and language arts, (Donato & Antonek, 1994, p. 366).

3.3.2 Selection of Participants

The Falk School was chosen as the research site because the total number of interns who were willing to participate in the study was higher than in any other school site where University of Pittsburgh elementary MAT interns were assigned during the 2006-2007 academic year. Additionally, there were a total of ten ELs enrolled in the Falk interns' classrooms, which was a higher number of ELs than in any other school site hosting University of Pittsburgh MAT interns during the year of the study. I met with the school director to discuss the study and the roles of the participating interns. After this initial meeting, the four interns were notified that they had been chosen to participate in the study.

The interns who participated in the study were assigned to classrooms in grades 1 – 5 with varying numbers of ELs. Because of the multi-age classrooms that are characteristic of the Falk School, each intern was assigned to two grade levels. None of the interns reported any prior classroom teaching experience or any prior experience in the education of English Learners. Table 1 summarizes the background information of the interns including a pseudonym, gender, grade levels that interns were teaching, the number of ELs assigned to their classrooms and the first languages represented by the ELs in their classrooms.

Table 1: Background information on participating interns

Intern	Gender	Grade levels	Number of ELs	Languages represented
Angela	female	1, 2	3	Italian, Turkish, Japanese
Kerry	female	3, 4	2	Korean, Japanese
Krista	female	3, 4	3	German, Italian
Hannah	female	4, 5	3	German, Russian, Japanese

* Names used are not participants' actual names.

3.3.3 Content Area of Focus

The interns were invited to an informational meeting on December 21, 2006 where they were given an outline of the study. I explained the goals of the study, the responsibilities of participating in the study and its potential benefits. The interns were given the opportunity to ask questions and voice their concerns. The interns were questioned about the performance of their ELs in the content areas they have been assigned to teach. All of the interns agreed that language arts was the subject that posed the most difficulty for their ELs. Language arts was chosen as the content area of focus for this study, but because of various schedule conflicts, interns were also observed teaching science and social studies.

A second informational meeting was held on January 18, 2007 to establish a schedule and for the interns to give their official consent according to the Institutional Review Board at the University of Pittsburgh. At this time, interns were asked to identify the ELs assigned to their classes and the first language of each EL (see Table 1).

3.3.4 English Learner Background Information

The ELs enrolled in the interns' classrooms were first identified on the initial survey distributed in October 2006. In January 2007, this information was verified with the Falk School director based upon the data collected from the Home Language Survey (see Appendix B) at the beginning of the school year. Every school district in the state of Pennsylvania must distribute a Home Language Survey to each student enrolled in the district. The results of the Home Language Survey provide information pertaining to the student's first language, any languages other than English spoken in the home and the student's prior educational experience in any U.S. school. This survey is mandated by the state to ensure that school districts are in compliance with federal laws regarding English language learners (PDE, 2005). These laws dictate that Limited English Proficient (LEP) students, as ELs are defined by the Pennsylvania state department of education, be identified and that schools must provide language and academic support programs. Although the Falk School is a private institution which is not required to provide ELs with language and academic support programs, the Home Language Survey is mandated for the purpose of EL identification.

3.4 DATA COLLECTION

Data was collected in the form of surveys, videotaped workshop sessions, interns' reflections on the workshop sessions, interns' lesson plans and ELs' writing samples. The role of this data set is to answer the two major research questions; to evaluate how participation in the workshops

influences interns' beliefs and their planning and instruction. Additional data, including a questionnaire, videotaped lesson observations and interns' lesson reflection forms, were collected for use during the workshop sessions. This additional data served two purposes. One purpose for the data was to use the video for discussion during the workshops. Secondly, the data was used to answer the research questions.

3.4.1 Surveys

Before the start of the workshops, interns were asked to complete an attitude survey (see appendix C) regarding their beliefs about the ELs mainstreamed into their classrooms. The same survey was distributed to each of the interns' mentor teachers and mentors were asked to complete the survey. Because one of the major research questions in this study pertains to the interns' understanding of their ELs, it was necessary to find out what beliefs the interns had about the ELs mainstreamed into their classes before the workshops began. Secondly, the interns' beliefs may have been influenced by their mentor teachers; therefore, it was necessary to find out what beliefs the mentor teachers had about the ELs mainstreamed into their classes. The survey questions asked the interns and mentors about their beliefs regarding English learners' use of their first language, beliefs about ELs' academic abilities and beliefs about ELs' English language abilities. Interns were asked to complete the same survey after the conclusion of the workshop sessions. The purpose of asking the interns complete the attitude survey for a second time was to examine any changes in interns' beliefs that may have occurred over the course of the workshop sessions.

3.4.2 Questionnaires

Interns were asked to complete a questionnaire before the start of the workshops which was used as a topic of discussion in the first session (see appendix D). The purpose of the first part of the questionnaire was to find out what the interns knew about the background of their ELs. One of the major research questions for this study pertains to the interns' understanding of an ELs' background and its influence on learning; therefore, it was necessary to find out as much information as possible about the background of the interns' ELs. In the case where an intern was not able to answer one of the questions, the interns were directed to make every effort to find out the answer by asking the mentor teacher, consulting the information obtained by the Home Language Survey or making contact with the ELs' parents. When the workshops began, I found that the interns were not able to gather the necessary information to complete the questionnaire. Therefore, I created my own parent survey (see Appendix M) that will be discussed in chapter four.

The second part of the questionnaire asked the interns to describe their background with language learning, with non-native speakers of English and their travel experiences. In addition to prior experiences, the interns were asked to describe the challenges they encountered with the teaching of ELs, any prior experiences with training in the teaching of English learners, and to describe any strategies they had been using to accommodate ELs prior to the study.

3.4.3 Videotaped workshop sessions

Each of the eight workshop sessions were videotaped and relevant portions were transcribed. The purpose of videotaping and transcribing the sessions was to allow for analysis of the

discussions that took place during the workshops. Because one of the major research questions for this study addressed the interns' understanding of ELs, analysis of the talk that took place during the sessions was essential to understanding any change in interns' understanding. In addition to interns' beliefs, this study investigated how the workshops influenced the interns' planning and instruction. An analysis of the talk that occurred during the workshops was necessary to understanding how the workshops influenced the interns' planning for instruction.

Reflections

The interns were asked to write short reflections after each workshop session (see appendix E) to describe what they learned in the sessions. After completing all eight workshop sessions, the interns were asked to complete a reflection form describing in greater detail what they learned over the entire workshop series (see appendix F). The purpose of these reflections is to find out what knowledge the interns say that they learned in the workshop sessions and compare the interns' statements to the evidence of learning found in other forms of data.

3.4.4 Videotaped lesson observations

Each of the four interns were observed and videotaped while teaching three different lessons. One purpose of these observations was to investigate how the workshops influenced the interns' instruction. Each of the three observations focused on a particular topic studied in a workshop session, therefore the observations served as an evaluation of changes in the interns' instruction. The second purpose of the videotaped observations was to use the video during the workshop sessions. Relevant portions of the lesson videotapes were played and discussed during the

workshop sessions. Videotapes of the interns' lessons served as classroom-based examples that allowed for discussion of the session topics in the context of the interns' classrooms.

3.4.5 Lesson plans and observation reflections

Interns were asked to turn in copies of lesson plans and to complete an observation reflection (see appendix G) form for each of their three videotaped observations. After collecting the interns' lesson plans, I found little evidence of change because the interns were required to complete lesson plans according to a standardized university format. Therefore, the observation reflection form served as the primary data regarding the interns' lesson design. In order to complete the observation reflection form, interns were asked to identify aspects of their lessons including their objectives for the lesson, the tasks they designed to support learning, the academic language in the lesson and grouping configurations. Additionally, interns were required to identify a critical incident on each observation reflection. The critical incident was described as an event that the intern identified as critical to their own understanding of an EL's comprehension, or lack of comprehension, during the lesson.

3.4.6 Writing samples

Interns were asked to collect writing samples from ELs that were assigned during the lessons that were observed and videotaped. The purpose of collecting the writing samples was to look for evidence of ELs' learning. The data from the writing samples were used to support the evidence collected in the lesson observations and the statements the interns made on the reflections about what they had learned in the workshop sessions.

The writing samples collected were not designed specifically for ELs, but came from writing assignments that all students were required to complete. By using existing forms of writing assessments, the ELs were most likely to perform as they normally would in the writing samples collected for this study. The most common form of assessment in reading and language arts at the Falk School is student response to a teacher-provided writing prompt. Traditional reading assessments are not given at the Falk School, such as multiple choice reading comprehension questions. Therefore, responses to writing prompts were the only source of written assessment data collected.

3.5 WORKSHOP SESSIONS

3.5.1 Topics of the workshop sessions

The workshop sessions focused on two main topics: the interns' understanding of an EL's background and the interns' understanding of instructional strategies designed for ELs. The understanding of an EL's background was facilitated by the text, *Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture*, (Brock and Raphael, 2005), which is a classroom-based study that focuses on the literacy development of one English learner from Laos. The understanding of instructional strategies was facilitated by two sources. First, interns read selected research from the field of bilingual education in preparation for their learning of instructional strategies. Interns read and discussed the chapter, The Entry and Exit Fallacy in Bilingual Education, (p. 110-147) of *An Introductory Reader to the Writings of Jim Cummins*, edited by Baker and Hornberger (2001).

Secondly, interns read two chapters from *Making Content Comprehensible for English Language Learners*, (Echevarria, Vogt and Short, 2004). The interns received instruction on how to use two of the strategies suggested by the SIOP model; developing language objectives and comprehensible input.

3.5.2 Rationale for time frame

The proposed workshop sessions required participants to meet for one 60 minute session each week for a period of eight weeks during the months of March, April and May. This time period was chosen because interns have more teaching experience in the Spring months and were better equipped to participate in an in-depth discussion of their teaching than they were during the Fall months. This time frame was chosen because eight weeks allowed for an in-depth discussion of the socio-affective issues and instructional strategies. Over the course of eight weeks, I had the opportunity to interact with the interns multiple times including the scheduled observations of their individual lessons and the eight workshop sessions. Although a longer period of time would have been ideal, the intensity of the interns' schedules had to be taken into consideration. During the Spring semester, the Falk interns were teaching reading and language arts, math, social studies and science as well as taking a full-time load of graduate courses.

3.5.3 Workshop schedule

Table 2 lists the topics that were presented during each session. The topics of discussion each week focused on either discussion of reading material or practical application of the reading. Interns were assigned to complete readings and other assignments such as lesson planning and

obtaining writing samples on a rotating basis. Each workshop session ended with a clarification of the expectations for the following week and the interns completed a short reflection on the session

Table 2: Schedule of sessions and topics

Week	Session	Assignments
1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Discuss agenda for sessions - Discuss attitude surveys - Discuss questionnaires 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Read chapters 1 and 2 of <i>Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture</i>, (developing a knowledge base about culture) do reflection 2.1, p. 16
2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - French lesson - Discuss reading: developing a knowledge base about culture and reflection 2.1 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Make a list of examples of ELs' use of conversational and academic language - Read the Cummins research
3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Discuss Cummins' research - Discuss examples of academic and conversational language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Plan a lesson to be taped according to Cummins' research - Bring lesson plan/reflection - Bring writing samples
4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Look at videotaped lessons and writing samples - Discuss lesson plan adaptations according to Cummins' research 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Read SIOP chapters 2 and 4 language objectives and comprehensible input
5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Discuss language objectives and comprehensible input - Look at videotaped lesson observations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Plan a lesson with language objectives and comprehensible input to be taped - Bring in the lesson plan/reflection - Bring writing samples
6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Look at videotaped lessons - Look at ELLs' writing samples - Discuss lesson plan adaptations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Read chapters 3 -5 of <i>Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture</i> - Do reflection points 5.2, p.71 and 5.3, p. 75

Table 2 con't

Week	Session	Assignments
7	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Discuss ELLs in whole group and small group activities - Look at examples of teacher/student interaction in whole group activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Plan a lesson focused on whole group tasks to be taped - Bring in the lesson plan/reflection
8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Look at videotaped lessons - Discuss lesson plan adaptations for ELs in whole group activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Complete attitude survey - Complete reflection form

3.5.4 Description of workshop sessions

Week 1. The workshop sessions began with a discussion of the agenda for the eight weeks. The materials and schedule were distributed to the interns and the weekly assignments, readings and videotaped observations were discussed. After the discussion of the agenda, the focus of this first session was the interns' and mentors' responses to the attitude survey regarding their beliefs about their mainstreamed ELs. Interns discussed their answers to the survey questions and compared their answers to the responses given by their mentor teachers. After the discussion of the attitude surveys, interns discussed their responses to the questionnaires. We discussed the interns' prior experiences with language learning, interacting with non-native speakers of English and how these experiences may influence their beliefs about ELs.

For the next session, the interns were asked to read chapters 1 and 2 from *Language, Literacy and Culture* and to complete reflection point 2.1 on page 16.

Week 2. The focus of the second session was the understanding of an EL's experience in an American classroom. The workshop began with a mini French lesson. The purpose for this French lesson was to give the interns a small sample of a typical school day for an EL and build their level of empathy towards ELs. Interns were asked to read a dialogue and respond to a series of true/false questions (see Appendix N). After the conclusion of the French lesson, the interns were asked to discuss their feelings, what they understood, what was challenging and the strategies they used to get through the lesson.

After the French lesson, the discussion moved on to the topic of the reading, chapters 1 and 2 from *Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture*, (Brock and Raphael, 2005). *Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture* is a classroom-based study that focuses on the literacy development of Deng, an English language learner from Laos. In these first two chapters, the authors of this study present the reader with background information on the immigration of the Deng's family and how this background affects Deng's understanding and participation in lessons. In chapter 2, there is an example of a conversation between Deng and his teacher about a story they have read where Deng does not understand the teacher's question. The authors of this text present the transcript of the conversation between Deng and the teacher to two other teachers. After having read the conversation, the two teachers were asked to respond to the situation. The two teacher responses are given in the text after the transcript of classroom discourse; one with a positive outlook on ELs and the other with a negative outlook. The interns were asked to complete reflection point 2.1 on page 16 where they were asked to identify with one of the respondents and discuss their responses to the reflection point.

The second chapter of *Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture* also introduces the concept of conversational and academic language. At the end of the second session,

conversational and academic language were introduced as background for the following week's assigned reading, the research in bilingual education by Jim Cummins. Interns were asked to write three examples of their ELs' speech over the following week and identify the speech samples as either conversational language or academic language. I planned to discuss these examples during the following session to develop the interns' understanding of BICS and CALP within the context of their ELs.

Week 3. The focus of this session was to discuss the research conducted in the field of bilingual education by Jim Cummins. Interns read *The Entry and Exit Fallacy in Bilingual Education*, (p. 110-147) of *An Introductory Reader to the Writings of Jim Cummins*, edited by Baker and Hornberger (2001). Although a model of bilingual education could not be used in the classrooms at the Falk School, the purpose of the reading the research in bilingual education was to inform the interns' instructional decisions and lesson designs. First, the interns read that the first language plays an important role in second language acquisition and that teachers should not discourage use of their ELs' first language. The interns also read Cummins' representation of communicative activity pictured in the four quadrants to illustrate his theory (see chapter two). Interns were provided with an example of instruction for an EL that moves gradually from cognitively and linguistically simple to more complex tasks (see Appendix H) according to Cummins' representation of communicative activity. Finally, the interns studied Cummins' research on the two types of language proficiency, Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP), (see chapter two). The interns' examples of their ELs' conversational and academic language were discussed in addition to written examples of BICS and CALP from a study conducted in elementary science classes (see Appendix I).

During the week between sessions there was no reading assigned. Interns were asked to identify and teach academic language for their first lesson observation. The interns were asked to design a writing assignment including use of the academic language and to collect ELs' writing samples. The interns were also asked to complete an observation reflection form for the lesson observation.

Week 4. The focus of this session was to view and discuss the interns' lessons on academic language. I played video clips of each intern's lessons and asked the other three interns to identify examples of academic language in the lesson. After the three interns observing the lesson had offered their ideas, I asked the intern who taught the lesson to identify the academic language she chose to teach. According to Stimulated Recall Methodology (Gass and Mackey, 2000), I also asked her to explain her reasons for choosing the academic language that she taught in the lesson and to describe what she thought was the critical incident identified in the observation reflections.

Next, I planned to discuss how the interns had structured tasks to move from cognitively and linguistically simple to complex tasks. I had planned to discuss how their lesson plans moved ELs gradually from cognitively and linguistically simple to complex tasks and to identify writing samples that showed if a task was too cognitively and linguistically difficult for an EL. However, I realized during session three that the interns needed more time and practice to be able to design tasks that move from cognitively and linguistically simple to complex (see chapter five). As a result, the focus of our discussion during week four was the teaching of academic language.

Following their study of the selected research in bilingual education, interns were asked to read chapters 2 and 4 from *Making Content Comprehensible for English Language Learners*, (Echevarria, Vogt and Short, 2004).

Week 5. The focus of this session was instruction on how to use two of the strategies suggested by the SIOP model (see chapter 2), teaching language objectives and providing comprehensible input. Interns received instruction on how to identify and teach language objectives in their content lessons. Interns were provided with examples of language objectives and written lesson descriptions for each of the four content areas; language arts, math, science and social studies (see Appendix J). The interns also received instruction on how to modify the language of their lessons so that content can be made comprehensible to ELs without simplification of the academic content. The interns received a written example of a lesson excerpt (see Appendix K) showing a teacher's explanation of a science experiment divided into two columns. The first column listed the teacher's actual words while the second column provided a commentary to show the reader how the teacher modified her speech and provided visual support to make the explanation more comprehensible. Interns also read and discussed example lessons provided by the SIOP model of strong, mediocre and weak lessons examples incorporating language objectives and comprehensible input.

During the week following this session, there was no assigned reading. Interns were asked to incorporate language objectives and comprehensible input into a lesson and to design a writing assignment including the language objectives. Interns were asked to bring the lesson plan, copies of ELs' writing samples that accompany the lesson and the observation reflection form to the next session.

Week 6. The focus of this session was the interns' use of comprehensible input and teaching of language objectives. I played video clips of each intern's lesson and asked the three interns observing to identify the language objectives that were taught in each lesson. After the other three interns had offered their ideas, I asked the intern who taught the lesson to explain how she arrived at her decision to focus on a particular language objective. I had originally planned to stop the video at points in the lesson where the language may not have been comprehensible to ELs and ask the interns to determine changes that could have been made in the teacher talk. During the lesson observations however, I learned that the interns needed more time and practice to modify their speech (see chapter five). For this reason, the focus of the discussion during session six was on the teaching of language objectives.

For the next session, interns were asked to read chapters 3 – 5 of *Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture* and to complete the two reflection points in the chapter.

Week 7. The focus of this session was on the different kinds of experiences Deng (the EL in *Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture*) has with whole group and small group tasks. In chapter 3 of the text, the authors show examples of classroom discourse that take place in whole group settings and follow-up discussions of the lesson with Deng. Deng indicates in the follow-up discussion that there are many points during the whole group lesson that he experienced confusion, but the teacher did not appear to notice. In Chapter 4, which focuses on the small group tasks, Deng indicated fewer moments of confusion reporting that he understands his peers better than the teacher. Interns will discuss their responses to the reflection points where they are asked to indicate what differences they notice between the whole group and small group tasks as described in the text.

Chapter 5 introduces ways that the teacher can make whole group tasks more comprehensible to ELs and provide more opportunities to assess ELs' comprehension during the lesson. Interns discussed the chart presented in chapter 5 that presents what the teacher did during the whole group lesson presented in the text; for example, the teacher allowed any student to answer questions. The chart also shows what the teacher could have done differently, such as to call on particular students or monitor turn-taking. Interns discussed the ideas presented in chapter 5 that show how teachers can make whole group lessons more accessible to ELs and allow for more frequent assessment of ELs' comprehension. The interns were also presented with a transcript of an instructional conversation (see Appendix L). Interns discussed how they can incorporate features of the instructional conversation (Goldenberg & Patthey-Chavez, 1995) to increase participation opportunities for ELs.

I had originally planned for the interns to develop a lesson plan including features of whole group lessons we had discussed in week seven. However, an incident that took place during one intern's small group task (see chapter four) caused me to shift the focus of session seven to include discussion about managing small group tasks. Interns were given the choice to focus their lesson on small group or whole group tasks for their observation. The interns were asked to bring their lesson plan, ELs' writing samples (if applicable) and their observation reflection form to the next session.

Week 8. The focus of this session was the interns' structuring of small group or whole group tasks. First, each intern was asked to identify their objective for the whole group or small group task that was incorporated into their lesson plans. Next, the videotapes were viewed and discussed. The observing interns were asked to give their feedback regarding the ELs' participation to the intern who taught the lesson. After the other interns offered their ideas, the

intern who taught the lesson was asked to comment on the effectiveness of the small group interaction or the whole group task.

At the conclusion of this final session, interns were asked to complete a reflection form on the entire series of workshop sessions and to complete the attitude survey for a second time.

3.6 RATIONALE FOR SEQUENCE AND EXPECTATIONS OF INTERNS

For practical reasons, the schedule of topics and assignments was designed so that interns were either asked to read new material to prepare for sessions or perform other tasks such as designing lessons and collecting writing samples. This design allowed interns to focus on each reading topic or assignment because they were not being asked to complete multiple tasks and readings in one week's time.

The topics of each session were planned purposefully so that the interns' learning could be traced over the course of the workshop sessions. I planned to focus the workshops on socio-affective issues before discussing strategies for planning and instruction. The reason I decided to begin with socio-affective issues was to build the interns' empathy for their ELs. With an increased awareness for the struggles faced by their ELs, the interns were extremely receptive to learning how to modify their planning and instruction to meet the needs of ELs. The first workshop focused on the interns' and mentors' beliefs about their ELs in order to examine how the interns were influenced by their beliefs and their mentors' beliefs about ELs. For the second session, interns participated in a mini French lesson that was designed to increase their sensitivity to the challenges faced by ELs in American classrooms.

The third session began the focus on issues related to planning and instruction. One of the major topics discussed was Cummins' research on the concept of conversational and academic language. After the third session, the interns were asked to identify and teach the academic language for their first lesson observation. The fourth workshop session was focused on watching and discussing video clips from the interns' lessons on academic language. After having identified the academic language in their lessons, the interns' were prepared to receive instruction on strategies from the SIOP model. The fifth session focused on instruction in the delivery of comprehensible input and teaching language objectives according to SIOP. After the fifth session, interns were asked to incorporate language objectives and comprehensible input into a lesson plan. The sixth session included watching video clips from the interns' lessons and a discussion focused on evaluating the interns' use of the SIOP strategies.

Finally, the interns read and discussed strategies that can be used in whole group tasks in order to make them more accessible to ELs during the seventh session. Interns read about the difference in an ELs' comprehension during a small group discussion with peers as compared to teacher fronted whole group instruction. The interns learned the importance of incorporating more frequent assessment of ELs' comprehension in whole group lessons. The eighth session included watching video clips of the interns' lessons and a discussion of the interns' whole group tasks. The lesson discussions were followed by a written reflection on the workshop series and a second completion of the attitude survey.

3.7 DATA ANALYSIS

Although the workshops described in this chapter were organized according to the topics presented in each session, the interns' learning will be described in chapters four and five according to the themes that emerged during the workshop sessions. In order to present an in-depth analysis of the interns' learning during the workshops, I chose to perform a thematic analysis across a variety of data sources. While transcribing all relevant portions of the workshop sessions and interns' classroom teaching for data analysis, I noticed repeated patterns of discussion and instructional behavior that I identified as themes regarding the interns' learning about ELs' socio-affective issues and planning instruction for ELs. I will describe the themes of the interns' learning in a narrative and illustrative style (Baumann & Duffy-Hester, 2000). Each narration describing the interns' learning will be illustrated by transcripts of the interns' classroom teaching and transcripts of conversations that took place during the workshop sessions.

