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**Perceptions of Teachers' Preparedness and Efficacy Beliefs**  
**for Teaching English Language Learners**

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**Perceptions of Teachers' Preparedness and Efficacy Beliefs  
for Teaching English Language Learners**

by

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**Perceptions of Teachers' Preparedness and Efficacy Beliefs**  
**for Teaching English Language Learners**

Yune Kim Tran, Ph.D.

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The changing and growing student population in the U.S. demands well-equipped and trained teachers who have the adequate preparation and pedagogical tools to fully meet their diverse needs. This research study examined the perceptions of teachers' preparedness and their efficacy beliefs for teaching English Language Learners. A mixed-method was carried out to address four research questions: 1) What perceptions are held by in-service teachers about teaching practices for ELLs? 2) What is the relationship, if any, between teacher knowledge about teaching ELL students and the instructional practices employed by teachers when instructing ELL students? 3) How effective do in-service teachers feel in teaching ELL students? 4) What factors influence teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy about teaching ELL students? Over 144 teachers participated in the survey questionnaire along with five teachers who participated in focus-groups, interviews, and classroom observations to identify in-depth analysis on their feelings of perceptions and efficacy beliefs.

Results from the quantitative study revealed differences in perception and efficacy beliefs for teachers who are bilingual in a second language, teachers who hold a bilingual/ESL certification, and the route in which teachers receive their certification. Qualitative results included the methodologies and cultural competencies that teachers employed in their classroom for English Language Learners. Additionally, participation in professional development activities was found to have an effect in teachers' instructional decisions for teaching ELLs.

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## Chapter One: Introduction

In the last 30 years, the student demographic population of the U.S. has not only been an enclave of diverse cultures from around the world but also it has experienced significant changes. One major shift is the number of English Language Learners (ELLs) enrolled in the U.S. schools. According to the National Center of Education Statistics (2010), between 1979 and 2008, the number of school-age children (ages 5-17) who spoke a language other than English at home, has increased from 3.8 million to 10.9 million and from 9 to 21 percent within this age range. As the fastest growing segment of the overall student population, 5 percent of ELLs also experience difficulty speaking English. Projections suggest that the ELL student population will comprise of over 40 percent of elementary and secondary students by the year 2030 (Thomas & Collier, 2002). Approximately 68 percent of elementary ELL students are concentrated in the following five states: Texas, California, New York, Florida, and Illinois but ELL students are increasingly present in *all* U.S. states including Puerto Rico (Capps et al., 2005).

ELLs also do not fit into simple categories as they are a highly heterogeneous group of students. Despite their varied levels of English proficiency, socio-economic backgrounds, immigration status, and schooling experiences, ELLs come from varied backgrounds with unique assets, diverse educational needs, languages, and goals. Students come from homes with varied speaking levels of English while others are exposed to multiple languages at the same time. In terms of schooling experiences, ELLs are categorized into these main four areas: unschooled (students without any prior formal schooling); limited-formal schooling (recent arrivals to the U.S. with limited or



interrupted schooling in their native country); formal schooling (recent arrivals to the U.S. and have been well-educated in their native language); and long-term ELL (students who have been in the states for more than 5 to 7 years but have not been transitioned out of LEP identification ) (Freeman & Freeman, 2002). The language diversity that is represented by ELL students in the United States is also included in this unique population. While the majority of ELLs speak Spanish as their native language, there are more than 450 languages that are spoken by ELL students in the United States (Kindler, 2002). Native speakers of Asian, Southeast Asian, and European languages represent a substantial share of the U.S. ELL population while other languages include: Arabic, Armenian, Chuukese, French, Haitian Creole, Hindi, Japanese, Khmer, Lao, Mandarin, Marshallese, Navajo, Polish, Portuguese, Punjabi, Russian, Serbo-Croatian, Tagalog, and Urdu which comprise of less than 1 percent of the ELL student population. Table 1 shows the languages most frequently spoken by ELL students in the U.S.

**Table 1.1: Languages Commonly Spoken by ELLs in the U.S. 2000-2001**

<b>Rank</b>	<b>Language</b>	<b>ELL Students</b>	<b>% of LEPs</b>
1	Spanish	3,598,451	79.045%
2	Vietnamese	88,906	1.953%
3	Hmong	70,768	1.555%
4	Chinese, Cantonese	46,466	1.021%
5	Korean	43,969	0.966%

Source: Kindler, A.L. (2002). Survey of the States' Limited English Proficient Students and Available Educational Programs and Services 2000-2001 summary report.

Given the demographic reality of students from various cultural experiences and backgrounds in the United States, various challenges and opportunities are posed by this emerging student growth. One such challenge is whether current educational systems are raising standards and building teacher capacity to support ELL needs. The American Association for Employment in Education (2005) found that a certain degree of teacher shortage in the areas of Bilingual Education and English as-a-Second Language (ESL) exist nationwide. According to this report, many ELLs are currently being taught by regular mainstream teachers who have not acquired any related ESL or ELL training. Therefore, addressing pedagogical knowledge for in-service teachers, standards for ELL instruction, types of certification routes, and evaluating teacher preparation programs are critical in determining whether teachers are adequately prepared in working with culturally and linguistically diverse students (Irvine, 2003; Tabachnick, Zeichner, & Kenneth; 1993; Walker, Shafer, & Iiams, 2004).

### **In-service Teachers**

The demographic reality and growth of ELLs are noticeably more apparent in mainstream classrooms. As ELLs scatter across K-12 classrooms, public school teachers began working with these students—some for the very first time. Responsibility started to shift from ESL and bilingual teachers who traditionally taught ELLs to classroom teachers in meeting the needs of these students (Kaplan & Leckie, 2009). However, many teachers did not feel that they have the appropriate training to serve ELLs or were adequately prepared to meet the linguistic, academic, and diverse needs of this student

population (Combs et al., 2005). Thus, a report from the National Center for Education Statistics (2002) found that 42% of the teachers surveyed reported that even though they had ELLs in their classroom, only 12.5% of these teachers had received eight hours or less of professional training related to specific strategies for ELLs. Therefore, as schools and districts experience the changing demographics of ELLs coupled with the educational climate of enhancing inclusionary practices for them rather than separate specialized programs, it imperative that mainstream teachers have the knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to work effectively with their ELL students (deJong & Harper, 2005; Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2004).

Furthermore, mainstream teachers who typically lack instructional strategies for working with ELLs are more likely to exert their own biased philosophies as they encounter these students in the classroom. One such assumption is the expectation that ELLs can grasp the role of language used in the classroom. However, teachers' common use of idiomatic expressions or colloquial language in everyday interactions to manage their classrooms is often incomprehensible to ELLs (Harklau, 1999). Moreover, teachers' lack of experiences and interactions with bilingual students cause them to mislabel certain bilingual language occurrences such as native language transfer (Odlin, 1987) and code-switching (Meyers-Scotton & Jake, 2001) as students' inability to perform in English. This perception has caused mainstream teachers to inappropriately refer ELLs for special education services, enforced English-only classroom policies, and asked parents to only speak English at home. Finally, instead of using students' native language as a resource for learning, some mainstream teachers have expected ELLs to

acquire English by immersing students in all aspects of their second language by requiring them to learn through “osmosis” without or with minimal support (Harper & Platt, 1998). As a result of these practices and misconceptions, researchers have recommended that mainstream teachers need additional linguistic and cultural knowledge with practical applications in curriculum planning, pedagogy, and assessment so that ELLs can achieve academic parity with their native-English peers (deJong & Harper, 2005).

### **Standards for ELL Instruction**

Given the recommendations that all teachers need specific competencies in working with ELLs, it is essential to also examine what standards are place at the state and national level to determine the process in which teachers obtain the necessary qualifications in working with ELLs. The National Association of Bilingual Education (NABE) and the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) are two professional organizations whose focus is primarily on the education of ELL students in the U.S. have developed recommendations for the preparation of teachers. NABE’s (1994) guidelines suggest adherence to the general standards of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) with a requirement of extended supervised field experiences and specific standards related to bilingual education. These standards include: an understanding of the philosophy, theory, and history of bilingual education in the U.S.; the processes of second-language acquisition, the integration of language and content instruction; and the process of native-language acquisition. TESOL’s guidelines

(2003), developed in conjunction with NCATE are designed for initial teacher preparation and include the following five domains: (a) language, (b) culture, (c) planning, implementation, and managing instruction, (d) assessment, and (e) professionalism.

### **Texas Teaching credentials**

Texas offers teachers who work with ELLs in English general education classrooms several options in obtaining certifications in meeting the academic and language needs of these students. Teachers may be certified in these following areas: English-as-a-Second Language (ESL)/Generalist EC-6, English-as-a-Second Language (ESL)/Generalist 4-8, and English-as-a-Second Language Supplemental (ESL)/EC-12. For teachers who serve students in Spanish bilingual programs, certifications include Bilingual Generalist EC-6 and Bilingual Generalist 4-8. According the Texas Education Agency (TEA) and State Board of Education Certification (SBEC), the ESL certificates mentioned above authorizes instruction designed to assist ELLs in developing the English language across the four domains of listening, speaking, reading, and writing in the grades indicated with foundations in ESL education, cultural awareness, and family/community involvement. Additionally, the certificates authorize instruction to help ELLs gain access to the curriculum in the varied content areas of English and Language Arts, Reading, Mathematics, Social Studies, Science, Fine Arts, Health, and Physical Education. Teacher candidates may choose to meet these requirements through coursework offered in their pre-service preparation program or in lieu of coursework,

take the required tests to certify them. No field supervision is required for those teachers who elect “exam only” ESL credentials (TEA, 2010).

### **Texas Programs Serving ELL Students**

Under the Texas Administrative Code (TAC) in Chapter 89, it is under state policy to have required plans for adaptations for special populations. For students whose Home Language Surveys indicate a language other than English and identified as ELLs, the state requires that they have full opportunity to participate in a bilingual education or ESL program. To ensure that ELLs have equal educational opportunities, each school district follows rules in the identification of students; provides appropriate program placement of each ELL; seeks qualified and certified teachers; and assesses the achievement for essential skills and knowledge with state standards. The goals for bilingual and ESL programs are to enable ELLs to acquire proficiency in all the language domains as well as achieve academic mastery in the core content areas of English and language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies. These programs are integral parts of the total school program where teachers use instructional approaches to help ELLs participate successfully and equitably in school. Districts with an enrollment of 20 or more ELLs are required to offer bilingual programs in any language classification in the same grade level whereas ESL programs are required in districts even with one identified ELL student (TAC, §89.1201, §89.1205).

Bilingual programs are programs in which both the student’s home language and English are used for instruction. The amount of time spent on instruction varies

depending on the type of bilingual program that the district has adopted; however, state adopted materials are used as curriculum tools to enhance the learning process and to ensure that students' affective, cognitive, and linguistic needs are met. ESL programs also vary widely across each district. Types of ESL programs include a pull-out program where ELLs attend a designated time and/or class with a certified ESL teacher for their English language arts content or sheltered/content-based ESL program where ELLs are mainstreamed with native English students and are served by a certified ESL teacher or content area teachers who hold ESL certification. Instructional materials for ELLs are also adopted by the state and districts are required to provide ongoing coordination between the ESL program and the regular education program to address ELLs' affective, cognitive, and linguistic needs (TAC, §89.1210).

### **Types of Texas teacher preparation programs**

There are several types of teacher training programs in Texas for fulfilling coursework requirements and obtaining approval to examination certification. Several types of teacher training programs currently exist: university-initial certification, university post baccalaureate certification, university alternative certification, alternative certification, and in-service professional development.

Traditional routes of teacher preparation programs include the traditional university-initial teacher program in which skills, pedagogy, and subject matter are developed in coursework before the teacher takes full responsibility of the classroom. Generally accepted is the content knowledge that teachers bring to the classroom and how they

acquire such knowledge as important considerations in all teacher preparation programs. Variations and flexibility can occur in pre-service programs; however, one such program may focus on student learning, models of teaching, authentic classroom interactions, and developing a standards-based curriculum (Nathan & Petrosino, 2003). Candidates who already hold a bachelor's degree may elect to enroll in a university post-baccalaureate program where they are required to complete all required coursework before obtaining certification.

Other types of teacher preparation programs include alternative based programs and professional development during in-service teaching. In response to the challenge of placing credentialed teachers in ELL classrooms along with problems associated with current teacher shortage, alternative credential programs have grown significantly throughout the United States. These programs hope to alleviate the effects of teacher shortage due to an increasing student population, a national trend toward reducing class-sizes, and an aging workforce (Feistritzer, 1998).

Candidates may select to be enrolled through a university alternative-based program or an alternative certification program for individuals who hold bachelor's degrees or higher. Distinct categories of alternative certification programs include those that require college education coursework or other professional development experiences as well as intense mentoring and supervision (Feistritzer, 2001). The last method of teacher preparation involves in-service professional development for teachers currently in the classroom. In-service professional development is defined as a systematic and



comprehensive staff development that assists school professionals to meet their educational goals (Templeman, 1995).

### **Evaluating Teacher Preparation**

Equally important to examining teacher qualifications is evaluating the effectiveness of teacher training programs to better prepare aspiring and novice teachers for working with ELLs as well as providing information for state regulation, monitoring, and improvement (Popkewitz, 1992). While preparing teachers with the expertise to work with ELLs can increase students' academic success, (Dalton & Moir, 1992) evaluating teacher preparation in this area is one of the least explored in teacher education research (Gersten & Baker, 2000). Most teacher preparation programs have not given explicit attention to preparing teachers to meet the linguistic and cultural needs of ELLs (deJong & Harper, 2005). Other studies corroborate with the need to evaluate teacher training programs so that the teaching population is equipped to meet the academic needs of ELLs. The National Center of Education Statistics (NCES, 1996) indicated that teachers who are employed in regions with larger percentages of ELL students were more likely to receive training applicable to meeting ELL needs. However, the same report found that content-area teachers who taught in regions with a smaller percentage of ELL students were less likely to receive training related to ELL students.

Research by Lewis et al. (1999) has also documented the failure of teacher training programs to prepare aspiring teachers for the realities of the diverse classroom. Based on teacher quality and the preparation of public school teachers, the study found

that while 54% of teachers taught ELLs or culturally diverse students, only 20% felt adequately prepared to teach them. Thus, the 1999-2000 Schools and Staffing Survey indicated that of the 41% of teachers who taught ELLs, less than 13% of them clocked in more than eight hours of training related to ELL students (NCES, 2002). Menken and Antunez's (2001) surveyed about 417 higher education institutions from the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) and indicated that fewer than one in six of the programs required any ELL preparation from both elementary and secondary teachers prior to them entering the classrooms. The report further emphasized that training teachers for diverse, native-English speaking is misinterpreted as the same training for meeting the needs of ELLs. More alarming, however, is the literature on teacher preparation for teaching ELLs which showed that few changes have occurred in the last 25 years in preparing teachers to meet the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students (Hollins & Guzman, 2005). Emerging research further indicates that mainstream teachers are ill-prepared with little access in both pre-service and in-service education focused on teaching this underserved population (Ballantyne, Sanderman, & Levy, 2008).

Other reasons for evaluating teacher preparation are largely due to the demographic nature of the teaching force of teacher candidates. Zumwalt and Craig (2005) reported that the current teaching force is dominated by predominately white, female, middle-class students who come from suburban or rural areas. Other research studies have suggested that many of these teachers live in culturally isolated neighborhoods, and exhibit behaviors that are typical of their life experiences,

perspectives, and assumptions which significantly differ from their students' cultural, class, language, and schooling experiences (Howard, 2006; Larson & Ovando, 2001; Sleeter & Grant, 2005). These differences often create cultural mismatches between the diverse student populations to that of their teachers. Moreover, the demographic reality of ELLs in U.S. schools is not reflected in this homogeneous teaching population.

Therefore, exposing pre-service teachers with the sociocultural characteristics of the ELL population is essential to prevent disconnect and tension among educators and various groups of students. Accordingly, Taylor and Sobel (2001) argued that the knowledge gained by new teachers is overlooked by actual multicultural classrooms and schools due to the minimal preparation encountered in their coursework experiences. Other studies have reiterated the need for well-qualified and highly prepared teachers to serve culturally diverse students (Menken & Antunez, 2001; Mueller et.al, 2006). Thus, teacher preparation programs for pre-service teachers should include learning about the cultural and linguistic needs of ELL students in addition to effective teaching strategies in working with students from linguistically diverse backgrounds (Dee & Henkin, 2002; Irvine, 2003; Milner, 2006; Walker, Shafer, & Iiams, 2004; Wubbels, Den Brok, Veldman, & van Tarwijk, 2006).

Finally, as the ELL population increased, emphasis on teacher preparation was placed on the type of program, placement, and language instruction with less attention to effective teaching practices (National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality, 2009). The Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence (CREDE, 2002) has established five standards for effective pedagogy with direct teaching applications to ELL

students. While these standards are not comprehensive of the existing instructional practices, they serve as guiding principles for lesson planning and delivery of effective practices for ELLs. They include: joint productivity through teacher and student collaboration, developing literacy across the curriculum, making meaning by connecting school to students' lives, teaching complex thinking, and teaching through conversation. Furthermore, CREDE (2002) has included recommendations for teacher preparation programs in their training of teachers for ELLs. They are: (1) the social, cultural, linguistic, and economic, backgrounds of all students; (2) the curricula study of the nature of language development and first/second language acquisition and dialect; (3) the understanding of the diverse cultural patterns and historical impact of diverse populations in the U.S.; (4) the learning of teaching methodologies that are specially designed for ELLs; (5), the requirement and study of a second language; (6) the literacy development in L1 (native language) and L2 (second language); (7) the opportunity for university faculty to strengthen their own language skills; and (8) the opportunity for sustained and ongoing professional development of teacher trainers and university staff for preparing teachers of ELLs.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Promising improvements have been made in various preparation programs; however, only a small number of states currently require that all mainstream teachers complete required coursework related to the instruction of ELLs (Education Week, 2009). And, the number of ELLs enrolled in public schools in Texas has skyrocketed

over the past decade paralleling the same trend nationally—from 570,000 in 2001 to over 800,000 in 2008 with current numbers in 2010 approaching close to one million students (TEA Student Assessment Division, 2010). Research by the National Center of Statistics (2000) has also indicated that in addition to many ELLs not having language proficiency to learn without considerable difficulty, many of these students are taught by monolingual English speaking teachers, resulting in minimal or no native language support. Other risk factors that may affect ELLs success are attributed to the disconnect between the roles that teachers and parents have for their students, the lack of support by teachers for ELLs, and an assortment of high-risk behaviors such as pregnancy, alcohol, and drug abuse (Korn & Burszty, 2002; NCES, 1996). Moreover, ELLs often experience lower graduation and completion rates as compared to other students in the state of Texas. Table 1.2 shows a longitudinal comparison of the graduation and completion rates of students participating in various programs in the state of Texas.

**Table 1.2: Grade 9 Longitudinal Graduation, Completion, and Dropout Rates, by Program Participation and Student Characteristic, Class of 2009**

Group	Class	Graduated (%)	Graduated or Continued (Completion I, %)	Graduated, Continued, or Received GED (a) (Completion II, %)
At-Risk	144,581	72.5	85.9	87.6
Limited English Proficient				
In K-12(b)	79,743	72.3	86.3	87.3
In 9-12(c)	25,717	56.9	79.7	80.3
In Last Year (d)	13,742	49.2	70.2	70.9
Bilingual/ESL(e)	10,725	50.6	74.6	75.0
Special Education	33,209	71.8	85.0	85.9
Title I	120,710	74.3	84.3	86.0
State	308,427	80.6	89.2	90.6
<i>Note.</i> Students may be counted in more than one category. Student characteristics and program participation were assigned based on the year of a student's final status in the cohort. (a)General Educational Development certificate. (b)Students who were identified as limited English proficient (LEP) at any time while attending Texas public school. (c)Students who were identified as LEP at any time while attending Grades 9-12 in Texas public school. (d)Students who were identified as LEP in their last year in Texas public school. (e)English as a second language.				

Source: Texas Education Agency. (2010). Comprehensive Annual Report on Texas Public Schools

## **Policy background**

Given the dramatic enrollment of ELLs and the alarming graduation and completion rates of ELLs, Texas provides a fitting backdrop for focusing on the quality of its ELL programs. State policy leaders have recognized this fast growing population and know that students' educational success depends largely on the response of what public schools' systems are doing to raise the academic performance and language proficiency of ELLs. Increased pressure from the federal government since the enactment of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act in 2001 has also required states to measure and report on ELL students' progress toward goals of attaining English proficiency and meeting academic performance standards. Under Title III of the NCLB Act, also known as the "English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement Act, legislation requires state and local agencies responsible for ELL's students' achievement in core academic content areas (math, language arts, science, social studies, etc.) and assurance that students successfully attain English proficiency. Furthermore, the focus on state accountability is driven by results on the annual test rather than a conscious effort in analyzing individual students' needs. Tremendous pressure has been placed on both students and teachers to demonstrate mastery on statewide standards, which is measured by a single, standardized test (McNeil, 2005). Therefore, mainstream teachers are expected to increase student learning of academic content while education systems are accountable for meeting adequate yearly progress (AYP) with the ELL population resulting in new provisions and changes in states' approaches to serving ELLs.

One such change is the recent development and creation of English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS) and assessments. In Texas, as required by 19 Texas Administrative Code, Chapter 74, Subchapter A, §74.4 , the ELPS are published along with the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) and outline proficiency level descriptors and student expectations for ELLs requiring all school districts to uphold and implement as an integral part in all required subjects of the curriculum. School districts must provide instruction in foundation and enrichment of the TEKS that is linguistically accommodated (communicated, sequenced, and scaffolded) to commensurate with student's English language proficiency level to ensure that ELLs learn the state standards. Texas also has aligned its English language-arts and academic standards with the Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System (TELPAS), used annually to assess students' language proficiency in the following four language domains: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Teachers utilize results to determine the linguistic accommodations the students may receive during instruction, assignments, and assessments (TEA Student Assessment Division, 2010). However, faced with increase pressure for meeting AYP and accountability ratings, many ELL students who have not met competency on specific standards are identified as low performing (Cotton, 2001). Exasperating the situation further is that many ELLs are subjected to standardized tests without acquiring proficiency in English (Abedi, 2004). Nevertheless, TEA provides guidelines to assist teachers along with recommendations from local education agencies such as the Language Proficiency Assessment Committees (LPAC) to help determine the needs of ELLs, select instructional interventions, monitor student progress, make

assessment decisions, and maintain required documentation. However, even with such guidance, Texas teachers are faced with a number of challenges in meeting the needs of ELLs. These challenges include the unfamiliarity of mainstream and content-area teachers of how to implement the ELPS into the regular curriculum; the varied linguistic accommodations that are used during instruction; and the lack of knowledge with teaching strategies to effectively plan instruction for ELLs (Education Week, 2010).