The evidence of interns' learning will also be supported by data collected from the surveys, questionnaires, interns' workshop reflections, lesson reflections and ELs' writing samples. According to Marshall and Rossman (1995), the reliability and generalizability of qualitative research is increased by use of triangulation of multiple sources of data. The attitude surveys and questionnaires were used to support the themes found in the workshop session transcripts. Transcripts, surveys and questionnaires were analyzed to examine ways that the workshops influenced the interns' understanding of mainstreamed ELs in their classrooms. The interns' reflections on the workshop sessions, the observation reflection forms, and ELs' writing samples were used to support the themes that emerged in the interns' classroom teaching. These data were analyzed to examine ways that the workshops influenced the interns' lesson planning and

instruction. The following paragraphs include a description of data analysis organized by research question.

3.8 HOW DOES PARTICIPATION IN THE WORKSHOPS INFLUENCE ELEMENTARY INTERNS' UNDERSTANDING OF ELS' SOCIO-AFFECTIVE ISSUES?

Surveys. The results of the attitude surveys distributed to the interns and mentor teachers prior to the start of the workshops were analyzed. First, I analyzed the interns' responses to establish what beliefs the interns had about mainstreamed ELs prior to the study. Next, I compared the intern responses to those of their mentor teachers. I looked for similarities between interns' responses and those of their mentor teachers. Through the analysis, I established what beliefs the interns held about mainstreamed ELs and if these beliefs were influenced by their mentor teachers. After the analysis of intern belief data collected at the beginning of the workshop sessions, I compared the results of the attitude survey taken before the workshops to the same survey repeated at the conclusion of the workshops. I examined the survey data for changes in the interns' beliefs about ELs.

Transcripts of workshop sessions. Relevant portions of the videotaped workshop sessions were transcribed and analyzed. The transcript of the first workshop session, where the surveys were discussed, was analyzed for evidence of interns' beliefs about ELs before the workshops began and for the influence of mentors' beliefs on the interns. The transcripts of the remaining workshop sessions were analyzed for recurring themes in the interns' understanding of socio-

affective issues of mainstreamed ELs and for changes that took place in their understanding over the course of the workshops.

3.9 HOW DOES PARTICIPATION IN THE WORKSHOPS INFLUENCE ELEMENTARY INTERNS' LESSON PLANNING AND INSTRUCTION?

Videotaped workshop sessions. Relevant portions of the videotaped workshop sessions were transcribed and the transcripts were analyzed for recurring themes of discussion over the course of the workshops. I focused my analysis on the interns' talk about lesson planning and their talk about the video clips of their lessons. The interns' talk served as data regarding their implementation of the strategies learned in the sessions. The analysis of transcripts from the workshop sessions provided a rich description of the learning process that took place amongst the interns.

Videotaped observations. Relevant parts of the videotaped lessons were transcribed and analyzed for the influence the workshops had on the interns' instruction. The transcripts were analyzed to examine evidence of interns' use of strategies learned in the workshop sessions. I examined the lesson transcripts for evidence of the interns' identification of academic language, incorporation of language objectives, use of comprehensible input, and structuring of whole group tasks that were designed to enhance ELs' comprehension of the lesson.

Lesson plans and observation reflections. The interns' lesson plans were collected to examine evidence of how the workshops influenced their lesson planning, but as stated earlier, the interns' lesson plans did not change because they were required to follow a university format. For each lesson observed, interns were asked to complete an observation reflection form. Interns

were asked to identify the academic language of their lesson, the language objectives, explain their grouping strategies and describe a critical incident. The observation reflection forms were analyzed to examine the interns' ability to identify the academic language and the objectives of their lessons. In some cases, the responses to the observation reflection forms served as data showing what the interns did not learn in the workshop sessions.

Writing samples. ELs' writing samples were collected for each lesson observation as evidence of the interns' incorporation of strategies learned in the workshop sessions. Writing samples were analyzed for evidence of student learning. The writing samples were used to support other forms of data collected that served as evidence of the interns' learning as a result of their participation in the workshop sessions.

Reflections. The interns' short reflections at the end of each workshop session were examined to see what interns said they learned as a result of each workshop. The final workshop reflection was examined for evidence of what interns said they learned about teaching ELs as a result of the entire series of workshops. The short reflections were compared to the reflections completed at the end of the workshop sessions to look for recurrent themes that emerged highlighting examples of the interns' learning.

3.10 SUMMARY

This study investigated a workshop series intended to prepare elementary interns to meet the academic needs of English learners. The workshops focused on the interns' understanding of their ELs and their understanding of instructional strategies designed to facilitate ELs' learning. First, the interns and mentors completed an attitude survey regarding their opinions and beliefs

about their ELs. The interns also completed a questionnaire that asked them about the background of their ELs and their own experience with other languages. Interns read material that was provided to help them to understand the socio-affective challenges ELs face. Interns also read relevant research in bilingual education and received instruction in strategies of sheltered English. The discussions of the readings that took place during the workshop sessions were videotaped for analysis purposes. I asked the interns to focus three of their lessons on topics discussed in the sessions and I observed and videotaped these three lessons. The interns completed an observation reflection form for each videotaped observation and were also asked to collect ELs' writing samples for each lesson observation. All of the data collected were used to determine the influence of the workshops on the interns' understanding of ELs and their lesson planning and instruction.

4.0 CHAPTER IV: KNOWING THE INTERNS, KNOWING THE ENGLISH LEARNERS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will focus on research question number one: How does participation in the workshops influence elementary interns' understanding of English learners' socio-affective issues? First I will begin with a discussion of the preliminary data that was collected on the interns, mentors and English learners. I will begin the preliminary data section with a general description of each of the four interns who participated in this study. Following the description of each intern, I will describe the English learners who were assigned to their classrooms during the 2006-2007 school year, the year the study took place. Next, I will discuss the interns' and mentors' beliefs about English learners before the study and follow with a discussion of changes that took place in the interns' beliefs after the study. After the discussion of the preliminary data, I will describe the workshops that focused on socio-affective issues. Although the focus of the workshops was designed to shift to academic issues after the second workshop session, the topic of socio-affective issues continued to be a topic of discussion in later workshop sessions. I will describe changes I observed in the interns' accommodation of English learners that occurred throughout the study as a result of the workshops.

4.2 DESCRIPTION OF PARTICIPANTS

All four of the interns who participated in this study were female, native speakers of English and were educated in the U.S. These four interns claimed to have no prior training in meeting the needs of English language learners either in their teacher certification program or through any teacher development programs at their internship site. At the internship site, the Falk School, the interns were assigned to four different classrooms and were responsible for teaching children in more than one grade level, due to the multi-age grouping at the Falk School. I will describe each of the four interns' backgrounds based upon the data I collected from their questionnaires (see Appendix D) and transcripts from the first workshop session.

After the description of each intern, I will describe the ten English learners who were assigned to the participating interns' classrooms. At the time of the study, all English learners were completely mainstreamed for all subject areas. The Falk School did not have an ESL instructor and therefore, did not provide any language support services for English learners. However, the Falk School provided tutors for two English learners who were new arrivals from Germany during the 2006-2007 school year. The tutors were German majors from the University of Pittsburgh who worked as translators in the classroom during content area lessons. The ten English learners who were assigned to the interns' classes represent six different countries and six different language backgrounds. The families of all English learners that will be discussed in this study moved to the U.S. because a parent received a job offer or decided to pursue graduate studies in the Pittsburgh area. Table 3 lists each of the participating interns, the grade levels to which they were assigned, the names of the English learners in their classrooms and the English learners' first languages. A detailed description of each intern and their English learners identified by pseudonyms will follow the table.

Table 3: Background information on participating interns and English learners

Intern	Grade levels	English learners	First language
Angela	1, 2	Marco Kamile Akira	Italian Turkish Japanese
Kerry	3, 4	Jung Kenji	Korean Japanese/English
Krista	3, 4	Gino Stella	Italian German
Hannah	4, 5	Acel Miki Sasha	German Japanese Russian

4.2.1 Angela

Angela was assigned to a classroom of students in grades one and two at the Falk School. She was an enthusiastic participant in this study and agreed to participate immediately after hearing about the study in December of 2006. Angela reported a high degree of interest in learning about teaching students from other cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Her interest in culturally and linguistically diverse students is likely influenced by her background. Angela reported a tremendous amount of language learning experience. She studied French for five years in high school in addition to one year of Chinese. Angela went on to continue her study of French for one semester in college, but then became interested in Japanese. She studied Japanese during all four years of college including a semester of study abroad in Japan. Angela stated that she could understand the struggles faced by English learners in U.S. classrooms because she had experienced similar struggles during her study in Japan. During one of our conversations, she reported several incidents of her attempts to communicate with speakers of Japanese that occurred during her semester abroad.

When you're in a foreign country and you're trying to get your point across, you are being really explicit with your language, like "I want a chair," (Angela points to a chair and gestures sitting.)

4.2.2 Angela's English Learners

Akira. Akira's parents moved from Japan to the U.S. before she was born. Although Akira was born in the U.S., Japanese is her first language. The family continues to speak Japanese at home and Akira attends a Japanese school on the weekends. Akira's older sister also attends Falk. On the survey, her parents describe Akira's fluency in Japanese as nearly native and that she switches between the two languages without difficulty. Angela reports that Akira is a good reader and says that she willingly participates in class activities.

Kamile. Kamile was also born in the U.S. but her family returned to their home in Turkey when she was three months old. Her parents listed Turkish as Kamile's first language on the language survey. The family returned to the U.S. for job offers when Kamile was two years old and they report speaking both English and Turkish at home. Kamile does not receive any formal reading and writing instruction in Turkish. Her parents report that Kamile prefers English, but will speak in Turkish when surrounded by other speakers of Turkish. Angela describes Kamile as a struggling reader and reports that other students become easily frustrated with Kamile in reading groups because of her slow pace of reading.

Marco. Marco's family moved to the U.S. from Italy just before Marco started first grade at the Falk School. Marco's older brother also attends Falk. Marco had completed kindergarten in Italy and was just beginning to learn English at his school in Italy. His mother reports that Italian is spoken at home and that she reads to him in Italian every day. She also states that

Marco reads a bit and writes some in Italian. Angela describes Marco as one of her most challenging English learners because he struggles with reading more than any of her other students and she reports that he has problems socializing with other students.

4.2.3 Krista

Krista was assigned to grades three and four and was another enthusiastic participant in this study. She had studied Spanish for only two years in high school, but her background included travel experiences to several non-English speaking countries. Krista had traveled through Brazil, Venezuela, South Africa and many countries in Asia including India, Vietnam, Hong Kong, China and Japan. She also reports that her family had hosted foreign exchange students during her high school years. Krista explained that the experience of attempting to communicate with exchange students and her experiences traveling to non English-speaking countries have motivated her to learn about meeting the needs of English learners in her classroom. In the following comment, Krista tells about how her experiences with language and travel have contributed to her understanding of English learners.

I went to Brazil, Venezuela, South Africa, India, Japan, China, so uh, I was definitely able to experience what it's like to be in a country and not read the language, not speak it, but try to uh, get through. That was very interesting to me because my German student at the beginning of the year was always complaining of headaches, and my mentor was like, "Why does she get so many headaches?" and I said, "It's stimulus overload, she's constantly trying to translate every word." I felt like I could really empathize with her.

4.2.4 Krista's English learners

Gino. Gino's first language is Italian and he had attended school in Italy from kindergarten through second grade. Gino's younger brother, Marco, is in Angela's class. His mother reports that Gino learned to read and write in Italian and describes his performance in his former school as good. She also states that he was learning English in school and spoke English well before moving to the U.S. Krista describes Gino as a good reader and says that he loves to read. In fact, she states that Gino always brings a book to read on the playground because he has difficulty interacting with other students at recess. Krista is especially concerned about Gino's inability to make friends because she knows that his family plans to move again at the end of the school year.

Stella. Stella's first language is German. Her family moved to the U.S. from Germany only two weeks before the start of the school year due to a parent's job transfer. Stella has an older brother at Falk. Stella's parents report that she had three months of private lessons in English before the family arrived in the U.S. Stella had completed two years of school in Germany and learned to read and write in German, although her parents say that Stella's spelling needs more practice. Her parents report that they speak German at home, they read and write with Stella and her older brother in German and that they have age related school books in German. Because Stella started the school year with very little ability to communicate in English, The Falk School provided German tutors (university students who were German majors at the time of the study) to help Stella understand and participate in lessons. Krista described Stella as a student who loves to read, but struggles with writing. Krista also describes Stella as very outgoing and having a large group of girl friends.

4.2.5 Kerry

Kerry was assigned to another classroom of students in grades three and four and willingly participated in this study although she was not aware of any English learners in her classroom at the time of the first meeting in December. Kerry was interested in interviewing for teaching jobs in an area that serves a large population of culturally and linguistically diverse students. Kerry did not report any travel experiences to non-English speaking countries, but spent a semester in London during her junior year of undergraduate studies. Although she did not experience a language barrier, Kerry reported that she had learned to deal with cultural differences between the U.S. and Europe during her study abroad. She had also studied Spanish in high school and spent a summer working as a reading tutor for elementary children of Mexican immigrants in Eastern Pennsylvania.

4.2.6 Kerry's English learners

Jung. Jung was born in the U.S., but his first language is Korean. Jung's parents came to the U.S. from Korea as graduate students. His parents report that Korean is the language that is spoken at home and that Jung attends Korean school every Saturday. Because of his participation in the Korean school, Jung's parents report that he reads and writes pretty well in Korean. Kerry reports that Jung participates fully in all lessons and describes him as an excellent student.

Kenji. Kenji was born in Japan and his parents report that he acquired both English and Japanese at the same time. Kenji's mother is American and his father is Japanese. In Japan, Kenji attended an international school where he received instruction in English. After the family

moved to the U.S., the family continues to speak both Japanese and English at home. Kerry reports that Kenji receives reading support at the Falk School and that he easily becomes inattentive and misbehaves during lessons.

4.2.7 Hannah

Hannah was assigned to a classroom of students in grades four and five. She became interested in this study because of the difficulties she had encountered early in the school year when trying to communicate with a student in her classroom who had just arrived from Germany in the summer. Hannah was also motivated to learn about the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students because of her Latino family background. Hannah has always lived in southwestern Pennsylvania, but has relatives in Texas, Mexico and the Dominican Republic. Hannah's background influenced her to study Spanish in high school for four years and then to continue with Spanish in college. Hannah has traveled to Texas with her family to visit their relatives and described the Tex-Mex culture of her relatives' neighborhood as very different than the culture of southwestern Pennsylvania. Hannah has also traveled to Mexico and the Dominican Republic for short visits with relatives, although she reports using her Spanish very little during her travels because of the availability of English speakers.

4.2.8 Hannah's English learners

Acel. Acel's first language is German. He and his sister Stella, in Krista's class, were new arrivals to the U.S. at the beginning of the school year. His parents report that he is a good reader in German and that he practices reading and writing in German school books at home.

Acel, like his sister Stella, had three months of private lessons in English and was provided with tutors who were German majors at the university. Hannah recalls having serious difficulties communicating with Acel early in the school year, but says that he is rapidly making progress.

Miki. Miki's first language is Japanese and her family speaks only Japanese at home. She has a younger sister, Akira, in Angela's class. Like her sister, Miki attends Japanese school on Sundays. Her parents describe Miki's fluency in Japanese as nearly native and that she switches between languages easily. Hannah reports that Miki actively participates in class without difficulty.

Sasha. Sasha was adopted from Russia at the age of 35 months. Her first language is Russian, but her parents speak only English at home. Her parents state that it took about one year for Sasha to catch up to other preschoolers when learning to speak English. Hannah describes Sasha as a shy child, but says that she does not have any difficulties participating in class activities.

4.3 INTERNS' AND MENTORS' BELIEFS ABOUT ENGLISH LEARNERS BEFORE THE STUDY

In this section, I will present the results of the survey data collected on the interns' and mentors' beliefs about English learners. Before the workshops began, each intern and her mentor were asked to complete a survey regarding their beliefs about English language learners. The attitude survey (see Appendix C) asked interns and mentors their opinions about their English learners. One of the goals of the survey was to establish what kinds of opinions the interns had about the English learners in their classrooms before their opinions could be

influenced by the discussions that would take place during the workshops. Another goal of the surveys was to examine whether or not their opinions were influenced by their mentors. The interns were also asked to complete the same survey a second time during the last workshop so that I could compare the answers the interns gave before and after the study and look for changes in their opinions.

4.3.1 Intern beliefs before the study

Table 4 shows the interns’ answers to the survey questions. On the actual survey, each question was phrased as a statement such as, “I believe that English learners should be mainstreamed in all academic classes with English-speaking students.” In order to condense the information for the chart, each statement from the survey has been summarized as a phrase beginning with a verb. The subject “English learners” is the implied subject of each phrase below. Answer choices on the survey are as follows: SA (strongly agree), A (agree), D (disagree) and SD (strongly disagree). For the purpose of the chart and discussion, SA and A responses will be called agree and SD and D responses will be called disagree.

Table 4: Interns’ responses to survey questions before the study
Table 4

Question	Angela	Kerry	Krista	Hannah
Should be mainstreamed	D	A	A	A
Capable of mastering academic objectives	A	A	A	D
Will pass to next grade level	A	A	A	A
Understand most classroom talk	D	A	A	A
Speak English better in social situations	A	A	A	A
Should speak English at all times at school	D	D	D	A
Use of first language interferes with English	D	D	D	D
Are trying to do their best academically	A	A	A	A

Overall, the results of the survey show that the interns had favorable opinions of their English learners before the study. All four interns agreed that their English learners are trying to do their best academically and that they are likely to pass to the next grade level. Also, all four interns disagreed that the use of the English learners' first language would interfere with their ability to acquire English, meaning that they believed the use of an English learners' first language would not harm their ability to acquire English.

Three of the four interns stated that they believe English learners should be mainstreamed and that they are capable of mastering the academic objectives of the class. Three of the four interns disagreed that English learners should speak English at all times when at school, meaning that three of the interns believe that it is acceptable for an English learner to use his or her first language at school. When asked about the English learners' social and academic language, all interns reported they agree that their ELs speak English better in social situations than academic situations. However, three of the four interns circled agree when asked if English learners understand most classroom talk.

In some cases, the interns circled an answer and followed with a written comment. Angela reported that she disagreed with mainstreaming explaining that she believes mainstreaming should not be enforced at the expense of the English learners. Angela expanded upon her response by saying that "an English learner who doesn't understand a single word of a lesson would not benefit from mainstreaming." Hannah circled disagree when asked if her English learners were capable of mastering the academic objectives of the class. She explained that one of her English learners had such little English proficiency when he arrived that to expect him to master academic objectives may be expecting too much. Also, Hannah stated that she agreed that English learners should use English in school at all times. She explained further that English

learners should not be penalized for using their native language at school, but that it is important for them to speak English as much as possible at school so that they can improve their English proficiency.

4.3.2 Comparison of participating interns' beliefs to other interns

Although the four interns who participated in this study held mostly positive beliefs about English learners prior to the study, their beliefs may not be representative of the rest of the elementary interns at the University of Pittsburgh. In October of 2007, I surveyed the three intern cohorts during their language arts methodology classes in search of participants of this study. I received a total of fifty-one completed surveys. Of the fifty-one surveys, sixteen interns reported having at least one English learner in their classrooms. Of the sixteen, nine interns expressed interest in the study while seven interns stated that they were not interested in the study.

I asked for permission to review the interns' applications to the elementary Master's of Arts in Teaching program to examine background information on the interns with English learners who chose not to participate. As part of the application process, the interns were asked to provide a resume and to write a goal statement highlighting their experiences with children. Six of the seven interns who chose not to participate in the study reported only local experiences with children such as working in daycare centers, babysitting, serving as camp counselors and coaching sports in suburban areas of Pittsburgh. One of the seven interns who chose not to participate reported that she had spent a semester at sea. This intern was the only one of the seven who reported any experience with other languages and cultures. In contrast, Krista wrote about her experiences as a volunteer in an orphanage in South America and Angela wrote about

her desire to work with children of diverse backgrounds after tutoring inner city high school students in Japanese. Each of the four interns who participated in this study had prior experiences with people from other cultures either through travel, study abroad, tutoring or hosting exchange students. I do not have evidence that the interns who refused participation in the study did so because of their lack of contact with cultures other than their own. However, the four interns who chose to participate in this study showed evidence that they had been influenced by their background experiences.

4.3.3 Mentor beliefs

Because one of the goals of the surveys was to examine the influence of the mentors' beliefs on the interns' beliefs, I compared the responses to the interns' attitude survey to the responses of their mentors. Table 5 shows each the interns' and mentors' responses.

Table 5: Interns' and mentors' responses to survey questions

Question	Angela Mentor		Krista Mentor	
Should be mainstreamed	D	A	A	A
Capable of mastering academic objectives	A	A	A	A
Will pass to next grade level	A	A	A	A
Understand most classroom talk	D	A	A	A
Speak English better in social situations	A	D	A	?
Should speak English at all times at school	D	A	D	A
Use of first language interferes with English	D	D	D	?
Are trying to do their best academically	A	A	A	A

Question	Hannah Mentor	Kerry Mentor		
Should be mainstreamed	A	A	A	A
Capable of mastering academic objectives	D	D	A	A
Will pass to next grade level	A	A	A	A
Understand most classroom talk	A	A	A	A
Speak English better in social situations	A	A	A	A
Should speak English at all times at school	A	A	D	D
Use of first language interferes with English	D	A	D	D
Are trying to do their best academically	A	A	A	A

Three of the four interns were in agreement with their mentors on most questions of the attitude survey. In fact, Kerry and her mentor gave the same answers to every question on the survey. Hannah and her mentor differed only in that her mentor agreed that the use of the first language would interfere with an English learner's acquisition of English. Krista and her mentor also differed only on one item, but the mentor did not answer two of the eight questions. Krista's mentor agreed that English learners should speak English at all times when at school and she wrote "don't know" next to the questions about the use of English in social situations and the use of the first language.

Angela and her mentor differed in their opinions on half of the survey items. Angela's mentor stated that she disagrees that English learners should be mainstreamed with English-speaking students in all academic classes and disagrees that English learners speak English better in social situations than in academic situations. Angela's mentor also stated that she agrees English learners understand almost everything that is said in class and that they should speak English at all times while they are at school.

4.3.4 Mentors' influence on interns' beliefs

I must note that the preliminary information was collected during the second semester of the school year, just before the start of the study. After working together for approximately half of the school year, the interns' opinions of English learners may have been influenced by their mentor's opinions. It seems that the mentors' opinions did have an influence on three of the interns, Hannah, Krista and Kerry, because of their similar responses to the survey questions. For example, Hannah and her mentor both agreed that English learners should speak English at all times when at school. In the following comment, Hannah talks about a conversation she had with her mentor about Acel.

I do, I feel whenever we talk about Acel, the one that came from Germany without any English, there was kind of a lot of talk about "what do we do? Do we fully immerse?" or "do we get tutors?" We ended up getting tutors from the university, translators from the university. And after Christmas there was all of a sudden a boom with him. And then he was overusing them at that point because when we had the one, the one who doesn't let him use him as a crutch, then he's like answering questions on his own and stuff, but with others he kinda talks through them.

In our discussions throughout the workshops, Hannah often voiced the opinion that Acel had become proficient in English. Based upon this comment, it seems that Hannah and her mentor were in agreement that Acel had learned sufficient English during his six months at Falk that he should be required to use English at all times. In Angela’s case, she openly disagreed with her mentor during the discussion at the first session about many issues related to the English learners in her classroom. When asked how she handles these differences in opinion, Angela stated, “I just shutup. I mean, it’s her classroom, I have no opinion.”

4.3.5 Intern’s beliefs about English learners after the study

On the last day of the workshops, interns were asked to complete the survey for a second time for the purpose of examining change in the interns’ beliefs as a result of the study. Table 6 shows the change in the interns’ responses to the survey questions after the study. In most cases, only one answer is given because the interns’ opinions remained the same after the study as before the study. Two answers are listed only when change occurred in the interns’ opinions. In this case, the first answer indicated was the answer given before the study and the second answer was given after the study.

Table 6: Change in the interns’ responses to survey questions after the study

Question	Angela	Kerry	Krista	Hannah
Should be mainstreamed	D-A	A	A	A
Capable of mastering academic objectives	A	A	A	D-A
Will pass to next grade level	A	A	A	A
Understand most classroom talk	D	A	A-D	A
Speak English better in social situations	A	A	A	A
Should speak English at all times at school	D	D	D	A
Use of first language interferes with English	D	D	D	D
Are trying to do their best academically	A	A	A	A

Because the interns' opinions of English learners were mostly positive before the study, it is not surprising that there was little change in their opinions after the study. As the chart shows, Angela changed her opinion about mainstreaming. Prior to the study she disagreed with mainstreaming English learners, but after the study stated that she agreed with mainstreaming. Hannah believed prior to the study that English learners are not capable of mastering the academic objectives of the class, but changed her opinion after the study. Krista believed that her English learners understood most classroom talk before the study, but her response changed after the study. I am surprised that Kerry and Hannah did not change their opinions about English learners' comprehension of classroom talk and that Hannah maintained her opinion that English learners should speak English at all times in school.

4.4 SESSION 1: INTERNS LEARN WHO COUNTS AS AN ENGLISH LEARNER

During the second week of March of 2007 the interns and I met for the first workshop session. One of the goals of the first workshop session was to discuss the background of their English learners. The interns brought the administration's copy of the list of Falk students identified as English learners to the first workshop session; however, the question of who counts as an English learner was one of the main topics of discussion during the first workshop session. According to the list, there were a total of fifteen English learners enrolled in the four interns' classes, rather than the ten described earlier in this chapter. The interns debated the accuracy of the list by citing examples of students in their classrooms who they believed did not fit the description of an English learner. For instance, the interns named several students on the list who speak English fluently at school but attend Hebrew school on weekends. The interns did not

believe the children who attend Hebrew school counted as English learners because they believed these students are fluent in English and are learning Hebrew as a foreign language.

I asked the interns how the list of English learners was established. The interns reported that their mentors had read the questions from Pennsylvania's Home Language Survey (see Appendix B) aloud to the class and recorded the answers given by the students. Because Falk is a private school, the state does not require Falk to have the Home Language Survey completed by parents. The interns reported that when the mentors asked students for information to answer the second question on the Home Language Survey, "Does the student speak a language other than English?" the children who are learning a foreign language outside of school, such as those who go to Hebrew school, raised their hands and were counted as English learners. As a result, students who speak English as a first language but are in the process of learning a second language were mistakenly added to the list of Falk's English learners.

After hearing this information, I decided to create my own language survey (see Appendix M) that would actually be completed by all parents of Falk students enrolled in the four interns' classrooms. I spoke with the director of the Falk School who not only granted permission for me to distribute the survey, but stated that he would like to have all parents complete the survey during parent conferences. The Falk parents completed the surveys during the day of conferences, allowing me and the interns to determine which students in their classrooms would qualify as English learners. With neither an ESL specialist nor the testing required at the public schools, we decided to count all students whose parents reported that their child acquired a language other than English as their first language and any student whose parents reported that the family speaks a language than English at home. The results of the parent surveys allowed the interns to learn more about the English learners' backgrounds, especially in regards to the

language spoken at home. For example, Kerry learned that two students in her classroom, Jung and Kenji, fit the description of an English learner. Prior to the survey, Kerry did not think that any of her students were English learners, but after the survey she learned that Jung speaks only Korean at home and Kenji's parents listed Japanese and English as his first languages.

4.5 SESSION 2: RAISING AWARENESS ABOUT SOCIAL AND AFFECTIVE ISSUES

One of my goals in conducting the workshops was to raise the interns' awareness of the social and affective issues faced by the English learners in their classrooms. Part of the second workshop was devoted to a short language immersion experience. I wanted the interns to experience how an English learner feels while participating in a lesson that is not in his or her first language. Because of my background as a French teacher, I was able to create a lesson in French that contains the characteristics of a traditional language arts lesson. I chose a short dialogue about two tourists buying postcard stamps in Paris that was followed by true and false questions (see Appendix N). The lesson was designed to last about fifteen minutes. I thought that amount of time was long enough for the interns to feel uncomfortable and experience the struggle of attempting to follow a lesson using primarily contextual clues.

4.5.1 French lesson

I began the second session with a mini lesson in French, which I started without prior discussion in English. I began by explaining in French that we were about to read a dialogue and then distributed papers to them. The interns were stunned. The only smile I saw came from Angela, who had studied French for several years. The lesson began with the reading of a dialogue. All interns were assigned a role in the dialogue and were told to read the character's lines aloud. They read aloud and followed along as best they could, but obviously struggled with the French pronunciation. Following the reading, the interns were asked to answer true and false questions about the reading. They were instructed to read each question and mark their answers without talking to anyone else or looking at anyone else's paper. Then, I went over the questions and correct answers with the interns as they checked their papers. Angela was the only one to get all of the answers right. The other three interns were able to guess about half of the answers correctly.

After the French lesson was completed, I explained in English that we would continue by discussing their impressions of the lesson. My English directions were met with sighs of relief. First, our discussion focused on the interns' feelings during the lesson. Krista stated, "I just want to go hug my English learners and say, 'I understand!'" All of the interns (including Angela, who had studied French) said that they felt nervous when I started to speak in French. Hannah added that she felt everything moved too quickly because I did not give enough wait time. Next, I asked the interns to make connections between their feelings during the French lesson and what it would feel like for an English learner to participate in a lesson in English. Angela mentioned that based on her experience, it is probably physically and mentally exhausting for the children to function in school in a language and culture that is different from their own. Kerry stated that

she felt stupid, noting that she felt as if the other interns understood the lesson and knew all of the correct answers. Kerry added that in her classroom, other students often reinforce this feeling of stupidity for an English learner. She stated that sometimes other students correct the English learners in a tone of voice that suggests that the English learners' response was completely incorrect. The following comments are from our discussion:

Hannah: But I think it's worse the way the kids do it (referring to pronunciation corrections), when they all correct them several times...

Kerry: Yes, like some of my boys, some of the kids are like, "it's THIS," like, obviously. It's just the tone of voice.

After discussing their feelings during the French lesson, we discussed the strategies that the interns used to cope with the language barrier and participate in the lesson. Kerry stated, "I looked at where the teacher pointed and I looked at her hand motions." All interns agreed that they looked at me for nonverbal cues. This observation led the interns to realize how difficult it could be for an English learner to understand a lesson when the teacher relies only on verbal communication during instruction. The interns observed that nonverbal communication such as pictures, writing on the board, pointing and gestures were very important to facilitate an English learner's comprehension of classroom talk.

Later, the discussion focused on other strategies the interns used to understand the lesson and how the use of these strategies affected their understanding. Most of the interns stated that they looked for French words that are similar to English words to aid in their comprehension of the text. However, the search for English words took their full attention away from the events of the dialogue. In the following conversation, the interns showed that they were beginning to

understand how difficult it could be for an English learner to focus on understanding the language of a lesson while also trying to comprehend the content.

Hannah: I was just looking for context and words I know like, thank you, yes, souvenir and stuff like that.

Krista: I was just looking for words that look similar to English, but while I was doing that I was totally missing the story.

Hannah: Yeah, you're not really thinking about it until you're looking to see if you're answers are right or wrong.

Kerry: Yeah, even if I knew what an individual word means, I don't know what the sentence means, so I'd like, tune out because I don't know what the sentence means.

The French lesson allowed me to accomplish two goals. First, the experience of participating in a lesson in another language built the interns' empathy for their English learners. Secondly, the interns were able to identify the importance of contextual clues in teaching content through a second language. The French lesson served as a reference point for the discussion of English learners' socio-affective issues in session two as well as the discussion of academic issues that would follow in later workshop sessions.

4.5.2 Interns' discussion of English learners' socio- affective issues

The interns were successful in making connections between their experiences in the French lesson to their English learners' experiences in the classroom. To ensure that our discussion moved from the interns' feelings about the French lesson to a focus on English learners' feelings,

I assigned a reading from *Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture* that provided the interns with the insights given by an English learner. The interns read about the background of the main character of the book, an English learner named Deng, whose family had moved to the U.S. as refugees. The discussion of how Deng's background experiences affected him in school forced the interns to think about how their English learners' backgrounds may affect them at school. The interns began to discuss some of the social challenges that their English learners encountered because of cultural differences. The following comments are from Hannah and Krista as they discussed some of the social challenges Stella and Acel experienced early in the school year as new arrivals from Germany.

Krista: I'll never forget one of the first days of school, my one English learners went up to another girl and kissed her on the cheek. And that girl was like, "Miss K, she kissed me!" and I said she was just showing that she wants to be your friend, she likes you. But here, that's just so inappropriate.

Hannah: And I think we require more personal space. At first Acel was playing really rough with other boys and kids were telling on him and it was like, "ok, we don't play that way in America."

Krista: And like, holding hands. She would want to hold my hand a lot. I remember when she just came, she wanted to hold people's hands all the time. Even when we're reading she would try to hold girls' hands and they're like, "no, no," and she would think, "oh, she doesn't like me."

Throughout the discussion, the interns did not express negative views by framing their English learners as behavior problems. Instead, the interns showed that they were beginning to understand that their English learners' social challenges are the result of a cultural mismatch.

Our discussion about English learners' social challenges raised the interns' awareness that the affective issues faced by English learners are just as important as the academic issues.

4.6 INTERNERS TAKE ACTION WITH ENGLISH LEARNERS' SOCIAL AND AFFECTIVE ISSUES

One intern in particular was very concerned about the social difficulties she witnessed with an English learner in her classroom. Krista was very concerned about Gino, her English learner from Italy. Although Krista found Gino to be a very nice child, she noticed that he rarely played with any other children at recess. Krista became so interested in Gino's lack of socialization that she was motivated to focus her Master's thesis project on finding ways to help Gino socially adjust to his new environment. After the second workshop session, Krista told me about her plans to focus her thesis project on Gino and asked for my advice. I told Krista to observe Gino in specific social situations where he seems to struggle and then design an intervention where she could model socially appropriate recess behavior. Krista followed my suggestion and was kind enough to allow me to use her project as data for my study. In the next section, I will describe Krista's observations of Gino and the intervention she designed for her project.

4.6.1 Krista's project: Understanding Gino's difficulties at recess

Krista was very concerned about Gino because she had observed him struggle to fit in socially with other students in her classroom. Gino was not an aggressive child, but Krista had observed

that his methods of initiating play, which included tackling other boys, were not acceptable to American children. After being rejected by the other boys, Gino withdrew and began to spend recess alone. Krista had expressed her concerns to her mentor and other teachers at the Falk School, but was told by her colleagues that it was just Gino's personality to be a loner. Krista did not agree with her colleagues because she had observed Gino making attempts to socialize earlier in the school year, but was always rejected by other students. The following is a description of Krista's observations of Gino's social struggles as quoted from her thesis.

Gino seemed to isolate himself from the rest of the class. Anytime he was supposed to do group work during class, he would hide in the library and read a book. I noted that many times on the playground, kids would be yelling at him to get away. He didn't seem to fit in anywhere. Whenever he wanted to play with a group of boys, he would go over and tackle them. That in turn would get the boys upset, and they would tell him to leave them alone. I've noted that sometimes he would bring a book outside and just read under a tree while other students would be playing kickball, football and foursquare. It is almost like he enters another world when he reads, and it is hard for him to come back to reality.

4.6.2 Creating the lunch bunch

Krista wanted to help Gino fit in with other students, but to do so in a way that would not make him feel that he had a problem. She decided to create a club for all of the students in grades three and four whose families had lived outside of the U.S. The club included Gino, Stella, Acel, one American student who had lived in Brazil for three years and another American student whose family was planning a move to Japan. Krista named the club "the lunch bunch" and even made invitations so that the students would feel that something special was happening. In the first lunch bunch meeting, Krista held a group discussion where she asked the students to

share their impressions of the differences that they had noticed between American children and children in the other countries where they had lived.

Gino really opened himself to the group and described why he hated American boys. He reported that he thinks Americans always want to play video games and that he wasn't familiar with the sports that American boys like to play such as baseball, football and kickball. Gino said that he tried to participate in a kickball game at recess, but when he asked another student how to play, he was told, "It's just like baseball except you kick." Obviously, this explanation was insufficient considering Gino had never played baseball. As a result, his attempt to participate in kickball and to fit in with the American boys was a failure. The other lunch bunch students were supportive of Gino and all of them shared stories of similar recess incidents.

4.6.3 Kickball lessons

After learning about Gino's struggle to learn to play kickball, Krista decided to use a lunch bunch session to teach the game of kickball. Krista drew a baseball diamond on the chalkboard and explained key vocabulary such as catcher, bunting, foul ball, innings and pitch. Then she placed pillows on the floor where bases would be located and, acting as the pitcher, she rolled a ball to each student giving each child the opportunity to kick and run around the bases. Finally, Krista took the lunch bunch outside to practice a real game of kickball. The very next day she announced to all students in grades three and four that she was starting organized kickball games for any student who wanted to play. Twenty-six students joined the game and all of the lunch bunch students were active participants in the game. Krista noticed that Gino was a very good kicker and that he received praise from the other boys. The following are excerpts from Krista's project as she explains the changes she witnessed in Gino after his participation in kickball:

During the next lunch bunch meeting, I asked the students how they felt during recess. All of them agreed that they love to play kickball now! Gino stopped bringing his books to recess. He was also getting a lot of positive praise from the other children. I was seeing his self esteem improve tremendously!

I watched as the “popular” fourth grade boys invited Gino to sit with them at lunch. They asked him more and more questions about life in Italy. It was obvious that Gino was on a high because he didn’t stop smiling the whole day. Instead of being yelled at by the other children, he was being welcomed.

Krista was enthusiastic about her success with Gino and shared the results of her lunch bunch meetings with the other interns at the beginning of sessions four and six. Although the content of workshop sessions four and six were focused on academic language and SIOP model strategies, the topic of English learners’ socio-affective issues was a recurrent theme of our discussions in every workshop session. The discussion of Krista’s project introduced the other three interns to the importance of modeling appropriate behavior and motivated another intern to take action with one of her English learners’ social and affective issues.

4.6.4 Marco’s difficulties with reading partners

Angela was encouraged by Krista’s success with Gino and wanted to find a way to help his younger brother, Marco. Angela had noticed that Marco was a struggling reader and, although she had a few struggling readers in her classroom, Marco was progressing much more slowly in comparison to other struggling readers. In Angela’s classroom, students were placed in pairs or small groups that she called reading partners to give students opportunities to read aloud. Angela reported that it was difficult to find other students who were willing to work with Marco as a reading partner because the other students felt that Marco read too slowly. The problem was

worse than Angela realized. During one of my observations of Angela's lesson, I witnessed and recorded a situation that took place between Marco and his reading partners that shocked Angela. In the next section, I will describe the lesson I observed which I will call the bad reading partner lesson.

4.6.5 Bad reading partners

At the beginning of the lesson, Angela had taught the words reduce, reuse and recycle. She asked students to think of ways that they could reduce, reuse and recycle in order to help the environment. Then, she put the students into small groups according to reading ability level. Marco was placed in a group with two other students who Angela considered to be struggling readers; Kamile, who is also an English learner, and Jane, whose first language is English. Each group was assigned a book related to the topic of Earth Day and was instructed to take turns reading aloud. After reading the book, the group was told to identify ways to reduce, reuse and recycle that were suggested in the reading.

I was navigating between the two groups that contained English learners when I heard Marco say, "I hate reading!" and move to the end of the table, away from his group. Angela, who was circulating around the classroom, didn't hear his comment but later noticed that Marco was sitting far away from his group. She walked over and told Marco that it would be very difficult for him to read with his partners while sitting so far away from them. Marco moved back with his group and Angela observed as each student took his or her turn to read without incident. Angela helped Marco when he struggled to read a word aloud while the other students in the group sat silently. After Angela left the group, I decided to focus my attention and videotape on Marco's group because I suspected that the group interaction pattern would change without

Angela's presence. The following transcription is a portion of the reading partner interaction that began with Marco's next turn to read aloud after Angela had walked away.

Jane: Marco, you have to read this and this and this (*pointing to paragraphs*) and (*inaudible, but obviously protesting and pushes the book away*)

Marco: Ok, I'm not reading all this (*points to a page of the book*)

Jane: But it's your turn!

(*group distracted by another group getting in trouble, any conversation at this time inaudible*)

Marco: (*Marco begins to read*) Energy... (*struggles with next word, making it inaudible*)

Jane: What? (*laughs*) Energy burns, (*emphasizing burns*)

Marco: Oh, (*continues reading, but in a softer voice making next couple of words inaudible*)

Jane: Marco! Read for real!

Kamile: Ok Marco, start over.

Marco: (*Marco begins reading again*) When children...

(*Jane makes silly voices, Marco grabs her pencil and slams it down*)

Marco: You always go (*making funny voices in the same way as Jane*), don't do that again!

Kamile: I don't do that! (*referring to silly voices*) Just read for real!

I was shocked and saddened to see the treatment that Marco received from his reading partners and knew that Angela would be too. It seemed that the students knew that they could taunt Marco when Angela was focused on another group, but I observed that they did not taunt him when she was present. I spoke with Angela briefly after the lesson and told her that we would watch the video of the incident during our next workshop session.

By the time session six began, all of the interns had heard that we were going to see evidence of students taunting an English learner during group work caught on video. As we watched the

portion of the video where Marco was taunted by his reading partners, Angela shook her head in disbelief. All interns expressed the concern that this same situation could be happening to English learners in their classrooms during small group work when they are busy circulating among the groups. The interns noted that they think English learners are only safe from taunting when the teacher is present.

Krista: After seeing this, I just want to do a lesson having the students bring in children's books in their own language....

Angela: And say to the others, "Yeah, now you try and read!"

Krista: Yeah, and have them try and answer questions. Because after seeing this, I know this is going on in my classroom all the time.

All interns, especially Krista and Angela, seemed frustrated by this video and wanted to find a way to help the other students become more understanding of English learners. After viewing the situation with Marco's reading partners, Krista and Angela wanted to design a lesson to help other the other students in Marco's class become more understanding and patient with him during reading partner activities. Because one of the goals of the following workshop, session seven, was to address small group instruction, I decided to devote a portion of the workshop session to designing a lesson that would address students' reactions to Marco in reading partner activities. In the next section, I will describe session seven and the lesson that Krista, Angela and I designed that was intended to help Marco successfully participate with others children during small group work.

4.7 SESSION 7: SMALL GROUP INSTRUCTION

The focus of session seven was to instruct the interns on how to design small group and whole group instruction to address the needs of English learners. The interns were instructed to read two chapters from *Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture* that discussed an English learner's reactions to small group and whole group instruction. The authors of *Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture* noted that Deng, the English learner studied by the authors, rarely participated during whole group instruction but participated often during small group instruction. The interns and I discussed why an English learner would participate more in small groups than in whole group instruction led by the teacher.

Hannah: I think that they're less embarrassed to talk when it's not in front of the whole class, and they can say, "wait, say that again," it's not like they have to stop the whole class.

Krista: Just being able to voice your ideas and opinions. I know that with my German student, she won't raise her hand when it's in front of the whole class, but when it's in a small group, she can really open up.

Hannah: Sometimes we get other issues in small groups though, like with Angela's class (*referring to the lesson where Marco was taunted by his reading partners*) I think that without a teacher there, they can get in an argument and start yelling, I think with some of the social stuff in small groups it can be difficult for them.

The interns suggested that one of the challenges of small group instruction was student behavior and Marco's reading partner experience was proof of their concerns. We discussed the importance of teaching students the social skills necessary to work cooperatively in small groups.

Although the authors of *Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture* gave excellent examples of Deng's small group interactions, they did not tell the reader how the teacher prepared the students to work in small groups. Therefore, Krista, Angela and I designed a lesson for Angela's class. The lesson was designed to build students' compassion for English learners and teach students supportive behavior in small group activities.

The lesson we planned consisted of a story reading in a foreign language followed by a journal writing assignment. We wanted to create the same experience for Angela's students that I had created for the interns with the French lesson. Because Marco was not fully literate in Italian, we decided to ask his brother Gino to read a children's story in Italian to Angela's class. The Italian story was followed by a whole group discussion of students' feelings during the Italian story and in their attempts to complete the assignment. Finally, Angela planned a behavior modeling activity that was designed to teach students to be supportive reading partners. In the following section, I will describe the lesson that I will call the good reading partner lesson.

4.7.1 Good reading partners

Gino arrived with his book and Angela announced that there would be a special visitor coming to read to the class and called the students to sit on the floor in a half circle. She then explained to the children that they were about to try something that would be very difficult, but she wanted them to try their best. In the following transcript, Angela announced that Marco's older brother Gino was going to read a story to the class about a husky, but the story would be read in Italian.

T: Today we're going to try something really hard, it might be the first time for some of you. Gino is here and he's going to read us a story, but the story is not going to be in English, the story will be in Italian.

Marco: Yes!

T: What I want you to do is, I want you to try and figure out what the story is about. Now, most of you don't know Italian, but how do you think you'll try to figure out what the story is about? Any ideas?

S1: Some words might sound the same.

T: Good.

S2: The pictures.

T: Yes, pictures.

S3: Italian is maybe going to be like Spanish.

T: Yes, and you guys know a little Spanish.

S4: One way is if Gino knows all the words in English, he could just say it in English.

T: Well, he's not going to read it in English, he's just going to read the Italian and I want you to think about what the story is about and keep those ideas in your head, don't share them with anyone. Gino, will you come up and take the teacher reading chair?

The students seemed to be excited about this guest reader and were very attentive during the first few pages when they heard Gino's voice reading in Italian. But after a few pages, I noticed that the students became restless and started to look around the room rather than at the book, started whispering to other students and a few asked to go to the restroom. Marco sat in front, hanging on every word his brother read with his face beaming throughout the story.

At the end of the story, Angela thanked Gino for his visit and instructed the students to go to their seats, get out their reading journals and to write at least three sentences describing what they thought happened in the story. Some started working right away, but others complained, “This is too hard,” or “I don’t know what to write!” Meanwhile, Marco set up a barricade of books and folders around his journal so that no other student could copy his work. After a few minutes, Angela asked if any volunteers would like to come up and tell the class about their interpretation of the story. A few students volunteered their versions of the story and then Angela asked the class if they wanted to know what actually happened in the story. “Yes!” they exclaimed, and Marco proudly came up to the front of the room and told the class in detail the English version of what happened in the story.

After the students heard the Marco’s presentation of the story, Angela called the students back to the half circle on the floor and led a discussion about how the students felt while listening and trying to understand the story. The following transcript is from the discussion.