States, districts, and teacher preparation programs vary widely on how they choose specific policies to address the demographic student population thus with various capacities in providing support for their teachers in meeting the needs of ELLs. While some policies are done reactively, through stand-alone support programs, others are done proactively, by building the capacity to enhance ELL education. Grant and Wong (2003) reported that the recommendations provided by CREDE as critical in helping teachers establish good teaching practices; however, they are not sufficient in meeting the needs of ELLs. As a result, this study suggests the importance and need for teacher training programs to include ESL courses as a required and integral part of their preparation of mainstream teachers. Thus, schools need to enact high-quality professional development for mainstream teachers to strengthen their pedagogical skills while improving their cultural competence and attitudes to continually support ELLs (Antunez, 2002; Ballantyne et. al, 2008; NCCTQ, 2009). In the context of teacher preparation for ELLs, the research studies from above suggest the components of embedding pedagogical strategies specific to teaching ELLs, a requirement of ESL courses and methodologies, and high-quality professional development for in-service teachers. Given these



recommendations, the purpose of this research study was to examine how teachers' perceptions of their teacher preparation support their abilities in working with ELLs. Teachers' perceptions were considered through Self-Perception and Self-Efficacy theories. The research questions for this study were: 1) What perceptions are held by in-service teachers about teaching practices for ELLs? 2) What is the relationship, if any, between teacher knowledge about teaching ELL students and the instructional practices employed by teachers when instructing ELL students? 3) How effective do in-service teachers feel in teaching ELL students? 4) What factors influence teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy about teaching ELL students?

By asking these questions, the research study hoped to explain how prepared teachers feel in working with ELLs, how might teachers' knowledge affect the instructional decisions made for ELLs, and whether teachers' self-perceptions align with their efficacy beliefs with meeting the varied needs of ELLs within their classroom.

This dissertation was organized into five chapters. Following Chapter One was a review of the exiting literature on teacher preparation for meeting the diverse needs of ELL students. Chapter Two was divided into these sections: the skills and pedagogical knowledge that all teachers need in teaching diverse learners; the politics of second-language learning; the misconceptions of teaching ELLs; ESL methodologies; the perceptions of teacher preparation; the impact of professional development; the framework of teacher learning; and finally, the importance of reflective practice in working with ELLs. Chapter Three consisted of the research design and methodology in

carrying out the study. Chapter Four described the data collection, analyses, and possible answers to the research questions. Finally, Chapter Five discussed major findings with implications for teacher preparation, professional development, and recommendations for future research.

## **Chapter Two: Literature Review**

Given the expanding ELL population across U.S. schools, many classroom teachers have limited knowledge on best practices or learning needs for these students. As a result, districts have inundated in-service teachers with professional development seminars to prepare them with instructional strategies and pedagogical tools to differentiate classroom approaches for English Language Learners. Consequently, the evolution of English Second Language (ESL) methodologies in teacher preparation programs has become a dynamic process as teachers learn instructional strategies while mastering both content and pedagogy to integrate skills into the classroom. This chapter discussed the previous and existing literature on (a) the skills and pedagogical knowledge that all teachers need in teaching diverse learners; (b) the politics of second-language learning; (c) the misconceptions of teaching ELLs; (d) ESL methodologies; (e) the perceptions of teacher preparation; (f) the impact of professional development; (g) the framework of teaching learning; and finally, (8) the importance of reflective practice in working with ELLs.

### **Teaching Diverse Learners**

The democratic shift in classrooms across U.S. schools demand educators who have the tools and attitudes to implement culturally responsive classrooms and curricular practices (Delpit, 1995; Gay, 2000; Ladson-Billings; 1995; Villegas & Lucas, 2002a). To do so, teachers must consciously work to eliminate disparities in educational opportunities among all students, especially those who have been poorly served by the

education system (Villegas & Lucas, 2002b). When planning for instruction, it is essential that teachers take into account the diverse experiences and academic needs of a wide range of students. Research indicates that when teachers use knowledge about the social, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds of their students when planning their lessons, academic achievement in students increases (Au, 1980; Lee, 1995; Gandara, 2002). Teachers need to be conscious and aware of the structural conditions that determine the allocation of educational opportunity that exist within a school. These conditions include: the kinds of courses, the curriculum, the kinds of student groupings in school, the expectations for each student group, and the treatment of families from these groupings. Awareness in students' family and community norms, values and experiences help to mediate the "boundary crossing" since some students have to navigate between home and school systems (Davidson & Phelan, 1999). The aspects of diversity discussed above including their interactions are critical for teachers to construct equitable learning environments. Teachers who possess the knowledge, skills, and attitudes can create equitable learning opportunities to influence student learning greatly.

### **Homogeneous teaching force**

The demographic reality of students in U.S. classrooms demand teachers who are knowledgeable and who can relate to their cultural backgrounds. And although, statistics point to the growing demographic diversity in our nation's schools, the teaching force is still relatively homogeneous. Gay and Howard (2000) argued that in addition to the less diverse teaching force, the "demographic divide" creates disparities in educational

opportunities, resources, and achievement among student groups who differ in race, culture, and socioeconomic class. Recent federal data indicates the teachers of color only make up about 16 percent of the overall teaching force—much less than the 40 percent of the student population who are of color—and less than the 25 percent of students who are ELLs (National Center of Education Statistics, 2003). Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005) noted that even though differences in race and language exist between teachers and students there are also marked differences in their biographies and experiences. Many U.S. teachers come from European-American middle-class backgrounds who only speak English while their students are racial and ethnic minorities, live in poverty, and who speak another language other than English. Additionally, most teachers do not have the same points of views or cultural frames of reference similar to their students (Au, 1980; Heath, 1983; Lee, 1993; Sleeter & Grant, 1987). Meaningful lessons for students need to stem from the connections of new learning to prior experiences; therefore, it is important that teachers understand their students’ backgrounds and experiences. But even if a teacher shares the same racial, linguistic, and ethnic background as her students, Foster (2001) noted that there is no guarantee that all students have access to the same educational opportunities. Therefore, it is essential for teachers to have the cultural competencies to teach students whose backgrounds are different from their own.

### **Culturally responsive practices**

While knowledge of subject matter and knowledge of how to teach are important considerations, they are not sufficient to effective teaching. More significant

in influencing what students learn and the quality of learning opportunities are teachers' attitudes and expectations, as well as the knowledge to incorporate cultural values and experiences of their students. To build a culturally responsive classroom, teachers need to draw from a wide range of knowledge and strategies in working with diverse learners. According to Gay (2000), culturally responsive teaching utilizes cultural knowledge, students' prior experiences, and integrates diverse intellectual abilities into the classroom. From this perspective, teachers are able to work from students' strengths making learning more appropriate and engaging. Finally, the author describes culturally responsive teaching as having these features:

- It acknowledges the legitimacy of the cultural heritages of different ethnic groups, both as legacies that affect students' dispositions, attitudes, and approaches to learning and as worthy content to be taught in the formal curriculum.
- It builds bridges of meaningfulness between home and school experiences as well as between academic abstractions and lived sociocultural realities.
- It uses a wide variety of instructional strategies that are connected to different learning styles.
- It teaches students to know and praise their own and each others' cultural heritages.
- It incorporates multicultural information, resources, and materials in all the subjects and skills routinely taught in schools (p. 29).

Essential in establishing culturally responsive practices is teachers' explicit understanding of students' cultural practices so that they can connect learning experiences to instructional decisions (Gutierrez & Rogoff, 2003). Examples entail selecting literature with different literary genres that reflects multiple ethnic perspectives and incorporating real-world concepts of employment, economics, and consumer habits of various ethnic groups into math lessons. Culturally responsive teaching is validating and comprehensive enabling teachers to develop a "sociocultural consciousness" to

realize that the worldview that they have experienced is not universal, but rather, influenced by aspects of their cultural, race, gender, ethnicity, and social-class (Banks, 1998; Gay, 2000, Villegas & Lucas, 2002b). Thus, understanding students' cultures and differences is essential to cultivating cultural consciousness and competence; however they should not fall victim to the cultural stereotypes that might result from a superficial understanding of students and their experiences.

Furthermore, Gay (1993) suggested that a teacher needs to be the "cultural broker" who "thoroughly understands different cultural systems, is able to interpret cultural symbols from one frame of reference to another, can mediate cultural incompatibilities, and knows how to build bridges or establish linkages across cultures that facilitate the instructional process" (p. 293). She emphasized that as a cultural broker teachers need to understand how culture operates in the classroom while making connections to the cultural context of students' experiences. Thus, ensuring that students from different backgrounds have opportunities for personal and cultural expression in the classroom creates a learning atmosphere that radiates cultural and ethnic diversity.

Reducing the gaps between the unexamined norms of teachers and students' cultures are major aspects in developing culturally responsive teaching. For example, Philips's (1972) seminal work found that participation structures used on the Warm Springs Indian reservation differed than those used in school. The verbalization between adult and children in the context of how knowledge and skills were communicated varied depending on the task (i.e. in cleaning a room the child may help by moving furniture)

with cooperation and guidance mainly supervised by an older relative. In this case, the child first questions until he gradually moves into a position working alongside with his relative. Another difference is the absence of “testing” involved in a child’s skill until public demonstration of his competency. Thus, learning within this community was perceived in the following steps: (a) observation including listening, (b) supervised participation, and (c) private self-initiated testing. Although not all acquisition of learning followed this format, the use of speech in the process was minimal. For these reasons, Indian students were reluctant when speaking in front of class or participating in class discussions. Their acquisition and demonstration of knowledge in class was condensed to one single act where teachers expected Indian students to respond to questions or reciting when called upon. Finally, this study indicated teachers’ misconceptions of Indian children’s social conditions for communicative purposes rather than Indian children not understanding the linguistic structure of classroom directions and/or questions.

In another study, Heath (1983) found the patterns of interactions between adults and children differed significantly in the communities of Trackton and Roadville. In Trackton, African American parents rarely asked their children stylized “known answer” questions such as “What color is the leaf?” “Who sat on a tuffet?” therefore, children did not respond to these type of questions when asked by their teachers at school. But when teachers adjusted their interaction styles and asked more authentic questions, students were more talkative and became deeply connected to the lessons.



Teachers must also create cultural connections between students' communities and school to build culturally responsive classrooms and to increase achievement. Au (1980) found that Hawaiian's students reading grades increased when teachers incorporated participation structures into their lessons that were similar to "talk story" experienced by students from their Hawaiian culture. Moll, Amanti, Neff, and Gonzalez (1992) found that when tapping into students' community knowledge or students' "funds of knowledge," Latino students' academic performance dramatically increased. Moreover, a body of research suggested that effective teachers of color and ELLs need to form and maintain connections with their students within their social contexts. Not only do teachers need to be familiar with community speech patterns, celebrate students as individuals and as members of specific cultures, and ask students to share with others what they know in a variety of ways but also know how to incorporate these elements into instruction (Cochran-Smith, 1995; Garcia, 1993; Nieto & Rolon; 1997).

Additionally, teachers need to link classroom content to students' experiences, focus on the whole child, and believe that all students can succeed. This can be done through active and direct approaches of teaching such as: modeling, explaining, writing, reviewing, giving feedback, and emphasizing higher-order thinking skills. Teachers also need to emphasize shared responsibility, participation, cooperation, and student-initiated discourse rather than competition, rote learning, or punishment (Garcia, 1993; Ladson-Billings, 1994). Moreover, teachers need to develop curricular practices that account for the understandings and perspectives of different groups while developing students' higher-level thinking skills (Banks, 2000; 2003). This involves selecting classroom

materials that are inclusive of the contributions and perspectives of various different groups (Delpit, 1995; Ladson-Billings, 2002). To create a culturally responsive curriculum, teachers must have a broad range of knowledge in subject matter content to construct practices that include and value multiple representations from different groups of students (Lee, 1993). Thus, student learning is maximized when teachers use these tools as a vehicle for developing more positive attitudes toward students and their differences.

### **Politics of Second Language Education and Teaching**

Understanding the complexities that exist in political contexts of second language teaching is necessary and critical so that teachers know how these characteristics shape the importance of learning English in schools. Language plays a significant factor in these social activities because of how it is implicated in the ways in which social class, race, ethnicity, sexuality, and linguistic identity are constructed and reconstructed in human relationships (Gee, 1996). Pennycook (1989, 2001) studied the ways ideological discourses in social and institutional arrangements reinforce power and inequities. Knowledge and knowing, then, depends on one's social positioning and how that individual is constructed in various social and physical contexts (Johnson, 2006). Humans, according to Rogoff (2003), develop as "participants in cultural communities—which also change" (p. 3-4). This idea suggests how individuals develop as part of their lived experiences and shared endeavors with others from prior generations and in their cultural communities.

Research has indicated how education is political, including the nature of language because many decisions about what gets taught, to whom, how, when, and where are made at high levels of political hierarchy (Pennycook, 1998). The political nature of schooling taken from theoretical ideas of Freire (1969), Foucault, (1980) and Giroux (1983) argue that education involves the reproduction of social and cultural inequalities, and of particular forms of culture and knowledge of the dominant class. This argument is especially relevant in the discussion of second language education since it is centered in the political concept of *language* and bounded by the issues of bilingualism, minority education, and internationalism. As a result, second language education is rooted in the educational and linguistic relationships that must be considered in understanding the context of language teaching (Pennycook, 1998).

In bilingual education, for example, research indicates the efficacy of bilingual programs have been consistently ignored to maintain the “covert racism and psychological violence to which dominated minority students are still subjected” (Cummins, 1989, p. 127-128) and to preserve the status quo threatened by the changing demographics of increased Spanish speakers in the U.S. The ideology in preserving the English language around the world has operated during both colonial and neocolonial eras to increase the dependence and subjugation of the Third World (Phillipson, 1988). Furthermore, researchers have argued that teachers of ELLs need an awareness of the sociopolitical dimension of language leading to linguistic diversity rather than inaccurate assumptions of students’ language abilities and uses. This sociolinguistic consciousness enables teachers to grasp the multiple variations of and between languages, that no

language is inherently better than another, and that the dominant position of a language within a particular social context stems from the speakers' authority of that language rather than linguistic form or factor (Delpit, 1995; Fasold, 1990; Villegas & Lucas, 2002a). Therefore, it is imperative for teachers to reflect on their own assumptions and understand the sociopolitical issues surrounding second language teaching so they can create and shape vigilant teaching practices for ELLs.

### **Misconceptions of ELL Teaching**

Unfortunately, reforms and well-intentioned efforts to include diverse learners are often based on misconceptions of teaching ELLs. It is crucial to highlight these misconceptions to dispel their beliefs and to implement best practices that are conducive to second language instruction. Harper and deJong (2004) outlined four popular misconceptions that stem from two basic assumptions that have guided current teacher preparation for ELLs. These assumptions include: the needs of ELLs not differing from those of other diverse learners and the discipline of English as a Second Language (ESL) and its pedagogical adaptations are appropriate for all diverse learners.

The first misconception is that exposure and interaction will result in English language learning. Many teachers assume if ELLs are exposed to frequent interactions with their native English speaking peers, they will develop English skills naturally and fully, similar to how they have developed their first language. And although there are important similarities between the acquisition of the native language (L1) and the second language (L2) learning such as: the developmental nature of constructive and social

processes in which input and interactions are important and the rich classroom practices for facilitating language development, there are however, important differences that exist between L1 and L2 learning (Krashen, 1985; Snow, 1977, Vygotsky, 1978). One major difference is that older students need the opportunity to negotiate the abstract concepts and complex concepts of secondary school classrooms and textbooks. Because of this nature, mere exposure to the target language does not allow students to develop grade-level L2 proficiency (Lightbrown & Spada, 1990; Swain, 1995).

Additionally, teachers cannot assume that transfer is automatic; therefore, it is essential to be aware of what students know and can do in their primary language in order to facilitate their learning of the second language (Goldenberg, 2008). English learners require conscious attention to grammatical, morphological, and phonological aspects of the English language to develop the proficiency skills necessary for academic purposes. They need exposure to academic language that is comprehensible and instruction to notice the relationships between the forms and functions of the target language (VanPatten, 1990, 1993). It is critical for teachers to support older learners' advanced memory and reasoning skills which will allow them to draw on a deeper linguistic base than younger students (Harper & deJong, 2004). Thus, teachers should take advantage of these students' linguistic strengths to enhance their English development and participation in the language process.

A second misconception is that all ELLs learn English in the same way and at the same rate. Second language learning is often perceived as a universal process and

teachers assume that since children learn to speak their native language that they would acquire English in a similar manner (Harper & deJong, 2004). Professional development seminars for teachers typically address the distinction between social and academic language proficiency for ELLs. Cummins (1986) distinguished this difference between how language is used for interpersonal purposes in contextualized settings (social) rather than language for school used in decontextualized settings (academic). This leads to the common misunderstanding that ELLs need to develop social language prior to acquiring academic language skills. While this is true for younger learners, older learners who are already literate in their first language may not follow similar patterns. For these students, academic language can progress more quickly with various social and affective factors hindering their social language proficiency (Harper & deJong, 2004).

There is also the misperception that learners develop language at the same rate which affects how teachers interpret English errors when students practice using their second language. Some errors may be interpreted as cognitive disorders because they deviate from traditional target language forms. And instead of recognizing these errors as evidence of the learner's interlanguage or signs of developmental progress, teachers often mislabel them as cognitive disabilities (Selinker, 1972). It is crucial for teachers to recognize these differences as developmental rather than classifying them as learning disabilities. Thus, this misunderstanding with limited knowledge and experiences not only affect how they interpret students' errors but also helps them become better aware of how they are to continually support second language learners' acquisition of English.

A third misconception is the idea that good teaching for native speakers is good teaching for ELLs. Local, state, and national standards such as: the *National Science Education Standards* (National Research Council, 1996); *Principles and Standards for School Mathematics* (National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 2000); the *National Standards for Social Studies Teachers* (National Council for Social Studies, 2000); and *Guidelines for the Preparation of Teachers of English Language Arts* (National Council of Teachers of English, 1996) have shaped instruction and assessment for teachers across the curriculum. These standards describe what are expected from students in each content area; however, they assume that students have already mastered sufficient levels of oral language and literacy skills in English to compete and participate effectively with their native English speaking peers (Dalton, 1998). However, for ELLs, language-rich competencies such as: responding to higher-order thinking questions, debating, and using compare/contrast arguments require time different from their native peers. Furthermore, these standards do not specify the knowledge and skills that teachers need for linguistic diversity. Davison (1999) suggested that native speakers' content-based benchmarks are inappropriate for ELLs because of the varying rates in which they acquire their new language. Some ELLs learn to read before they speak their L2 while oral and written language may occur simultaneously in others. As a result, teachers have developed inappropriate instructional decisions based on their own assumptions of what good teaching entails for ELLs (Harper & deJong, 2004).

The fourth misconception stems from the notion that effective instruction means nonverbal support. Although teachers use pedagogical tools like graphic organizers and

hands-on activities to increase the comprehensibility of ELLs understanding texts, they are still unable to use these tools as supports for language development within content courses. Leung and Franson (2001) noted that,

Through the skillful use of adjusted talk, realia, graphics and role-play, teachers can make even very complex information accessible to ESL pupils. There is, however, little reason to assume that comprehension of content ideas at a broad level would automatically lead to an ability to use English to carry out academic tasks effectively (p. 171).

Because the context of L2 learning differs significantly between ELLs and native speakers, teachers need to understand how these misconceptions can hinder their academic achievement. Therefore, teachers need the knowledge and skills to plan appropriate instruction and the tools to help ELLs develop academic language proficiency to be successful in schools.

### **Teaching Methodologies for ELLs**

Given the growing numbers of ELLs in mainstream classes across the country, the ESL field has moved into the direction of special language-related knowledge and pedagogical competence that all mainstream teachers need to effectively teach ELLs. First, a foundation of second language acquisition and its set of principles are discussed in serving ELLs in mainstream classes. Second, linguistic pedagogical practices and scaffolding techniques are examined as teachers support ELLs in mainstream classroom (Lucas et al., 2008).

### **Second language acquisition**



Successful teachers of ELLs must draw on a broad range of knowledge; however, one of the most critical is an understanding the established principles of second language learning (Harper & deJong, 2004; Samway & McKeon, 2007). To succeed in U.S. schools, students need to develop academic English proficiency to read academic texts in various content areas, produce written documents, and understand their teachers and peers. Because ELLs are not only learning English but content simultaneously, they need teachers who are best equipped with the knowledge of key principles in second language acquisition. The essential understandings that are relevant to the second language learning are: (a) conversational language proficiency and academic language proficiency are fundamentally different (Cummins, 1981; 2000); (b) second language learners need access to comprehensible input that is beyond their level of competence (Krashen, 1985; 2003); (c) ELLs need opportunities for social interaction to foster their development in conversational and academic English (Gass, 1997; Vygostky, 1978; Wong-Fillmore & Snow, 2005); (d) ELLs who are proficient in their native language are more likely to achieve parity with native-English speaking peers than those who are less proficient in their native language (Cummins, 2000; Thomas & Collier, 2002); (e) safe, supportive classroom environments that reduce the affective filter are crucial in promoting ELLs second language learning (Krashen, 2003; Verplaetse & Migliacci, 2008); and (f) explicit instruction on linguistic form and function is important for second language development (Gass, 1997; Schleppergrell, 2004; Swain, 1995).

The first component of second language development discusses the difference between conversational and academic language proficiency. Cummins (1981) originally

called these ideas as *basic interpersonal communicative skills* (BICS) and *cognitive academic language proficiency* (CALP), but later the terms became conversational and academic language proficiency (Cummins, 2000). Informal conversations could create situations where ELLs use their L2 fluently; however, they may still experience literacy-related academic difficulties at school due to the variability of language use across contexts (Fasold, 1990). Social settings are relatively accessible to ELLs because speakers derive words they hear using facial expressions and gestures in the context of everyday conversations. The content of these conversations includes one's personal experiences to create predictable and comprehensible language. However, once communication drifts further from personal and shared experience, as in the case of academic discourse, language becomes more technical and abstract to convey meaning (Gibbons, 2002).

Language has many different purposes in school. While conversational language has its place in informal settings and routine conversations, academic language demands are greater for success in schools. Such academic expectations create challenging linguistic and cognitive demands for ELLs because of their unfamiliarity with the ways that language is structured in schools (Schleppegrell, 2004). These factors cause ELLs to develop academic English fluency longer, which could take anywhere between 5 to 7 years to be comparable to native speakers of the same age (Cummins, 2008). Teachers must understand that students may demonstrate a solid command of conversational English to do well in nonacademic environments but do not possess the knowledge and skills required to successfully access and master academic content. Research suggests

that mastering academic content in English is essential for ELL's academic achievement and educational attainment (Ballantyne et al., 2008; Gersten & Baker, 2000). Once teachers understand the difference between conversational and academic language proficiency, they can adequately support students' language acquisition to successfully complete challenging academic tasks.

Second language learners must also have access to comprehensible input that is beyond their level of competence with multiple opportunities to produce output in meaningful ways. Krashen's (1982) hypothesis examined that for ELLs who are acquiring another language, they must understand the messages that are conveyed to them. This notion argues that large quantities of input in English will not foster language development for ELLs if they cannot comprehend the input. For new learning to occur, input should slightly be beyond the learner's current level of proficiency. The quality of the input also plays a major role in the second language learning. Language learning and content learning should occur simultaneously; therefore, pushing learners beyond their current knowledge and skills in English is equally important in pushing them beyond their current level of academic content (Wong-Fillmore & Valadez, 1986). It is essential that mainstream teachers understand this hypothesis to provide students supports for learning and foster their academic language development in English.