T: When we were trying to listen to Gino read the story, can anyone tell me how they felt when they were trying to understand the story?

S1: I felt frustrated because I knew exactly nothing!

S2: I was curious what the words were about.

S3: I felt sad because the husky was stuck in a hole.

S4: I felt kind of weird because at the end that I didn’t understand.

T: Just at the end? How did others feel?

S5: Well, I sort of understood a couple of words.

T: I understood when they said “mama” and “papa.”

Marco: I understood!

T: I know, you did, what about somebody else?

S6: I felt sort of bored because there was so many words I didn't know.

T: Bored, yes, it's not so exciting when you don't know what's going on. Sometimes, when we're reading something, it can be hard and we don't understand right away. Even when we read in English, there can be some really hard words, isn't there?

SS: yeah!

Our goal for this discussion was to create a sense of empathy for someone who is struggling to read in a new language. Although some students' comments focused only on what they understood, it seemed that some of the students had identified the feelings of frustration and boredom that an English learner would encounter when the language of a lesson is too difficult. Most students exhibited evidence of frustration and boredom by their nonverbal behavior during the story, even if they did not identify those feelings during the discussion.

Angela and I planned that this discussion would lead to the topic of reading partners. We decided that it would be important to model good reading partner behavior by first modeling bad reading partner behavior. By modeling bad behavior, students had the opportunity to identify specific characteristics that are undesirable in a reading partner. After identifying the bad behaviors, students were better able to define what makes a good reading partner. The following is a transcript of the bad behavior modeling and the discussion that followed.

T: Sometimes when we're working in reading partners, we have to be really nice and understanding of our reading partner. Sometimes it's hard for your reading partner, but not for you. And sometimes it's hard for you and not your reading partner. So, when we're reading in partners, we have to practice being good reading partners. I'd like to show you how to be a bad reading partner. Would anybody like to volunteer to be my partner to show a bad reading partner? I'm not going to be nice. *(many hands go up)*

Ok, Larry, I need you to read this paragraph right here.

(Larry begins to read, T is looking around)

Larry: People even thought they were.....(*pauses*)

T: (*with a huff, and rolling her eyes*) extinct!

Larry does not say the word right away

T: (*shouting*) Extinct!

Larry: extinct for...(*pauses*)

T: Forever! (*loudly*)

Larry continues reading

T: You forgot this word, read this word, solution (*pointing and acting impatient*)

Larry starts to slowly attempt the word “solution”

T: Come on, read it, I don’t have all day!

(*students laughing*)

Larry attempts again

T: So, you can’t read it? Solution!

(*Larry goes on with the next sentence.*)

T: There’s an exclamation point, so you have to say, “are back!” (*says with enthusiasm*)

Thank you, Larry (*patting him on the head gently*), you did a good job. And you know I didn’t mean all those things I said about you. So, when I was a bad reading partner, what did I do that was not like a nice reading partner? I did some pretty mean things. What did I do?

Marco: You kept on looking away.

S1: You kept on telling him what the words were.

T: Yeah, and was I nice when I did it?

SS: No!

T: What else did I do?

S2: You kept on rolling your eyes.

T: That isn't nice, to roll your eyes, is it?

Kamile: You were screaming at him and not saying nice things.

S3: When he forgot that word, you said "solution!" (*in a sarcastic voice*)

T: Now, if I'm a good reading partner, what should I do?

S1: You should pay attention.

S4: Don't shout at him and don't tell him the word unless he asks you.

Marco: If he doesn't read, you should ask him nicely, "Are you stuck?" and if he says yes, then give him the word nicely

S5: Don't be talking when he's reading and don't scream what the word is, try to let him sound it out.

S6: Don't say, "I don't have all day!"

Angela exaggerated the bad reading partner behaviors to draw students' attention to the negative behaviors. As an observer, I sensed that the students were shocked to see their teacher acting in such a way. In the discussion that followed the bad behavior modeling, students were quick to point out the kinds of behaviors that Angela displayed as a bad reading partner such as rolling eyes, sarcasm, shouting and impatience. Angela made it a point to call on Marco twice to identify the behaviors he considered undesirable. Even Kamile, who was a part of the taunting that took place in Marco's reading group, identified "screaming and not saying nice things" as undesirable reading partner behavior. Unfortunately Jane, Marco's other reading partner who did the majority of the taunting, was absent on the day of this lesson.

After the bad behavior modeling, Angela called on several students to model good reading partner behavior and then asked the students to identify what behaviors they observed that would be classified as good reading partner behaviors. The following transcript is Angela modeling good behavior with Marco as her reading partner.

T: Let's see, Marco, will you read the problem here and I'll be your reading partner.

(Marco reads, T patiently provides the word when Marco struggles to pronounce several words. Marco pauses.)

T: Are you stuck?

Marco: Yes.

(T provides word.)

T: Ok, thank you. What did I do to be a good reading partner?

S1: You asked him if he was stuck.

S2: And you helped him track words.

S3: You were listening.

T: Yes, good answers, you have to really listen to be a good reading partner.

After the reading partner lesson, I returned to Angela's class on another day to observe a reading lesson where students worked with reading partners. I wanted to see how Angela would follow up on her reading partner lesson and I wanted to see if there were any noticeable differences in the students' behaviors when they were assigned to read with Marco in a small group. On the day I came to observe, Angela reminded the class about the day that she showed them what a bad reading partner looks like. Then she asked the students to identify what a good reading partner looks like. Students volunteered with responses such as, "Say polite things" and "Ask them if they are stuck." Then, Angela assigned students to groups of two with Marco and

Kamile grouped together as partners. I observed Marco reading and struggling with some words. Kamile politely helped Marco with the words he could not read by supplying the word when he hesitated. The pair was on task until the assignment was completed and I did not observe any taunting. The following transcript is from the discussion Angela held after students read with partners.

T: Ok, Raise your hand if you can tell me one good thing your partner did to be a good reading partner. (*hands go up*)

S1: Help me if I got stuck on a word.

S2: She didn't look away.

S3: Listened.

Marco: She stayed focused and helped me with my words.

Jane: She was listening to the words paying attention to what to do.

S4: She helped me with a word if I needed help.

T: Good! Next time we do partner reading and I say "Be a good reading partner," you'll know what I mean, won't you?

SS: Yes!

It seemed as if the reading partner lesson was successful, at least when Angela made her expectations of behavior during partner reading clear to the students and monitored the class looking for good reading partners. Unfortunately, the interventions designed by Krista and Angela took place late in the school year. The lunch bunch meetings held by Krista and the subsequent kickball games took place in April. The good reading partner lesson and the follow up observation of Angela's reading class took place in May. Because Marco and Gino's family

moved again at the end of the school year, there is no way of knowing any long term effects of our interventions. However, the effects that these interventions made on the interns were very clear to me. Both Krista and Angela stated that they wished they had been able to do the lunch bunch and reading partner lesson early in the school year and both stated that they will do so if they ever have English learners assigned to their classrooms in the future.

4.8 SUMMARY OF THE INTERNS' CHANGES IN BELIEFS

One of the major results of the workshop sessions is that the interns learned to identify their English learners. Because the data collected by the Falk School inaccurately identified the number of English learners enrolled, the interns and I discussed the definition of an English learner within the context of Falk School students. The results of the language survey that I created and the interns distributed to parents provided us with the information necessary to identify the English learners. As a result of the discussion of the survey results, the interns learned about their English learners' backgrounds.

The data collected from the surveys show that the interns held mostly positive views of their English learners before the study. Three of the four interns may have been influenced by their mentors' opinions because their answers to the attitude survey questions were similar to their mentors' opinions. The interns' opinions also may be linked to their past experiences. All four interns reported that they had traveled abroad and had experience with people of diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. The interns referred to their past experiences during our discussions about the French lesson and the readings from *Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture*. In

our discussions about the French lesson and the English learner from *Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture*, the interns offered examples of the difficulties that arose with the English learners in their classrooms. The interns maintained positive opinions of their English learners in our discussions and showed their increased empathy towards their socio-affective issues.

The increase in empathy for English learners that resulted from the discussions in the workshops inspired two of the interns to take action in their classrooms. Angela and Krista each had an English learner who was struggling to fit in with peers. Angela knew that Marco hated working in reading partners and Krista observed that Gino did not play with other children at recess. The interaction and mentoring that took place during the workshops enabled Krista and Angela to design interventions to address the socio-affective difficulties experienced by Gino and Marco. The discussion of Gino and Marco's socio-affective difficulties and the interventions designed by Krista and Angela raised the other interns' awareness of English learners' socio-affective issues.

5.0 CHAPTER V: CHANGES IN THE INTERNS' PLANNING AND INSTRUCTION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter addresses research question number two: How does participation in the workshops influence the interns' lesson planning and instruction? I will discuss the changes that I observed in the interns' planning and instruction and the interns' opinions of the changes that occurred in their own lesson planning and instruction. Also, I will discuss the areas where I expected to see changes in the interns' planning and instruction, but did not observe any evidence of change. The data that will be used to support my findings include excerpts from our discussions in the workshop sessions, excerpts from the interns' lessons, reflections the interns wrote for each lesson I observed, English learners' writing samples, and the reflections the interns wrote for each workshop session.

I also collected the interns' lesson plans for each lesson that I observed and planned to look for evidence of change in their written lesson plans. However I learned that the interns were required to complete lesson plans according to a specific format provided by their university instructors. For this reason, I found little evidence of change in the interns' lesson plans over the course of the study. Therefore, I will refer to the observation reflection form I created (see Appendix G) when discussing changes in the intern's lesson planning. In order to complete the observation reflection form, the interns were asked to write their objective, the academic

language necessary for the lesson, the tasks provided to support learning, grouping decisions and a critical incident. The critical incident is defined as a meaningful incident in the lesson that was critical to the interns' understanding of an EL's comprehension, or lack of comprehension, during the lesson.

I will present the data collected on the changes in the interns' planning and instruction according to session topic. Workshops three and five were planned as sessions where the interns and I discussed the information contained in the readings they were assigned (see chapter three for detailed description of the workshops). Workshop three focused on the selected writings from Cummins' research on bilingual education and session five focused on two chapters from the SIOP model; "Lesson Preparation" and "Comprehensible Input." We began workshops three and five with a discussion of what the interns had understood from the readings and then reviewed examples of classroom-based scenarios that related to the readings. Following workshops three and five, I observed the interns teaching a lesson where they were asked to apply what they had learned in the workshops. In workshops four and six, the interns and I watched video clips of the lessons that I had observed and discussed how the lesson showed evidence of changes reflecting what had been presented in the previous workshop.

In this chapter, I will begin by describing the discussion of Cummins' research in session three and then I will present excerpts of two lessons that I observed after session three. I will discuss the lesson excerpts and other data I collected that show evidence of student learning and changes in the interns' planning and instruction. After presenting session three and the evidence that followed, I will present session five in the same fashion. I will present a total of four lesson excerpts, one lesson taught by each of the four interns, to show evidence of change in the interns' planning and instruction. Each of the four lessons that I chose to present are representative of the

lessons taught by the other interns. Finally, I will summarize the changes I observed in the interns' planning and instruction.

5.2 SESSION 3: DISCUSSION OF CUMMINS' RESEARCH

I introduced a portion of Cummins' research on bilingual education to the interns before presenting strategies from the SIOP model. The reason that I chose to begin with the research in bilingual education was to supply the interns with background knowledge necessary to understand the concepts used in the SIOP model. The authors of the SIOP model often refer to the terms conversational language and academic language and offer lesson examples intended to enhance English learners' academic language. However, the authors do not offer an in-depth explanation of the differences between conversational and academic language. One of the goals of session three was to introduce the interns to conversational and academic language and to discuss the differences between these two concepts.

5.2.1 Discussion of BICS And CALP

At the end of session two, I had asked the interns to read the portion of the Cummins' research on conversational language (BICS) and academic language (CALP) and to come to session three with examples of their English learners' use of conversational and academic language. Interns were asked to read The Entry and Exit Fallacy in Bilingual Education, (p. 110-147) of *An Introductory Reader to the Writings of Jim Cummins*, edited by Baker and Hornberger (2001).

The following comments illustrate the interns' understanding of BICS and CALP as they discussed examples of their English learners' speech.

Hannah: I don't know, it's normally all conversational, I don't hear any CALP at all.

Krista: I notice that her sentences are really fragmented, it's always um....um....

Angela: Well, my one Italian boy, he'll just like look up at the ceiling and go, "Uhhhh...." I can tell he's just looking for words. And my Turkish girl, she's very boisterous at recess and with her friends, but in class when she raises her hand, she says "uhhh..." and sometimes uses silly voices and I can't understand her.

As these examples show, it is clear that the interns could not identify specific instances of BICS and CALP in their English learners' speech. After reading the explanation of BICS and CALP in Cummins' research, I had expected that the interns would have been able to identify examples of conversational language from their English learners. However, two of the interns did not identify any examples of speech and the other two interns focused on their English learners' speech mannerisms such as the use of pauses, fragmented sentences and silly voices.

To make the differences between BICS and CALP more explicit to the interns, I brought some classroom-based examples. I distributed examples of BICS and CALP (see appendix I) taken from an article about a science lesson in a Gibbons (2003) study and asked the interns to take turns reading each example aloud. In the examples that I distributed, interns read four explanations of the same science experiment presented in both conversational and academic language. The first two transcripts are examples of conversational language that took place as students discussed the science experiment in small groups. After the interns read the first two transcripts, I added some examples that I created spontaneously to clarify conversational

language. My examples of conversational language included students' social speech on the playground or at lunch as well as the type of speech that occurs when students work on an academic task in small groups.

After offering my examples of conversational language, we continued with the academic language examples. The third transcript is a writing sample taken from one of the students' report on their experiment, written in academic language. The fourth example, also academic language, is an explanation of that same experiment taken from a textbook. I emphasized the difference in the level of complexity between the textbook language in the fourth example and the conversational language examples.

Kerry: I have this one kid, he already knows he wants to be a coroner, he talks like that all the time (*pointing to one of the written CALP examples*), but not the other kids, I think it's mostly BICS unless I ask them to use CALP.

Krista: In our special education class, they did this workshop and they put up all these words, basic words, and said 'Do you know these words?' and we were like, 'Yeah, of course we know them.' But then they put up a text, I think from a calculus text, using those words and it was so hard and we couldn't understand it, even though we knew what the words meant.

Based upon the examples the interns offered, the discussion of the science experiment seemed to further the interns' understanding of BICS and CALP to include levels of language complexity rather than speech mannerisms.

Although the interns reported a clearer understanding of BICS and CALP after reading the examples, I was not satisfied with the level of understanding exhibited by the interns. The fact that the interns did not offer any examples of their English learners' use of BICS or CALP at the

beginning of the session led me to believe that they had only a surface level understanding of BICS and CALP after reading and discussing the examples that I distributed. I had originally planned to shift the focus of the discussion to Cummins' representations of linguistic and cognitive demands illustrated by the four quadrant model. I decided against changing the topic of our discussion because the interns had not fully understood BICS and CALP.

I proceeded to use the material that the interns' had read on Cummins' representation of linguistic and cognitive demands as a basis for further discussion of academic language. I knew that the interns must be able to identify academic language in order to use the recommendations of the SIOP model in later workshops. Therefore, I used the example that I had originally brought to discuss Cummins' model representing linguistic and cognitive demands for the purpose of showing interns how to teach academic language with visuals. I distributed a summary of a project that a former intern had done for her Master's thesis with the permission of her professor (see Appendix H). The project consisted of four tasks that the intern designed according to Cummins' model representing linguistic and cognitive demands. The goal of her project was to teach an English learner to identify parts of speech.

The intern's first task was to have the English learner identify the parts of speech represented by pictures with familiar language such as *action words* instead of *verbs*. In the second task, the English learner was asked to use the same familiar words for the parts of speech to identify words in a sentence rather than pictures. In the third task, the English learner was again asked to identify the parts of speech represented in the pictures, but this time was required to use the academic language for the parts of speech, such as *noun* and *verb*. In the final task, the intern asked the English learner to identify parts of speech in sentences with the academic language

verb, noun and adjective. The findings of this project showed that the English learner was able to accurately identify parts of speech in the fourth task.

After reading and discussing the summary of the project, I emphasized to the interns that they had just read an example lesson focused on the academic language necessary to identify parts of speech. The example project seemed to further the interns' understanding of academic language. Kerry noted that the former intern's use of visuals in the example was helpful to her and the other interns agreed.

Kerry: Well the example you gave us was really helpful, the visuals, stuff like that.

Krista: So, would an example of this be teaching vocabulary from a novel we're reading ...would that include showing actual pictures of that and then having them use that in a sentence, would that be ok?

Krista's question prompted me to move the discussion towards the interns' lesson planning. I reminded the interns that I planned to observe each of them teaching a lesson during the week between sessions three and four. I knew that the interns had not fully understood the four stages of Cummins' model representing linguistic and cognitive demands because I had focused the discussion of the example on the teaching of academic language. Therefore, I told the interns that I wanted to focus the first observation on academic language. I asked the interns to identify and teach the academic language necessary for English learners to understand in order to comprehend and participate in the lesson. I also asked the interns to create a writing assignment to assess students' learning of the academic language. Interns were asked to bring the writing samples, lesson plans and observation reflections to session four.

5.3 INTERNS IDENTIFY AND TEACH ACADEMIC LANGUAGE

When I observed all four of the interns' lessons, I found that the interns learned to identify and teach key words as academic language. The following excerpts are examples of two of the lessons I observed where the interns were asked to identify and teach academic language. The first excerpt is from one of Kerry's spelling lessons. Kerry used visuals to teach the concept of homonym pairs. The second is an example of a lesson where Krista chose vocabulary from a novel chapter and introduced the vocabulary before reading the chapter. Krista also used visuals to teach the meaning of the vocabulary words.

5.3.1 Kerry's homonym lesson

Kerry had already introduced homonym pairs in her spelling class and decided to focus the lesson I observed on reinforcing the meanings of each word on the spelling list. She reported that Kenji, one of her English learners, had difficulty with the homonym pairs. Kerry noticed that several other students in her class were making many more spelling mistakes than usual with this particular list of words. Kerry had tried to verbally explain the meanings of the words to the class, but after we had talked about teaching academic language and the use of visuals in session three she decided to try a different approach to teaching homonyms. The following is an excerpt of Kerry's lesson:

1. T: I have a new word on the board, it's homonyms. Does anyone know what that word means?
2. S1: Two words in one?

3. T: Sort of..
4. S2: Two words, different spelling.
5. T: You guys are definitely on the right track.
6. S3: Two words pronounced the same way, different spelling, and they mean different things.
7. T: You've got it! Two words that sound the same, but mean different things and are spelled differently.
8. S4: Like bee, the bumble bee and be like, I want to be somewhere.
9. T: Ok, I've got lots of examples that I want to use and I have pictures of these examples so we have a better idea of what they mean. And if you're a good speller, like I know you are, you'll notice that these examples are from our spelling list. Ok, now I have two words, someone needs to pronounce them for me.
10. S5: The one on the left is sight and the one on the right is site
11. T: Are they homonyms?
12. S5: yes
13. T: I have all these pictures (*T gets pictures*) and I need a volunteer that thinks they know what these two words mean (*holding up the words "sight" and "site"*) and can put up these pictures in the right place. (*T holds up a picture of a face with arrows pointing to eyes and a picture of a construction area*)

14. S6: I know! (*student puts the picture of a face with arrows pointing to eyes under the word sight and a picture of the construction area under the word site*).

15. T: What's the difference between those two?

16. S6: One of them is eyesight and the other is a construction site.

17. T: What about this picture of eyeglasses, where would it go?

18. Kenji: I think it would go under the first one (*referring to sight*) because glasses are for eyesight and the first one is seeing.

19. T: Awesome! I have another picture, where would this one go? (*picture of scenery around Grand Canyon*)

20. S4: I know it would go under the second one, but couldn't it go under the first one because it's a sight to see?

21. T: Oh! That's good thinking. How about this next one, it can be tricky? I need another volunteer. (*T puts up the words "sweet" and "suite"*) Who can find pictures of these two words and tell the class what they mean?

In this lesson excerpt, Kerry taught the meanings of the following homonym pairs: *sight* and *site*, *sweet* and *suite*, *thyme* and *time*, *peace* and *piece*, and *wail* and *whale*. In turns 1-8, Kerry started her lesson by questioning students about their prior knowledge of homonym pairs. She began teaching the word meanings of *sight* and *site* by showing the class one picture pointing to eyes, meant to illustrate the word *sight*, and another picture of a construction area, meant to illustrate the word *site* (turn 13). Kerry created a context to teach word meaning to students by using visuals to illustrate the meaning of each word in the homonym pairs rather than relying

entirely on verbal explanation. Not only did the illustrations create a context for word meaning, turn 14 shows that Kerry asked the students to place the illustrations under the written word to reinforce accurate spelling. Kerry checked for comprehension by involving multiple students, including Kenji, in the lesson. In turns 14 and 18, Kerry chose two different students to select the placement of the illustrations that represent the meanings of words *sight* and *site*.

After two examples of *sight* and *site* had been completed, Kerry wrote the words *sweet* and *suite* on the board (turn 21). She asked another student volunteer to find a picture illustrating the meaning of *sweet* and then asked the volunteer to explain the word's meaning to the class. Kerry continued with the rest of the homonym pairs by first writing the pair of words on the board. She then asked students to choose a picture illustrating the word and explain the word's meaning to the class. After all five homonym pairs were displayed on the board next to the pictures, the illustrated word pairs on the board served as a support for students to complete the writing assignment. For the writing assignment, students were instructed to choose two pair of homonyms and write an explanation of the difference between the homonyms in a way that a first grader would understand.

5.3.2 Evidence of learning homonym pairs

As part of the observation reflection, the interns were asked to write their objective. Kerry had listed her objective as, "Students will be able to identify the difference between pairs of homonyms." Kerry clearly met her objective based upon the high degree of participation I observed. The critical incident Kerry reported on her observation reflection is as follows: "Kenji was the first one with his hand raised. He was also very engaged, something that doesn't happen often." She also told us in session four that all of the students, including Kenji, had decreased

their spelling mistakes with the words in the homonym pairs after the lesson I observed. The following is taken from Kenji's writing sample:

Sweet and suite are not the same.

Sweet is like candy is sweet but suite is like a hotel room.

Time and thyme are defferent. Time means like look at the clock.

But thyme is a kind of plant.

The writing assignment Kerry created allows students to show their understanding of word meaning. In this writing sample, Kenji shows clear evidence of his understanding of the meanings of the words *sweet* and *suite*, *time* and *thyme* by offering an example to explain each word's meaning. In addition to explaining word meanings, Kenji also spelled each of the words correctly to reflect the meaning.

I chose to present Kerry's homonym lesson because it is a clear example of her learning about the teaching of academic language. Kerry noticed the use of pictures in the former interns' project that we had discussed in the workshop session. In fact, Kerry told me after this lesson that the example project inspired her to create the homonym lesson described above. In this lesson example, Kerry did not actually identify the homonym pairs as academic language because they were part of an established spelling list. However, Kerry showed that she had learned to identify that her English learner's difficulty in understanding word meaning was the reason why he struggled with the spelling words. Kerry also showed that she learned to use visuals to teach word meanings that may be ambiguous if only described with a verbal explanation.

5.3.3 Krista's novel lesson

Krista chose to teach vocabulary from a novel that her class was reading as her academic language. Krista told me that she learned from our discussion about conversational and academic language that some of the vocabulary in this novel might be difficult for an ELL to understand. Therefore, she decided to choose eight words from an upcoming novel chapter that she thought might be difficult for English learners. Krista introduced the words by using pictures she had created to introduce a discussion of each word's meaning. The following is an excerpt of Krista's lesson.