Output also plays a vital factor in second language learning. Swain (1995) argued that communication in second language requires a level of engagement in language expression that differs from mere listening. This engagement not only leads to greater

fluency but also allows learners to “process language more deeply” (p. 126) than when encountering input alone. Furthermore, as learners express themselves, they can reflect on linguistic form in the context of negotiating meaning (Lucas et al., 2008). Knowledge in this domain helps teachers plan for opportunities for ELLs to utilize their new learning in meaningful speaking exercises during class that will enhance their academic and English proficiency.

The third component of second language learning that teachers need knowledge in is that social interaction that allows ELLs active participation promotes conversational and academic language. Vygotsky’s theory (1978) based on the sociocultural perspective focused on how interaction significantly influences learning. Not only does interaction provides opportunities for both input and output but also it accompanies dialogue to provoke thought and language. In this way, ELLs have direct and frequent experiences interacting with native English speakers providing comprehensible input while extending their productive capabilities (Ellis, 1985; Gass, 1997; Swain, 1995). Important in Vygotsky’s theory of sociocultural learning is the idea of zone of proximal development which is the space where learners can better accomplish tasks with assistance from another capable peer, adult, and/or teacher. The scaffold is later removed once the learner gains the knowledge or skill and can carry out those tasks independently. The zone of proximal development is an essential understanding for teachers as they plan instruction for ELLs. In this way, they have flexible and cooperative groups to complete tasks that require extensive use of language. Thus, maximizing this strategy supports

second language learning as ELLs use peers who are more linguistically competent and knowledgeable for positive supports (Lucas et al., 2008; Wong-Fillmore & Snow, 2005).

Another component of second language acquisition theory is that students who have a strong foundation in their native language are more likely to achieve parity with their native English peers than those students who do not possess native language skills. Thomas and Collier (2002) suggested that strong academic language in one's native language is a huge predictor of second language and academic success. Fundamental to this understanding is the notion of common underlying proficiency (Cummins, 1981) where language skills developed in one's language are transferable to the second language. Students who are literate in their first language and have a foundation in academic knowledge come with a broad range of subject matter competencies that they can draw on for second language learning. Thus, when teachers use the one-size-fits-all approach, it is inappropriate for teaching ELLs because they bring varying linguistic and academic backgrounds to the school environment. Teachers must familiarize themselves with the essential understanding of native-language ability, literacy skills, and their previous native language schooling experiences to successfully scaffold learning for ELLs (Lucas et al., 2008; Waiqui, 2008).

Safe and supportive classroom environments that reduce the affective filter are also crucial in promoting ELLs second language learning (Krashen, 1982, 2003). Second language learning is maximized when anxiety is minimized and students feel welcomed in the classroom. Also, since ELLs have been stigmatized, ridiculed, and ignored in

some U.S. classrooms, teachers must be especially vigilant and sensitive in creating such positive environments (Olsen, 1997; Valdes, 2001). The affective filter developed by Krashen (1982, 2003) hypothesized that when a learner feels embarrassed about speaking English, a filter is activated to prevent her or him from gaining any linguistic input. This anxiety distracts the learner from acquiring any second language and may lead her or him to withdraw from social interaction. Peer harassment, unfamiliarity with the school's culture, people, and the institution of U.S. schools can make ELLs feel anxious about learning English and academic content. In order for ELLs to feel safe and learn well, teachers must be conscious of this thought and continually provide their learners with supportive and caring environments (Lucas et al., 2008; Olsen, 1997; Valdes, 2001).

Finally, direct instruction and attention to linguistic form and function promotes second language learning. Recent developments in the field of second language suggest that ELLs need explicit attention on the formal elements of English and linguistic form in order to become proficient in English (Gass, 1997; Swain, 1995). Although exposure and interaction to English are important factors, teachers also need to articulate unique characteristics of the language in subject matter content through direct instruction to help ELLs acquire the academic language of the subject (Harper & deJong, 2004). When teaching about history, for example, it is critical for teachers to emphasize past tense as it plays a salient role in learning about historical events that have occurred in the past. Similarly, in science, teachers need to explicitly draw attention to the prevalence of passive verbs, how they are constructed, and their commonality in science texts. When teachers scaffold students' understanding of the language of each discipline, academic

language becomes more accessible providing ELLs the opportunity to master content and skills (Gibbons, 2002; Lucas et al., 2008; Shleppegrell, 2004).

### **Linguistically responsive pedagogical practices**

Having a foundation in the principles of second language acquisition and a solid knowledge of teaching their subject matter is crucial for teachers in working with ELLs. These principles provide a foundation in linguistic responsive teaching practices for all teachers to continually support ELLs until they reach proficiency and are academically successful. Goldenberg (2008) supported this idea saying that “full proficiency means that a student has sufficient command of the language and can engage effectively in more complex interactions that involve abstract concepts and references to things that are non in the immediate vicinity” (p. 13). Linguistic demands in these situations become more challenging, therefore, given various factors pertaining to effective language instruction, teachers must make instructional adaptations based on differentiated tasks to maximize learner’s growth while building on students’ strengths (Lucas et al, 2008; Tomlinson, 1999).

The instructional adaptations that teachers need to make in order to make content comprehensible to ELLs are referred to as scaffolds (Echevarria et al., 2004; Gibbons, 2002). This strategy is drawn from Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976) and Vygotsky’s zone of proximal development (1978) where teachers provide temporary supports to help learners carry out challenging academic tasks that they are unable to do alone. Walqui (2008) noted that scaffolding is a means through which teachers “amplify and enrich the

linguistic and extralinguistic context” allowing learners to successfully obtain concepts and skills (p. 107). Lucas et al. (2008) suggested that for teachers to scaffold learning effectively, they must have three types of pedagogical expertise: familiarity with students’ linguistic and academic backgrounds; and understanding of the language demands that are conducive to the learning tasks that are expected; and skills for using appropriate scaffolding so that ELLs can participate successfully in those tasks.

Learning about the linguistic and academic backgrounds of students provides teachers with the tools to plan instruction according to students’ levels. Thus, knowing the native language proficiency skills acquired from each student will help teachers differentiate lessons because of the transferability of knowledge and skills that exist between the languages (Cummins, 2000; Goldenberg, 2008). ELLs (both immigrant and U.S. born) come to schools with varying levels of oral proficiency and literacy; therefore, it is critical that teachers understand this in planning for academic tasks. An extensive use of strategies is available for teachers to become familiar with students’ language backgrounds (Lucas et al., 2008). Some of these strategies include: asking students to describe orally or in writing their previous experiences in school; asking parents about those experiences; interacting with students one-on-one; listening carefully when students interact with each other; observing interactions in the hallways, cafeteria, and playgrounds outside of class; and finally, using other teachers who may know the students as resources for information on students’ proficiency levels (Verplaetse & Migliacci, 2008; Yedlin, 2007).



Scaffolding learning for ELLs also requires that teachers identify the language demands inherent in classroom tasks and not just the conversational and academic language abilities of students (Brisk & Zisselsberger, 2007). These language demands involve: identifying key vocabulary that students need to know to have access to curriculum content; understanding the semantic and syntactic complexity of the language used in written instructional materials, and knowing the ways that students are expected to use language to complete each learning task. For instance, are students being asked to read expository passages and draw conclusions? Are students expected to listen attentively and take copious notes? Are students expected to discuss observations with peers or other small groups? Are written reports required, and if so, in what format? The more detailed teachers are about the language demands in the learning tasks, the better prepared they are in accommodating to those tasks for ELLs (Gersten & Baker, 2000; Lucas et al., 2008). This will enable teachers to identify aspects of those tasks that may need explicit instruction. Having knowledge of these pedagogical practices and their understandings are significant in being a responsive linguistic educator.

### **Scaffolding learning for ELLs**

Once teachers have a clear understanding of ELLs' linguistic backgrounds and abilities, they are in a better position of providing scaffolds to support them. Many different strategies are explored in this section. One strategy is using extra-linguistic supports of visual tools (photos, pictures, maps, illustrations, videos) to give ELLs a medium other than language to access the content (Echevarria et al., 2004). These tools

assist in providing valuable information to students by reducing the auditory information required to process and make sense of the instructional topic. Additionally, graphic organizers such as: Venn diagrams, charts, timelines, and graphs help students clarify concepts, understand cause and effect relationships, and trace events sequentially so that they can organize their ideas visually (Lucas et al., 2008). Another strategy is supplementing and modifying written text. Textbooks are challenging in higher grades due to the nature that these books provide few illustrations and because the language is more complex in syntax and vocabulary. However, developing study guides that focus on key vocabulary words and providing outlines with major concepts are ways to make those challenging texts more accessible. Highlighted and adapted texts that emphasize key vocabulary and allow ELLs to add notes in margins are additional ways to support their learning of the content (Hite & Evans, 2006). Teachers can supplement and modify oral language by minimizing the use of idioms, pausing frequently for longer periods to give ELLs time to process the language they hear, providing agendas or outlines to lessons, repeating key ideas or main points of the lesson, and establish predictable classroom routines (Gibbons, 2002; Goldenberg, 2008; Hite & Evans, 2006; Yedlin, 2007; Verplaetse & Migliacii, 2008).

Giving clear and explicit instructions allows ELLs a sense of direction to the tasks required though teachers need to be attentive to the language used making sure that it is comprehensible (Gibbons, 2002). Facilitating and encouraging students' use of their native language can also scaffold their ability to acquire English. Goldenberg (2008) noted that clarifying concepts in the students' primary language help ELLs gain access to

the content and what is going on in the classroom. Using peer assistance or more proficient students in partner work can help less proficient students gain access to the school curriculum (Walqui, 2008). Nevertheless, teachers need to carefully plan when pairing students to ensure that assistance is not burdening any student (Hite & Evans, 2006). Teachers can encourage students who are proficient in their native language to write first in their L1 then translate later into English. Additionally, teachers can engage ELLs in purposeful activities where there are multiple opportunities to interact with others. This should foster authentic communication to develop conversational and academic English since there is access to rich and meaningful input to produce output (Trumbull and Farr, 2005). Walqui (2008) supported this saying in such settings, ELLs should have “substantial and equitable opportunities to participate” in interaction (p. 114). Thus, interaction should involve the negotiation of meaning where students rotate through centers or jigsaw activities with time to problem solve using their native language when possible. Finally, reducing anxiety levels greatly influences second language learning. Fear of being harassed due to articulation errors in speech or writing can affect ELLs learning ability; therefore, teachers must take active measures in establishing and enforcing safe, respectful places for all students to learn, cooperate, and succeed (Verplaeste & Migliacci, 2008).

### **Assessment practices and accommodations for ELLs**

A variety of problems are associated with testing ELL students both that predate and compounded by the federal legislation of the NCLB Act of 2001. One challenge is

that many ELLs students attend disproportionately low-income schools accounting for the unequal resources, services, and programs allotted to them as compared their counterparts who attend higher-income schools. Socio-economic status has been a predictor in students' academic success; therefore, ELLs' performance is hindered upon when they have minimal opportunities to learn and master the content (Gandara et al., 2003). Additionally, the authors indicated that many ELLs are assigned to less qualified teachers, are taught with an inferior curriculum with less time for coverage, and housed in dilapidated or inferior facilities that segregate them from their native-English speaking peers.

Another challenge faced by ELLs is the issue of invalid instruments used to assess their success that have provided erroneous information about their actual achievement. ELLs are subject to tests of language proficiency and academic achievement as required under provisions of Title III and NCLB Title I; however, many achievement tests administered to ELLs are variations of norm-referenced tests or state accountability tests which are supposed to measure state standards. Norm-referenced tests are problematic for ELLs because they are not typically normed for these students. Thus, a report on the analysis of the Stanford 9 showed substantially lower internal test reliability for ELLs attributed to linguistic factors and language complexity as compared to native proficient English speakers (Abedi et al., 2003). Furthermore, performance of ELLs on assessments is often based on their English language proficiency and knowledge of academic vocabulary rather than an accurate reflection of their grasp of the content (Abedi, 2004; Francis et al., 2006).

It is critical that mainstream teachers understand not only the basic principles of assessment and measurement but also have the ability to design classroom assessments that improve the teaching and learning process for ELLs. In doing so, teachers need to know how to use multiple measures of classroom-based evidence of student achievement including portfolios, works samples, group projects, classroom discussion and grades (Gottlieb, 2003). Using appropriate testing language that matches to the objectives being measured and to students' proficiency levels are better for determining whether ELLs have accessed the curriculum and content. Moreover, teachers need to have knowledge of appropriate testing accommodations for ELLs. Research has found the following accommodations to be effective: (a) English and bilingual dictionaries and glossaries; (b) simplified English; (c) extra time, and (d) dual language tests (Francis et al., 2006). The complexities of these accommodations coupled with English language development are critical determinants in ensuring success for ELLs.

### **Teacher Perceptions of Preparedness**

Research has indicated the need to improve teacher preparation programs to better train teachers with the tools and skills to work with ELLs; thus, it is also necessary to examine teachers' perspectives of their effectiveness in their pre-service course experiences and in-service training (Tellez & Waxman, 2005). A report from the National Center for Education Statistics (1996) suggested two critical aspects when evaluating teacher training programs. They include the exploration of teachers' perceptions on how prepared they feel in working with ELLs and the examination of the

preparation program in terms of breadth and depth. Terrill and Mark (2000) utilized these recommendations and conducted a 37 item questionnaire to gather information on pre-service teachers' perceptions of a teacher education program at a university. Seventy-five percent of the 97 undergraduates who responded indicated that they preferred a student teacher placement in a school where a Spanish course was required. This would not only prepare them in working with students but also would have enhanced communication with students and their families. Another study conducted by Sawyer (2000) examined 25 teachers' perceptions on whether they thought students' culture should be adapted when teaching mathematics or writing and found that participants did not feel that their preparation coursework gave them adequate skills in teaching diverse students.

Examining the research on teacher perceptions of their preparation programs is therefore important to address how to better meet teachers' needs in working with diverse students. Lewis et al. (1999) who researched teacher quality and the preparation of public school teachers found that while 54% of teachers taught ELLs or culturally diverse students, only 20% felt adequately prepared to teach them. O'Neal, Ringler, and Rodriguez (2008) questioned 24 teachers at a rural elementary school regarding their perceptions of their preparedness to teach ELLs in mainstream classrooms. Findings of the study revealed that teacher training programs have not prepared these individuals for their ELL students regardless of the date that they received their initial training or obtained teaching credentials. Other studies have corroborated and found that most teachers who taught ELLs and other culturally diverse students felt unprepared to meet

their students' needs, suggesting that preparation for ELL instruction is inadequate (Alexander et.al., 1999; NCES, 1998). Additionally, Garcia's report (1990) on the significant growth of ELL population motivated teacher educators and policymakers to improve the quality of teacher education in second language instruction. Consequently, many universities and states developed a strong focus for ELL instruction and initiated specialized training and preparation for them (Tellez & Waxman, 2005).

Other evidence has suggested how authentic professional development experiences where learning is continuous and transformative promote positive learning environments for teachers (Clair & Temple Adger, 1999). However, a recent study by Gandara, Maxwell-Jolly, and Driscoll (2005) indicated the challenges that elementary and secondary teachers experience when working with ELLs. Five major challenges were identified in the previous study in order of importance: (a) communication with parents, (b) time teaching subject matter, (c) variations in ELLs' needs, (d) the lack of teaching resources, and (e) shortcomings in developing instructional programs and resources. In determining the role of professional development programs, teachers revealed that the more preparation they had, the more confident they were in serving ELLs effectively. Another study conducted by Reeves (2006) elicited the attitudes and perceptions of secondary teachers and their professional development needs in teaching ELLs. Over 281 teachers from four high schools with high concentrations of ELL students participated in the initial survey. Findings revealed that (a) 70% of the respondents were not adequately trained to teach ELLs, (b) students' language proficiency was perceived as a handicap, (c) teachers were apathetic to effective lesson

medications for ELLs, (d) students rarely used their native language as a learning resource, and (e) inclusion of ELLs in the mainstream classroom was done through as a multicultural exercise. Both studies from above imply the positive effects that quality professional development can have for in-service mainstream teachers in specifically addressing instructional strategies for ELL students.

The strong belief systems presented above which affected teachers' perceptions on the effectiveness of their teacher preparation program may be related to self-perception theory. Moreover, the responses of teachers' personal behaviors indicated and the ability to control situations may be associated with instructional self-efficacy in educating ELLs. It is important therefore to examine the nature of these theories and their impact on teachers' instructional decisions.

### **Self-perception theory**

Teachers' self-perceptions affect how they feel about their preparation but also in the instructional decisions they make in meeting the diverse needs of their students (Enderlin-Lampe, 2002). According to Bem (1972), there are ways in which an individual decides on one's own attitudes and feelings from observing her/his behaviors in various situations, being aware of oneself, and thinking about oneself. These ways of thinking are the basis of self-perception theory which is how individuals develop perceptions of themselves through the interpretation of their behavior. Hattie (1992) also included aspects of what individuals consider most important when thinking about themselves in their appraisals. The attainment of self-perceptions from these salient



characteristics would vary; thus, affecting how they perceive their teaching preparation program and instructional behaviors.

### **Self-efficacy theory**

There is significant body of literature that supports the positive relationship between instructional effectiveness and self-efficacy (Goddard et.al., 2004; Woolfolk Hoy et al., 1990). Self- efficacy is the notion in one's ability to succeed in specific situations. This concept is rooted in Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory which emphasizes the role of observational learning and social experience in the development of personality. Additionally, teacher efficacy is a construct that is often related to effective classroom behaviors (Stein & Wang, 1988) and to positive student outcomes (Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). Teachers who exhibit high self-efficacy in believing that they can perform well are more likely to view difficult situations and tasks as something to be mastered rather than avoiding them. Thus, their ability to organize their own behaviors can affect their perspectives in teaching ELL students.

One study examined female student teachers' self-perceptions and attitudes in teaching physical education conducted by Faulkner and Reeves (2000) suggested that those who had more positive ratings toward teaching the content also exhibited stronger self-efficacy in sports competence. This suggests the importance of self-perception in the actualization of carrying out job tasks. Another study looked at the changes in self-efficacy of teachers between their student teaching and in their first year becoming a teacher. Results indicated that teachers displayed significant differences in their self-

efficacy in instructional decisions such as: classroom management; utilizing technology equipment; keeping accurate student records; differentiating for students with special needs; implementing strategies for teaching language arts; and utilizing appropriate written and oral expression (Walker & Richardson, 1993). Information from this study suggests the need in identifying essential elements in helping teachers feel better prepared in those aspects of the classroom environment.

Finally, teacher efficacy is also related to their perceived ability to work with students from diverse backgrounds. One study by Pang and Sablan (1998) found that many in-service teachers felt unprepared to teach African-American students. Other studies have examined the perceptions of instructional efficacy among teachers of ELLs and found that those who had more specialized certification and greater professional development hours reported higher levels of efficacy. Gandara et al. (2005) found that greater preparation for ELLs allowed teachers to feel more confident in their ability to successfully teach ELLs in the various subject areas. Thus, the authors suggested that other factors are associated with higher self-rated ability that include the more years that teachers worked with ELLs and elementary teachers reported that they felt more competent to teach ELLs if they had a greater number of ELLs participating in their class. Goddard, Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy's (2004) study suggested that the efficacy beliefs of teachers are influenced by the assessing their own strengths and weaknesses in relation to certain tasks or job requirements. Previous findings from Tshannen-Moran, Woolfolk-Hoy, and Hoy (1998) have indicated that professional development established during in-service teaching is a significant "strength" that can bolster efficacy beliefs. Ross and

Bruce (2007) found that implementation of the knowledge gained during staff development seminars was correlated to increased levels of teacher efficacy. As a result, teachers who are afforded professional development opportunities related to teaching ELLs are more likely to obtain and report higher levels of efficacy in their instructional roles.

Examples of the above studies suggest the need, quality, and amount of time spent in professional training is directly related to the teachers' efficacy in working with culturally diverse students. Certain methods and recommendations are provided to teachers, administrators, and teacher trainers to increase teacher efficacy in relation to working with these students. First, Tucker et al., (2005) suggested that teachers need to develop an understanding that various external factors (i.e. cultural, economic, social, political, school, family) are influences on the academic and social behaviors of their students. However, teachers need to appreciate students' differences with attitudes that students can excel under any condition. In doing so, teachers can empower students with the skills necessary for achievement despite the negative influences. Secondly, the authors from above emphasized that teachers can afford their students learning experiences which facilitate self-praise through personal accomplishments; adaptive skills for inappropriate behaviors; and promoting successful behaviors in the classroom. Modeling these skills and behaviors is crucial as teachers find ways to continually support and establish positive relationships with students and their families. These strategies promote teaching behaviors that increases teacher efficacy to ultimately improve teaching and student performance.

Furthermore, these results indicate the importance of understanding both self-perception and self-efficacy theories and how they impact the ways in which teachers work with students. As such, the sources of efficacy beliefs in teacher preparation are critical in understanding and improving teacher quality for the increasing population of ELLs.

### **Professional Development for Teachers of ELLs**

High quality professional development that is ongoing and teacher-driven is necessary to improve the education of linguistically and diverse students and is also supported by the America's Schools Act (IASA) in 1994. The U.S. Department of Education has developed a set of principles to support integrated training and recommend the ownership and leadership roles that teachers need to take in carrying out their learning (TESOL Matters, 1995). Borko (2004) emphasized a professional development model for improving schools that is critical for teacher learning. She proposed that effective professional development programs need to foster teachers' rich pedagogical knowledge in the area that they teach. Highlighting the situative perspective, teacher learning occurs in an environment that is socially organized around activities with these key features: the program, the teachers who are the learners, the facilitator who guides the teachers, and the context where the professional development occurs. And, according to Hord (2004) the goals of professional development programs can vary, depending on the needs of the learners, and the effectiveness of a strategically prepared program. The author recommended standards-based implementation and job-embedded application of practice

to develop a professional learning community aligned to meeting the program's goals. These elements along with the context of how the learning is carried out are essential to the success of a well-established professional development program.

### **Supporting novice teachers**

Examining the literature on the challenges that new teachers encounter is critical in efforts to better plan for professional development activities during their in-service teaching. Liston, Whitcomb, and Borko (2006) explained three commonalities in the frustrations that new teachers face. First, teachers complain that the theoretical grounding learned in teacher preparation does not equip them for the demands of daily classroom life. Basically, teachers argue that many teacher preparation programs overemphasize theory and do not spend enough time teaching the practical skills necessary for teaching. One example is relevant in the dilemmas that new teachers face when implementing curriculum into their own classrooms. And, because local and state policies drive what materials and supports that are available for new teachers, many leave their training programs without a foundational knowledge of how to develop purposeful lessons that are aligned to district-adopted curricula (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Grossman & Thompson, 2004).

Secondly, the emotional rollercoaster and stress experienced by beginning teachers provides another explanation. Many tasks such as: preparing standards-based units, grading papers, calling parents, and fulfilling extra-curricular duties are daunting experiences especially when new teachers have not honed efficient and consistent

approaches to these routine tasks which would allow them to focus on matters needing more attention (Liston et al., 2006).