1. T: We're going to continue with our story today, but we're going to go over some of the vocabulary first. Why is it important to review the vocabulary first, how will that help you when you read the book?
2. S1: To understand, if you read the book out loud, if you get stuck (*inaudible*)
3. S2: People won't interrupt like, "what's that word?" because they'll already know it.
4. T: Alright, let's start with this word. Stella, do you know this word? (*holding up a picture with the new word below*)
5. Stella: family
6. T: Yes, these are relatives, raise your hand if you have relatives. (*all hands go up*) Raise your hand if you have relatives that you wish weren't your relatives. (*laughter and hands go up*) What about this word? (*holding picture*)
7. S3: It's like, surprised, startled.

8. T: Yea, startled means surprised. I want to do something with you really quick. I want you to close your eyes and think of a happy place, we need quiet. (*pause, then T bangs a ruler on a desk*) Was anyone startled?
9. SS: No!
10. S4: Miss S., we knew that you were going to do that!
11. T: Ok, I'll try to startle you again today. What about this word ?(*holding picture*)
12. S3: It means like kind of scary, like a lion.
13. T: Yeah, lions are fierce. Can everyone make a fierce face? (*T and SS make faces*)

In this lesson excerpt, Krista used visuals to teach the vocabulary that she identified from a novel chapter that she thought may be challenging to her English learners. The vocabulary words Krista selected: *relatives, startled, fierce, hammock, embers, breeze, surf* and *creeps*. These words were listed as the academic language on Krista's observation reflection form. Krista created a context to teach word meaning to students by using visuals to illustrate the meaning of each of the vocabulary words. In turns 4, 6 and 11 Krista holds up a picture that she drew to represent one of the words and calls upon a student to name the word represented in the picture. In addition to the pictures, in turns 8 and 13, Krista made her lesson interactive by using actions (attempting to startle the students) and facial expressions to further illustrate the word meanings. Krista continued her vocabulary lesson by involving the students in explaining and acting out the definitions of the eight vocabulary words (in turns 8 and 13). After introducing the

words, she read the chapter containing those words aloud to the students. Krista emphasized the vocabulary words as she read the chapter to call students' attention to them.

5.3.4 Evidence of learning novel vocabulary

I chose to include Krista's novel vocabulary example because it shows evidence of her ability to identify and teach key vocabulary. Krista showed that she learned to identify vocabulary in the novel that may be difficult for English learners. Krista told me after the lesson that she chose to teach the words *relatives*, *startled*, *fierce*, *hammock*, *embers*, *breeze*, *surf* and *creeps* because "these are words I thought the ELLs would struggle with." Krista also showed that she learned to use visuals and actions to teach word meanings. Krista was successful in creating a vocabulary lesson that involved students and showed that she understood the importance of providing frequent comprehension checks.

I also chose to include Krista's novel vocabulary example because it shows that she did not create a meaningful writing assignment to assess her English learner's comprehension of word meaning. Krista successfully created an interactive lesson with pictures to teach novel vocabulary, but I found little evidence showing that Krista's English learner (Stella was the only English learner present for this lesson) understood the vocabulary. After reading the chapter, Krista instructed students to write between three and six sentences containing at least three of the vocabulary words. Krista did not require that the sentences relate to the story nor was any other type of context provided. As the evidence of Stella's writing sample shows, students randomly created decontextualized sentences that do not necessarily show clear understanding of the vocabulary words presented.

My little sister is creeping.

My brother is startle in the morning.

Although the writing assignment shows very little connection to the novel or the vocabulary lesson, Krista thought that the writing assignment showed Stella's evidence of understanding word meaning. In our discussion of the video clips during session four, Krista described Stella's writing sample as well-written.

In her observation reflection, Krista wrote that her objective was for students to learn challenging vocabulary and to write sentences using the newly learned vocabulary. I cannot say with certainty that Krista achieved her goal based upon Stella's writing sample. Krista called on Stella to identify the word *relatives* during the lesson, but this is the only word where Stella shows clear evidence of her learning. In the last sentence of her writing sample, Stella shows evidence of her understanding the meaning of the word *relatives* for a second time.

I like my relatives beacas they are my family.

Krista also wrote that her critical incident was when Stella asked her to explain the word *surf* while completing the writing assignment. In our discussion of the video clips during session four, Krista stated that she believed Stella understood all of the other vocabulary words because Stella only asked about one word. It is possible that Stella understood all of the other vocabulary words, but the task Krista provided does not allow Stella to show her understanding word meanings.

5.3.5 Discussion of BICS and CALP after session three

In later sessions, and in communication after the time of the study, some of the interns showed their developing understanding of BICS and CALP by voluntarily using the terms conversational language and academic language when describing their lessons or their English learners' speech. In the following examples, three of the four interns use the terms conversational language and academic language when discussing their English learners.

In session six, Hannah describes an activity she created to teach state government vocabulary:

Hannah: The activity I did was supposed to build on their academic language. I kinda had to start over what I started with the state government vocabulary. She (pointing to Michele) suggested that when we get to a term, I relate it to what we've done in class because we've done role-playing of the Senate and House and um, so every time a term will come up, I'll say, "How did we do that in our simulation?" and then I'm going to have them write about it a little bit, a summary of the process or something.

In this comment, Hannah shows her understanding that the social studies vocabulary used to talk about state government procedures is academic language. Hannah also showed that she learned to use the role-play that she had previously created to build background knowledge as a way to teach the language of state government. (For a full description of Hannah's role-play, see *Hannah's review of state government vocabulary* later in this chapter).

In session six, Krista and Kerry discuss other students' perceptions of English learners' academic language abilities. This excerpt took place after watching the video clip of Angela's lesson where Marco was taunted in reading partners, which was discussed in chapter four:

Krista: I think what's with some of these students is like, my German student, her conversational English is awesome, so they think if she can speak English on the

playground, she won't struggle in the classroom. They think she's mastered the language by now.

Kerry: Right, they don't appreciate how hard it is. It's hard enough to learn conversational skills, but to have to understand school subjects in another language is just so much more challenging.

In Krista's and Kerry's comments, both interns showed that they learned an English learner's conversational language is not indicative of academic language abilities. This discussion took place after watching the video of Angela's class where Marco was teased by his reading partners. The interns have also shown in this comment that they learned English-speaking students are not sympathetic to the workload faced by English learners who must learn content in a new language.

The following is an excerpt from an email message that Krista sent on 11/05/07 describing difficulties with one of her English learners at the school where she is currently employed:

I was hoping to get a better understanding of WHY she wasn't keeping up with the work. I was able to learn that she struggles with English comprehension during this meeting. Although her conversational English is right on target, she struggles with academic language.

In this example, Krista has again shown her understanding that an English learner's high level of fluency in conversational language does not indicate her level of fluency in academic language.

5.3.6 Evidence of interns' learning and lack of learning about academic language

The data I collected shows that the discussion in session three raised the interns' awareness of the concepts of BICS and CALP. The comments from the workshops and the email show that the interns became more aware of the fact that academic language is different from conversational language. In the case of Krista and Kerry, their comments suggest that they understand an English learner's conversational language does not necessarily reflect his/her academic language abilities. In their comments on the workshop reflection for session three, interns were asked to write what they had learned in the workshop. The interns' comments included: "I have a better understanding of BICS and CALP," "I now understand the difference between BICS and CALP," "I realized how long it takes for English learners learn academic language," and "It is important to give English learners a lot of context for CALP."

When I observed the interns teaching academic language, the major theme that emerged was the interns showed evidence of learning how to use visuals to teach vocabulary. All four of the interns' lessons showed that they learned to identify key vocabulary in content lessons. Hannah and Angela also chose to teach vocabulary for their observation. Hannah taught a lesson on the Mayan counting system and chose vocabulary words such as *base ten* and *place value* as the academic language of the lesson. Angela's lesson was very similar to Krista's vocabulary lesson. Angela chose three vocabulary words from a novel she planned to start reading to the class and introduced those three words with visuals.

Despite their learning to identify and teach key vocabulary, I found that session three did not result in the interns' full understanding of teaching and assessing CALP. Although content area vocabulary is critical to learning academic language, none of the interns demonstrated understanding that academic language also includes sentence structure that differs from

conversational language. I learned that the interns needed more time to examine the complexities of academic language. In addition to lack of time, I did not explicitly teach the interns to identify complex sentence structure in academic texts. The example of the former interns' project I provided in session three showed that the intern used visuals to teach the meanings of *noun*, *verb* and *adjective*. As a result, the interns developed lessons where they used visuals to teach word meaning.

Other evidence suggests that the interns did not develop a full understanding of CALP. When I examined Angela's observation reflection forms for all three lessons I observed, I saw only a partial understanding of academic language. She successfully identified the vocabulary that was important to her lesson as academic language, but included other examples that are not part of academic language. For example, when teaching a lesson about Earth Day, Angela identified *reduce*, *reuse* and *recycle* as academic language. However, she also included cooperation and understanding Earth Day concepts as academic language. I am not certain what Angela meant by Earth Day concepts considering she had already listed Earth Day vocabulary as academic language. I understand that Angela included cooperation because students worked in small groups during the Earth Day lesson. However, Angela did not understand that the teacher's behavioral expectations for an activity are not part of academic language. It seems that Angela listed her general goals for the lesson as academic language rather than focusing on student learning of key vocabulary.

Although Hannah showed her understanding of academic language by identifying vocabulary relevant to her lessons on her three observation reflection forms, she did not demonstrate that she had learned how long it takes for students to acquire CALP. Hannah's response to one of the questions on the attitude survey completed after the study show that Hannah did not fully

understand how long it takes for an English learner to acquire CALP. When asked if she believes that her English learners understand almost all classroom talk, even when they are not participating, Hannah circled *agree* on the survey taken both before and after the study.

I was certain that our discussion in session three about the length of time necessary for students to develop CALP would have changed her opinion. However, Hannah did not express her understanding of this research when responding to the second attitude survey. Hannah reported on her questionnaire that Acel, an English learner with very little proficiency in English at the beginning of the school year, had made considerable improvements in his English proficiency after the holiday break. Considering this study took place during the spring months, Hannah answered the survey question about Acel's comprehension of classroom talk based upon her perception of Acel's conversational English during the spring. Although Acel's conversational English had improved immensely, Cummins' research suggests that it will take up to seven years for him to develop full comprehension of academic language.

The data I collected suggest that the discussion during session three successfully raised the interns' awareness of the difference between BICS and CALP. The observation reflection forms show that all of the interns learned to identify vocabulary in a content lesson as academic language. The comments from the workshops and the email show that the interns became more aware of the fact that academic language is different from conversational language. In the case of Krista and Kerry, their comments suggest that they understand an English learners' conversational language does not necessarily reflect his/her academic language abilities. However, the interns did not develop a full understanding of CALP. In the case of Angela, she did not demonstrate her understanding of academic language as it is related to student learning. Krista showed that she did not learn to create a meaningful writing assignment to assess

academic language. Hannah showed that she did not understand the length of time that is necessary to develop CALP. Finally, none of the interns demonstrated understanding that academic language includes more than vocabulary, but also includes sentence structure that differs from conversational language.

5.3.7 Session five: Discussion of SIOP readings

Because we met for only eight sessions, I focused on only two of the chapters from the SIOP model, “Lesson Preparation,” (chapter two) and “Comprehensible Input” (chapter four). I chose the “Lesson Preparation” chapter because it included the teaching of language objectives. Language objectives clearly connect to the topic of session three where we discussed Cummins’ research on academic language because a teacher must recognize the academic language of a lesson in order to identify a language objective. Language objectives are explained in the SIOP model with a list of examples including the following explanation, “In some cases, language objectives may focus on developing students’ vocabulary. Other lessons may lend themselves to reading comprehension skills practice or the writing process, helping students to brainstorm, outline, draft, revise, edit, and complete a text,” (Echevarria et al., 2004, p. 22). Comprehensible input is defined in SIOP according to Krashen (1985) as, “making adjustments to speech so that the message to the student is understandable,” (p. 66).

The SIOP model consists of a series of chapters describing strategies a teacher may use to enhance English learners’ comprehension of a lesson such as building on prior knowledge and teaching students to use learning strategies. I chose the “Comprehensible Input” and “Lesson Preparation” chapters because they focus on language issues specific to English learners. The “Lesson preparation” chapter and “Comprehensible Input” chapter of the SIOP model include

examples of good teaching practices such as building upon students' prior knowledge and the use of visuals to enhance English learners' comprehension of the language objective. However, the authors make it a point in the "Lesson Preparation" chapter to explain that teachers of English learners can teach language in their content lessons by identifying specific language objectives that connect to content objectives. The "Comprehensible Input" chapter focuses on ways a teacher can modify language delivery to become more comprehensible to English learners.

5.3.8 Discussion of language objectives

I began the session with a discussion of the language objective examples that were given in the "Lesson Preparation" chapter of the SIOP model. The interns read two descriptions of lessons that were given in the SIOP model. One lesson description showed a strong example of teaching language objectives and the second description was a weak example. The following excerpt is from the discussion of the example lessons in the SIOP manual:

Michele: Ok, so what do you think were the major differences between these two lessons? They were on the exact same topic, but what were the differences between Mr. Lew and Mr. Dillon?

Angela: Mr. Lew was definitely more hands-on, used more visuals, and Mr. Dillon just had them look at the book.

Kerry: Visuals to teach vocabulary, like we talked about. Mr. Dillon just kind of said "Look at the book, I hope you understand it," and Mr. Lew was pointing to things, showing things, he pointed to things that were floating so the students understood.

Hannah: Mr. Lew's directions were so specific.

Angela: And Mr. Lew went around to each group to make sure they understood.

After reading the lesson descriptions, the interns identified the use of visuals, hands-on activities and comprehension checks as the important aspects of teaching language objectives.

I also provided a list of example language objectives that were linked to content objectives in math, science, language arts, and social studies (see Appendix J) taken from the a text by Hill and Flynn (2006) called *Classroom Instruction that Works with English Language Learners*. The purpose of this list was to emphasize to the interns that language objectives include more than vocabulary. The examples illustrated content objectives for social studies, science, math, and language arts lessons followed by a paragraph explaining the following language objectives: comparisons, if-then statements, classifying and expressing persuasive opinions. Because the language objectives were written in paragraph form, I asked the interns to give a one-sentence language objective to show that they could identify a specific objective. The following excerpt is a sample of our discussion of the examples.

Michele: Give me one sentence that tells what you think the language objective is for the social studies lesson.

Angela: To use *comparisons*?

Michele: Right, what about the science lesson?

Hannah: *If-then statements*.

Michele: Yeah, and what about the language arts lesson?

Kerry: To write *a persuasive paragraph*.

After the interns had read the examples and identified the language objectives in the examples, I thought that they had understood how to identify language objectives beyond vocabulary in their own lessons. However, I later learned that the interns needed more than a written description of lessons to understand how to incorporate language objectives that are more complex than vocabulary. In the workshops conducted by the authors of the SIOP model, the teacher participants had the opportunity to view videos of effective SIOP lessons. Also, participants had the opportunity to practice their own lessons and receive feedback during the workshop sessions. The amount of time available for the workshop sessions conducted for this study prevented the inclusion of videos showing effective SIOP lesson examples and practice teaching opportunities.

Because I thought that the interns understood how to identify language objectives beyond vocabulary after reading the examples, I decided to move the discussion to the topic of comprehensible input. I distributed an excerpt of a science lesson taken from Gibbons (2002) text, *Scaffolding Language, Scaffolding Learning* (see Appendix K) to give the interns a written example of comprehensible input. The lesson excerpt is a teacher's explanation of a science experiment divided into two columns. The first column listed the teacher's actual words while the second column provided a commentary to show the reader how the teacher modified her speech and provided visual support to make the explanation more comprehensible. I drew the interns' attention to the fact that the teacher used scientific language, but paraphrased each scientific term with more familiar language.

After reading the science lesson excerpt, I emphasized the importance of providing comprehensible input to English learners during a lesson. I reminded the interns of how they felt

during the French lesson I discussed in chapter four by reviewing the reflections they wrote after the lesson. The following transcript is part of our discussion of comprehensible input:

Michele: I kept from you guys, the reflections you did when I did the French lesson. I thought this would be good because you told me some of the same things they suggested when they talked about comprehensible input. When I was speaking French and you had no idea what I was saying, what were you doing? People said, “I looked around at others.” “I watched what the teacher pointed to.” “I tried to remember corrections from the teacher.” You were using visual cues and context to follow the lesson.

Kerry: Yeah, I remember when our Spanish teacher first came in, she was like, “I’m only going to speak in Spanish,” and asked the kids, “How are you going to know what I’m saying?” and the kids said, “You’re pointing to things, you’re holding things up.” She’s just fabulous.

Angela: When the Spanish teacher comes, she always has some kind of stuffed animals or plastic fruit.

Hannah: When Acel first got here, we had to convince him to use motions because he would just say stuff in German and we were like, “I don’t know what you’re saying.” Then he would point and just say it in German and still not use any expression and we didn’t know what to do. Then we tried to get him to draw, but whatever he wanted to say, he couldn’t draw.

Based upon the evidence presented in this discussion, the interns understood that providing comprehensible input consists of using visual cues and gestures to make speech more comprehensible. Although visual cues and gestures are extremely helpful in providing comprehensible input, the SIOP model suggests that a teacher modify speech to an appropriate level for their English learners’ proficiency. Because the discussion focused on visual cues and

gestures rather than modifications of language, I realized during our discussion that the written examples I provided did not sufficiently prepare the interns to be capable of changing their vocabulary usage and sentence structure to provide clear language input to English learners. I had planned on showing video clips of the interns' prior lessons that I had observed and videotaped with the purpose of discussing ways that the interns could have modified their speech to be more comprehensible. However, the session came to an end before I had the opportunity to show any video clips. Therefore, I decided not to focus my observation on comprehensible input. Instead, I asked the interns to identify and teach a language objective for their second observation and to create a writing assignment to assess students' learning of the language objectives. Also, the interns were asked to bring the writing samples, lesson plans and observation reflections to session six.

5.3.9 Angela's Earth Day lesson

Angela's reading lesson focused on the topic of Earth Day and was structured as a research project where students in small groups were asked to examine ways to help the environment. At the beginning of the lesson, Angela introduced the words reduce, reuse and recycle by showing pictures representing each of the words. In the following lesson excerpt, Angela introduces the words reduce and reuse.

1. T: Yes, when we talk about the planet, there are three ways that we can help that I have right here (*referring to three pictures taped to the board*). The first word that's very important is reduce. When you reduce trash, you use less (*pointing to picture with lots of chip bags in a red circle with a line through it next to one big chip bag*) See how this picture has lots of little chip bags, that's a lot of little trash. So you can make less trash by buying just one big bag. Can you think of other ways to reduce trash?

2. S2: You can like, instead of buying two packs of gum, you can get one megapack.
3. Marco: Instead of using two things you can buy one.
4. T: Yes. Now another word we need to do our research is “reuse.” You can see this is a milk carton (*pointing to a picture of an empty milk carton next to a flower pot made of a milk carton*), we use these every day. I reused my milk carton and painted it and made it a vase for flowers. So even if something seems like trash, we can make something out of it. Is there any other kind of things we can reuse?
5. S5: You could use pop cans and make pop art.
6. S1: You could use glass bottles to make a bottle bug.
7. T: Yes, remember the bottle bugs from Scholastic? (*referring to an art project students made earlier in the year*)
8. Marco: You could use an old bottle and make a birdhouse out of it.
9. T: You could make a birdhouse. There’s another word we hear on Earth Day and it’s recycle. You can see this little boy and girl are recycling (*pointing to picture of two children with recycle containers*). When you recycle, you collect things so they can be used again. We recycle paper over there (*points to paper recycle can*), so when we’re done with it, we put it in the can and then the recycle people come and they take it and then they make it into new paper.

Angela created a context for her explanation of the words reduce, reuse and recycle by showing the pictures she created for each word while explaining the pictures in turns 1,4 and 9. Angela also involves students and checks for comprehension in turns 2,3,5,6,7 and 8 by asking them to offer ideas of how to reduce trash or reuse materials that are different from the pictured examples. Angela called on Marco twice in this excerpt to check for his understanding. In turn 8, it is clear that Marco understood the word reuse because he offered an example, but it is difficult to assess whether or not he understood reduce based upon his vague response in turn 3.

After Angela presented the words reduce, reuse and recycle, she put students into small groups to work on their research. Each group was assigned a book to read about the environment. After

reading the book with their group, each student was asked to list ways to reduce, reuse and recycle on a worksheet that Angela provided.

5.3.10 Evidence of learning reduce, reuse and recycle

On the observation reflection form, Angela stated that the objective of her lesson as “Students will be able to define reduce, reuse and recycle and explain ways they can help the earth.” Angela had successfully taught the meanings of the words reduce, reuse and recycle based upon student participation in the lesson. In addition to student participation, the English learners’ writing samples also show evidence that Angela had taught the meaning of the words *reduce*, *reuse* and *recycle*. The following are the writing samples Angela collected from her English learners: Kamile, Marco and Akira.

Marco

- Reduce: Thar off the lits when you lev a room
(Turn off the lights when you leave a room)
- Reuse: Use boxes to mack art. Use a cloth napkin
(Use boxes to make art.)
- Recycle: Put the papr in a recycle ben.
(Put the paper in a recycle bin.)

Kamile

- Reduce: You can reduce by use less.
- Reuse: You can reuse things by therning things into art.
(You can reuse things by turning things into art.)
- Recycle: You can recycle by not throwing things a way.

Akira

Reduce: Instead of getting lots of little packs of salad, a big one will do!

Reuse: Drink all of the water bottle and instead of throwing it away, put more water in it next time.

Recycle: When you eat a fruit, do not throw away the core or the outside. Make compost instead.

Angela's writing assignment allowed students to clearly show their understanding of the vocabulary words. In the writing samples, Marco and Akira gave examples of ways to reduce, reuse and recycle that show their understanding of the words' meanings. Although Kamile did not give specific examples for reduce and recycle as she was instructed, her responses show that she understood the definitions of the words.

I chose to include Angela's Earth Day lesson because she met her intended language objective, which was to teach word meaning and check for comprehension. The writing samples show that the English learners understood the meanings of the words Angela taught in her lesson. Angela also showed that she learned the importance of modeling tasks. The critical incident that Angela reported on her observation reflection form was that she had to model the task for the class because some students, including Marco, did not understand that they were supposed to list ways to reduce, reuse and recycle that they had learned from the book assigned to their group. Angela modeled the task with one group to clarify her directions for the class.

Angela's Earth Day lesson also shows what she did not learn about addressing language objectives in her lesson. Despite the fact that Angela met her intended language objective of teaching vocabulary, she missed the opportunity to teach a language lesson that could have easily fit into her language objective. All three of the words in Angela's language objective begin with the prefix *-re*, but Angela did not explicitly teach the meaning of the prefix *-re* or how this prefix

can be used in English to create new meanings from words students already know. Angela could have taught the word meanings for reduce, reuse and recycle while calling students' attention to meaning of the prefix *-re* and how it functions in each of the three words. In the words *reuse* and *recycle*, *-re* means to do something again, but *-re* does not function the same way in the word *reduce*. It was surprising that Angela did not notice the language lesson on word building that seemed apparent in the vocabulary. In our discussion of the interns' video clips in session six, Hannah pointed out that the prefix *-re* could have been part of Angela's lesson before I had the opportunity mention this observation. Although the English learners showed evidence of understanding the vocabulary words in Angela's lesson, they missed the opportunity to learn about a frequently used prefix in the English language because of Angela's lack of linguistic awareness.

5.3.11 Hannah's state government lesson

Acel, Hannah's student from Germany who had arrived just before the start of the school year, was struggling with the vocabulary that was part of a social studies unit on state government. Hannah admitted to me that she had never thought about introducing key vocabulary before starting a new social studies unit before we had discussed academic language in session three. Hannah also told me she had learned from our discussion that Acel was having difficulty with this particular social studies unit for two reasons. Not only did Acel struggle with learning the vocabulary words associated with state government, he also lacked background knowledge about the general structure of American government that American students and teachers may take for granted. Hannah said that she realized it would be very difficult for a student from another

country to understand terms such as the House, the Senate and the three branches of government because most terms of this kind are unique to the U.S. government.

Hannah had learned about building upon students' prior knowledge in her university classes and said that our discussion of "Lesson Preparation" in the SIOP model reminded her about the importance of background knowledge. As a result, Hannah decided that she should teach a lesson that would build students' background knowledge about American government. She decided to show the class how the House of Representatives and the Senate work by passing classroom laws. The class proposed laws, discussed them and then two student groups that she called the House of Representatives and the Senate voted upon the laws. The following transcript is Hannah's description of this lesson:

Hannah: Ok, We proposed our own laws and we voted on them. We talked about pros and cons of the laws and then had a House and a Senate and they voted on whether they would pass it. The law that we did was, "Lunch starts at 12:40 and ends at 1:05 and recess starts at 1:10 and ends at 1:30," because sometimes we go over and they have a short lunch or short recess, so that's one they really wanted.

5.3.12 Hannah's review of state government vocabulary

After the classroom laws were passed, Hannah wanted to review the definitions of all state government vocabulary. Her content objective focused on students' understanding of the three branches of government. As for language objectives, Hannah had identified words and phrases that she thought were important in order to understand the three branches of state government. She wrote these words and phrases on large strips of paper and distributed piles of paper strips to student groups. She had also written the terms *executive*, *legislative* and *judicial* on large strips of paper and placed them along the top of the board. Each group was instructed to categorize the

terms from their pile of paper strips by placing them under the *executive, judicial* or *legislative* labels on the board. The following transcript is from the vocabulary categorization activity:

1. T: I want to start a government review. I put a stack of words on your tables and turned them upside down. What you're going to do, when I say, you are going to turn them over. With your table you'll turn them over and decide which of the three branches of government each word belongs to. Once you've done that, you'll take them to the board, put them in the right category and we'll discuss their meaning, their function and their relationship with each other. So, you only have 3 minutes to decide.

2. *(Tables of students work together to categorize words)*

3. T: What I'll have you do, is one table at a time, you're going to grab one of your pieces, you'll tell us where it goes and why. Let's start with table 2.

4. T: Ok, he picked 4 year term. *(student puts it under executive)*

5. S1: Because governors have a 4 year term and governor goes under executive.

6. T: Ok, anyone disagree? *(no response)* What is the governor?

7. S2: *(inaudible)*

8. T: Ok, the governor is the head of the executive branch. They're not actually part of the legislative, they just work together. Who has Ed Rendell?
(student puts up Ed Rendell)

9. T: Ok, to speed things up, I want anyone who thinks they have one that goes in the executive branch to make sure it has tape and put it up.
(students go up to the board)

10. T: Ok, we have “enforce laws.” Why is that in the executive branch?
11. S3: Um, executive means people enforce laws?
12. T: What does enforce mean?
13. S3: Like, uh let’s say people aren’t following it, they make people follow it.
14. T: Ok, veto, why is that in executive branch?
15. Sasha: Well, uh, the governor can veto bills.
16. T: Ok, what’s veto mean again?
17. S4: It means does not accept.
18. T: Ok, explains laws, why is that here? Who explains laws?
19. SS: Judicial!
20. T: Don’t worry, that’s why we did this, so it’s clear.

The rest of the lesson continued in the same fashion until it was time for lunch but there was not enough time to finish all of the terms. I noticed from the lack of clarity in her directions in turn 1 that students would have difficulty with the categorization of the assigned terms. Also in turn 1, Hannah told the students that they had to discuss the terms’ meaning, function and relationship with each other. In addition to giving unclear directions for a complex task, Hannah gave very little time for students to discuss and categorize the terms.

As students began to display their terms under the branches of government, it was obvious that the activity was confusing to the students. In turn 5, a student used the term *governor* to define *four-year term*. Hannah asked the class to define *governor* in turn 6 to create a definition for *four-year term*. In this instance, Hannah allowed the students to define *four-year term* with the word *governor* before the definition of *governor* had been established. Then in turn 9, Hannah changed the course of the activity by asking all students with terms that fit under *executive branch* to go to the board.

5.3.13 Evidence of learning state government vocabulary

Hannah's objective for this lesson was stated as, "Students will be able to categorize state government vocabulary," but she did not think she met her objective and stated this opinion in her observation reflection. She reported that the critical incident was "students were not understanding which branch the terms went in." In turn 18, Hannah asked "Who explains laws?" because she noticed that a student had placed *explains laws* under the *executive branch*, but it belongs under *judicial*. As a result of the confusion that surrounded this activity, no writing assignment was given.

Hannah asked me what she should have done differently. First I told Hannah that it would be difficult for students to categorize terms without a clear understanding of the meaning of each term. I reminded her of the wonderful classroom law activity she had done with her class to build background knowledge and told her that the knowledge generated in that activity could serve as a basis for defining the terms. For example, if the principal of the school were to be called the governor and he decided to reject the classroom law, we would call that a veto. By using the students' background knowledge of their classroom law activity to define the terms,

state government vocabulary words that would normally be vague or abstract to students would become more meaningful. After the students demonstrated a clear understanding of the terms, they could begin to categorize them under the correct branch of government.

I also told Hannah that she had missed an important linguistic point in planning an activity to teach a language objective. She had chosen a random assortment of state government terms that appeared in the unit including *governor*, *lieutenant governor*, *veto*, *enacts laws* and *four-year term*. These examples show that Hannah chose nouns, verbs and phrases used for description (such as the length of a term) and grouped them together as state government vocabulary. I suggested that Hannah separate terms that refer to important people, functions they perform, and descriptive phrases. She could then call students' attention to the parts of speech for each category. For example, she could start with nouns and tell the students that first they must categorize the important people in state government, distributing only paper strips with terms such as *governor* and *lieutenant governor*. By organizing the activity around the parts of speech, she would be able to teach a language objective and possibly reduce the students' confusion by breaking down such a large number of terms into smaller semiotic and grammatical groups.

Without a writing assignment, the only evidence I have that English learners understood the vocabulary is from the transcript and videotape of the lesson. Based upon the evidence I have in the lesson transcript, she did not meet her objective. Hannah's objective was for students to categorize state government vocabulary according to the three branches, but she did not have the time to address all three branches of government. Also, there is very little evidence in the entire transcript of this lesson that any English learners understood the vocabulary. In turn 15, Sasha says that the governor can veto bills, but there is no other evidence of English learners' comprehension of the vocabulary.

Hannah's state government lesson clearly shows how a lack of linguistic awareness can affect a teacher's ability to effectively identify, organize, and teach language objectives. During our discussion after the lesson, Hannah stated that the lesson did not go as well as she had planned because she planned to teach too much vocabulary in one lesson. After hearing that statement, I realized that Hannah did not have the linguistic awareness to identify the major problem in her lesson. Hannah was not aware of the fact that she could have organized her terminology by parts of speech and taught the parts of speech as part of her state government vocabulary lesson. The only evidence of learning from session five that Hannah showed is that she learned to identify academic language that was difficult for English learners. She also showed that she learned to build background knowledge, such as creating the classroom law activity, as the SIOP model recommends in the "Lesson Preparation" chapter.

5.3.14 Evidence of the other interns' learning about language objectives

Once again, the major theme of my observations was that the interns had learned to identify vocabulary and present a vocabulary lesson as a result of our discussion of the SIOP model. Krista's language objective lesson focused on teaching the meaning of spelling words by having students play charades in small groups. One student acted out a spelling word while other students were required to guess the correct word and spell it. Krista's lesson was not a strong example of incorporating a language objective, but she was absent for session five due to illness. I met with Krista briefly to explain the material that had been covered in session five so that she could plan her lesson, but we had less time than the normal workshop session and she lacked the opportunity to participate in the group interaction.

Kerry was the only intern who attempted to teach language other than vocabulary as a language objective. Kerry's objective was to teach students how to write a persuasive paragraph. She told the students that she was working very late at night and when she decided to finally go to bed, she found her sister sleeping in her bed. Kerry offered the following as a model of a persuasive paragraph relating to her situation:

I think you have to get out of my bed!

I think this because it is a very small bed for only 2 people.

My blanket is small and only covers one person, so I would have to find an extra one.

I only have 2 pillows and like to use both of them so I would have to take one from the couch.

I also think you should get out of my bed because I really like to sleep alone.

So please, get out of my bed dear sister so I can get some sleep!

Kerry's model paragraph was not necessarily a paragraph, but a list of reasons for her sister to get out of the bed. During the lesson, the students did not find Kerry's example to be very persuasive. After reading her example, students identified specific sentences that were not persuasive and offered their ideas about how they could become more persuasive. Kerry had originally thought that her example was persuasive; however when she noticed that the students did not share her opinion, she decided to ask them how to improve the paragraph. As students offered their suggestions, Kerry realized that her example served as a challenge forcing students to think of ways that they could be more persuasive than the teacher. Kerry reported learning about the importance of modeling tasks as a result of session five. In her final reflection, when

asked what changes she made in her lesson planning Kerry wrote, “I now model a ton of writing, I never would have thought of that before.”

5.4 SUMMARY OF THE INTERN’S CHANGES IN PLANNING AND INSTRUCTION

Although all interns showed that they learned to incorporate some of the strategies presented in the SIOP model, many of the changes found in their lessons are simply characteristics of good teaching that the interns may have learned in their university courses. The evidence collected on the changes in the interns’ planning and instruction shows that all interns learned to use visuals to teach vocabulary, include comprehension checks, build background knowledge and model tasks. However, the interns did not learn to modify their teaching practices in ways that specifically meet the needs of English learners. For example, Angela did not teach the prefix *-re* when teaching *reduce*, *reuse* and *recycle* and Hannah did not organize her state government terminology by parts of speech.

According to their final reflections, all of the interns were very positive about their learning in the workshops. The statements made by the interns on the reflections completed at the end of each workshop and the final reflection accurately showed what the interns had learned in the workshops. Interns stated that they take more time for comprehension checks, offer more examples, make attempts to build background knowledge, and use more visuals. Although the interns reported learning some of these good teaching practices in their university courses, they were not using these practices consistently in the context of making their lessons accessible to ELs prior to the study. At the end of session five when SIOP strategies were discussed, interns

stated on their workshop reflections that they learned the importance of teaching vocabulary that is necessary for a lesson, building students' background knowledge, modeling tasks and creating context by incorporating graphics, visuals and hands-on activities. However, none of the interns stated that they learned to teach language structures or simplify their own language to provide more comprehensible input.

After reviewing the evidence collected from the interns, I discovered two reasons that the interns did not learn to identify and address language objectives beyond vocabulary. First, I did not provide enough examples of teaching linguistic structures as language objectives or modifying speech to be more comprehensible to English learners. Second, I did not provide enough opportunities for the interns to practice modifying their speech or practice identifying linguistic structures in their content area lessons that could serve as language objectives.

After reflecting on the workshops, I realized that I relied too heavily on the SIOP manual as a source of instruction and examples. The written lessons samples and the written instructions on how to plan language objectives and provide comprehensible input were insufficient models of language instruction for the interns. The teachers who participate in official SIOP training have the opportunity to watch effective SIOP lessons on video, but the manual does not provide a video component. The authors of the SIOP model provide example language objectives beyond vocabulary in the "Lesson Preparation" chapter such as how to request information, justify opinions, negotiate meaning and provide detailed explanations (Echevarria, et al. 2004, p. 22). However, there is no explicit instruction in SIOP showing a teacher how to identify the language structures necessary to accomplish any of the previously mentioned functions.

In the "Comprehensible Input" chapter, the SIOP model presents a brief discussion of appropriate speech for English learners by explaining that teachers must pay attention to rate,

enunciation and complexity of speech. The written lesson examples provided by SIOP emphasize a teacher's use of gestures and visual cues in the chapter explaining comprehensible input. However, SIOP does not offer explicit examples of how to modify word choice and sentence structure that lead to increased comprehensibility for English learners. Although I attempted to supplement the SIOP manual by providing the interns with the example taken from the Gibbons study (see Appendix K), the interns needed more than an additional written example.

Another reason that the interns did not learn to modify their lessons to meet the needs of English learners beyond the teaching of vocabulary may be due to their lack of linguistic knowledge. I assumed that the interns could identify linguistic structures in their content lessons and modify their speech after reviewing the examples in the SIOP model and the additional examples. I did not realize how much more direct instruction, models, and practice the interns needed to focus on issues specific to English learners, such as teaching the complex sentence structure of academic language. Without a basic knowledge of linguistics, the interns were not aware of the complexity of the language used to teach academic content.

The reason for my overestimation of the interns' linguistic knowledge is partially due to my background as a language teacher and working with other language teachers in a teacher education program. In my career as a foreign language teacher, I am accustomed to teaching complex language structures and functions and delivering comprehensible input in every lesson. As a teacher educator who observes foreign language teachers, I frequently discuss comprehensible input and the teaching of complex language structures with my student teachers. I did not understand how difficult these concepts are for teachers who are not trained as foreign or second language teachers. Because I assumed that the interns came to the workshop sessions

with a knowledge base that is unique to those in the field of foreign language education, I overestimated the interns' linguistic knowledge. Because of my incorrect assumptions about the interns' linguistic knowledge, I planned too many complex concepts for eight workshop sessions. As a result, the interns' learning reflected only a limited understanding of language objectives and comprehensible input.

6.0 CHAPTER VI: IMPLICATIONS ON THE FIELD OF TEACHER EDUCATION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will present the implications that the findings of this study have on the field of teacher education. Based upon the implications of this study, modifications will be suggested for teacher certification programs. As presented in chapter four, the interns learned to address the socio-affective needs of their English learners. The evidence presented in chapter five showed that the interns learned how to incorporate good teaching practices into their lessons, but did not learn to address the linguistic needs specific of English learners. In light of the findings presented in chapters four and five, the discussion in this chapter will address the question “What must be done to prepare elementary school teachers to meet the needs of mainstreamed English learners?”

In this chapter, I first discuss the implications regarding teacher preparation to address English learners’ social and affective issues. In this discussion, I will include the importance of teacher background with diversity and suggest a way to enhance the background of teaching candidates to include experiences with diversity. Second, I discuss the implications of the changes observed in the interns’ planning and instruction on teacher preparation to meet the linguistic needs of English learners. I begin with the implications drawn from the changes that took place in the interns’ planning and instruction. Finally, I discuss the implications of the

interns' lack of change in planning and instruction to meet the linguistic needs of English learners.

6.2 IMPLICATIONS OF CHAPTER FOUR: ENGLISH LEARNERS' SOCIO-AFFECTIVE ISSUES

Due to their participation in the workshops, the interns developed a deeper understanding of their English learners' socio-affective issues. The interns stated that their level of empathy for English learners increased after their participation in the French lesson. The discussion of the readings from *Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture* raised the interns' awareness of the social challenges encountered by English learners. Viewing the video clip of Marco's experience in reading partners showed Angela why Marco disliked working in reading partners and sensitized the other interns to English learners' struggles. Their deepened understanding of English learners' socio-affective issues inspired two of the interns to design interventions intended to help their English learners interact more productively with peers.

6.2.1 Training teachers to deal with English learners' socio- affective issues

Prior to the study, two of the interns recognized that they each had an English learner who struggled to fit in with their peers. Angela and Krista witnessed behaviors exhibited by Gino and Marco that did not match the behavioral norms of the rest of the class. Angela recognized that Marco did not like to work with reading partners and Krista recognized that Gino did not play with other children at recess. Both interns expressed concerns about Gino and Marco to their

mentors, but their mentors could not offer any explanation or solution to the problem. In fact, Krista's mentor did not think Gino's solitude at recess was a problem.

Without the ability to accurately identify why their English learners experience difficulties with social interaction, teachers cannot intervene. Teachers need training and mentoring to be able to identify the reasons behind English learners' socio-affective struggles. I told Krista to observe Gino at recess in order to identify specific behaviors that other students found undesirable. Krista observed Gino and she learned that he didn't play with other boys at recess because he didn't know how to play the games that American boys play, such as kickball. Krista was then inspired to design the group intervention where she taught the game of kickball to Gino and other English learners. Angela learned by watching the video clip that the reason Marco hated to work with reading partners was not only due to his struggles with reading in English, but because he was teased by other students about his reading ability. After Angela and Krista identified the source of Gino's and Marco's social difficulties, they were able to design interventions to help these two English learners improve social interactions.

The ability to identify the source of a child's struggle is not enough to equip teachers to deal with the issues encountered by English learners. In addition to understanding English learners' socio-affective challenges, teachers need training and support to address these issues. After Angela and Krista identified the source of Gino's and Marco's social difficulties, they asked for assistance in designing their interventions. According to the New London Group (1996), learners in a community of practice trust in the guidance of peers and teachers. Because the interns participating in the workshop functioned as a community of practice, they began to rely on me, as their mentor, and on each other to extend their learning from the workshops to classroom practice.

When Krista voiced her concerns about Gino, we met briefly before one of the workshops to discuss how she could identify Gino's problems socializing at recess and how she could teach appropriate behavior without making Gino feel more isolated. When Angela saw how Marco was treated during reading partner activities, she wanted to teach the students in her classroom how to be more supportive of each other in small group tasks. I suggested that an English learner read a story to the class in his or her first language. As a result of that discussion, Krista, Angela, Krista and I organized the 'Good Reading Partner' lesson. Without mentoring and collaboration with the other interns, Angela and Krista would not have been able to design the interventions that were discussed in chapter four.

Although the mentoring and collaboration in the community of practice played an important role in Krista and Angela's interventions for Gino and Marco, their personal backgrounds may have been an influential factor in their motivation to intervene. Krista and Angela had both traveled for extended periods of time in countries where English is not spoken. During the first workshop, Angela and Krista described the difficulties they experienced when trying to communicate with speakers of other languages. I found during the workshop sessions that the interns, especially Angela and Krista, were very concerned about their English learners' socio-affective issues. At the conclusion of the study, the amount of change I observed regarding socio-affective issues was much higher than the changes I observed regarding academic issues. In the next section, I will discuss how a teacher's background can affect attitudes towards English learners.

6.2.2 Teacher background

As stated in chapter four, the four interns who participated in this study had background experience with people of diverse languages and cultures before taking part in the study. Two of the interns had studied abroad and had experience tutoring culturally diverse students, one intern had hosted foreign exchange students and traveled extensively, and one intern had spent time visiting relatives in Mexico and the Dominican Republic. The data from the discussions suggest that the interns' background experiences influenced their thinking about English learners. In our discussions, the interns drew upon their past experiences and their attempts to communicate with speakers of other languages. We also discussed their impressions of the French lesson, the readings from *Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture*, and their own English learners' experiences in the classroom. However, the four interns who participated in this study are not representative of all teacher education students.

Many teachers in the U.S. are part of the white European-American culture, are monolingual speakers of English and do not have the background experiences that are shared by the interns who participated in this study. The NCES data from the 2003-2004 school year show that 86% of teachers in the U.S. are classified as white/non-Hispanic. Also, nearly 71% of college and university students seeking credentials in education were classified as white/non-Hispanic. NCES data also show that only 58% of U.S. students enrolled in kindergarten through grade 12 during the 2003-2004 school year were classified as white/non-Hispanic (NCES, 2006). Approximately 20% of all students enrolled in grades K-12 in the U.S. public schools are Hispanic, 16% are African American and 4% are Asian American. These statistics show that between one quarter and one half of all U.S. children are educated by teachers who do not share their cultural and linguistic background.

The mismatch between student and teacher cultures has proven to be problematic for students who are not part of the majority culture in the U.S., the white European-American culture. As Heath found in her 1983 study, teachers who are part of the majority culture may be unaware of the differences between their own culture and a students' home culture. Other studies have been conducted on the effects of socioeconomic status (Bernstein, 1971; Heath, 1983; Espinosa & Laffey, 2003; Lane, Givner, & Pierson, 2004) and cultural and linguistic minority status (Cummins & Swain, 1986; Valdes, 1998; Baker, 2001; Brock & Raphael, 2005; Genesee et al., 2006; Ovando, et al., 2006) on student academic success. Many white European-American teachers are under the false assumption that culturally and linguistically diverse students must assimilate into the majority culture in order to be successful in school (Baker, 2001). Teachers may view children whose norms do not match those of the majority culture as cognitively and socially deficient (Delpit, 1995). A teacher will often link characteristics unrelated to a student's cognitive abilities to determine the student's potential for success.

Highly prized middle-class status for the child in the classroom was attained by demonstrating ease of interaction among adults, high degree of verbalization in Standard American English; the ability to become a leader; a neat and clean appearance; coming from a family that is educated, employed, living together and interested in the child; and the ability to participate well as a member of a group, (Rist, 2000, p. 8).

These aforementioned characteristics are highly valued by teachers and are often considered predictors for success. And even more critical for English learners, Rist notes that these positive attributes include fluency in Standard American English, a level of proficiency that can be difficult to achieve for linguistically and culturally diverse students.

Studies have shown that a cultural mismatch between student and teacher can result in the teacher's deficit perspective of English learners (Collins, 1988; Crawford, 1991; Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992; Snow, 1992; Auerbach, 1995; Baker, 2001). The underlying assumption is that students of culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds do not have access to social and intellectual resources in their homes. The assumption that English learners are culturally and cognitively deficient undermines the "funds of knowledge," defined as the skills, abilities, ideas and practices of particular cultural groups (Moll et al., 1992) that English learners bring to the classroom. English learners bring a wide variety of background knowledge and abilities to the classroom that are often ignored by teachers because their background knowledge and abilities differ from those of the teacher and children of the majority culture.

The interns who participated in this study did not indicate a deficit view of their English learners based upon the data from the survey taken before the study. Angela and Krista were both very eager to learn strategies of behavior modeling to help their English learners interact with peers more successfully. Both of these interns were at an advantage because they did not view their English learners as deficient because of their linguistic and cultural background. However, the difficulty lies in training teachers to understand English learners' socio-affective issues when the teachers do not have the same background experiences as Angela and Krista. In the next section, I discuss an approach that teacher preparation programs can provide to build background experiences with diversity.

6.2.3 Sensitizing teachers to English learners' socio-affective issues: Service learning

One approach that can be used in a teacher education program to develop understanding of culturally diverse students is to provide teacher certification candidates with diversity experiences through service learning projects. According to Eyler & Giles (1999),

Service-learning is a form of experiential education where learning occurs through a cycle of action and reflection as students work with others through a process of applying what they are learning to community problems and, at the same time, reflecting upon their experience as they seek to achieve real objectives for the community and deeper understanding and skills for themselves.

Service learning projects involve meaningful community service combined with instruction and opportunities for reflection. Example projects include community service in a variety of environments such as homeless shelters, soup kitchens, after-school programs, and hospitals. Service learning is intended to benefit both the volunteer who performs the service and the community that receives the service. For a service learning project to yield educational value to the volunteer, projects must include carefully planned and simultaneous integration with an academic course (LeSourd, 1997). As part of a university program, the student learning can be emphasized by providing a service learning experience with a connected course involving class discussions and written assignments intended to guide the student to reflect on their experiences and critically analyze what they have learned as a result of the service learning experience.