Lastly, another explanation for the challenges that teachers encounter in their first years in teaching are that the workplaces inadequately support continued professional learning. In *The Project on the Next Generation of Teachers*, Johnson (2004) outlined critical features that are necessary in the organization structure of schools to maximize teacher and student learning. These features include: developing relationships between principals and teachers; giving teachers reasonable and appropriate assignments; granting access to sufficient teaching supplies and resources; developing consistent school-wide policies for student behavior and infrastructure; utilizing teachers' time well; providing coordinated student support services; and establishing connections with parents. Additionally, schools should provide new teachers with an *integrated professional culture* to promote teacher retention and development. These spaces provide teachers with opportunities for shared learning where knowledge and expertise from their experienced colleagues are exchanged. However, Johnson's (2004) study found that only 17 of the 50 new teachers taught in schools that integrated professional cultures. But of the 17 teachers surveyed, fourteen (82%) of the teachers remain in the same school after their first year of teaching. This suggests the significance of schools to provide atmospheres for professional growth to support interactions for both novice and veteran teachers, thus, facilitating positive interactions and collegiality.

### **Formats of professional development**

Various options of professional training are available for teachers of ELLs. One such format is professional learning which utilizes staff presentations, summer learning institutes, and informal classroom observations among faculty participants is vivid at The International High School in New York City. Here, the student population is ethnically and linguistically diverse to include over 460 students who immigrated from over 50 countries and speaking 35 languages. Professional learning among staff at this campus is purposeful and successful because of its clear guidelines, administrative support, and allows for: (a) opportunities to talk about and (“do”) subject matter, (b) opportunities to talk about students and leaning; and (c) opportunities to talk about teaching (Wilson & Berne, 1999).

Peer coaching and collaboration between mainstream and ESL teachers are other forms of professional learning used to train teachers for ELLs. First, peer coaching is a method that provides opportunities for teachers to share their expertise through feedback; assists in skill refinement; and promotes collegiality among professionals (Showers, 1984). Novice teachers of ELLs could gain valuable insights about classroom techniques, students, and their environments from a more experienced peer who works to scaffold the teacher’s learning. Additionally, on-going assessments from pairs of teachers are created to enable continuous training while allowing time for professional dialogue and the ability to apply coaching techniques to real-life situations in the classroom (Galbraith & Anstrom, 1995). Second, partnership teaching between mainstream and ESL staff builds teacher capacity allowing more successful outcomes in teaching ELLs (Davison, 2006). This model highlights how ESL teachers partner up

with mainstream and/or content teachers to plan curriculum and teaching strategies taking into account the diverse needs of their students. Effective collaboration results in environments where teacher talk and curriculum discourses evaluate problems, describe issues, and find solutions while respecting each other's differences. Furthermore, the concept of partnership teaching links together the expertise of the two teachers or group of teachers that ideally supports curriculum and staff development campus-wide (Bourne & McPake, 1991).

Finally, in-service programs that are purposeful have great impact on teachers' abilities to teach ELLs. In one study, Gandara et al. (2005) found that professional development that supports specific teacher needs such as: how to teach a second language and the unique learning with cultural issues and strategies for teaching subject-related material to ELLs are particularly beneficial. Other in-service programs that improve teachers' skills and knowledge in working with ELLs included school districts establishing partnerships with local universities where faculty members tailor graduate-level coursework to teachers and schools. This example is apparent at Balderas Elementary School located in Fresno, California, a community largely populated with Southeast-Asian students (as well as other ELLs). Teachers at Balderas Elementary attended classes at the university to further their growth in teachers' content knowledge and skills used in content-based ELL instruction. Not only did teachers learn the general features of teaching ELLs but also investigated hands-on instruction in science while utilizing student's home language and prior experiences to build academic language and literary practices (Tellez & Waxman, 2005).



## **A Framework for ELL Teacher Learning**

In order to provide high quality instruction for ELLs, research from above has indicated that the knowledge base of teachers for ELLs should include competencies from these areas: second language acquisition, subject-area content, culture and pragmatic language use, curriculum and instruction, assessment, technology, and classroom, school, and community contexts. Freeman and Johnson (1998) broadened the field to address what teachers of ELLs should know and be able to do. They identified key areas of knowledge to include in the discipline the personal and social contexts of teaching itself within theory and practice by posing three broad families of the knowledge-base: the nature of the teacher-learner; the nature of schools and schooling; and the nature of teaching which includes pedagogical subject matter, content, and learning.

The first domain recognizes that in the context of second language teaching, teacher learning is primarily concerned with teachers as learners themselves (Kennedy, 1991). Here, the focus is on the process of how teachers learn to teach and also on the influences and processes that contribute to that learning. Teacher learning in this position is organized around the role of prior knowledge and beliefs in learning to teach (Bailey et al., 1996; Johnson, 1994; Lortie, 1975) and the developmental knowledge of teaching that occurs over time and throughout teachers' careers (Belinger, 1986).

In the second domain, understanding the social and cultural contexts of schools and schooling is critical in establishing the knowledge-base for teaching of ELLs. The

research looks at the physical and sociocultural settings (the schools and classrooms) from which teaching and learning take place and how teacher-learners carry out their work. In this process, teachers are socialized into their roles during their first years on the job and as they receive continuing education through professional development seminars in and through school (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). Schooling, however, draws on various constructs as it gains value and meaning for participants over time. Here, the domain draws from Lortie's (1975) concept of the *apprenticeship of observation*, which accounts for the way teachers develop their vision for teaching while being socialized as students throughout their careers. Crucial in this step is the idea of a "curricular vision" where teachers develop a sense of where they are and how they are going to get their students there (Zumwalt, 1989). This vision serves as important images in teacher learning as they connect important values and goals to concrete classroom practices, thus, enabling teachers to enact their practice, reflect on their work, and direct their future learning (Femain-Nemser, 2001).

Finally, the last domain draws on the pedagogical process of teaching and learning. Derived from the theoretical framework of Shulman's (1986) perspective, teachers' practice is drawn from a knowledge base to include: (a) subject matter content knowledge, (b) pedagogical content knowledge, and (c) curricular knowledge. Content knowledge is not only the understanding of facts in a domain but also the structures of the subject matter. Teachers need to be competent in explaining why a concept is worth knowing, its relation to other concepts, and its integrations within discipline and throughout other content matter. Secondly, within pedagogical content knowledge,

Shulman (1987) emphasized the importance of teachers to articulate the content so that it is comprehensible to others by accommodating to students' varied ages and backgrounds. By doing so, teachers need to have the knowledge of purposeful strategies to organize understanding for their students. Finally, teachers need curricular knowledge to comprehend instructional materials that are the *material medica* of pedagogy where teachers are able to draw various strategies to extend or adjust for students' understanding within content while utilizing curricular alternatives for integration of other disciplines. Shulman (2004) identified the sources of the teacher knowledge base and the processes of how pedagogical reasoning and action are carried out. He said,

A teacher knows something not understood by others, presumably the students. The teacher can transform understanding, performance, skills, or desired attitudes or values into pedagogical representations and actions. These are ways of talking, showing, enacting, or otherwise representing ideas so that the unknowing can come to know, those without understanding can comprehend and discern, and the unskilled can become adept. Thus, teaching necessarily begins with a teacher's understanding of what is to be learned and how it is to be taught. It proceeds through a series of activities during which the students are provided specific instructions and opportunities for learning, though the learning itself ultimately remains the responsibility of the students. Teaching ends with new comprehension by both the teacher and the students (p. 227).

From this perspective, pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) is most critical because of the interaction between content and pedagogy where teachers learn to organize, represent, and adapt curriculum to serve the varied abilities and diverse interests of students (Ball, 1990; Grossman, 1990b; Shulman, 1986, 1987). Teaching reading for ELLs, for example, requires a deeper knowledge base rather than just being a good reader. In addition to developing the knowledge of language and text, well-prepared reading teachers need to know how to differentiate and select reading materials that are

appropriate to the varied domains of ELLs' language proficiencies. In this case, pedagogical content knowledge becomes the most useful way in representing and formulating reading instruction for ELLs (Goldschmidt & Phelps, 2007). Development of these pedagogical skills allow for teaching that has deep and conceptual understandings essential to transforming those skills into sound instruction for student learning and success (Grossman, 2005; Shulman, 2004).

Johnston and Goettsch (2000) supported Shulman's PCK framework because it grounds the knowledge of teachers in working with ELLs. The authors further explained that the core of teachers' knowledge centers on the activity of teaching itself, on what the teacher does, the context in which it is done, and pedagogy by which it is done. For example, the pedagogical knowledge that teachers draw on when helping students understand the practical applications of language during a grammar exercise is considered most purposeful. This illustrates that simply knowing the subject is not sufficient to teaching, but rather, to know how to teach specific aspects of what is to be taught. Another example is a science teacher who intends to teach about properties of matter should not only draw on the knowledge of matter but also on the pedagogical tools of helping ELLs understand what matter is, how it operates, and its practical applications and effects to everyday life. As a result, teachers' pedagogical knowledge is designed to formulate instruction while extending content to meaningful experiences for ELL students.

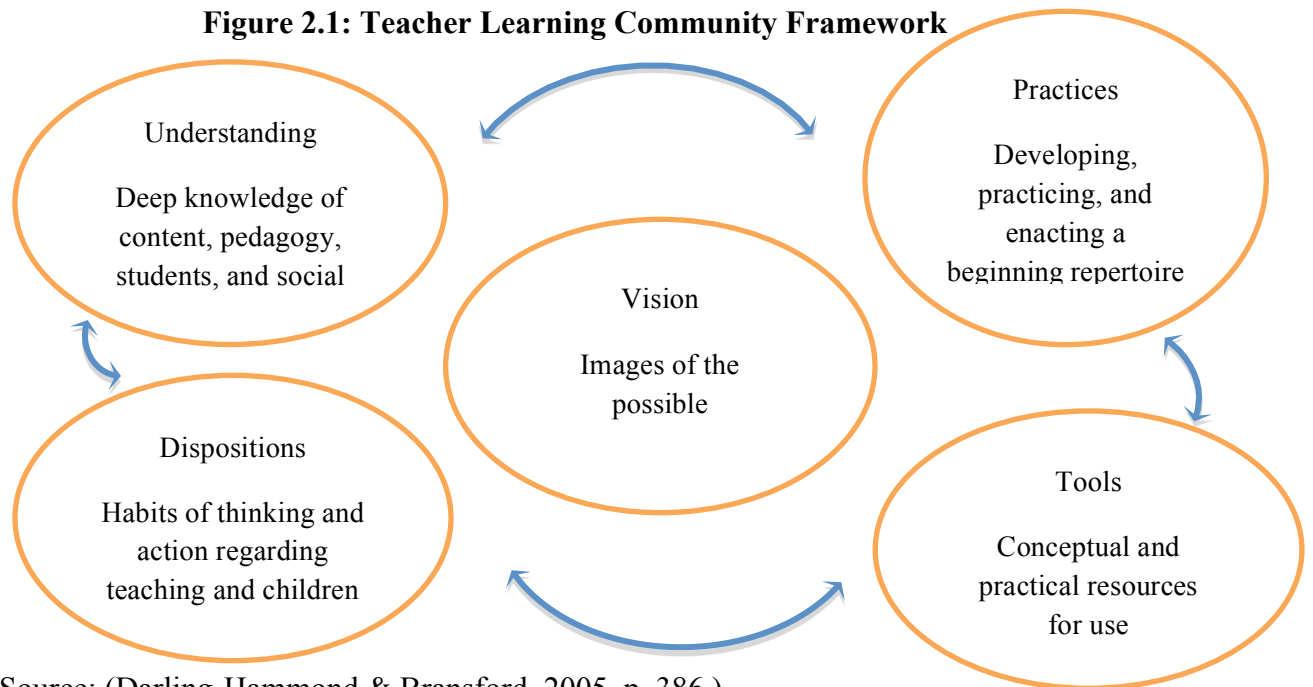
Boix-Mansilla and Gardner (1997) also argued that within this model, teachers develop an *understanding* of the knowledge, the purposes, the methods, and the forms of the subject. The framework allows teachers to possess a coherent and rich conceptual map of the discipline (knowledge); an understanding of how the knowledge is developed and validated within different social contexts (methods); an understanding of why the subject matter is important (purposes); and an understanding of how to effectively communicate that knowledge to others (form). Communicating that knowledge effectively rests upon teachers' understanding of students' prior experiences, intellectual abilities, and development to construct curriculum and manage classrooms so that the learning process can unfold productively (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005).

In addition to putting these understandings into practice, Grossman, Smagorinsky, and Valencia (1999) argued the importance of teachers to develop conceptual and practical resources known as *tools* to use in the classroom. Conceptual tools include the understanding of various learning theories, frameworks, and ideas of teaching and learning such as the zone of proximal development and culturally relevant teaching. Practical tools are the use of specific instructional strategies or approaches and how certain curricular resources such as textbooks, assessment techniques, and materials supplement the teaching process. Utilizing these two tools promote teachers' understanding of the teaching and learning process which are integrated into a set of *practices*. These practices allow teachers to carry out their intentions by developing, practicing, and enacting their *beginning repertoire* into a set of classroom activities that include explaining concepts, holding discussions, developing simulations, planning

debates, providing feedback, designing and carrying out unit plans or daily lessons, implementing writing workshops, and developing classroom assessments (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Teachers need to learn the content of these strategies but also know in what manner and when to use them accordingly.

Finally, teachers need to develop a set of teaching *dispositions* which are habits of thinking and action regarding their students, about teaching, and their roles as teachers. These dispositions are important as they allow teachers to reflect and learn from practice by taking an *inquiry as stance* (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999). Thus, dispositions about children refer to the determination and persistence in working with children for their success, seeking new approaches with the belief that all students can learn, and establishing positive and respectful relationships with children and their families (Ladson-Billings, 1994). Figure 2.1 depicts a teacher learning community that combines the principles of *vision* for teaching; a set of *understandings* about teaching and learning; *dispositions* regarding the use of knowledge; *practices* to facilitate such beliefs; and *tools* to carry out those approaches.

**Figure 2.1: Teacher Learning Community Framework**



Source: (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005, p. 386.).

### **Contextual approaches on teacher learning**

In addition to the understanding the framework of teacher learning, it is crucial to take into account the contextual influences of teacher learning that occurs within communities. An existing body of research supports that teacher learning is associated with the cognitive views of a “situative perspective”—a framework that draws on ideas of situated cognition, distributed cognition, and communities of practice across the individual, others, and tools (Putnam & Borko, 2000). Situated cognition is a view of knowledge that suggests the relationship between what is known tied to its specific context (situation). Situative theorists extend that these physical and social contexts become integral parts of the learning which take into account the interactive systems that include the participants themselves, their interactions with others, and the materials and representational systems around them (Cobb & Bowers, 1999; Greeno, 1997). Brown,

Ash, Rutherford, Nakagawa, Gordon and Campione (1993) suggested that within situated environments, authentic experiences similar to the real-life activities of what practitioners do, are critical in fostering the kinds of thinking and problem-solving skills in teacher learning.

Distributed cognition views knowledge as a functioning process which is dispersed among people, objects, and various artifacts rather than residing within individuals. Lave (1988) and Resnick (1987) argued that when cognition is dispersed across people and tools in school contexts, it provides for a collective understanding of cognitive tasks that are beyond the capabilities of any individual member. The author supported this claim saying “as long as school focuses mainly on individual forms of competence, on tool-free performance, and on decontextualized skills, educating people to be good learners in school settings alone may not be sufficient to help them become strong out-of-school learners” (p. 18).

Finally, communities of practice reflects the view that knowledge is the development of both situated and distributed cognition in which the role of others in the learning process contribute greatly to one’s construction of knowledge. As teachers participate in these interactions of their environments, they engage in various discourse communities that stimulate their thinking which provides the cognitive tools, ideas, theories, and concepts to make sense of their learning and personal experiences (Lave, 1988; Putnam & Borko, 2000; Resnick, 1991). Additionally, the sociocultural view argues that ‘knowing’ and ‘thinking’ are not separable from social contexts in which



those mental functions occur. Knowledge is simply not reduced to facts or specific items, but rather, it shifts to knowing as a social process. Thus, teacher learning is an active and experimental process where knowledge is constructed, enacted, and revised. When teachers learn a new instructional strategy, they mentally reflect on the new approach, as well as through interactions and discourse with colleagues discussing the new method. Their knowledge construction is situated in specific contexts such as: a particular classroom, department, or school where it is distributed among individuals of the same team or communities of practice (Greeno et al., 1996). Critical social theorists have also supported how social practices allow individuals to reflect, create, and recreate situated ways of knowing (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1997; Foucault, 1980; Habermas, 1998).

Research on second language teaching has extended the sociocultural paradigm to describe how teachers learn and develop. This perspective depicts teacher learning as a normative and lifelong process through experiences in social contexts: as learners in classrooms and schools, as participants in professional teacher education programs; and later as professionals in where they work (Borg, 2003; Freeman, 1996, 2002; Johnson & Golombek, 2003). Thus, this body of research describes teacher learning as an activity that is socially negotiated and contingent on knowledge of self, students, subject matter, curricular, and setting. Within social, cultural, and historical contexts, teachers make decisions of how best to teach students who are learning English; thus, creating and using forms of knowledge they feel are legitimate (Johnson, 2006).

### *Situative learning experiences*

Various settings for teachers' learning can take place within the situative perspective to help practicing teachers learn and change in powerful and meaningful ways. For example, strong professional communities promote positive teacher learning because of opportunities that allow teachers to share their understandings that deepen their knowledge and improve their teaching (Borko, 2004). Another strategy is to encourage collaboration where teachers bring experiences and strategies to share at workshops aimed at improving instructional practices. Discussions in these settings promote thoughtful inquiry where teachers have an opportunity to view videotapes of teachers' classrooms, examine others' instructional decisions, and offer suggestions for improving teaching (Richardson & Anders, 1994).

Traditional K-12 field experiences in classroom settings can also facilitate learning experiences for pre-service teachers. These settings allow for coordinated opportunities between university course experiences and a place where pre-service teachers learn fresh ideas and teaching methodologies. Thus, they offer authentic opportunities for pre-service teachers to engage in reflective dialogue with their university supervisor for feedback on their teaching. Additionally, case-based learning experiences for pre-service teachers are alternatives to non-traditional field experiences to afford opportunities on shared learning. In this way, discourse communities play a central role in enculturation of all stakeholders (teachers, students, administrators) in shaping the way that teachers work and learn (Putnam & Borko, 2000).

### **Reflective Practice**

The components presented above serve as critical areas in the knowledge-base for teachers of ELL students; however, reflective teaching also is fundamental in the teaching and learning process. An understanding of how language is organized and how it is learned is crucial as teachers draw from their own experiences to reflect on their practices (Yates & Muchisky, 2003). Richards and Lockhart (1994) supported this notion arguing that, “Learners, too, bring to learning their own beliefs, goals, attitudes, decisions which in turn influence how they approach learning” (p. 52). What learners bring with them to learning, the *interlanguage* or developmental grammar, affects how input becomes intake, therefore, creating consequences for the kinds of language that learners can comprehend and produce. With this in mind, reflective teachers are able to ask questions of what it means to know a language, how teachers can assess learners’ knowledge, how to correct learners’ language errors, the differences between L1 and L2 learning, and the differences of learning content subject matter as compared to language learning (Yates & Muchisky, 2003).

Zeichner and Liston (1996) emphasized five key features in their analysis of a reflective teacher. Accordingly, a reflective practitioner:

- examines, frames, and attempts to solve the dilemmas of classroom practice;
- is aware of and questions the assumptions and values he or she brings to teaching;
- is attentive to the institutional and cultural contexts in which he or she teaches;
- takes part in curriculum development and is involved in school change efforts;
- and takes responsibility for this or her own professional development (p. 6).

For teachers of ELLs, it is necessary to embrace these ideas so that they are aware of their own misconceptions and work to hone their teaching over time to improve instruction for

their students. Furthermore, exploring the important contributions of John Dewey (1933) and Donald Schon (1983) can provide a model for reflective practice as their ideas on reflective teaching have anchored conceptualizations of the notion to promote thoughtful action by teachers.

In Dewey's book, *How We Think* (1933), he suggested that reflection for teachers involves a distinct process on action that is reflective rather than action that is routine. Routine action is something that is often guided in ways which Dewey called the "collective code" where problems, goals, and the means for accomplishments are identified to fit particular traditions (i.e. "This is the way we do things at our school, This is how things have been done"). When things progress along without major impediments or contrasting viewpoints, the reality is seen as unproblematic.

Additionally, Zeichner and Liston (1996) defined reflective action involving "intuition, emotion, and passion and is not something that can be neatly packaged as a set of techniques for teachers to use" (p. 9). Dewey (1933) further emphasized that reflective action involves critical components of open-mindedness, responsibility, and wholeheartedness. In this way, teachers have a unique understanding in examining their own assumptions and beliefs to approach opportunities with a mindset for new learning. For teachers of ELLs, this means that they concentrate their efforts in finding the most effective methods in solving those problems that were already defined by the collective code. As a result, these teachers become unreflective of their teaching and uncritically accept this as an everyday reality, thus, losing sight of other possibilities that may exist.

But, for teachers who take action, they carefully plan other alternatives and respond to them in a holistic way.

Schon (1983) presented additional notions of reflective practice to include what he called “reflection-on-action” and “reflection-in-action”. Reflection-on-action refers to what teachers think about prior and after instruction. During this process, teachers are engaged with reflection through conversations of the events that occurred on the spot. In contrast, however, reflection-in-action refers to the frequent encounters of unexpected student reactions and/or perceptions that make teachers adjust their instruction. When this happens, teachers are reflecting both “in” and “on” action; thus, accumulating and creating knowledge as they are teaching. Framing and reframing experiences become important allowing teachers to view them in a new perspective. Moreover, becoming a reflective teacher involves identifying problems and relating literature to that problem, gathering and analyzing classroom data, developing plans for instructional practices, and using unbiased assessment methods for students (Grant & Gillette, 2006). As a result, teachers of ELLs who display habits of thinking and action in reflective practice continue inquiry into their own teaching methods, accommodate when necessary, and are persistent in working toward success of their students (Richards & Lockhart, 1994).

### **Conclusion**

Much of what has been discussed in this chapter has implications for school leaders, researchers, teacher developers and trainers, policy makers, and teachers themselves. Teacher learning within the context of English Language Learners is a

challenging area that needs more emphasis. Change is a constant condition in the education system but has implications in teacher identity and role. But, what kinds of environments and opportunities are beneficial in enhancing knowledge building, distributed cognition, communication, and engagement to keep pace with such change? Schools and teacher preparation programs need to focus on specific types of teacher development and professionalism that continually supports the change that is expected. And, by exploring the perspectives of how teachers are prepared in meeting the needs of ELLs, this will help guide teacher education in delivering pedagogical tools so that all mainstream teachers can take ownership of those methods while implementing them into the classrooms for success of all students.

## **Chapter Three: Research Design and Methodology**

### **Introduction**

This chapter explored the purpose of the study, the researcher's plans in carrying out the project and standards of ELL instruction. The demands of meeting students' diverse needs and the growing population of ELL students indicate that teachers need certain preparation and pedagogical tools to help students acquire English and perform academically (deJong & Haper, 2005). Likewise, under The Improving America Schools Act of 1994, standards for ELL instruction have prioritized at the state and federal level with various teacher preparation programs and higher education authorities assisting in the preparation of teachers to work with the language-minority and culturally diverse students (PL 103-382). Additionally, the NCLB Act of 2001 requires that all children including ELLs to reach high standards by demonstrating their academic success and proficiency in the area of English language arts and mathematics by 2014. These accountability requirements create a substantial challenge on schools and districts who must help ELLs and other student groups make continuous progress toward this goal or risk serious consequences (Abedi, 2004).

### **Purpose**

The purpose of this study was to examine in-service teachers who have been teaching five or less years on their perceptions of how adequately prepared they feel from their teacher credential program in teaching ELLs and the effectiveness of instructional decisions of in-service teachers' abilities in supporting ELLs.

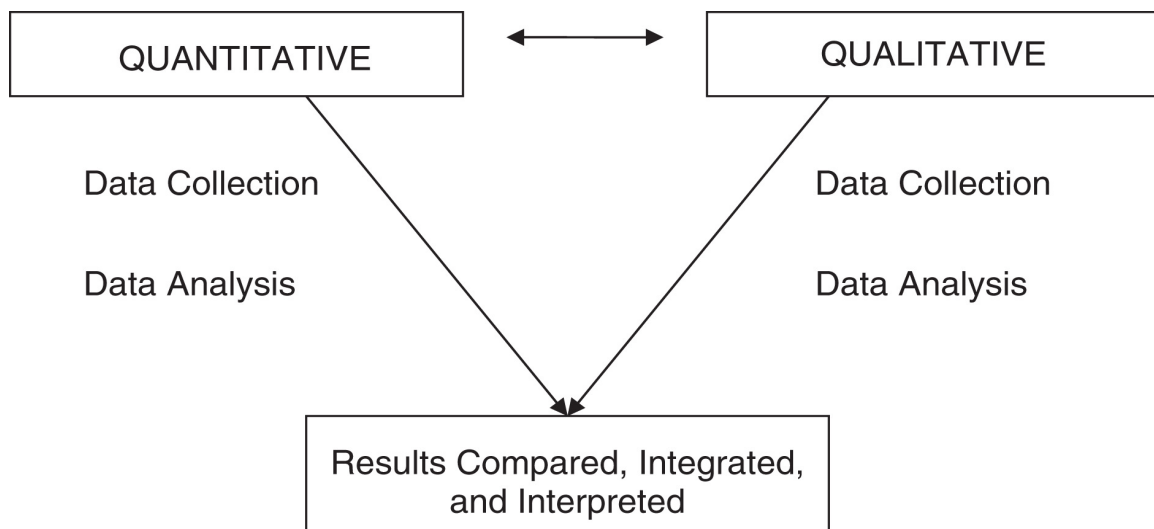
## Research Questions

The research questions central to this study were: 1) What perceptions are held by in-service teachers about teaching practices for ELLs? 2) What is the relationship, if any, between teacher knowledge about teaching ELL students and the instructional practices employed by teachers when instructing ELL students? 3) How effective do in-service teachers feel in teaching ELL students? 4) What factors influence teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy about teaching ELL students?

## Design

To carry out the research, a mixed method case study called Concurrent Triangulation Strategy (Creswell, 2003) composed of both quantitative and qualitative approaches was adopted. The Concurrent Triangulation Strategy below shows how data collection and analysis from both approach was used to enhance the research design.

**Figure 3.1: Concurrent Triangulation Strategy**





Strengths and weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative paradigms are important considerations when carrying out a mixed-method study. One benefit of quantitative research is it allows for certain aspects of the study to be designed before data is actually collected (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). Other strengths in a quantitative approach involve the ability to generalize a research finding based from large and random samples of teachers and through replication of different populations. Data collection in quantitative methods is also relatively quick and less time consuming because of the availability of a statistical software (i.e. SPSS) which allows for certain statistical models to be performed to explain what is observed (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). On the other hand, qualitative research provides for a complete and detailed description of the phenomena. It is useful for studying a limited number of cases in depth. This is helpful when making cross-case comparisons and analysis of the small case number of teachers for the researcher to study further. And, because data is often collected in naturalistic settings, teachers are more comfortable in observations and interviews giving richer details of their experiences. However, data collection in qualitative research requires more time and is not as generalizable as compared to quantitative data. Additionally, Miles and Huberman (2004) suggested that the investigator in qualitative research must possess certain skills including: (a) a familiarity of the setting and the phenomenon; (b) a strong interest; (c) a multidisciplinary approach, (d) and good investigation skills. Yin (2008) supported the case study research method and defined it as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are

not clearly evident and in which multiple sources of evidence are used. It is within a case study that the researcher becomes interested in process, meaning, and understanding gained through words and/or pictures. The use of a small select sample results in more sensitive and descriptive data as compared to a large-scale study (Merriam, 1998). Merriam (1998) also suggested that case study relies mostly on interviewing, observing, and data collecting. Interviewing is the primary strategy that the researcher used; however, observations and document analysis served as supporting methods to collecting data.

And while quantitative and qualitative methods have their advantages and disadvantages in research due to their varied strengths, weaknesses, and requirements that may affect the project's accuracy, the researcher's goal was to use the strength of each type of information collected to minimize the weak points from the two approaches. Therefore, employing various types of data collection (numbers and text) and additional means (statistics and text analysis) from both paradigms produced better results and more practical reports (Johnson & Christensen, 2004). Nevertheless, the many advantages of using mixed-method research included: (a) the use of multiple methods helps to look at the research question from all sides, (b) the ability to answer and provide insight to a broader range of the research questions because it is not confined to a single approach, (c) stronger evidence through triangulation of findings, (d) the words, pictures, and narrative used to add meaning to numbers, (e) the numbers used to add precision to words, pictures, and narrative, (f) an increase in the generalizability of the results, and (g) more complete knowledge necessary to inform theory and practice.

## **Limitations**

Using mixed methods research enhanced the understanding of the topic; however, it does have some limitations. Critical issues for this type of research included: clarity of purpose, awareness of the limitations of traditional approaches given their modification in a mixed method study, appropriate analysis of qualitative data from quantitative data, and clear interpretation of quantitative coding from qualitative data for appropriate generalizations given the choice of sample and methods. Thus, the complex process of carrying out a mixed method study including extensive data collection and resources, time commitment, and the competencies required of the researcher to understand how to appropriately mix the two designs were other essential considerations. However, the usefulness and strengths from carrying out a mixed-methods study outweighed its weaknesses as compared to other sequential methods and was determined as the best way to answering the phenomenon. Most importantly, was the ability to utilize and integrate different research methodologies to provide reciprocal data producing better results in terms of quality and scope that allowed the researcher to gain different perspectives for the study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

## **Positionality**

The researcher's background knowledge and experience in working with ESL and general education teachers as a district-level ELL specialist provided her with the advantage as an insider in the study. The researcher also identified with the participants in the nature of teaching itself given her past teaching experiences as a member of that

community. These prior connections and familiarity with the environment privileged the researcher to be able to identify certain school districts for participants in the study. And, according to Banks (1998), the researcher was perceived as an indigenous-insider who “endorses the unique values, perspectives, behaviors, belief, and knowledge of his or her indigenous community and culture and is perceived by people within the community as a legitimate community member who can speak with authority about it” (p. 8). In this case, the researcher had the perspective and knowledge by enhancing teaching and learning while promoting the well-being of the teaching culture.

## **Methodology**

Prior to the collection of any data, the researcher requested approval from the university’s Institutional Review Boards. Using the Concurrent Triangulation Method, the research was conducted in two phases: quantitative and qualitative. In the first phase, the researcher created a survey for new teachers (those with 5 or fewer years of experience) to address teachers’ knowledge and perceptions in their pre-service course experience as well as teachers’ efficacy beliefs during their in-service experience in relation to ESL methodologies, multicultural education, and cultural/linguistic diversity. Survey questionnaires were administered to collect data from a large population (Mertens, 1998) and used widely by education researchers to examine phenomena related to perceptions, attitudes, self-concepts, and motivation due to its advantages of anonymity, lower cost, uniform data, accuracy, and convenience (Nunan, 1992; Selinger & Shohamy, 1989). Some disadvantages of using the survey questionnaire included:

lower retrieval rate, respondent's misunderstanding of question statements, risk of dishonest answers from respondents, and the lack of opportunity for the researcher to verify responses (Mertens, 1998).

### **Data Collection Procedures**

Participants for this research project included current employed teachers who were teaching five years or less from two suburban school districts in the central Austin area. The questionnaire that was used included both closed and open-ended items adapted from a previous questionnaire with an electronic permission granted by the author to the researcher (K Fuller, Personal Communication, November 19, 2010). The researcher adapted the instrument to 30 *likert* scale items and grouped these items into four categories: culture, teaching strategies, teaching behaviors, and assessment practices respectively. Teacher perception items were rated using a six point *likert* scale with one being not at all prepared to six being very well prepared. Teachers' efficacy beliefs were rated using a similar six point *likert* scale but with one being very ineffective to six being very effective. Additionally, another six point *likert* scale item with one being very ineffective to six being very effective was added to survey teachers' efficacy beliefs in their instructional decisions for ELLs' varied proficiency levels and language domains.

Other closed-ended items included: teachers' biographical information (age, gender, ethnicity); type of teaching certification(s) held (i.e. bilingual and/or ESL); years of teaching experience; nature of teaching assignment; school locale; percentage of students who were identified as ELLs; percentage of students who were identified as

economically disadvantaged; teachers' ESL/ELL coursework experience; proficiency in another language, the amount of ESL/ELL training received in professional development; memberships in any local or national teacher organization; and teachers' efficacy beliefs in how they felt other staff members at school (i.e. principal, assistant principal, department chairperson, instructional specialists, etc.) improved their skills for instructing ELLs. Open-ended items on the questionnaire included: (1) What do you consider has been the most valuable training you have received in working with ELLs? (2) What organization (i.e. university, school district, other) provided you with this training? (3) What area do you feel was most lacking from your preparation in working with ELLs? (4) What are some ways that teacher preparation and staff development could be improved to better prepare teachers to effectively instruct ELL students? and (5) Is there anyone on your campus who provides useful feedback and/or suggestions that improves your instruction with respect to ELL students?

The researcher gained credibility of the participants as a former and current employee in both these school districts. The researcher delivered a separate email invitation to teachers in each district who had been teaching five years or less. The body of the email included the purpose of the study, the goal of the research, the voluntary description to participate, anonymity of the responses, the option to answer or skip certain questions, the ability to withdraw at any time, and the link to the online survey accessible through Survey Monkey. The researcher also described how the research contributed to the district's overall professional development plan and that findings would be shared at the conclusion of the research study. Responses of the survey were

collected from eligible participants in each district from the middle of March 2011 until April 15, 2011 when the researcher closed the online survey site to begin data analysis.

The second phase of the study was the qualitative part of the research method. Once the surveys were returned, the researcher gathered 20 participant's names who agreed to the second phase of the research and selected six teachers to conduct in-depth case studies on. The researcher interviewed these six teachers but chose only five participants for the final sample to improve the diversity of the study. Of the five teachers selected, considerations of independent variables included: age, gender, ethnicity, contextual factors related to current place of employment, teaching certification, proficiency in another language, and ESL methods courses studied in pre-service and/or in-service course experiences.

The researcher conducted one focus-group on two participants and four semi-structured interviews on the remaining participants which occurred mostly in April of 2011. The focus-group interview provided several advantages to the research project such as: the similarity of participants being interviewed, the ability to gather information about the research topic by a set of focused questions, and the process by which participants interacted with others to yield a variety of information rather than the researcher interviewing the participant individually (Krueger, 1994). Group discussion during the focus group produced valuable data through verbalized experiences that stimulate memories, ideas, and experiences of the participants. This cascading effect allowed participants to discover a common language to describe similar experiences

(Lidlof & Taylor, 2002). Time constraints prevented the other four teachers to participate in the focus-group interview; therefore, the researcher used semi-structured interviews for them. The open-ended questions were similar to the focus-group as specific information was gathered from all participants, but also allowed respondents to define the world in their own unique ways (Merriam, 198). During these interviews, the researcher followed this format: the opening (welcoming the participants, reviewing the purpose of the focus-group and/or interviews, reviewing ground rules, and gathering the consent form); the interview questions (guiding participants into questioning, ensuring time allotments for each question, capitalizing on comments, and probing into possible unplanned aspects of the topic); and the wrap-up (brief summary of the focus-group, interview, and thanking participants). The researcher also allowed time for participants to make any final comments and/or concerns regarding their current roles in teaching ELLs. Following the interview, the researcher emailed each participant to schedule one classroom observation that took place about 7-14 days after each interview.

During the classroom observation, the researcher established herself as an *observer as participant* since observation activities regarding instructional practices for ELLs were known to the group. Thus, participation to the group was secondary to the information that was gathered during the observation (Merriam, 1998). Each classroom observation averaged from one to two hours in length depending on the grade and/or content-area that was taught. Field notes and an observation checklist were used throughout each classroom observation. The Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) model and its observation tool has been used in the last decade as a way to



improving success of ELLs with a theoretical underpinning that language acquisition is enhanced through meaningful use and interaction. Thus, the SIOP model was an appropriate tool to use given the flexibility of teachers' classrooms with ELLs: teachers who have teach all ELLs exclusively, those who have a mix of native and non-native English speakers; those with students who have strong academic foundation from their previous schools; those who have ELLs with limited-formal schooling, and those who have recent arrivals; and those who have a variety of English proficiency levels in their classrooms. Additionally, the instrument provided a tool for the observer to focus on specific methodologies and the consistency of strategies (i.e. to wait time, tapping into prior knowledge, native language support, and/student-teacher interactions) so that ELLs can access the curriculum and understand content (Eschevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2004).

The SIOP model is composed of 30 items on a 0-4 rating scale (0= lowest, 4=highest) as well as an alternative category of "Not Applicable" that is provided for each item. These 30 items are arranged within the following eight components: (1) *Preparation* (clear content objectives, clear language objectives, content concepts, supplementary materials, adaptation of content, and meaningful activities); (2) *Building Background* (concepts explicitly linked, links explicitly made, and key vocabulary); (3) *Comprehensible Input* (appropriate speech, explanation of academic tasks, variety of techniques); (4) *Strategies* (ample strategies, scaffolding, and question types); (5) *Interaction* (frequency of interaction, grouping configurations, and wait-time); (6) *Practice/Application* (hands-on materials, activities to apply content and language, and integration of language skills); (7) *Effectiveness of Lesson Delivery* (content objectives

supported by lesson, language objectives supported by lesson, level and student engagement, and pacing of lesson); and (8) Lesson Review/Evaluation (review of key vocabulary, review of key content concepts, feedback provided, and ongoing assessment).

Many teachers from both the school districts studied had received some form of sheltered instruction training provided in various professional development activities offered at the campus and/or district level. It was unclear during the initial observation whether the six participants actually participated in any of these seminars; however, the SIOP model had been implemented in each district and teachers were familiar with its components. Given this background, the researcher chose this observation checklist as a guide to capture essential elements of teaching but primarily used field notes as the data collection tool. Ratings for each teacher were not considered but rather a focus on particular components where the teacher showed strengths or weaknesses.

When carrying out the study, the researcher incorporated the recommended components of a mixed-method design. The researcher *triangulated* by using data from the survey, field notes, classroom observations, and focus-group interviews. To show *complementarity*, the researcher used follow-up interviews and classroom observations to add information about the learning process, and hopefully, to qualify scores from statistical models that participants had completed. *Development* occurred because of the mixing of the two approaches at every stage of the research in order to conduct it thoroughly. *Initiation* occurred through the interviews with teachers to provide new

insights into understanding teachers' pedagogical knowledge, perceptions, and efficacy in relation to working with ELLs. And finally, integration of the four procedures allowed for *expansion* of the study to offer future directions for research in the field of teacher preparation for ELLs (Green et al., 1989).

### **Pilot Study**

Prior to sending out the surveys, the researcher utilized the method of cognitive interviewing or precognitive testing. This allowed the researcher to collect verbal information from participants regarding survey responses not understood by the participants, to check for survey reliability, and to evaluate whether the survey questions were measuring the constructs intended. The researcher conducted the cognitive interview in two sessions composed of current ESL teachers and instructional coaches that lasted approximately 20 minutes. In the first session, four ESL teachers reviewed the survey questions and offered their feedback.

One suggestion was to add an additional local university to item number four which was not originally listed. Another suggestion was to group the items in questions 18 and 19 into categories and/or themes. In the second session that occurred four weeks after the first session, the same four ESL teachers and two instructional coaches participated in the precognitive interview. One instructional coach offered the suggestion of defining the word *realia* and changing the wording to open-ended question number five to list only the role of the person who had provided suggestions in improving instruction for ELLs rather than the person's given name. Discussion from the cognitive

interview also prompted the researcher to add an additional question, item #20, probing teachers' effectiveness in their instructional decisions based on ELLs' language proficiencies and domains. Data collected in these two interactions allowed the researcher to adjust wording appropriate to the participants' cultural context and lifestyle before actually fielding the survey instrument to the full sample (Collins, 2003). Finally, the researcher sent the revised survey to a group of 10 current ESL teachers who completed all items and returned the instrument.

Internal consistency reliability was calculated when participants returned their completed surveys. The internal consistency reliability estimation looked at how well the items reflected the same construct to yield similar results and to find how consistent the results were for different items for the same construct within the measure. There are a wide variety of methods used to calculate internal consistency reliability; however, Cronbach's alpha was used in SPSS to calculate the correlation between items. Internal consistency reliability can range between zero and one, but an accepted score for an  $\alpha$  of 0.6-0.7 indicates acceptable reliability, and 0.8 or higher indicates good reliability (Cronbach, 1951; Gliem & Gliem, 2003). Thus, the internal consistency reliability for this study was calculated for preparedness items as 0.979 and efficacy items as 0.9782 demonstrating a high inter-correlation between items.

## **Chapter Four: Data Procedure and Analysis**

This chapter presented the data analysis for the mixed-method study with these research questions: 1) What perceptions are held by in-service teachers about teaching practices for ELLs? 2) What is the relationship, if any, between teacher knowledge about teaching ELL students and the instructional practices employed by teachers when instructing ELL students? 3) How effective do in-service teachers feel in teaching ELL students? 4) What factors influence teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy about teaching ELL students? Procedures for quantitative and qualitative data were discussed as well as findings for descriptive statistics, inferential statistics, qualitative themes, and case analysis for individual teachers who were studied.

### **Data Analysis Procedure**

#### **Quantitative Data Analysis**

Using Survey Monkey's downloadable features for all responses and SPSS 19 for Windows Vista, the researcher analyzed the collected quantified survey data. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data further. Percentages were used to describe participants' demographic profile to include: gender, age, ethnicity, years of teaching experience, type of certification held, place where teacher received certification, the study of a foreign language during teaching certification, the ability to speak another language, the study of ESL related methods courses, membership to any professional or group organization, the teacher's main role at the school, the way the teacher's

instructional classes were organized, the school's instructional level, the school enrollment size, school locale, the number of ELLs enrolled in the school, the number of economically-disadvantaged students enrolled in the school, whether teacher's had ELL students, the number of years in which teachers taught ELLs, and the amount of time spent in professional development activities for ELLs. Means and Standard Deviations were used for the following subscales: (a) perception of teacher's preparedness from course experiences and (b) efficacy beliefs in teaching ELLs.

Inferential statistics were used to analyze data involving statistical tests. The researcher converted all variables into nominal variables and ran Independent Samples T-Test to compare means between groups and to determine whether variables such as: ESL methods courses taken, place of certification, and/or the study of a foreign language in teaching certification were statistically significant to teacher's perceptions of their preparedness. Furthermore, these same variables along with age, gender, ESL/Bilingual Certification, the number of years for teaching ELLs, the number of ELL students at the campus, and the amount of professional development were used in determine whether any statistically significance existed among those variables to teacher's efficacy ratings.

### **Results of Descriptive Data**

At the close of the online survey, there were 144 teachers who participated from the two local school districts and responded to the survey questionnaire. Participant's demographics included: 84.6% female and 15.4% male; 7.7% were less than 25 years of age, 67.1% were between 25-34 years of age, 9.1% were between 35-44 years of age, and

1.4% were between 45-55 years of age; with ethnic backgrounds that were 79.4% Caucasian/White, 5.0% African-American, 12.8% Hispanic, 2.8% Asian or Pacific Islander, and 1.4% Other. The average years of teaching experience were: 8.3% with less than one year or new to the profession, 24.2% with one to two years, 43.9% with three to four years, and 23.5% with at least 5 years of experience. Teachers who indicated they hold bilingual certification included 9.0% of the sample versus 90.9% who indicated that they did not hold the certification. Teachers who held ESL certification ranged from 32.6% as having them whereas 67.3% indicated they did not have the certification.

Teachers' instructional levels included: 49.2% from an elementary campus (K-5), 30.3% from a middle school campus (6-8), and 20.5% from a high school campus (9-12). Additionally, 56.1% of teachers were identified as a content-area teacher versus 47.0% who were identified as a general-education teacher. Thus, teachers' class setting were organized as follows: 41.5% self-contained (teaching multiple subjects to the same class of students all or most of the day), 11.5% team-teaching in a regular classroom (collaborating with one or more teachers in teaching one subject to more than one class of students), 8.5% team-teaching in a cluster setting (collaborating with one or more teachers in teaching multiple subjects to more than one class of students), and 40.8% departmentalized instruction (teaching subject matter courses to several classes of different students all or most of the day). Furthermore, 55% of teachers indicated that ELLs were served through a pull-out setting (ELLs receive a portion of their language-arts instruction by an ESL certified teacher) whereas 55.7% of teachers indicated that

ELLs were served through a sheltered/content based setting (ELLs received all of their instruction and integrated into the classroom with mainstream students).

Teachers' responses for school locale included: 3.8% urban, 39.7% suburban (predominantly economically-disadvantaged and/or minority), 45.0% suburban (predominantly not economically-disadvantaged and/or predominantly White), 14.5% rural/small town, and 1.5% small suburban. School enrollment numbers ranged from: 0.8% less than 300, 17.6% were between 301-500, 33.6% were between 501-700, 27.5% were between 701-1,000 and 22.9% were 1,001 or greater. Teachers indicated that the percentage of students who were classified as ELLs at their school included: 20.6% with less than five percent, 27.5% between six to ten percent, 21.4% between 11 to 20 percent, 18.3% between 21 to 39 percent, 9.2% between 40 to 59 percent, and 6.9% with 60 or more percent. Additionally, teachers indicated the percentage of students who were identified as economically-disadvantaged (participating in free/reduced-priced lunch) from their schools: 6.9% less than five percent, 9.9% from six to ten percent, 21.4% from 11 to 20 percent, 19.8% from 21 to 39 percent, 10.7% from 40 to 59 percent, 14.5% from 60 to 79 percent, 11.5% from 80 to 90 percent, and 6.9% with more than 90%.

Teachers who had current ELL students in their classrooms made up 77.9% of the ones surveyed whereas 22.9% responded that they did not have current ELL students in their classrooms. Additionally, teachers included the number of years in which they taught ELL students. These percentages ranged from: 13.7% having never taught ELLs, 13.0% having taught for one year, 23.7% having taught for two years, 19.8% having



taught for three years, 21.4% having taught for four years, and 9.2% having taught for five years.

About 84.7% of the participants indicated that they did not study a foreign language in their certification program while 16.7% studied at least one semester or more of a foreign language in their teacher preparation program. Teachers who indicated that they were bilingual in another language included 23.6% of the sample while 77.1% indicated that they were not bilingual. About 53.1% of teachers indicated that they took classes related to ELL/ESL methods in their teaching preparation program while 47.6% indicated that they had not taken any classes related to ELL/ESL methods. The names of these ELL/ESL methods courses included: Multicultural Education, Second Language Acquisition, Bilingual Education, ESL Reading, Structured English Immersion, Contemporary Families, and general methods courses with embedded service-learning requirements for ELLs. Of all the teachers surveyed, 27.5% indicated that they held memberships in various professional organizations while 72.5% indicated that they were not affiliated with any of these organizations. The majority of these teachers held memberships with Texas Classroom Teachers Association (TCTA), Association of Texas Professional Educators (ATPE), and Texas State Teachers Association (ASTE) including memberships with National Science Teachers Association (NSTA), National Association of Bilingual Educators (NABE), and National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM).