There are a wide variety of organizations who promote many different types of service learning projects for students of all ages. For example, the International Partnership for Service Learning and Leadership (IPSL) combines the benefits of service learning and study abroad. Participants in IPSL can choose to perform their service learning projects in countries such as

Jamaica, India, Ecuador, Mexico, Russia, and the Philippines. In addition to choosing a country, participants can choose an area of focus for their service including the teaching of English, tutoring special needs students, or volunteering in a hospital. IPSL also offers courses in language and culture that can be scheduled around the participants' volunteer schedule. In some countries, IPSL offers participants the opportunity to stay with a host family. The benefit of a service learning project that takes place abroad is that students have the opportunity to interact with culturally and linguistically diverse people, and they also have the opportunity to experience the linguistic challenges faced by speakers of other languages in the U.S.

Despite the benefits service learning abroad may have, travel outside of the U.S. for a service learning project may not be practical for every student. Service learning can connect a college or university to the local community to give students the opportunity to participate in service learning projects such as working at a women's shelter or tutoring adults in a literacy program. In many communities, social service organizations are in need of volunteers to meet the needs of immigrant or refugee populations with limited proficiency in English. The objective of integrating service learning into a teacher preparation program is to provide future teachers with experience in diverse communities and to challenge their assumptions about people of linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds before they enter the classroom. This goal can be achieved abroad or close to students' homes.

Service learning projects are becoming increasingly popular in colleges and universities throughout the U.S. At least one fourth of all higher education institutions offer a service learning program to students (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2006). California State University in partnership with Service Learning 2000 Division of Youth Service California have combined efforts to infuse service learning into teacher preparation programs in

the state of California (The California State University, 2006). Service-learning has been integrated into courses that are part of teacher education programs to “help socialize teachers in the essential moral and civic obligations of teaching, fostering life-long civic engagement, adapting to the needs of learners with diverse and special needs, and having a commitment to advocate for social justice for children and families,” (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2006).

Research regarding the effects of service-learning experiences on beginning teachers is in the early stages. In a study conducted by Hale (2008), eight pre-service teachers enrolled in two different education courses were asked to participate in a tutoring program for children of Mexican immigrants. She found five themes that emerged from her students’ experience with service learning: breakdown of stereotypes, increased confidence, application of course theory, advocacy, and the desire to become an action researcher. As the participants in Hale’s study began their service project, the participants reported that the personal relationships they formed with Mexican-Americans broke down their stereotypes and deficit views. Participants reported that the statistics of Latino dropout rates reinforced their former view that Latinos do not care about education. Through their work with Latinos, participants found that the families of their students value work ethic and have a great deal of respect for teachers. As a result of their work with Latino students, the participants’ confidence in their ability to make a difference in the life of students of culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds increased.

The participants’ service learning project coincided with the cultural diversity component of one of their education courses. Participants had the opportunity to internalize theories they had learned in their courses through their interactions with the students at their project site. The opportunity to internalize knowledge is an important component of learning according to Freire’s

theory of “banking education” (1970) where he states that knowledge only emerges as a result of participation. Participants reported that they developed a deeper empathy for the cultural and linguistic struggles faced by immigrant families because they had the opportunity to apply the theories learned in the classroom to their work in the service learning project. Their empathy for immigrant families inspired the participants to become advocates for their students as they realized that some teachers are not supportive of culturally and linguistically diverse students. The participants also reported their desire to continue their tutoring beyond the termination of their service learning project. Three of the participants offered to help the author with further research and reported the desire to research other ways to help Latino parents become involved with their children’s education. As a result of the study, the participants learned to question the social order and desired to become agents of change (Greene, 1997).

Research has shown that teachers must understand how culture, language and background experiences influence learning and social behavior to understand the challenges encountered by English learners (Valdes, 1998; Baker, 2001; Genesee et al., 2006; Ovando, et al., 2006). Despite the fact that the majority of students who pursue the field of education are white, middle-class and monolingual individuals, teacher preparation programs in the U.S. prepare certification candidates to teach students of all cultural backgrounds. Therefore, it is imperative that teacher education programs prepare future teachers to understand the social and affective issues faced by culturally diverse students. Although a service learning program will not eliminate all negative attitudes that teachers may hold towards diverse students, university teacher preparation programs must prepare future educators to teach a diverse population of students. Service learning is one way to challenge deficit assumptions future educators may have about cultural and linguistic diversity before they enter the classroom as teachers.

6.3 IMPLICATIONS OF CHAPTER FIVE: LEARNING TO ADDRESS ENGLISH LEARNERS' ACADEMIC ISSUES

As presented in chapter five, the interns learned to incorporate some, but not all, of the strategies presented in the workshop sessions from the SIOP model. The interns learned to identify and teach key vocabulary by creating context and using visuals. The interns also developed other teaching practices such as building upon students' background knowledge, modeling tasks, and including more comprehension checks. The interns learned to incorporate certain SIOP strategies into their lessons because they were provided with instruction and models during the workshops. Interns were observed periodically throughout the course of the workshops and received supportive and constructive feedback on each of the observed lessons. In addition to the mentoring and feedback provided, the interns also had the opportunity to view video clips of each others' lessons, discuss the video clips with each other, and collaborate about future lessons during the workshop sessions.

6.3.1 Use of the SIOP model: Suggestions for Teacher Development

The results of this study show that two key components of successful implementation of the SIOP model are mentoring and collaboration. These findings support the research conducted on the SIOP model prior to its publication (Echevarria et al., 2004). The authors of the SIOP model

incorporated mentoring and collaboration when they field tested the professional development program from 1999-2002. The teachers who participated in the SIOP training during the field testing received instruction in the summer during a professional development institute over a three-day period. During the school year that followed, SIOP researchers observed and videotaped each of the teachers three times. The teachers and researchers met periodically throughout the year to discuss the videotaped lessons and provide constructive feedback to the teachers (CREDE, 1999). Since the publication of the SIOP manual in 2004, SIOP institutes have been conducted in various parts of the U.S. for teachers, administrators, professional staff and teacher educators.

The authors of SIOP state in their introduction that teacher in-service programs are not effective unless they are “ongoing, sustained, and targeted to the teachers’ classroom and professional knowledge needs,” (Echevarria et al., 2004). They continue by saying that teacher development must include extensive modeling, coaching, and meaningful collaboration where teachers can share knowledge and experiences where teachers can engage in actual teaching. They also cite research stating that short term workshops without follow-up have been shown to be ineffective, (Gonzalez & Darling-Hammond, 1997; National Commission on Teaching and America’s Future, 2007).

The interns that participated in this study learned to incorporate some of the strategies presented in the SIOP model because of the ongoing mentoring and collaboration that took place over a period of eight weeks. During the instructional portion of the workshops, interns were encouraged to share their ideas for incorporating the SIOP strategies into their lessons. After observing the interns’ lessons, I conferenced with each intern about their lesson and offered both supportive feedback, suggestions for improvement, and answered questions. As we watched

video clips of the lessons during the workshops, interns were encouraged to offer their supportive feedback and suggestions for each others' lessons. This continuous cycle of collaboration, coaching and feedback enabled the interns to make progress in their learning in the same way as the teacher participants in the SIOP training workshops.

6.3.2 Limitations of the workshops

Despite the ability that the interns developed in identifying and teaching key vocabulary, the data discussed in chapter five showed that the interns did not learn to change their lessons in ways that specifically addressed the needs of English learners. For example, the interns did not fully understand the concept of academic language, they did not learn to modify their instructional talk, and they did not learn to identify and teach linguistic structures necessary for English learners to access the content of their lessons. During the workshops, the interns were given instruction on how to modify instructional talk, identify academic language, and identify language objectives including language structures. In addition to the instruction, the interns read and discussed written examples of lessons incorporating the practices they had learned. When the interns designed their lessons, I observed that their lessons reflected a learning of good teaching practices that were presented in the SIOP model. However, their lessons did not reflect a clear understanding of how to teach the language structures necessary to understand and participate in content lessons.

One of the reasons that the interns did not develop a deep understanding of English learners' linguistic issues was the lack of time. One of the components to the SIOP training conducted by CREDE and the continuing SIOP institutes is that the participants have the opportunity to view video tapes of effective SIOP lessons and practice presenting SIOP lessons. During the

workshops, I provided the interns with written examples of lessons that incorporated SIOP strategies such as teaching language objectives and providing comprehensible input. However, the interns did not have the opportunity to view video tapes of effective SIOP lessons or the opportunity to practice lessons in the workshops. Because each workshop lasted only one hour, we did not have sufficient time for the interns to receive instruction, discuss their learning, watch examples on video, and practice lessons. As a result, the interns only developed a partial understanding of the strategies presented in the workshops. The findings of this study provide a critical lesson to teacher educators; teacher education students must have the opportunity to observe quality instruction and have opportunities to practice the instructional methods observed for instructional change to take place. The CREDE (1999) study on the SIOP training included videos of effective SIOP lessons and opportunities for teachers to practice lessons.

6.3.3 Limitations of the SIOP model

In addition to the lack of time, the lack of instruction provided by the SIOP model was also a factor that contributed to the interns' learning. As discussed in chapter five, the SIOP model does not provide explicit instruction on how to identify language objectives beyond vocabulary or on how to provide comprehensible input. The majority of instruction in the SIOP model is dedicated to the presentation of good teaching practices rather than teaching that specifically addresses the needs of English learners.

The following figure is an outline of the "Instruction" portion of the SIOP model. The criteria listed under each of the six headings are the topics presented in the SIOP model for the "Instruction" category and thus form the criteria for the rubric in the Observation Protocol. This outline is taken from the rubric used to assess teachers' implementation of the SIOP model,

although some of the criteria have been summarized in the chart (see Appendix O for the full observation protocol). The “Instruction” portion of the SIOP model clearly emphasizes good teaching practices that do not specifically address English learners’ linguistic needs.

INSTRUCTION	
<p>1 Building background</p> <p>7. Link to student background knowledge 8. Links made to prior learning 9. Key vocabulary emphasized</p>	<p>2 Comprehensible Input</p> <p>10. Appropriate speech for student proficiency 11. Clear explanation of tasks 12. Variety of techniques used</p>
<p>3 Strategies</p> <p>13. Provides opportunity for students to use strategies 14. Consistent use of scaffolding techniques 15. Teacher promotes higher order thinking skills</p>	<p>4 Interaction</p> <p>16. Frequent teacher/student interaction 17. Grouping configuration supports objectives 18. Provides wait time for student responses 19. Opportunities to clarify in first language</p>
<p>5 Practice and Application</p> <p>20. Provides hands-on materials 21. Students apply language and content knowledge 22. Integrates listening, speaking, reading and writing</p>	<p>6 Effectiveness of lesson delivery</p> <p>23. Content objectives supported 24. Language objectives supported 25. Students engaged at least 90% of the time 26. Pacing appropriate to student level</p>

Figure 3: Instruction portion of the SIOP model

On the observation protocol, the observer rates a teacher’s lesson on each of the thirty indicators. The observation protocol is designed as a rubric with each indicator scored on a scale from 0 – 4 and descriptors given for a score of four, two and zero. The teachers who participated in the SIOP professional development workshops were observed and evaluated using this observation protocol. Clearly, a teacher could receive a high score on this observation protocol without giving detailed attention to the linguistic needs of English learners. The items that specifically address the needs of English learners, numbers 9, 10, 19 and 24 make up a very small portion of the observation protocol. In the areas where language is addressed in the observation protocol, very little attention is given to specific linguistic items. For example, the descriptor for a score of four in the comprehensible input category is as follows:

Speech appropriate for students' proficiency level (e.g., slower rate, enunciation, and simple sentence structure for beginners)

The descriptor for the highest score in comprehensible input includes no mention of language use other than "simple sentence structure for beginners." Based upon the observation protocol, a teacher or an evaluator could interpret comprehensible input to mean speaking slowly and clearly, disregarding any specific linguistic changes to the instructional talk.

6.3.4 Use of the SIOP model in the U.S: A critique.

The SIOP model is becoming a widely used model for professional development in the instruction of English learners across the U.S. SIOP institutes were offered in various cities across the U.S. in 2007 and will be offered once per month in different locations during 2008, (Shelterd Instruction Observation Protocol: The SIOP Institute, 2005). SIOP materials can also be purchased online by individual teachers who are looking for support in teaching English learners, teacher educators and by school district administrators looking for models of professional development. SIOP materials include the manual used for the workshops in this study, "Making Content Comprehensible for English Learners: The SIOP Model," as well as other publications that include SIOP lesson ideas and instructional videos that support use of the SIOP model. A new publication, "An Insider's Guide to SIOP Coaching," is written for teacher educators or professional staff developers who are familiar with the SIOP model and intend to coach students in teacher preparation programs or teachers in staff development workshops (The Center for Applied Linguistics [CAL], 2007).

As the SIOP model becomes increasingly popular, more school districts and universities may operate under the assumption that the SIOP model is an all-inclusive training program to prepare teachers to meet the needs of linguistically diverse students. As a result, teachers will only learn to employ the teaching practices emphasized in the SIOP model such as building upon prior knowledge and teaching key vocabulary with visuals. Although these teaching practices are techniques that make lessons more comprehensible for all students, they do not adequately address the linguistic needs of English learners. If teachers have not learned to identify linguistic structures that pose difficulty for English learners, use of the SIOP model is reduced to vocabulary teaching. Although key vocabulary words are important, vocabulary is not the only feature of academic language (Rosebery et al., 1992). In reviewing the testimonials from past SIOP institute participants, two comments illustrate the SIOP model's emphasis on good teaching practices rather than instruction specific to English learners, "Many teachers ask me how to teach vocabulary – I think I have the answer now," from a K-6 teacher and, "I like that it is good teaching practice for ALL kids," from a professional development coach (CAL, 2007).

As the linguistic needs of English learners remain unaddressed, the achievement gap between English learners and students from the majority culture will also remain. School districts and teacher preparation programs who use the SIOP model may claim to have teachers who are trained in meeting the needs of linguistically diverse learners. However, the reality is that teachers who are trained to use the SIOP model may not be prepared to deliver the kind of instruction that meets the specific linguistic needs of English learners. The training necessary for teachers to meet the linguistic needs of English learners is far more complex than one manual, such as the SIOP model, can provide. In the next section, I will explain an important element of

teacher training that must included in teacher development programs workshops to prepare teachers to meet the linguistic needs of English learners.

6.3.5 Teaching teachers to thinking linguistically

The idea of thinking linguistically has been discussed by Bailey, Burkett & Freeman (2007) in “The Mediating Role of Language in Teaching and Learning: A Classroom Perspective.” The authors state,

The problem is that classroom participants generally do not appreciate how deeply embedded teaching and learning are in language use. Like water for the fish, language is so fundamental and encompassing in classrooms settings that it becomes transparent. When content teachers talk about their classes, they typically focus on the knowledge that they want their students to learn and the activities and materials they have designed to support such learning. Where teachers see concepts, educational linguists see language; where educational linguists see language processes, teachers see activities and lessons, (p. 609).

Bailey, et al. have defined the very problem that arose in this study. Teachers who are not trained in educational linguistics see language as transparent. To view language as transparent means that one does not view language as an obstacle in communicating meaning. If language is seen as transparent, a speaker’s sole focus is the content of the message with little attention given to the language that communicates the message. In the classroom, language is used as a medium of instruction for all content areas. Regardless of the subject matter, teachers use language to communicate content to students. For students who are native speakers of the language of instruction, language is transparent because the students’ ability to access content is often not inhibited by the language. For an English learner however, language is not transparent. Because

English learners must focus attention on both the language and content, their access to content may be restricted by their lack of understanding the language. When the language is not clear, it can become a barrier between the student and content knowledge (Bailey, Burkett & Freeman, p. 609).

6.3.6 Educational linguistics

The idea of teachers learning to think linguistically has been addressed by others who have stressed the importance of understanding how language works to create meaning when the language itself is used as a medium of instruction for content (Clair, 2000; Fillmore & Snow, 2000). Fillmore & Snow (2000) stated that teachers need a course in language and linguistics that would focus on language structure, language and literacy development, language use in educational settings, the history of English, and the basics of linguistic analysis (p. 32). They propose that a linguistic course for educators differ from the type of course offered to students of linguistics. In an educational linguistics course, linguistic structure must be introduced in an educational context where that structure would be used (Fillmore & Snow, 2000). For example, question formation could be discussed in the context of an elementary science text to teach the language necessary to pose questions that may precede a science experiment.

In a publication by Fillmore and Snow for the Center of Applied Linguistics, (CAL, 2000) the authors outline a set of ten teacher competencies that address teachers' linguistic awareness entitled, "What Teachers Need to Know about Language." In the following paragraphs, I will summarize four of the major points that connect to an educational linguistics course and provide examples. Although many topics in the field of sociolinguistics may also be included in

educational linguistics, I choose to focus my discussion on the structures of language that are necessary to address the needs of English learners.

First, Fillmore and Snow suggest that teachers must understand the difference between conversational and academic language. As discussed in chapter two, an English learner's conversational skills may not indicate academic language skills. English learners may learn to understand conversational English quickly, but as the research conducted by Cummins (1986) shows, it may take five to seven years for an English learner to acquire the type of proficiency necessary to understand the academic language found in textbooks.

Second, teachers must understand that language is comprised of units called phonemes, morphemes, words, phrases, and sentences. A phoneme is defined as the smallest unit of speech that distinguishes one word from another, for example the *-b* in *bat* and the *-c* in *cat*. A morpheme is the smallest linguistic unit that has meaning. For example, the word *walked* has two morphemes *walk* and *-ed*. Because morphological and phonological rules differ among languages, teachers must understand that language is arbitrary, meaning that the sequence of sounds that make meaning in English may have no meaning in another. For example, an English learner may not be able to distinguish between the different phonemes at the beginnings of the words *theater* and *television* if the phoneme *-th* is not pronounced differently from *-t* in the student's first language. Also, an English learner may not understand that the word *cats* refers to more than one cat if the morpheme *-s* is not used to signify plurals in the student's first language.

A third competency related to phonology and morphology is that teachers need to understand the language irregularities that exist in English. A teacher can assume that a class of English speakers understands that *children* is the plural of *child*, but an English learner may assume that

the plural form of the word is *childs*. Another example of irregularities specifically relate to the rules of English spelling. Spelling can be extremely complicated for English learners because spelling rules do not necessarily correspond with pronunciation rules. For example, *-ough* in the word *through* is pronounced quite differently from the pronunciation in the word *enough*. Teachers must understand that English learners are constantly in the process of learning and applying new rules that English speakers take for granted.

Finally, a teacher must understand the syntactic rules that determine how words are combined to form phrases and sentences to create meaning in the English language. Elements of syntax include subject pronouns, verb phrases, and direct and indirect objects. Syntax also includes complex grammatical structures such as verb tenses and word order. For example, those who speak English as a first language understand that English follows the subject-verb-object (SVO) order without explicit teaching, meaning the subject is followed by the verb which is followed by the object. English learners whose first language follows an SOV pattern, such as Japanese or Korean, need explicit instruction in English word order. In a discussion of syntax, an educational linguistics class must include a brief study of syntactic rules in other languages. Teachers of English learners can better address students' errors if they have an understanding of their English learners' first language syntactic rules.

Courses in linguistics are offered at most colleges and universities; however linguistics is not a course required by most teacher certification programs. Many colleges and universities offer certification programs in the teaching of English to speakers of other languages, which are frequently called TESOL or ESOL programs. Teachers seeking TESOL certification are normally required to take at least one course in educational or applied linguistics. However, students seeking certification in other areas are not necessarily required to take any such course.

For example, Columbia Teacher's College requires a course called Pedagogical English Grammar in its Master of Arts TESOL degree program (Teachers College, Columbia University). But teachers seeking elementary certification or secondary certification in a content area are not bound by this requirement. Without even one course in educational linguistics, it is doubtful that many teachers will learn to think linguistically on the job.

The state of Florida has taken steps towards encouraging teachers to think and teach linguistically. The Florida Department of Education Bureau of Educator Recruitment and Professional Development passed a mandate in 2001 with new requirements for teacher certification. The new Florida law requires ESOL preparation for all teacher candidates seeking certification in prekindergarten-primary education, elementary education, middle grades English, English 6-12, and teachers of special needs students. The ESOL preparation requirements include five courses including an ESOL methodology course, materials development, cross-cultural communication, evaluation of ESOL and applied linguistics, (Florida Department of Education, 2001).

Clearly there is a need for teacher preparation programs to prepare certification candidates with linguistic knowledge. The data on the lack of linguistic knowledge displayed by the interns who participated in this study show that teachers can enter the field unprepared to meet the linguistic demands of English learners. It is no longer practical to include linguistics only in certification programs for certification candidates pursuing TESOL certification. With the number of English learners mainstreamed into all content area classes, all content area teachers must be prepared to integrate both language and content into their lessons.

6.4 SUMMARY

As our schools become increasingly diverse, it is imperative that university teacher education programs prepare certification candidates to address the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse learners. Our future educators must have experience working with people of diverse cultural backgrounds before their first day in the classroom. Because the majority of teacher education students are of the European-American culture, it is critical to provide experiences with diversity in ways that will give diversity a human face. Service learning projects are one way to give students an opportunity to interact with culturally and linguistically diverse people while their learning is guided through assignments and discussions connected to a university course. Once teachers have background experiences with diversity, they can begin to understand the social and affective needs of English learners. Teachers also need training and support to be able to identify English learners' social and affective struggles and to become advocates for their English learners.

In addition to preparing our future teachers to understand the social and affective issues of English learners, certification programs must prepare teachers to address the linguistic needs of English learners. This study has shown that models of instruction for English learners, such as the SIOP model, provide instructional strategies that may benefit all students but do not necessarily meet the linguistic needs of English learners. The SIOP model can serve as an excellent planning tool for teachers who have the background knowledge in linguistics to fully understand the SIOP recommendations. But without a knowledge base in linguistics, teachers may overlook important linguistic structures that English learners need to access content. Therefore, teachers must learn to think and teach linguistically to enable English learners to

participate actively and productively in schooling and to achieve the academic success so frequently discussed in educational literature.

6.5 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

This study has shown that professional development intended to prepare teachers to meet the needs of English learners is an extremely complex issue. When I first designed the workshops for this study, I did not realize how many complex concepts I was expecting the interns to learn and to incorporate into their lessons in a short period of time. I assumed that the interns had the awareness of linguistics necessary to implement the strategies of the SIOP model after reading and discussing brief explanations and examples. My assumptions about the interns' linguistic knowledge are not uncommon. The authors of the SIOP model designed a comprehensive checklist of strategies that teachers can incorporate into their lessons to make academic content comprehensible to English learners, but teachers must have an understanding of language to implement the SIOP model effectively. Although the SIOP model can be an extremely useful tool to teachers of English learners, teachers that do not have the background in linguistics discussed in chapter six may not be able to incorporate the two indicators most important to English learners, language objectives and comprehensible input.