There were 46.5% of teachers who attended a university-based traditional undergraduate program to receive their teaching certification. Of these teachers, 23.6% were from national Texas universities, 13.1% were from a regional Texas institution, 0.4% were from Texas liberal-arts colleges, 0.7% were from out-of-state institutions, and one teacher received her teaching degree from an accredited international institution. There were 15.9% of teachers who received their teaching certification from a post-baccalaureate and/or master's program ranging from 0.3% from national Texas universities, 0.9% from a regional Texas institution, and 0.2% from Texas liberal-arts colleges. Of the 37.5% of the teachers who received their certifications through an alternative program, 10.4% were from region service centers, and 0.2% attended a community college.

Teachers also indicated the amount of time spent in ELL/ESL training that they had received as professional development in addition to their teaching preparation and/or credential program. The responses ranged from 7.6% as none, 23.7% as less than eight clock hours, 21.4% as between eight to 16 clock hours, 23.7% as more than two days and up to five days, 16.0% as more than five days and up to ten days, and 11.5% as more than ten days. Teachers indicated their efficacy beliefs for providing instructional decisions based on student's proficiency levels and language domains. The table below shows these response averages for this section.

**Table 4.1 Percentages of Teachers' Ratings on Varied Proficiency Levels and Language Domains**

<b>Levels/Domains</b>	<b>Very ineffective</b>	<b>Ineffective</b>	<b>Somewhat ineffective</b>	<b>Somewhat effective</b>	<b>Effective</b>	<b>Very effective</b>
Beginning	6.90%	14%	15.00%	30.20%	28%	5.80%
Intermediate	1.10%	0.04%	12%	37%	36%	9%
Advanced	1.10%	3.40%	9%	24%	44%	17%
Advanced-High	1.10%	3.40%	8%	20.90%	41.80%	23.20%
Listening	1.10%	5.80%	9%	29%	46.50%	8%
Speaking	2.30%	4.60%	11.60%	27.90%	44.10%	9%
Reading	4.60%	2.30%	13.90%	32.50%	34.80%	11.60%
Writing	5.80%	4.60%	15.10%	31.30%	33.70%	9.00%

Results of all mean averages with respect to *likert* scale items are included in

Table A1 and Table A2 in Appendix A. Mean averages of teachers' perceptions of their preparedness according to the 30 scale items ranged from 3.30 as the lowest to 4.50 as the highest. The mean averages on teachers' efficacy ratings ranged from 3.88 as the lowest to 5.01 as the highest. Finally, the mean averages for teachers' beliefs in regards to instructional staff who provided assistance in working with ELLs were: 2.91 for principal, 2.78 for assistant principal, 2.81 for department chairperson, 3.12 for other teachers, 3.10 for instructional coaches and/or district staff, and 3.28 for other (i.e. ESL teachers).

Teachers also responded to four open-ended items on the survey. For question number one on the most valuable training that teachers received for ELLs, responses included: ESL certification; learning about cognates and sentence stems; SIOP trainings; collaboration with the campus ESL teacher, bilingual teacher, or others; college-related coursework; and structured English immersion classes. For the next follow-up question on what organization provided this training, teachers responses were university experiences; district-related professional development; and the regional service centers.

For ways that teacher preparation and staff development that could be improved, teachers responded that they needed: time; focus on specific strategies; more applicable professional development in real-life situations; cultural awareness and multicultural training; and collaboration with other ESL teachers. Finally, in response to question number four on who provides useful feedback to help improve instruction for ELLs, teachers indicated: the ESL teacher and other specialists such as: department head, master teachers; assistant principals; and district support professionals.

### **Results of Inferential Statistics**

**Route of Certification:** A variable was created to indicate the route of certification from teacher's responses regarding the place in where they received their teaching certification. Due to the small number in the post-baccalaureate group, the researcher combined the traditional undergraduate and post-baccalaureate into one group with the numerical value of 0 and those who received their certification through an alternative method with the numerical value of 1 and ran that variable into a compare means test with the 30 perception items. Results of the compare means in Table A3 between the two groups represented that there were mean differences ranging from 0.57 to 1.07 between the two groups in regards to how teachers perceived their preparation experiences.

**Bilingual Certification:** Due to the small size of respondents who held a bilingual certification, a statistical test could not be run.

**ESL Certification:** The researcher ran this variable to that of the 30 efficacy items. Results on the Independent Samples T Test on Table A4 indicated that there was a

statistically significance with this variable to many of the items on the scale with teacher's efficacy beliefs when the standard P-value is at the .05 level. The P-value with the strongest statistically significant difference (that being closest to .05) between the two groups included teacher's beliefs to: use a variety of vocabulary strategies in lessons (.011); adjust the speed of English speech delivery (.005); incorporate total physical response (TPR) methods into teaching; provide oral directions that are clear and appropriate; and create opportunities for students to practice their written English (.003).

Years of Teaching Experience: The means for the variable for years of teaching experience was also compared to identify whether a statistically significance existed. The researcher recoded the sample size by creating two groups: novice teachers (less than two years) and experienced teachers (more than three years but less than five years) and ran Independent Samples T Test with the efficacy ratings to determine whether a statistically significance existed. No statistically significance was found according to teachers' years of experience for teachers' efficacy ratings.

Gender: Due to the small percentage of teachers who were males in the study, a compare means test could not be run in this category.

Ethnicity: The researcher recoded the variable into two groups: Whites and Non-Whites and ran statistical tests. No statistically significance was found for both the perception and efficacy ratings.

Age: The researcher recoded the variable into a new variable to Age\_3Grps and ran statistical tests on this variable. No statistically significance was found for both the perception and efficacy ratings.

Professional Development: Due to the small number of responses for each group, the researcher recoded and renamed the new variable to PD\_2Grps, one group for less than two days of professional development and one group for more than two days of professional development. The Independent Samples T Test in Table A5 indicated that a statistical significance existed between the two groups in their ratings on efficacy items.

Bilingual in a Second Language: An Independent Samples T Test was performed on teachers who indicated that they were bilingual in another language to that of teachers who were not bilingual to ratings on their perceptions of preparedness and efficacy beliefs. Results in Table A6 and Table A7 indicated that some items revealed a statistically significance along the P-value. The strongest statistically significance for perception items between the two groups was to encourage students to use their native language (.000). For efficacy items, a statistically significance appeared in 21 items with four items having very strong statistically significance at the (.000) level. These four items included: develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge, incorporate cultural values into the curriculum, include student's home cultures into the curriculum, and encourage students to use their native language.

Study of Foreign Language: No statistically significance was found according to the compare means test for the two groups of teachers who indicated if they studied a foreign language or not during their teacher preparation program.

Membership to Professional Organization: No statistically significance was found according to the compare means test for the two groups of teachers who indicated if they held membership to any professional organization or not according to their efficacy ratings.

Proficiency Levels and Efficacy Beliefs: An Independent Samples T Test was run on teachers' ratings on instructional decisions made for students' varied proficiency levels and language domains to that of ELL certification (combined bilingual/ESL) with the researcher recognizing the difference between how teachers were prepared for each certification. Results of the Independent Samples T-test in Table A8 indicated that a statistically significance existed with the beginner, advanced, and advanced-high levels only.

### **Qualitative Data Analysis**

The researcher transcribed each qualitative interview recording using Microsoft Word. Using NVivo Software for Windows Vista, the researcher was also able to analyze the qualitative data more efficiently. The researcher placed the entire transcription from each interview into the NVivo program. From there, qualitative analysis was more manageable as the researcher was able to identify relevant information with NVivo's labeling and coding features. The researcher customized codes from the interviews based

on the existing literature regarding instructional practices for ELLs from Abedi, (2004); CREDE (2002); deJong and Haper (2004); (Echevarria, Vogt, &Short, 2004); and Menken and Antunez (2001) which developed into these variations: prior knowledge, vocabulary important to ELLs, slowed speech, hands-on activities, specific learning related to specific course, professional development, and cultural understanding, etc.

The researcher also transcribed field notes after each classroom observation and inputted them into NVivo. This allowed the researcher to code the field notes based on previous codes from the interview or generated new ones. After analyzing these codes, the researcher combined those codes according to six major themes that were developed. The SIOP observation tool was used as a supplement to the field notes to help the researcher identify individual teacher's pedagogical strengths according to the SIOP components. The themes that emerged through both quantitative and qualitative data were comprised of: (a) teaching strategies with 51 occurrences, (b) cultural understanding with 37 occurrences, (c) teaching practices with 36 occurrences, (d) professional development with 32 occurrences, (e) experience with 20 occurrences, and (f) collaboration with 14 occurrences. Next, the researcher refined and embedded the themes into two main themes of the case-study approach: 1) developing a classroom environment that centers ESL practice and 2) classroom practices that reveal teachers' understandings of ESL. The following section describes how the five participants represented the two main themes and an analysis on the individual case.



## **Antonia**

Antonia identified herself as a 30 year-old Hispanic female who was teaching in her fourth year at Edelman Elementary, a dual language bilingual Spanish campus. Edelman Elementary was one of the four campuses adopted the Gomez and Gomez one-way dual language Spanish model the previous year (2009-2010) and was focusing on year two of its implementation (Gomez, et.al. 2005). The main features of this model included (a) the division of languages by subject rather than time; (b) subject-area instruction taught in one respective language; (c) the role of bilingual pairs, bilingual learning centers, and bilingual resource centers to develop promote biliteracy (d) activities that support the second language learner, conceptual refinement, and vocabulary enrichment; and (e) the concept of the language of the day used for morning announcements, transition activities, computer lab, etc. (Gomez, et al., 2005).

Her classroom was composed of 22 kindergarten students who qualified and enrolled for the dual language bilingual Spanish program. Edelman Elementary was a PK-5 campus and was located in a suburban area in Northwest Austin. According to the 2009-2010 Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) from Texas Education Agency, results of all tests and grades tested (3-5) including TAKS, TAKS Modified, and TAKS Accommodated for Edelman Elementary indicated that the campus has an average reading score of 89%, a math score of 89%, a writing score of 94%, and a science score of 84%. The campus had an enrollment of 770 students and an ethnic distribution that included: 3% African-American, 41.3% Hispanic, 52.9% White, 2.6% Asian Pacific

Islander, and 0.3% Native American. Other demographics indicated a 42.3% economically-disadvantaged student population who qualified to receive free or reduced lunch and an overall ELL population of 19.1%. Teachers at Edelman Elementary had an average of nine years of experience and four of those years as employees in the district. Students who were identified as ELLs and not participating in the Spanish one-way dual language program received their ESL instruction in a pull-out setting that was provided by one full time ESL certified teacher. Students who participated in the school's Spanish one-way dual language program received their ESL instruction by the bilingual Spanish teacher who held both bilingual and ESL certifications.

Antonia received her undergraduate degree from a regional Texas university and her teaching certification through a community college. She studied four semesters of a foreign language in her certification program and rated herself as being highly proficient in Spanish, given that it was her native language. She did take one ESL methods course at the community college while completing her teaching certification and was an active member of National Association of Bilingual Educators (NABE). Antonia strongly felt that her experiences at the university and community college had influenced her self-efficacy greatly. Thus, she drew on her unique understanding of why strategies were critical for teaching another language for ELLs as she was one herself. She responded saying,

The only reason that I think that it helped was because I was an ESL student myself. And, I took about 20 ESL college credit courses as an ESL student. So, I have been an ESL student and now I am an ESL teacher. Those classes helped me a lot to understand how I am helping the children because myself, I was an ESL

student. And, I can relate to them when you're talking the language when they don't understand and there are kids that are you just looking at you. And, I feel them because I was an ESL student and in a setting where I was immersed... I think one of the main things is that you have to understand, you have to make the kids feel comfortable. I mean safe, accept any answers, welcoming answers, never feel that the kid can not because they can not talk or express. You know, just make the child express however they can. It can be either with movement, with drawings even in their own languages. But if they're mimicking you and they're doing it, that's just making you feel welcomed. You know, just that the child feels that he has the freedom to express. I guess that's the main thing because it's very hard for an ELL to speak. It's the hardest part (A. Perez, Personal communication, March 30, 2011).

Antonia credited her college coursework experiences as having an effect on her abilities to relate to ELLs. Thus, she attributed to the experiences of being immersed in the English language as the reasons why she can arrange the classroom environment to reduce the affective filter so that students feel more comfortable to learn.

For the scale item regarding preparedness, Antonia perceived the program to have fairly well prepared her on five items, well prepared in 24 items, and very well in the one item of encouraging students to use their native language. During her teaching experience in the last four years, Antonia had received about five to ten days of professional development in relation to working with ELLs and indicated that she felt effective in 29 out of the 30 scale items except where she felt only somewhat effective to develop an understanding and sensitivity that appreciates differences and similarities. Antonia indicated that various support professionals such as: the campus principal, assistant principal, instructional coach, and other district staff were effective in improving her abilities in working with ELLs. While Antonia felt effective in establishing instructional decisions for ELLs' varied proficiency levels and language domains, she specified that in-service experiences had been the most valuable training in honing her skills for ELLs

and emphasized the need for more dual-language training on ESL strategies for the continued support. She noted:

Definitely trainings. I mean it helps you when you have trainings especially with ESL. You know, DL trainings, helps you to understand the culture, helps you to understand where they are coming from. And also trainings with your colleagues....And, those kinds of trainings, ESL strategies. You know, even though we learn it through the college, once you get into the classroom, you need some trainings to refresh. You know the beginning, during, and at the end of how those strategies work. It's definitely essential that we have these kinds of trainings to help us with the population and that will explain where our grades are and how successful our kids will be (Antonia Perez, Interview, March 30, 2011).

Here, Antonia mentioned the importance of having opportunities to participate in professional development based on specific needs of teachers, and that, continual learning was an essential component in improving her skills for the varied needs of students.

Finally, Antonia expressed her frustrations regarding her experiences with the dual-language program. She said,

I think we were not prepared at all. I think it was done through a three day training. It was done, half of the training was done about the research number and research theory about how if you do this, then the kids will go from point A to point B in a certain number of time. But it was never specifically on how to start the program. And then, we were given just how to set up, guidelines of how the room is supposed to look like. So the first year it was all about how our room is supposed to look like, color coded...And that is when you consider your ESL strategies in all your learnings, you should be able to use them and apply them, But ESL on a DL is so different. You know, it is so different when you teach in a regular classroom than co-teaching but then learn co-teaching in a DL language classroom using the LOD (language of the day) in the content with no change in the language. It was very stressful. It was not easy or smooth. There's still a lot of

on's and off's from the way things were done. The district keeps changing the rules (Antonia Perez, Interview, March 30, 2011).

Antonia grew annoyed with the district's inconsistency with implementation of the dual language program. She wanted to make clear that she understood ESL methodologies in helping her students become academically successfully but did not feel comfortable putting the standards of dual language education in practice if she was unclear of its expectations to begin with. Therefore, she stressed the need to acquire more in-depth knowledge with the program's rules and expectations.

### **Developing a Classroom Environment that Centers on ESL Practice**

Antonia's classroom was composed of a print rich environment with various curriculum themes that were posted on the walls and included: "I can read high frequency words, I can write high frequency words, and I can write read compound words." These statements were written in Spanish but Antonia had translated them to me. On the same wall of the "I can" statements, appeared two word walls, one that that was teacher created and another, an interactive one. For the interactive word wall, students focused on the letter "X" for that week and had written words that start with that letter both in Spanish and English. On the opposite wall was the classroom calendar with sections for time of the day, day of the week, and number charts.

Student desks were arranged by groups of four, with five groups, and each group with a corresponding color (blue, yellow, green, orange, and red). Students' work were hung from the ceiling using fish wire and also stapled to one side of the walls. The social studies content wall had students' work samples from graphic organizer comparing and

contrasting the U.S. presidents of George Washington and Abraham Lincoln. Math content wall included calendar, time of the day, number charts, and base ten models. A kidney-shaped table was placed in one section of the room which was used for small-group instruction and guided-reading. There was also a dramatic play area that was situated in the furthest part of the room in a corner next to another small table that had art-related supplies.

Finally, Antonia emphasized the component of having the ability to relate well with her students given her similar Hispanic upbringing. Because of this, she understood how to utilize the classroom as a shared learning experience for her students and their families and said,

Culture and family. They are very important. Make the kids feel welcomed. I think it's huge. I mean especially because when we have kids going into an immersed classroom (English) and after half a year or three-fourths of year when the parents took the child and put back to a bilingual and the whole reason was because of the environment. The culture, the activities, some of the stuff when the kids feel welcomed, when the kid feels like when their language is spoken and in this case in a dual language Spanish classroom. The kids really feel like they belong because we emphasize their culture, we emphasize their family, we emphasize their heritage. I mean it is all connected (Antonia Perez, Interview, March 30, 2011).

These examples of cultural responsiveness were apparent as Antonia made learning a priority but also a place where her students' cultural customs were honored and respected.

### **Classroom Practices that Reveal Teachers' Understanding of ESL**

I observed Antonia's classroom on a Wednesday afternoon for a science lesson. When I entered her classroom, she had forgotten that I was coming, made some slight adjustments, and told me that she will instruct in English so that I can understand her. Originally, Antonia had planned on me observing a math lesson, but due to the nature of the classroom and them receiving live fish that day, she made the decision to teach science content rather than math. In the Gomez dual language model, science is taught in Spanish while math is instructed in English. Her students were introduced to a new unit earlier in the week on Monday about animals and their environments. Furthermore, Antonia mentioned that she had shared with them their learning targets for the unit and reminded me of what the class had already accomplished prior to my arrival.

On Tuesday, students had the opportunity to dialogue about the types of fish that live in the ocean. Antonia also read the book, *Rainbow Fish* and students discussed different fish parts and their functions. Their independent task that day was to color, label, and complete all fish parts (i.e. eyes, eggs, tail, scales) in a storybook. Students also had the opportunity to visualize what fish scales looked like in real-life because Antonia used a piece of foil to represent the shininess of fish scales while allowing students to touch and feel the foil. The live fish arrived in the classroom the day of the observation and Antonia had set up the inquiry environment prior to my arrival. I made space in the corner of the room to set down my belongings and to prepare for my non-participant observation. Students had just returned from attending specials (P.E., music, theatre arts, art) and were surprised to learn that fish had been placed in an aquarium on

their tables. As they entered the room, one by one, each student went directly to their seats, eyes filled with excitement and enthusiasm.

Antonia quickly called their attention with a classroom management strategy of “If you can hear me, touch your nose. If you can hear me, touch your head. If you hear me, touch your shoulders.” Afterwards, she instructed students about their five- minute observation cycle with the fish on their tables. Next, Antonia circulated the room, often getting down at the students’ levels, posing questions such as: “How many fish are there? What color are they? Are they the same size?” while reminding students that they should only be observing the fish with their eyes. Once Antonia had the opportunity to facilitate some discussion with each table group, she used the same classroom management strategy mentioned earlier to call students’ attention to the rug on the floor. There was a white flipchart next to the rug that Antonia used for the next activity. Antonia mentioned that she had a university intern who working with her that semester. The student teacher took out a non-fiction book about fish and read it for the students in Spanish. As the student teacher was reading the book, one student shouted “Goldfish.” Antonia asked the students to repeat the word “Goldfish” with her two times and proceeded to draw a picture of a fish on the flipchart. Next, she pointed to each part of the fish and asked students if they remembered the names of the parts.

As students responded, Antonia wrote the Spanish labels all in red next the indicated part of the drawing. She probed students to see if they knew the English words of those parts. As students responded, she required them to repeat the word English and



proceeded to write them on the board. This time, Antonia switched to a blue marker because English words in a dual language classroom are typically written in that color. One student questioned whether fish have tongues, so instead of answering his question directly, Antonia responded that students would have the opportunity to make those observations and pose other inquiries. Students returned to their seats and discussed the variations of fish, their movement, and their surroundings as Antonia walked around to feed the fish. Students had the next 10 minutes to make and record their own observations of the fish.

As students were observing thief fish intently, Antonia circulated from table to table and probed various questions such as: Do they have teeth?; How much are they eating?; and Are the fish all the same?. Once she had the opportunity to facilitate discussion with each table group, Antonia moved on to the next set of instructions for the students. Students were expected to take out their science journals, find the next page, draw a fish, label its parts in their language of choice (English or Spanish), and finally, to color the fish. Native language support (adult to student and/or peer to peer) was used to scaffold student's proficiency levels. Students completed their own journal but depended on the competency of her/his peer for the correct Spanish and/or vocabulary word for each fish part. Moreover, Antonia translated from Spanish to English building students' academic vocabulary while making sure that I understood her lesson.

### **Analysis**

After analyzing the interview transcript, observation field notes, and survey responses, I assert that Antonia's teaching abilities reflected her high efficacy beliefs in

teaching ELLs. Given her background experiences as an ESL student and similar upbringing with the Spanish culture, Antonia related very well to her students. However, Antonia expressed her sentiment in not fully understanding the components of the dual-language model. She had not received any training, coursework, or established understandings of the varied bilingual program models in her preparation experiences as a teacher candidate. Rather, what she learned and knew were from her experiences in professional development activities sponsored by the district. Because of this and the inconsistency of the district's rules, providing in-service teachers with applicable professional development targeted to the needs of dual-language learners may alleviate potential problems while ensuring a well-implemented model with a clear focus on the program's goals. In this way, teachers are supported to carry out the fidelity of the dual-language model and to ensure meeting those high expectations (Lindholm-Leary, 2001).

Thus, the SIOP component that she exemplified the best was *comprehensible input*. Her emphasis on vocabulary, the use of visuals, repetition, appropriate speech, and native language support were evident both in the observation and interview when she noted that particular skills are necessary when teaching ELLs:

We use a lot of visuals. We try to use visuals for them to visualize. We use speaking, we try to help the use their sounds, pronounce, and teach them how to linguistically say the words if its not their first language. They need to learn how to pronounce some of the words. And then, we also do it with, um, a lot of visuals and a lot prompting, and repetition. You know, we have to go slow, you can not go too fast with the children. You have them all different ways: to look at it to, to taste it, to feel it, to touch it especially since we don't want to speak Spanish so we have to really emphasize vocabulary which it the main goal (Antonia Perez, Interview, March 30,2011).

Here, Antonia recalled the use of explicit language structures, visual aids, and extensive modeling as helpful exercises in helping her students learn, build, and develop academic English.

Additionally, Antonia's passion for ELLs and their success transpired into a classroom that utilized peer interaction as a scaffold to build student's academic language, competency, and success as evident in the use of bilingual pairs. When she guided student's thinking during the fish observation, students were required to partner up with her/his pair as they observed the fish, negotiated meaning amongst themselves, and finally, assisted each other in the completing the journal activity. Antonia consciously crafted instructional decisions derived from her own experiences and from specific strategies found in immersion programs to support language and content to promote a rich classroom environment where cultural and linguistic factors are valued, respected, and enriched for student's understanding of the lesson objectives (Howard & Sugarman, 2007).