Another complex aspect of professional development includes training teachers to view English learners favorably and to understand their socio-affective issues. The interns who participated in this study had prior experiences with cultural and linguistic diversity. After participating in the French lesson, reading and discussing the situations encountered by Deng in *Windows to Language, Literacy and Culture* and drawing upon their own background

experiences, the interns showed an increased level of empathy towards English learners' socio-affective issues. The discussions of English learners' socio-affective issues created a community of practice where the interns held favorable views of their English learners and became motivated to learn strategies that could make their lessons more comprehensible to their English learners. In this study, raising the interns' awareness of socio-affective issues was an important first step in teaching them to meet the needs of English learners. The socio-affective discussions that took place at the beginning of this study raised the interns' level of concern for their English learners' social and academic success. Over the course of the eight weeks, I realized that the socio-affective discussions framed the discussions of the SIOP model strategies in later workshops. With an understanding of English learners' socio-affective issues, the teaching strategies presented in the SIOP model became meaningful to the interns in the context of their own classrooms.

In addition to the findings presented in chapters four and five of this study, I have learned that one characteristic is crucial to the success of any professional development program. Teacher attitude plays a major role in the learning that occurs in any professional development setting. The interns who participated in this study displayed favorable views of their English learners, creating an ideal environment for the workshops. However, I know that many teachers and interns hold less favorable views of English learners. Over the past year, I have discussed this study with the elementary interns of the 2007-2008 class in their seminar course. I learned that the majority of elementary interns lack experiences with cultural and linguistic diversity, which inspired me to explore the idea of service learning discussed in chapter six. I have learned that professional development workshops consisting of instruction in academic issues such as recognizing BICS and CALP, presenting language objectives and delivering comprehensible

input may be meaningless to teachers who do not appreciate the cultural and linguistic background of their English learners. Therefore, it is imperative that teacher education and professional development programs challenge deficit perspectives and prepare teachers to meet the socio-affective needs of diverse students before attempting to address the academic needs of English learners.

APPENDIX A

**Teaching English language learners
A survey of elementary interns**

Name of intern _____

Name of school _____ District _____

Please read the following questions and answer them to the best of your ability. If you do not know the answer to a question, please write, “I don’t know.”

English language learner (ELL) is described by at least one of the following: a student whose first language is not English, was educated in a language other than English and/or speaks a language other than English at home.

1. Do you have at least one ELL assigned to a class that you are currently teaching, or will be teaching later in the school year?

If your answer is no, you may skip the remaining questions of this survey.

2. How many English language learners are enrolled in your class/classes to the best of your knowledge?

3. What grade level(s) are you teaching or will be teaching this year?

4. What language(s) other than English do the ELLs in your class speak?

5. Do the ELLs in your class **read and write** in a language other than English?

6. How would you describe the oral English language skills of the ELL students in your class? (No functional ability in English, comprehends some or most of classroom talk, participates fully in all lessons).

7. How would you describe the English literacy (reading and writing) skills of the ELL students in your class? Use the descriptions from question #7 to explain ELL students’ reading and writing abilities.

8. What kinds of services are provided by the school district to assist English language learners in the **language learning** process? **Academic areas**?

9. Do the ELLs in your class struggle with any particular academic subject(s)? If so, which one(s)?

10. What kind of support does the school district provide to **teachers** of English language learners? Does your mentor have training in working with ELLs?

Please add any additional information that you think would be helpful. Thank you!

Are you interested in participating in a research study where you would receive training in strategies for teaching English language learners? Checking “yes” does not require you to participate in the study. You would be given all information regarding the details of the study before agreeing to participate.

_____ Yes _____ No

THANK YOU!

Michele Harr

5300 WWPH or mlh32@pitt.edu

APPENDIX B

HOME LANGUAGE SURVEY

HOME LANGUAGE SURVEY*

The Office of Civil Rights (OCR) requires that school districts/charter schools/full day AVTS identify limited English proficient (LEP) students in order to provide appropriate language instructional programs for them. Pennsylvania has selected the Home Language Survey as the method for the identification.

School District:
School:

Date:

Student's Name:

Grade:

1. What is/was the student's first language? _____

2. Does the student speak a language(s) other than English?
(Do not include languages learned in school.)

Yes No

If yes, specify the language(s): _____

3. What language(s) is/are spoken in your home? _____

4. Has the student attended any United States school in any 3 years during his/her lifetime?

Yes No

If yes, complete the following:

Name of School	State	Dates Attended
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

Person completing this form (if other than parent/guardian):

Parent/Guardian signature:

*The school district/charter school/full day AVTS has the responsibility under the federal law to serve students who are limited English proficient and need English instructional services. Given this responsibility, the school district/charter school/full day AVTS has the right to ask for the information it needs to identify English Language Learners (ELLs). As part of the responsibility to locate and identify ELLs, the school district/charter school/full day AVTS may conduct screenings or ask for related information about students who are already enrolled in the school as well as from students who enroll in the school district/charter school/full day AVTS in the future.

APPENDIX C

ATTITUDE SURVEY

Please answer the following questions about the English language learners (ELLs) in your class. Please refer ONLY to ELLs when answering the questions.

Circle one of the following:

SA - Strongly agree, **A** – Agree, **D** – Disagree, **SD** – Strongly disagree

1. I believe that ELLs should be mainstreamed in all academic courses with English-speaking students.

SA A D SD

2. The ELLs in my class are capable of mastering the academic objectives of this class.

SA A D SD

3. I expect that most of the ELLs in my class will pass to the next grade level.

SA A D SD

4. I believe that the ELLs in my class understand almost everything that is said, even when they are not participating.

SA A D SD

5. I believe that the ELLs in my class can speak English better when interacting with peers in social situations than they can in academic situations.

SA A D SD

6. I believe that ELLs should speak English at all times when they are at school.

SA A D SD

7. When ELLs use their first language, it interferes with their learning of English.

SA A D SD

8. I believe that the ELLs in my class are trying to do their best academically.

SA A D SD

Please add any additional comments:

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE

Intern _____

Please answer the following questions as thoroughly and honestly as possible. If you do not know the answer to a question about an ELL, please try to find as much information as you can. Bring these questionnaires to the first session for discussion.

PART I: Background of your ELLs?

- a. Why did the families relocate to the U.S.?

- b. What language is spoken in the home of each of your ELLs?

- c. What was the ELLs' educational experience before coming to the U.S.? Did they attend school full time?

- d. Do your ELLs receive any kind of extra support or additional learning experiences (ex. reading support, attending Japanese school, etc.)?

- e. Do your ELLs read and write in their first language?

- f. What do you know about your ELLs' level of English proficiency?

APPENDIX E

REFLECTION

Reflection – Workshop # _____

What I learned today as a result of the workshop....

Questions I have or areas that pose difficulties.....

APPENDIX F

FINAL WORKSHOP REFLECTION

APPENDIX G

OBSERVATION REFLECTION FORM

Observation Reflection Form

Intern _____

Topic of observation – Academic language Language objectives Participation

What I want children to learn – What is your objective of this lesson?

Tasks that support students' learning – What tasks did you plan to support learning for all students?

Academic language necessary for the lesson – What language skills are necessary for ELs to possess in order to participate fully in the lesson?

Grouping that supports learning – How were students grouped to support learning: small group, pairs, whole group?

Critical incident – Identify an incident that, in your opinion, was critical information telling you about ELLs' understanding or lack of understanding.

APPENDIX H

SCAFFOLDING

Scaffolding ELLs to Cognitively and Linguistically Complex Tasks

Problem: An ELL is having difficulties identifying parts of speech (noun, adjective, verb) in reading/language arts class.

Intervention: Teacher designs four tutoring sessions for the ELL

Session 1

Teacher shows student 3 posters she created using magazine pictures and labels. One poster has pictures of people, animals, buildings, outdoor scenes and objects such as books and pencils. Each picture on this poster is labeled as “people” “places” and “things.” Another poster has pictures of people swimming, running, reading, etc. and it is labeled “action words.” The last poster shows shapes, colors, emotions, etc. and is labeled “words that tell about something.”

After discussing the words, the teacher shows the student five sentences, ex. “The dog chewed on a big bone.” The student is asked to identify words in the sentences as “people” “places” “action words” etc. by using the posters.

Session 2

Teacher reviews the posters with the student. After the review, the teacher turns the posters over and gives the student five sentences. He is asked to identify words in the sentences using the labels provided by the teacher just as in session 1, but this time without the posters.

Session 3

The teacher reviews the posters again with the student. This time, she replaces the labels, “people” “places” “action words” etc. with the labels “noun” “adjective” and “verb.” The teacher gives the student five sentences. This time, the student must identify the words in the sentences with the new labels, using the posters as a guide.

Session 4

The teacher reviews the posters again with the student, using the new labels. She gives the student five sentences. This time, the student must identify the words in the sentence using the new labels, without the help of the posters.

APPENDIX I

BICS AND CALP EXAMPLES

From Speaking to Writing in the Content Classroom

Prior experience becomes a context for interpreting the new experience . . . prior experiences serve as the contexts within which the language being used is to be understood. Lily Wong-Fillmore, "When Does Teacher Talk Work as Input?"

Using the Mode Continuum

In Chapter 1, I briefly touched on the idea of register. One of the ways we looked at this was to compare four short science texts. Here are four similar texts again, this time as more extended pieces of language. They illustrate how certain linguistic features change as language becomes increasingly closer to written forms.

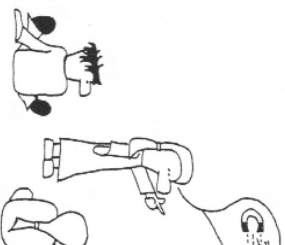
Text 1: (spoken by three 10-year-old students, with accompanying action)
this . . . no, it doesn't go . . . it doesn't move . . . try that . . . yes, it does . . . a bit . . . that won't . . . won't work, it's not metal . . . these are the best . . . going really fast.

Text 2: (spoken by one student about the action, after the event)
we tried a pin . . . a pencil sharpener . . . some iron filings and a piece of plastic . . . the magnet didn't attract the pin.

Text 3: (written by the same student)
Our experiment was to find out what a magnet attracted. We discovered that a magnet attracts some kinds of metal. It attracted the iron filings, but not the pin.

Text 4: (taken from a child's encyclopedia)
A magnet . . . is able to pick up, or attract, a piece of steel or iron because its magnetic field flows into the magnet, turning it into a temporary magnet. Magnetic attraction occurs only between ferrous materials.

As discussed in Chapter 1, the channel shown here together with the typical face contexts. The face objects need not be these, that), to verbal the other participant In Text 2 the c learned and no longer structure the experience ple she is referring to what is happening (a



Reconstructing Experience Through Language A

the text; a lot of information a written text is to use turned into a noun (often language because it talk about, rather than

While spoken and written continuum of texts illustrates how this bl for example, may be qu contact, and without (in that are implicit in two-aloud" the kind of language continuum, it is p like" or "more written-lik

APPENDIX J

CLASSROOM EXAMPLES

Appendix J

Classroom Examples

Here are some examples from 6th grade mainstream teachers of how to determine the language functions and structures that need to be addressed in a lesson.

Example 1

Subject: Social Studies

Content Objective: To understand the period of the 1920s and the women's rights movement.

The language objective is determined by deciding on the function that language will have in the lesson, and by thinking about what language structures an ELL will need in order to participate in the lesson. Because students will be comparing what women *could* and *couldn't* do—and what they *did* and *didn't* do—in the 1920s, they will need the language function of comparing. The language structure is contractions. The language objective will be to learn contractions in order to make comparisons.

Example 2

Subject: Science

Content Objective: To understand the sequential pattern of an experiment and how one step affects another.

In this lesson, explaining the steps of a science experiment is the needed language function. Because if-then statements are a type of language structure we use to explain sequence in English, the language objective is to use if-then statements to explain the steps of the experiment. If necessary, you can model sentences for students (e.g., "If the temperature of the solution changes, then viscosity . . .").

Example 3

Subject: Math

Content Objective: To comprehend the differences between two or more polygons.

The needed language function is classifying. Because students will need to understand comparative structures such as "greater than" and "less than," the language objective becomes using "greater than," "less than," "similar," and "equal to" in classifying polygons.

Example 4

Subject: Language Arts

Content Objective: To learn how to express persuasive opinions.

The language function is persuading because the lesson involves forming opinions in order to be able to persuade. The language structure will be using the sentence starters "I think" and "In my opinion."

APPENDIX K

CLASSROOM TALK EXAMPLES

Appendix K

SCAFFOLDING LANGUAGE, SCAFFOLDING LEARNING

Teacher's words	Commentary
You have to place a magnet, put a magnet, into the cradle, and place another magnet on top of the cradled magnet	<i>teacher refers to the written instructions, introduces less well-known word place alongside more familiar word put.</i>
So you've got one magnet in here	<i>pointing</i>
then you have to put another magnet on top, right?	<i>holding the second magnet, indicating where it must be placed but not actually placing it</i>
. then you have to alt-ern-ate the magnets.	<i>alternate is said slowly and with emphasis</i>
It says "alternating the poles" . . . changing the poles.	<i>models the more formal word (alternate) but uses this along with a familiar "everyday" word (change); also holds the second magnet and indicates how the magnet should be turned</i>
so if you put it facing like this . . . you've got it one way like this,	<i>demonstrating</i>
then you change the poles around	<i>indicating the movement by turning the second magnet in the air but not placing it</i>
change it to the other side, alternate the poles.	<i>switches between more and less formal terms</i>
So you're trying it each way	<i>summarizing what the children should do.</i>

FIGURE 2-1. *Scaffolding Instructions*

appropriate for the age level of the children. At the same time, the teacher was building bridges into this written text so that the learners were given access to new and more formal language. She was amplifying, not simplifying, the language.

Talk Is Necessary for the Task

A group task should *require*, not simply *encourage*, talk. Let's imagine that you are working with the topic of insects. If you ask groups of children simply to "talk about" a picture of insects, there is no real reason or need for the picture to be discussed, and probably not all children will join in. In this case talk is invited, even encouraged, but it is not *required*, since there is no authentic purpose for using it. However, if you give a pair of children two similar pictures of insects that differ in some details (see Figure

APPENDIX L

INSTRUCTIONAL CONVERSATION

TABLE 1
Elements of the Instructional Conversation (Goldenberg, 1992–1993)

1. **Thematic focus.** The teacher selects a theme or idea to serve as a starting point for focusing the discussion and has a general plan for how the theme will unfold, including how to “chunk” the text to permit optimal exploration of the theme.
2. **Activation and use of background and relevant schemata.** The teacher either “hooks into” or provides students with pertinent background knowledge and relevant schemata necessary for understanding a text. Background knowledge and schemata are then woven into the discussion that follows.
3. **Direct teaching.** When necessary, the teacher provides direct teaching of a skill or concept.
4. **Promotion of more complex language and expression.** The teacher elicits more extended student contributions by using a variety of elicitation techniques—invitations to expand (e.g., “tell me more about that”), questions (e.g., “what do you mean?”), restatements (e.g., “in other words,—”), and pauses.
5. **Elicitation of bases for statements or positions.** The teacher promotes students’ use of text, pictures, and reasoning to support an argument or position. Without overwhelming students, the teacher probes for the basis of students’ statements (e.g., “how do you know?” “what makes you think that?” “show us where it says_____”).
6. **Fewer “known-answer” questions.** Much of the discussion centers on questions and answers for which there might be more than one correct answer.
7. **Responsivity to student contributions.** While having an initial plan and maintaining the focus and coherence of the discussion, the teacher is also responsive to students’ statements and the opportunities they provide.
8. **Connected discourse.** The discussion is characterized by multiple, interactive, connected turns; succeeding utterances build upon and extend previous ones.
9. **A challenging, but nonthreatening atmosphere.** The teacher creates a “zone of proximal development,” where a challenging atmosphere is balanced by a positive affective climate. The teacher is more collaborator than evaluator and creates an atmosphere that challenges students and allows them to negotiate and construct the meaning of the text.
10. **General participation, including self-selected turns.** The teacher encourages general participation among students. The teacher does not hold exclusive right to determine who talks, and students are encouraged to volunteer or otherwise influence the selection of speaking turns.

THE “DEFAULT” SCRIPT: RECITATION AND DIRECT TEACHING

To appreciate how an IC diverges from standard classroom practices, we must first consider more typical forms of student–teacher instructional interactions. Classroom discourse has already been extensively analyzed (Cazden, 1988; Erickson, 1984; Griffin & Humphreys, 1978; Mehan, 1979; Michaels, 1981; Poole, 1990), providing a good analytical starting point as well as a basis for comparison. According to Mehan (1979), typical teacher-fronted lessons are hierarchically organized events with opening, instructional, and closing phases. A unique conversational pattern, the initiate–reply–evaluate (IRE) sequence forms the basic building block of these lessons. As first argued by Griffin and

APPENDIX M

LANGUAGE SURVEY

Language Survey

Name of student _____ Grade _____

The Falk School and researchers at the University of Pittsburgh are interested in finding out how many of Falk's students are in the process of learning English. Please answer the following questions about your child's language background by providing as much information as possible.

1. Is English your child's first language?

Yes No

2. Does your child speak any languages other than English (NOT including languages learned in school)?

Yes No

3. What languages are spoken in your home? _____

If your child's first language is English, you may skip the remaining questions of this survey.

g. Is English used in your home? If yes, how often: frequently, sometimes, rarely?

h. Who speaks to your child in English? Who speaks to your child in other languages?

i. Did your child/your family relocate to the U.S. from another country? If yes, for what reason?

j. Did your child attend school in another country before moving to the U.S.? If yes, for how long? What was your child's performance in school before coming to the U.S.: average, above average, below average?

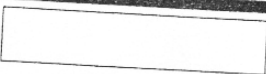
- k. Does your child read and write in the FIRST language? If yes, how well do you think your child reads and writes in the first language?
- l. Does your child continue to practice reading and writing in the first language? Does somebody (a parent, teacher) work with your child in reading and writing in the first language?
- m. What is your child's attitude towards the first language? Does your child prefer to use the first language or English?
- n. Did your child have the opportunity to study English before starting at the Falk School? If yes, for how long?

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey!

Parent/guardian signature _____

APPENDIX N

FRECNH LESSON



C

Olivier and Stéphanie are buying some cards, stamps, and a souvenir at the same kiosk.
 Olivier et Stéphanie achètent des cartes postales, des timbres, et un souvenir au même kiosque.

OLIVIER Ces trois cartes, s'il vous plaît.

VENDEUSE Oui.

OLIVIER Avez-vous des timbres?

VENDEUSE Oui, bien sûr.

OLIVIER Je pourrais avoir un timbre pour les États-Unis, un timbre pour le Pérou, et un timbre pour l'Angleterre, s'il vous plaît?

VENDEUSE D'accord. Voilà; vous saurez vous retrouver?

OLIVIER Oui, très bien, merci.

STÉPHANIE Est-ce que vous avez des petits souvenirs, s'il vous plaît?

VENDEUSE Oui, peu, mais des Tours-Eiffel.

STÉPHANIE Ah, c'est très bien, je peux les voir?

VENDEUSE Tenez (*handing over a Tour-Eiffel*).

STÉPHANIE Merci.

OLIVIER Ah voilà, parfait.

STÉPHANIE On peut vous payer?

VENDEUSE Oui, bien sûr; ça vous fait trente-deux francs.

STÉPHANIE Voilà.

VENDEUSE Merci.

STÉPHANIE Merci beaucoup et au revoir.

VENDEUSE (passing the rest of their change) Le—hop!

OLIVIER Oh, oui! Merci!

Notes

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| ces trois cartes | these three cards. "This" is translated as <i>ce</i> (masculine singular) or <i>cette</i> (feminine singular); <i>ce lait</i> , this milk; <i>cette carte</i> , this card. <i>Ces</i> is used with plurals. |
| avez-vous des timbres? | do you have any stamps? This unit has several examples of the two common question forms, <i>avez-vous?</i> and <i>est-ce que vous avez?</i> |
| *on peut vous payer? | Stéphanie could also have said <i>Je vous dois combien?</i> |
| ça vous fait trente-deux francs | That comes to thirty-two francs. |

Activities

Activity 5

Put an X next to the statements below according to whether they are *vrai* or *faux*.

- | | Vrai | Faux |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Olivier achète treize cartes. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Il veut un timbre pour les États-Unis. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Il veut aussi un timbre pour l'Angleterre. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Et un pour le Portugal. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. La vendeuse a beaucoup de souvenirs. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. Stéphanie achète la Tour-Eiffel. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. Elle paie vingt-deux francs. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

APPENDIX O

SIOP OBSERVATION PROTOCOL

The Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2000, 2004)

Observer(s): _____ Teacher: _____
 Date: _____ School: _____
 Grade: _____ Class/Topic: _____
 ESL Level: _____ Lesson: Multi-day Single-day (circle one)

Total Points Possible: 120 (Subtract 4 points for each NA given) _____
 Total Points Earned: _____ Percentage Score: _____

Directions: Circle the number that best reflects what you observe in a sheltered lesson. You may give a score from 0–4 (or NA on selected items). Cite under "Comments" specific examples of the behaviors observed.

	Highly Evident	3	Somewhat Evident	2	1	0	Not Evident	NA
I. Preparation								
1. Clearly defined content objectives for students	4	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Clearly defined language objectives for students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Content concepts appropriate for age and educational background level of students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Supplementary materials used to a high degree, making the lesson clear and meaningful (e.g., computer programs, graphs, models, visuals)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Adaptation of content (e.g., text, assignment) to all levels of student proficiency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Meaningful activities that integrate lesson concepts (e.g., surveys, letter writing, simulations, constructing models) with language practice opportunities for reading, writing, listening, and/or speaking	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>Comments:</i>								
II. Instruction								
•1) Building Background								
7. Concepts explicitly linked to students' background experiences	4	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Links explicitly made between past learning and new concepts	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Key vocabulary emphasized (e.g., introduced, written, repeated, and highlighted for students to see)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>Comments:</i>								
•2) Comprehensible Input								
10. Speech appropriate for students' proficiency level (e.g., slower rate and enunciation, and simple sentence structure for beginners)	4	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Explanation of academic tasks clear	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Uses a variety of techniques to make content concepts clear (e.g., modeling, visuals, hands-on activities, demonstrations, gestures, body language)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<i>Comments:</i>								
•3) Strategies								
13. Provides ample opportunities for students to use strategies	4	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Highly Evident	Somewhat Evident			Not Evident	
	4	3	2	1	0	NA
14. Consistent use of scaffolding techniques throughout lesson, assisting and supporting student understanding, such as think-alouds	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
15. Teacher uses a variety of question types, including those that promote higher-order thinking skills throughout the lesson (e.g., literal, analytical, and interpretive questions) <i>Comments:</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
•4) Interaction	4	3	2	1	0	NA
16. Frequent opportunities for interaction and discussion between teacher/student and among students, which encourage elaborated responses about lesson concepts	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
17. Grouping configurations support language and content objectives of the lesson	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
18. Consistently provides sufficient wait time for student response	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
19. Ample opportunities for students to clarify key concepts in L1 <i>Comments:</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
•5) Practice/Application	4	3	2	1	0	NA
20. Provides hands-on materials and/or manipulatives for students to practice using new content knowledge	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. Provides activities for students to apply content and language knowledge in the classroom	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
22. Uses activities that integrate all language skills (i.e., reading, writing, listening, and speaking) <i>Comments:</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
•6) Lesson Delivery	4	3	2	1	0	NA
23. Content objectives clearly supported by lesson delivery	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
24. Language objectives clearly supported by lesson delivery	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
25. Students engaged approximately 90% to 100% of the period	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
26. Pacing of the lesson appropriate to the students' ability level <i>Comments:</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
III. Review/Assessment	4	3	2	1	0	NA
27. Comprehensive review of key vocabulary	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
28. Comprehensive review of key content concepts	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
29. Regularly provides feedback to students on their output (e.g., language, content, work)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
30. Conducts assessment of student comprehension and learning of all lesson objectives (e.g., spot checking, group response) throughout the lesson <i>Comments:</i>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

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