Most interesting though was her quick decision to teach the science lesson in English to accommodate my understanding. Not only did Antonia translated parts of the lesson for me while switching from one language to the next but also her decision to surpass the notion of the strict insistence in the separation of the two languages pleasantly surprised me. While translating between the two languages can occur as a natural phenomenon of being a bilingual teacher, it became more apparent that her decision was based on affinity and a symbolic representation in the context of class, language, and

power (Palmer, 2009). While I did not view myself as any member of authority in that given time and space, Antonia had respected my time and wanted me to benefit from the observation. Antonia had attended several of the professional development activities developed and facilitated by me as a district-level instructional coach. In one session, I recalled the positive feedback she offered with regards to the level of energy and interaction that had occurred with the activities and participants. My own lack of understanding of the Spanish language could have easily excluded me and Antonia could have easily carried on her lesson in Spanish asserting her linguistic capital. However, her instructional decision from Spanish to English clearly indicated the emergence and symbolic dominance of the language and its position in society (Bourdieu, 1991). Thus, her use of English was a demonstration of how the language dominated regardless of the program model and especially if I was a Spanish speaker in an English speaking class, Antonia would probably not have extended that courtesy to me.

### **Matthew**

Matthew identified himself as a 24 year-old Caucasian male who was teaching high school science at Cordova High School. Matthew was departmentalized; therefore, he had several sections of content-area instruction throughout the day. As a new high school, Cordova High, located in a suburban area of town, enrolled students in grades 9-11 and was expected to graduate its first senior class in spring of 2012. According to the 2009-2010 Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) from Texas Education Agency, results of all tests and grades tested (9-10) including TAKS, TAKS Modified,

and TAKS Accommodated for Cordova High indicated that the campus had an average reading/English-language arts score of 95%, a math score of 79%, a science score of 79%, and a social studies score of 93%. The campus had an enrollment of 832 students and an ethnic distribution that included: 7.0% African-American, 24.5% Hispanic, 65.6% White, 2.2% Asian Pacific Islander, and 0.7% Native American. Other demographics indicated a 26.4% economically-disadvantaged student population who qualified to receive free or reduced lunch and an overall ELL population of 22 students or 2.6%. Teachers at Cordova High had an average of 8 years of experience and four of those years as employees in the district. Students who were identified as ELLs received their ELA content instruction in a pull-out setting provided by one full time teacher who was certified and qualified to teach ELA and ESL.

Matthew received his teaching certification from a traditional undergraduate degree program from a major research institution in Texas. During his pre-service course experiences, he participated in the university's Science Teachers Program designed for teacher candidates to pursue a degree in teaching at the secondary level with a focus on math, science, or computer science. Matthew studied one semester of a foreign language in this certification program, did not rate himself as being proficient in Spanish, but indicated that he has developed a level of intermediate-advanced speaking fluency. Additionally, he enrolled in one class during his certification program titled "Classroom Interactions" that he felt was applicable in training him with ESL strategies. He described his learning in this course as,

We went over strategies to help our ESL students and things like giving them previews, translated documents so that they get to see the material in both languages so that they don't have to miss out in any of the content just because they don't speak English as well as their classmates (Matthew Thompson, Interview, March 30, 2011).

Matthew documented from above that he learned specific ESL strategies including ensuring that students gain equal access to the curriculum and content. However, he explained that he had not had the opportunity to implement those strategies given that this was his first semester as a new teacher and that certain survival skills were more necessary for him. He said,

I know what I'm not doing. I guess what the best way to describe it is I guess I have the training to help them the way that I need to, but I just don't have the time to actually take care of business. I just don't. As a new teacher, it takes up all my time just to get it right for the kids without any specific special needs (Matthew Thompson, Interview, March 30, 2011).

In addressing his preparedness, Matthew rated himself as not at all prepared in one item, somewhat prepared in six items, prepared in two items, fairly well prepared in four items, well prepared in another four items, and very well prepared in 13 items. The 13 items which he indicated as very well prepared were to: develop relationships with families, engage family in educational experiences; tap into students prior knowledge, help students connect new knowledge to prior experiences, adjust the speed of speech delivery, model appropriate English use, create opportunities for students to practice their oral English, create opportunities for students to practice their written English, encourage all students to elaborate on their responses, scaffold instruction to help students understand concepts, use a variety of hands-on activities, incorporate student's responses

in lessons, provide appropriate wait time for students to respond, and encourage higher order questioning.

Concerning professional development, Matthew had received about two days of training related to the use of ESL strategies. His ratings on efficacy beliefs included: very ineffective in one item, ineffective in six items, somewhat ineffective in seven items, somewhat effective in eight items, effective in three items, and very effective in five items. The highest rated items included his ability to: develop an understanding and sensitivity that appreciates differences and similarities; model appropriate English use; encourage all students to elaborate on their responses; incorporate students' responses into lessons, and encourage students to respond using higher order questioning. For ratings that pertain to students' proficiency levels and language domains, Matthew felt ineffective for the beginning level and the listening and speaking domain; somewhat ineffective for the intermediate level; and effective for the advanced and advanced-high levels and reading and writing domain. When I asked him about the most significant skills that a teacher needs in working with ELLs, he responded,

Directness and improved clarity. I have a tendency of to ask circular logic per say but indirect questions. Uh, and also teaching, but which may be helpful for more advanced students to broaden their knowledge and make them think deeper about the material. For the students that I teach and for ESL kids in particular, direct questions are going to help me get more out of what we're learning. So I have to watch myself on that and change what I do...Knowing and Learning affected the way I think about all students learning. So just understanding that increasing wait time when you ask a question-that's to any kid. Most of your population is going to need 10-30 seconds to think about any advance question that you're going to ask them rather than just a yes/no question. And understanding that for and ESL kid, its going to take maybe an extra 10 seconds to process the language component added on to that wait time to think about the content of it before they

respond. You know that kind of thing, I think Knowing and Learning affected me for the ESL kids (Matthew Thompson, Interview, March 30, 2011).

Matthew commented on the crucial ways that improved his teaching for ELLs and made it apparent that his use of wait time and higher-order questioning allowed his students to access the content at a deeper level of understanding.

Finally, Matthew felt that his interactions with ELL students have been positive and rewarding and wants to work harder to put systems in place for them if that means “finding a set of procedures, routines, planning word lists, translated documents, and preview materials” (M. Thompson, Personal Communication, March 30, 2011). Matthew reflected on his field experiences which did not provide him with the practical tools necessary in working with ELLs. He said,

I think that the personal experience may affect how I interact with the students more than the formal training that I had in my coursework at UT. So, if you could somehow bring that informal communication training into the classroom setting, I think it would be beneficial. So, instead of a professor writing on a blackboard, you need to increase wait time, you need to make diagrams, you need to translate your materials. Actually, going into an ESL classroom with multiple ESL students. I had one ESL student, 2 ESL students maybe in the class in the actual high school class that I taught about a lesson including strategies for ESL students. So, even though I had practice, making those accommodations. When I put them into practice there were only a couple of kids who would even benefit from that so it was kind of a useless academic exercise. So, if you could actually go into a real ESL classroom--that would be helpful and try out some strategies to gain some experience. But I never had that (Matthew Thompson, Interview, March 30, 2011).

Matthew explained that although his field experience required teachers to implement learned knowledge for ELL students, it was not meaningful since that experience did not reflect the reality of a natural ESL classroom setting. Thus, he emphasized the essentials of applicable practice of allowing pre-service teachers more beneficial field work where



they can actually transform classroom “blackboard” knowledge into authentic exercises for their students.

### **Developing a Classroom that Centers on ESL Practice**

Science Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) were posted on the white board along with the day’s agenda. Student’s desks were arranged in rows of three to four and angled towards the middle of the room. White boards included sections with highlighted vocabulary words and definitions that were written for the week’s topics, class reminders, and daily homework tasks. At one corner of the room housed a section of files for student’s portfolios, completed assignments, homework, etc. Various groupings were used so that ELLs could access native English peers for assistance and for Matthew to easily get to them to clarify directions or facilitate discussion. Thus, Matthew noted the experience of having the difficulty in not understanding another’s language when he said,

It does help to know somebody that is struggling with that every day. I am pretty decent friends with a guy from Guatemala. I used to live a few doors down from the apartment complex that I lived a couple of years ago. We always used to sit out and drink and communicate the best we could. And, it wasn’t just him. It was a whole group of people. I’d get my friends together and he’d get his friends together and we make a genuine effort to try and communicate even though only one of us was fluent. You know that was just a little world that I dove into whenever I would hang out with his friends. I would step back and speak English and everyone else around me speaks English, I don’t have to deal with that every day. But, I did get to know somebody very well who struggles with that and who really hasn’t had any formal training in English...I don’t pretend that I understand all the culture. I think I got a better taste than some people. It’s Texas, if you don’t understand a little about Latino culture, you’re living under a rock (Matthew Thompson, Interview, March 30, 2011).

Matthew revealed his competence in understanding the varied cultural backgrounds within his experiences living and interacting with people who did not speak English. Furthermore, he articulated that it was necessary as a Texas resident to be able to appreciate and respect the Spanish culture with its prevalence across the state.

### **Classroom Practices that Reveal Teachers' Understanding of ESL**

I observed Matthew's classroom during a science double block period on a Thursday afternoon. There were two ELL students that were present at the time. When I entered the room, I set my belongings in the middle of the two rooms between the student desks and the laboratory. The majority of the class was already seated at their desks with the exception of two students who entered after the tardy bell rang—one of which handed Matthew a pink slip of paper. Matthew folded that pink slip, placed it into his pocket, and immediately welcomed the class and shared the lesson's objectives with his student, "Today, we are going to take out the voltage lab that we touched on and work on that in groups." It appeared that students understood exactly what Matthew had eluded to as they scrimmaged through their folders and notebooks to find the packet.

Students then transitioned to the lab on the opposite side of the room and positioned themselves in groups of two, three, or four according to tables with marked numbered stations. The two ELL students (Yasmin and Carla, pseudonyms) that were enrolled on Matthew's roster were grouped in Station One along with two native English-speaking students. After finalizing his directions for the assignment, he moved to Station One and positioned himself directly between the two ELLs. Matthew repeated the

instructions, clarified questions for his ELLs, and pointed to specific items on the lab packet where the students should direct their attention. I noted that this interaction lasted about three minutes.

Immediately afterwards, Matthew rotated among the remaining six stations to support mainstream students. When Matthew returned to Station One, one of the ELL students requested that he check her (Carla) work. Matthew glanced over her lab experiment and the drawing that was required of the experiment. He then showed the student a pink slip of paper and said, “Why don’t you draw what I have here?” I noted that Matthew had used this pink slip to demonstrate the correct schematic diagram for each voltage experiment included in the packet. I asked him later about the pink slip and he mentioned that it was the back of the tardy slip submitted from one of the students. He had sketched the diagram for other students and he thought it would be helpful as a visual. Additionally, Matthew reminded the ELLs to label the diagram using these vocabulary words: alkaline battery, rechargeable battery, and inducted chargers. One student from the group posed a question regarding the kind of battery of a phone charger and Matthew responded by questioning the student’s inquiry rather than a direct response of the question.

Next, Matthew spent some time clarifying instructions for two students in Station Two. Matthew clarified to me later that one of the students (Jorge, pseudonym) had been a former ELL student but was currently classified as a non-ELL due to his academic success and meeting exit requirements of the ESL program. Jorge experienced some

trouble with the getting the battery started so Matthew provided assistance to him. As I watched Matthew use the pliers and screwdriver to fix the conductor, I noted the side-bar conversations that occurred between him and Jorge. Afterwards, Matthew instructed Jorge to return to his assignment and posed several inquiry questions for the whole class to consider as they were finishing the exercise. These questions included: (a) How does voltage relate to something in your life and the real world? and (b) Why is voltage important?. Matthew continued monitoring the room to support and answer questions related to the assignment. Within a few minutes of him doing this, Carla called for Matthew's attention seeking clarity on a question.

When he finally returned, Carla became slightly frustrated because she had been calling his name, but he had not responded. Matthew asked if Yasmin (another ELL), who was working diligently to complete her diagram, if she had any questions for him. Yasmin responded no and continued her work while Carla struggled to connect the conductor wires with the battery. Matthew directed the two girls to support each other with the final task of recording the voltage meter in their packets. After all students had the opportunity to record their voltage meters in their packets, they were given directions to assist each other in putting the lab materials away, tidying up their area, and preparing for TAKS review stations. I observed that Yasmin, Carla, and Jorge followed the instructions without any difficulty understanding what had been expected of them.

## **Analysis**

Evident in Matthew's observation, interview, and survey responses was the use of the SIOP component of *strategies*. He consistently assisted ELL's student understanding of the lesson objective through think a-louds and encouraged higher-order thinking consistently. A variety of other techniques were also used according to the varied proficiency levels of his ELLs as well as providing them with a platform to inquire, challenge, and make connections to cultural experiences and real-life applications.

However, I believe that Matthew could have advanced ELL's progress further if he was provided a foundation in the aligning students' objectives to the English Language Proficiency Standards (ELPS). Given that it was his first semester in teaching, he did not have an opportunity to attend the required training facilitated by the district for embedding targeted language tasks for ELLs. Thus, he did he have any prior background in ESL methodologies from his pre-service coursework even though his lesson included various scaffolding strategies which was acquired from other course-related experiences including: increased wait time, frequent comprehension checks, graphic organizers, and *realia*.

While Matthew demonstrated a variety of skills learned, in order for him to scaffold the learning effectively, his pedagogical expertise might have included familiarity of student's linguistic backgrounds and an understanding of the language demands that were necessary for the required tasks (see Lucas, et al., 2008). Additionally, Matthew had referred to his field experience as not being useful even

though he was required to apply learned strategies in the classroom. And while Matthew's grouping strategy allowed students to interact socially, it did not provide for deliberate student's academic language development (e.g. a think, pair, share strategy to facilitate dialogue specific to the lesson content). Research had indicated that this is crucial for older students because they need opportunities to negotiate the abstract concepts for deeper understanding (Swain, 1995).

### **Timothy**

Timothy was identified as a 25 year-old Caucasian male who taught fourth grade at Rosa Parks Elementary, a PK-5 campus located in a small suburban school district east of Austin, Texas. According to the 2009-2010 Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) from Texas Education Agency, results of all tests and grades tested (3-5) including TAKS, TAKS Modified, and TAKS Accommodated indicated that the campus had an average reading/English-language arts score of 91%, a math score of 82%, a writing score of 84%, and a science score of 94%. The campus had an enrollment of 613 students and an ethnic distribution that included: 29.0% African-American, 57.6% Hispanic, 11.7% White, 1.3% Asian Pacific Islander, and 0.3% Native American. Other demographics indicated a 78% economically-disadvantaged student population who qualified to receive free or reduced lunch and an overall ELL population of 34.3%. Teachers at Rosa Parks Elementary had an average of six years of experience with four of those years as employees in the district. Students who were identified as ELLs were

supported through a content-based instruction provided by mainstream teachers who were certified in ESL.

Timothy received his teaching certification through a local alternative certification program (ACP) in Austin, Texas. Timothy received a Bachelor's degree from an out-of-state institution but participated in an ACP due to its flexibility option of a blended format (face-to-face instruction and online) or a self-paced method offered exclusively online. Timothy took one course that he felt was related to ESL methodology at the ACP and held a bilingual certification but not an ESL endorsement. He rated himself as having advance proficiency in Spanish and is a current member of Association of Texas Professional Educators (ATPE). As a new-to-profession teacher, he provided departmentalized content-area instruction in science and social studies but taught math to a group of 22 students who were part of his homeroom roster. Of these 22 students, 18 were coded as ELLs with native Spanish proficiency and English proficiency levels ranging from beginner to advanced-high.

According to the scale items on preparedness, Timothy rated himself as not at all prepared in one item, somewhat prepared in 11 items, prepared in 12 items, and fairly prepared in six items. Timothy felt that the alternative program has prepared him to: engage families in educational experiences of their students; establish opportunities for students to speak to reinforce English; create opportunities for students to practice their oral English; create opportunities for students to practice their written English; encourage

students to elaborate on their responses; and provide various formats of assessment according to student's intelligence or learning style.

Timothy added that besides learning the elements of teaching from the ACP program, he did not recall any specific strategies that were specific to ELLs. He said,

I learned the concept of scaffolding from them. And, I learned a lot about teaching in general from them. But there wasn't classes on multiculturalism that helped me to teach. And, let's see, besides really the general instruction education that I got, there wasn't anything that I can recall that I really implemented specific for ELLs (Timothy Jones, Interview, March 24, 2011).

Noting a lack of any specialized training for teaching ELLs, Timothy emphasized the use of scaffolding as one main teaching strategy learned from the alternative program.

And according to his efficacy beliefs, Timothy felt that he was: ineffective in one item; somewhat ineffective in six items; effective in six items; effective in 16 items, and very effective in one item (helping students connect new knowledge to prior experiences). Timothy believed that he can effectively: develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge; develop an understanding and sensitivity that appreciates differences as well as similarities; incorporate cultural values into the classroom; develop relationships with families; tap into student's prior knowledge, establish opportunities for students to interact; establish opportunities for students to speak to reinforce learning; adjust the speed of English speech delivery; model appropriate English use; provide oral directions that are clear and appropriate; create opportunities for students to practice their oral English; create opportunities for students to practice their written English; encourage all students to elaborate on their responses; provide appropriate accommodations based on



student's language proficiency; and provide various formats of assessment according to student's intelligence and/or learning style. Additionally, Timothy indicated that the department chairperson, other teachers, and instructional coaches at the district had been very effective in improving his abilities to work with ELLs. Finally, Timothy believed that when planning instruction according to student's varied proficiency levels and language domains, he was: somewhat ineffective in the listening domain; somewhat effective for beginner and intermediate level and the speaking and reading domain; effective for the advanced level and the writing domain; and very effective for the advanced-high level.

When I asked Timothy about the knowledge and skills that are most important for teachers of ELLs, he said,

Well, I think that how to effectively instruct students who can not speak English well to speak it well. And, the optimal progression of that teaching to be sufficiently aware and to be educated. To sense where their level of comprehension is, where their level of speaking, reading, writing, listening is, and to have the skills to implement an effective curriculum in a way that they will be into. You know, in a way that connects with them as people (Timothy Jones, Interview, March 24, 2011).

Timothy reflected on the importance of teaching the correct usage of English and emphasized ELLs' academic development within the varied language domains in order for them to be successful as productive members of society.

Timothy also shared the frustrations he had experienced as a new teacher and was struggling to find professional development activities that were applicable to helping him become a better teacher. Remarking on this challenge, Timothy noted,

PD (professional development) that I think are the greatest are the ones where they are showing you actual things that you will use actually in class. There's no explanations, there's no abstractions, they are showing you what to use, this is what you do with this, this is what you say to the student, this is how you alter it via this situation or that situation. Real, applicable stuff!...For me, I think just sitting down with whichever teacher is going to be responsible for increasing that (English Language Proficiency) level at the end of year, showing them the ESL adoption materials that are options for them (Timothy Jones, Interview, March 24, 2011).

It was evident that Timothy had not had the opportunity to participate in meaningful professional development or received any mentorship that would have helped him transition as a new teacher. Furthermore, he expressed this concern in the open-ended item on the survey specifying the need that new teachers need to be informed of the existence of a literacy lab, access to user-friendly resources, and orientations of the curriculum process so that they can navigate the process and systematically implement progressive teaching skills into content-area instruction.

### **Developing a Classroom Environment that Centers on ESL Practice**

Student's desks were arranged in groups of four to five students with bulletin boards that were sectioned off by teacher-created borders. On one corner farthest to the left-side facing the front of the room, Timothy posted the English Language Proficiency Standards for the day. Science and social studies content wall included graphics and student work samples. Homework, test, and calendar activities were posted under a reminder wall. And finally, a wall on "All about Me" included interest forms, surveys, and photographs of Timothy and his students. Thus, Timothy noted that his ability to speak Spanish was important instructionally as it provided communication assistance and a stronger teacher-student or teacher-parent relationship in the classroom. He said,

Yeah, the ability to connect with the kids. I think the fact that I can speak Spanish with them and the fact that I can make the parents feel at ease because I can speak Spanish with their parents. I think that is BIG and also being able to sufficiently communicate to parents, such that, the parents know what the deal is, and that, we are exactly on the same page (Timothy Jones, Interview, March 24, 2011).

Timothy's ability to make connections with his students and their parents through the commonality of Spanish definitely created a leveled playing field. This allowed him to utilize certain strengths exhibited by students and their families as cultural bridges to learning and as an advantage to his teaching given that it was his first year.

### **Classroom Practices that Reveal Teachers' Understanding of ESL**

Timothy's classroom observation took place on a Friday morning during a math lesson. Students were already at their seats eager to learn about the lesson's objectives. Timothy introduced the lesson asking students to refer to the board. The names Stevie, Joey, and Robbie were placed on top of three stick-figure drawings. Timothy asked students to refer to the drawings as he asked questions regarding the height of each of the name which included: (a) Who is Joey shorter than? (b) Who is Stevie taller than? and (c) Who is Robbie taller than?. As students raised their hands to respond to Timothy's questions, Timothy reminded his students to: "Use a complete sentence." Additionally, as students responded, he praised them for their correct answers using positive words such as: *good*, *great*, and *that's correct*.

After about two minutes of this activity, Timothy wrote the word *height* on the board and elicited student's answers for its definition. Before students responded, he

asked students to say and repeat the word again. Three students answered: (a) It means tall, (b) How high you are, (c) A person's height is how high they are. Next, Timothy praised students for their responses, wrote the sentence stem, "A person's height is \_\_\_\_" and elicited different responses from students who had not previously shared. After several more responses, Timothy reminded students about using complete sentences, utilizing the sentence stem, and modeling vocabulary words such as: precise, accurate, clarity, and creative in his words of encouragement. Finally, the class agreed on a working definition of the word height and Timothy asked the entire class to recite the definition after writing it on board.

Next, Timothy gave students instructions for the group activity. Students were instructed to use their rulers to measure four other students' height and record them into their math journals. I noted that Timothy had not modeled the exact expectation, but his step-by-step instructions were clear and appropriate. Thus, it became apparent that students understood the objective as I noted that there was 95% participation in the activity. Timothy circulated the room to observe various groups measuring each other and to offer assistance where needed. About 10 minutes into the group activity, Timothy set up an overhead projector in the center of the room and gathered students' attention to the center of the room using a classroom management strategy of a hand-clap. After he received students' undivided attention, he drew a table projected from the overhead and composed of two categories with student's name and height. Student's spent the next 12 minutes interacting with each other to complete the exercise while Timothy facilitated discussions with students about their recorded measurements.

Next, Timothy called attention of his students using the same classroom management strategy from earlier. Students were instructed to make way back to their seats as two student helpers were selected to collect the rulers to be placed back into the classroom supply bin. Once students were seated back at their desks, Timothy debriefed the activity with the students by calling on students to fill in the table accordingly to each student's height in feet and inches. While students were filling out the table, Timothy questioned the recorded heights of several students who appeared taller, but were recorded as shorter than their peers on the table. Timothy reversed the measurements of these students and mentioned that we need to be accurate in our measurements but since some of these were not accurate, then an educated estimation would be appropriate for the purpose for the activity. Students were then instructed to copy down all the measurements on the table. Next, Timothy scribed two real-life word problems on the transparency and students were expected to use the recorded heights to solve the scenarios independently. He also gave students a sentence stem requiring them to fill in the blank spaces in the word problems.

As students were given time to problem-solve, Timothy reminded them about metric conversions of feet to inches. After about five minutes of independent work, Timothy reviewed the problems and guided the students through the first scenario to assure that all students had completed the problem accurately. Next, students were instructed to finish the second problem; however, I noted that about half of the students encountered difficulty completing it. While Timothy circulated the room to provide individual assistance for students during problem two, students were leaving their seats

and approaching Timothy to check whether they had solved the problem accurately. I also noted one student who had been working on the computer interacting with the software program on the far right side of the room. As Timothy monitored this student's progress, individual students had approached him so that he could check over their work. After checking three student's notebooks, Timothy with a frustrated sigh, asked students, "How many inches are in one foot?" Timothy called on one student to respond and requested him to provide his reasoning with the rest of the class. Students returned to the problem while Timothy continued to check on individual student's work. Finally, after about seven minutes, Timothy reviewed the story problem by calling on several different students to share how they solved the problem. As they were sharing, Timothy reminded them about using the sentence stem and praised them for their correct answers.

Finally, Timothy followed up with the last activity by drawing three gorillas on the board. He asked students to scribe in their notebooks these two cloze passages: (a) \_\_\_\_\_ is taller than \_\_\_\_\_. and (b) \_\_\_\_\_ is the tallest gorilla. Next, he instructed students to represent the same figures with stick figures or a similar drawing. Students were also required to name their gorillas while Timothy called on students to share the responses on their cloze passages using their gorilla names. Timothy required students to repeat the sentence orally each time as student shared her/his passage. Timothy apologized for those students who had not had an opportunity to share since he had students put away their belongings in preparation for lunch.

## Analysis

The classroom observation data would indicate that Timothy showed remarkable instructional strengths in carrying out the SIOP component of *interaction*. Frequent opportunities for students to interact with others to use new knowledge were provided as evident in the allotted times to carry out the measurement activity. Timothy also provided students with opportunities to seek clarification on key concepts as well as the use of hand-on materials and practical math story problems that integrated all language domains. Furthermore, Timothy's emphasis on the need for clear articulation of the English language with correct grammatical structures is supported by the literature on direct instruction to linguistic form and function (Gass, 1997; Shlepppegrell, 2004). This notion was particular evident in his interview when he referred to previous tutoring experiences when he helped Spanish-speaking adults use the English language to navigate through everyday processes (i.e. grocery store, banking, etc.). In reference to this aspect, Timothy explained,

Well, I think that how to effectively instruct students who can not speak English well to speak it well...I've done some tutoring of adults, ELLs, Mexican immigrants in Phoenix. It was only a few times and it was just helping them with grammar, contractions, day-to-day language. I also tutored a family while I was in college, a family of Hispanic immigrants, I'm pretty sure they were Mexican immigrants. It was a wife, husband, and one of their daughters sat in one time for a little bit. But, it was mostly the wife. We were talking about day-to-day things, communication in public places, getting her more comfortable with the day-to-day back and forth of being at the supermarket, how to interact cordially with folks, and how to ask with basic functional English (Timothy Jones, Interview, March 24, 2011).

Timothy commented on how crucial it was instructionally to him to model the correct form of the English language given his past experiences tutoring young Mexican

immigrants. For these reasons and throughout the classroom observation, Timothy focused significantly on praising students for using correct speech and reinforced other student's behavior when they did not respond in complete sentences. Additionally, he provided extensive modeling and sentence stems as a framework for students' writing and as response frames during the lesson delivery.

Finally, various factors may have affected Timothy's overall preparedness and efficacy beliefs. One major reason is attributed to the low ratings on the scale items with the perception of his preparedness due to the caliber of the credential program he attended. During the interview, when I probed him about what coursework was most beneficial in preparing him instructionally for ELLs, he hesitated about his experiences from the alternative credential program and eluded to the general knowledge that he gained from the program. Timothy replied,

I went through Become a Teacher Program (pseudonym) you're not going to use their name. And, I learned the concept of scaffolding from them. And, I learned a lot about teaching in general from them. But there wasn't classes on multiculturalism that helped me to teach. And, let's see, yeah, besides really the general instruction education that I got, there wasn't anything that I can recalled that implemented specific for ELLs (Timothy Jones, Interview, March 24, 2011).

These comments indicated that Timothy did not feel confident with the way his teacher training program carried out their expectations for ELLs. What teachers needed was more of a critical understanding across the different disciplines to learn about diverse students, their needs, and the cultural competence necessary to carry out their work (Villegas & Lucas, 2002a).



Another reason that may have influenced his efficacy ratings was his teaching experience. Timothy expressed that his experience as a first year teacher presented challenges with the lack of guidance on curricular materials in addition to the limited opportunities to participate in relevant professional development activities—all of which contributed to the challenges that new teachers face during their first year. This would indicate the need for professional growth as documented in the literature regarding the conceptual and practical tools that novice teachers need to develop as they learn how to integrate a set of practices to become successful in their roles (Grossman, et al., 1999).

### **Lulu**

Lulu identified herself as a 25 year-old Hispanic female who was teaching first year kindergarten teacher at Cisneros Elementary School, a PK-5 campus. Lulu's classroom was composed of 19 students, with one identified ELL student. Cisneros Elementary was a highly diverse campus located in a suburban area of town and enrolled approximately 681 students who come from economically, linguistically, and ethnically diverse backgrounds. According to the 2009-2010 Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) from Texas Education Agency, results of all tests and grades tested (3-5) including TAKS, TAKS Modified, and TAKS Accommodated for Cisneros Elementary indicated that the campus had an average reading/English-language arts score of 92%, a math score of 87%, a writing score of 84%, and a science score of 94%. The ethnic distribution of the students at the school included: 9.3% African-American, 26.4% Hispanic, 59.6% White, 4.1% Asian Pacific Islander, and 0.6% Native American. Other

demographics indicated a 37.2% economically-disadvantaged student population who qualified to receive free or reduced lunch and an overall 7.2% ELL population. Teachers at Cisneros Elementary had an average of ten years of experience with five of those years as employees in the district. Students who were identified as ELLs in the school are supported through a combination of pull-out and inclusionary services provided by two full time teachers who held ESL certifications.

Lulu received her teaching certification from a traditional undergraduate degree program from a small private Christian institution in Texas. During her undergraduate career, she did not study a foreign language, but was proficient in Spanish, and took one multicultural education course as part of her teacher preparation experiences. She did not hold bilingual or ESL certification but had participated in the district's four day ESL Academy that was provided to interested teachers in obtaining their ESL certifications. Lulu indicated that she felt that this training had been the most beneficial in improving her abilities in working with ELLs.

Lulu rated her preparedness as: fairly well prepared in 11 items, well prepared in three items, and very well prepared in 16 items. Lulu felt that the program had very well prepared her to: develop relationships with families; engage families in educational experiences of their students; encourage students to use their native language; tap into student's prior knowledge; use *realia* objects as a teaching strategy; help students connect new knowledge to prior experiences; use a variety of vocabulary strategies in lessons; incorporate total physical response methods in teaching; establish opportunities for

students to speak to reinforce learning; model appropriate English use; provide oral directions that are clear and appropriate; create opportunities for students to practice their oral English; create opportunities for students to practice their written English; use a variety of hands-on activities; provide appropriate wait-time for students to respond; and use a variety of technologies as alternative assessments.

During the current school year, Lulu indicated that she had received about eight to 16 hours of professional development and felt that she was very effective in 30 of the scale items in her current role to work with ELLs. Additionally, she indicated that the ESL teacher on campus was very effective in improving her abilities to work with ELLs, and that she was effective in establishing instructional decisions for all the proficiency levels and language domains.

In response to her experiences and coursework from her preparation program, she said,

I would say what I had was very brief. At Westside University (pseudonym), it was more focused on general-ed. I didn't know that going into the program. I should have done some more investigating, but my certification is just EC-4, general education and they did offer 2 multiculturalism classes. I only took one because I only needed one to fill my coursework. We did projects on how to incorporate multimedia into the classroom (Lulu Martinez, Interview, March 31, 2011).

From above, Lulu explained that the class gave her some foundational knowledge but it was more to complete the degree requirement and did not focus specifically on ELL strategies. Rather, she emphasized that it was her participation in the district's ESL

Academy and other professional development offerings that had made the biggest impact in improving her pedagogical awareness for ELLs. She indicated this saying,

I think that the ESL Academy here in the district made it more personal. I came into this school with that background, being a Hispanic. I understood my culture and through the class I took, but really it was through the ESL Academy here. And, then I took at the Region, a reading academy for ELLs. And, I think with all of that, I would really love to teach ELLs now. I came into education wanting to do that, but now, after I have been exposed, I'm really wanting to and super excited about it (Lulu Martinez, Interview, March 31, 2011).

Lulu shared that she was able to build her knowledge base in working with ELLs through these professional development offerings and highlighted her Hispanic culture as way of relating to students and her passion for teaching ELLs. Thus, from these experiences, she indicated she had acquired specific knowledge and skills to hone her teaching expertise saying,

I think that it's just slowing down, annunciating, or using, articulating your words where they can understand. Giving them the time to respond back. I use my hands to teach all the time, TPR. I have learned so much. .. Sometimes, if you can see that a student has a relationship with another student that's a non ELL student, pair them together and they can start learning about each other (Lulu Martinez, Interview, March 31, 2011).

These comments suggest that Lulu developed an extensive toolbox to use instructionally to help ELLs and all students in cooperative learning environments to become academically successful. Additionally, she continuously referred to the cultural competence that teachers need when interacting with students and their families as a crucial element in teacher's knowledge and skills. She revealed this point sharing her own personal experiences saying,

I think if teachers can understand that some kids come from a different background. I have a student who I think there are multiple families that live in her home. There's up to I think 12, it's extended and blended. And, she lives in a rural community where there are farm animals and if she comes to school with dirty fingernails, it doesn't mean that mom doesn't take care of her. It just means that she didn't, when she got out of the shower, or when she got to school, she stopped to play with her goats and the puppies that she had. And doing so, when she feeds her farm animals, she gets all this dirt under her fingernails. It doesn't mean neglect. So, I think the background, knowing where these families are coming from. Just because they are lower SES doesn't mean that their families don't love them. I grew up in a single parent home. Dad wasn't around. My mother took care of 3 of us, which is rare in Hispanic homes. There was just 3 of us and she did all she could for us. And, I think just understanding that if parents don't call you right away when there's a problem, it doesn't mean that they don't want to talk to you. They may be working multiple jobs. It's not that she doesn't care about her child. I have had that experience. And, if a child doesn't want to talk to you right away, I think that if teachers can understand with ELLs, especially with what I know, they're not stupid because they don't speak the language. It's just, that not because they don't know the information, they may not know how to communicate the information. So, they may not want to speak out in a group... So, exposing them to new vocabulary. I know, he (her ELL) doesn't know what a recliner is because nobody at home has ever said recliner. And in Spanish, there's not a word for recliner. There might be silla or silleta de vaca, but there's not really recliner. You know, there's no word for recliner. And, they are eager to learn (Lulu Martinez, Interview, March 31, 2011).

Lulu reflected on previous misconceptions that teachers had when they interacted with students from different backgrounds than their own. She made apparent that in order to dispel these assumptions, teachers needed a greater sense of cross-cultural appreciation with the varied environments and experiences from which students were brought up with. Thus, when teachers realize that families not only cared about their children but also desired high quality expectations, they learn to assist students more positively through school environments rather than judging them. In this way, teachers are better informed about the diverse strengths that students bring to the classroom while developing academic vocabulary for students who did not have similar experiences.

Furthermore, Lulu declared that in general she believed that all teachers should embrace ELLs more and that they can benefit from learning how to speak to ELLs in a more positive way. As a native Spanish speaker, she reflected on this and credited her own cultural background but also the opportunity to tutor Spanish-speakers in the community. Lulu's passion for teaching ELLs was evident from these examples. Her sensitivity and deep appreciation for diverse backgrounds were instructional highlights in the decisions that she made for all her students.

### **Developing a Classroom Environment that Centers on ESL Practice**

Student's desks were arranged in groups of four or six with three coordinating colors for each table (red, blue, and yellow). A reading corner included grade appropriate books and several comfy children-sized chairs. Several bulletin boards were decorated with content posters (shapes, goldfish drawing with labels) and there was a huge word wall with over 75 words that took over the entire section of one wall of the classroom. On the opposite side of the classroom included about 25 sight words that were bordered around the classroom window. In the front of the classroom was a white board with daily calendar activities and a math hundreds number chart. Another bulletin board included a section for student's to chart academic progress with the theme, "On the road to success." Finally, Lulu revealed indication that her classroom would be an environment that placed student's respect as a priority welcoming students from a myriad of backgrounds and experiences. She said,

I guess we would say *realia* now and what can we do in order to make them feel welcomed, bringing the culture into the classroom. So, we did a project on

investigating Korean and the difference between Korean and Hispanics: what do they have in common and how are they different. My daughters are half Asian, so I know in some cultures, there's no eye contact. So, I know that in some cultures, how Hispanics is very strong for Hispanics to look eye-to-eye. It's a form of respect. But in some Asian cultures, we don't have that connection or that eye contact. So, we learned how children react to some teachers that don't have the background knowledge or the prior knowledge on how to teach these children (Lulu Martinez, Interview, March 31, 2011).

These comments showed Lulu's conscious effort in ensuring a nonthreatening learning environment for students to share their cultural heritages. Moreover, Lulu demonstrated a level of understanding of communication norms that exist between and across cultural groups.

### **Classroom Practices that Reveal Teachers' Understandings of ESL**

Lulu's classroom observation took place on a Thursday morning during a language-arts lesson. From the moment that I arrived, students were situated in learning centers and Lulu was working with a small group of students. Following, Lulu began singing the "Clean-Up" song while students prepared for the transition to the classroom rug in the front of the room. When the majority of the students were on the rug, Lulu started to sing "The more we get together, the happier we'll be" with hand motions attached to each phrase of the song. Next, Lulu probed if students remembered what they had learned yesterday. When one student struggled to respond, Lulu asked if he needed additional time and whether a friend could help that student out. After several responses from students, Lulu praised their responses and I noted that she called on her ELL student (Raul, pseudonym) to share about what he knows about the beginning of any story.

Other students continued responding to prompts for the middle and end of the story and Lulu started to read the story. During her read, I noted that Lulu stopped to ask comprehension questions while focusing on her ELL asking him to make predictions and whether he noticed any similarities and/or differences to the other stories that the class had read.

Once the story was completed, Lulu referred students' attention to a big book titled *The Best of Friends* while singing a song in between and using hand motions for the song to remind students to put their thinking caps on. Lulu asked students to think about the events occurring in the four smaller pictures on the chart. Lulu moved through each picture from right to left and asked different students to respond to the indicated pictures as she used the pointer. Lulu praised each student's response and called on her ELL student to respond to the last picture. Then, she posed a final question for students to think about the characters and what they shared in the pictures. Finally, Lulu told students that she wanted them to demonstrate a fun activity that they enjoy doing with their best friend in their journal and writing about their illustration. Lulu reminded students that if they are unsure about the spellings of certain words, they should consult the classroom word wall, their peers, and the teacher for help.

Students spent the next ten minutes completing the task. Lulu circulated around the classroom to clarify questions that students had while giving positive reinforcements to their illustrations. On one occasion, I noted her interaction with her ELL probing about his picture and the setting of the story that he had created with the many details that



he had in the picture. She reminded other students to use plenty of details similar to the ELL student's example and called attention to one illustration completed by a native English speaker. She said, "Class, I want to show quality work." holding up the student's journal. Lulu continued to monitor student's behaviors with the exercise singing a phonics song when one student needed assistance for the beginning sound of the word balloon. Lulu brought the exercise to a close so that students had time for cleanup and transition to physical education, art, and music classes.

### **Analysis**

The analysis of Lulu's the survey responses, interview, and classroom observation merit the instructional strengths that were demonstrated within the SIOP components of *building background, comprehensible input, and lesson delivery*. Her explicit links of new concepts to student's background experiences during the read-aloud were revisited during the large book exercise followed by the journaling activity that promoted relevant activities for student's understanding of the concept of characters. Finally, her use of songs and chants not only promoted student's oral language, but also encouraged student's engagement 90% of the time. Finally, these pedagogical tools along with the verbal support that Lulu provided support Leung and Franson's (2001) recommendations on various scaffolding strategies through the skillful use of *realia*, visuals, and role-play to help the comprehensibility of students' understanding of the text allowing her ELL to carry out the academic task successfully.

Lulu's pacing of the lesson was also appropriate to both age and grade level in the kindergarten classroom. Her high efficacy ratings were aligned to the instructional decisions and related to classroom behaviors that were demonstrated in the lesson in support of positive student outcomes (Wolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). Faulkner and Reeves (2000) also suggested that teachers who had more positive ratings toward teaching often exhibited stronger self-efficacy. For Lulu, these positive ratings were carried out through the challenging tasks for her ELL in the example of utilizing native language support to get her ELL student to understand the vocabulary word for recliner and ensuring positive communication with parents whose native language was not English through notes home or personal communication.

Finally, Lulu's participation in the district's ESL Academy resulted in the current strategies that were implemented in her classroom as they were fresh in her toolbox. This suggests the importance of the sociocultural paradigm that Borg (2003) discussed where second language teacher learning occurred in an environment that was socially negotiated to facilitate selected forms of knowledge that they felt were useful in carrying out their work. Thus, the recent ESL Academy allowed her to carefully make instructional decisions that best represented what Lulu had learned for her students.

### **Thelma**

Thelma was identified as 35 year-old Caucasian female who had been teaching for five years. She worked at Bates Middle School as a sixth grade language-arts teacher. Because Thelma was content-area teacher, she taught language-arts to several sixth grade

classrooms each day. Bates Middle School was located in a small suburban school district east of Austin, TX and enrolled approximately 607 students with an economically-disadvantaged student population of over 84% and an ELL enrollment of 27.3%. According to the 2009-2010 Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) from Texas Education Agency, results of all tests and grades tested (6-8) including TAKS, TAKS Modified, and TAKS Accommodated for Bates Middle School indicated that the campus had an average reading/English-language arts score of 74%, a math score of 65%, a writing score of 85%, science score of 68%, and a social studies score of 90%. The ethnic distribution of the students at the school included: 28.3% African-American, 61.1% Hispanic, 8.1% White, 2.3% Asian Pacific Islander, and 0.2% Native American.

Teachers at Bates Middle School had an average of four years of experience with only one of those years as employees in the district. A vast majority of ELLs at the school receive content-area support from secondary teams that had been trained in second language acquisition strategies to make instruction more comprehensible. Sheltered courses include math, science, social studies, and language arts. In addition, Bates Middle School served recent arrivals, students who were within their first three years in U.S. schools through a Newcomer Program. The program addressed the specific needs of recent arrivals with varied English proficiency levels and those who had limited or interrupted schooling in their home countries. Students in the Newcomer Program received support from their ESL teacher who provided them with extended instructional time to accelerate their academic English in a meaningful way.

Thelma received her teaching certification through a traditional undergraduate program from a private institution in Texas. During her teaching career, she did not study a foreign language, was not bilingual in another language, and did not hold membership to any professional organization. Thelma indicated that she took several courses in the credential program that were directed related to ELLs, one of them being ESL methods, and the other, a reading instruction course that included ELL specific content.

For the preparedness scale items, Thelma rated that she was somewhat prepared in four items, prepared in two items, fairly well prepared in six items, and well prepared in 18 items. Thelma rated that the university well prepared her to: develop an understanding and sensitivity that appreciates differences as well as similarities; develop relationships with families; tap into student's prior knowledge; use a variety of vocabulary strategies in lessons; use visuals, nonverbal cues, demonstrations, and graphic aids as teaching tools; use a variety of technologies to assist in student's understanding; incorporate total physical response methods in teaching; adjust the speed of English speech delivery; model appropriate English use; provide oral directions that are clear and appropriate; create opportunities for students to practice their oral English; create opportunities for students to practice their written English; encourage all students to elaborate on their responses; scaffold instruction to help students understand concepts; provide appropriate wait time for students to respond; encourage students to respond using higher order questioning; provide appropriate accommodations based on student's

language proficiency, and provide various formats of assessments according to student's intelligence and/or learning style.

In response to the coursework experiences that had affected her abilities in teaching ELLs, she replied,

Yes, at the university, we had an actual class where we had to go in and work with struggling readers and we did that in Parkside ISD (pseudonym). And, a lot of the struggling readers were ELL students and we were at a 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> grade elementary campus and I worked with two 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> grade students where we would have to sit with them and teach them basically how to read. It was a great class and that really prepared me (T. Smith, Personal Communication, March 24, 2011).

Thelma added that the course not only provided some basic strategies for ELLs, it also gave her first-hand experience to work with elementary students, a foundation necessary when working with junior high students later. Thus, she implied that teachers needed to dispel the assumption that ELLs were inadequate because of their language difference because they are intelligent if given the chance. She made this apparent saying,

I was pleasantly surprised that you know, a lot of people think that ELL students are handicapped in some way because they can't do the coursework. I don't find that at all. I think they are very smart. They just need that support and once you give them that support, the acquisition comes (Thelma Smith, Interview, March 24, 2011).

Thelma explained that the deficit thinking that had occurred at her school needed to be corrected by creating an environment where teachers gain a conceptual understanding of the methodologies necessary to support ELLs' language development and their success in school. She further argued that in addition to understanding the language acquisition

process, teachers need to be prepared in their lessons with a variety of strategies applicable to teaching for ELLs. She articulated this point below,

You have to be prepared. I mean if your lesson is not prepared to reach ELL kids, it's not going to do that. It's very explicit the instruction...in Texas we predominantly deal with ESL students that come and speak Spanish. But, I think that understanding the culture is important for the students. So, if I had a student come in that was from a different country, I would try to learn about that country's culture and incorporate that to help them. Strategies in the classroom, oh my gosh! Tons! One of the things that works really well in my class is I have kids that are varying levels of ELLs, some of them having been exited already but they still struggle and then I have the newcomers, not newcomers, but I mean they are just getting out and they are still behind. I'll pair them up and I allow them to talk in my class and even communicate quietly to help each other with directions and instructions and things like that, and that really helps them. They need that support and it makes them feel confident in the classroom because sometimes they don't feel confident enough right away that they ask me a question but they'll ask someone in their native tongue how to explain a direction or something and they'll work together. And that works really well (Thelma Smith, Interview, March 24, 2011).

Thelma articulated from above that she had the ability to accommodate instruction for the varied proficiency levels of ELLs, to differentiate for all her students, and the impact of purposeful instruction for ELLs.

Moreover, Thelma indicated that she had received more than 10 days of ESL/ELL training as professional development. She rated herself as: somewhat effective in eight items; effective in 15 items, and very effective in seven items in her current role supporting ELLs. The seven highest rated items included her abilities to: use a variety of vocabulary strategies in lessons; model appropriate English use; provide oral directions that are clear and appropriate; create opportunities for students to practice their oral English; create opportunities for students to practice their written English; encourage all students to elaborate on their responses; and scaffold instruction to help students

understand concepts. Thelma also felt that she was somewhat effective in establishing instructional decisions for the beginning level; effective for the intermediate and advanced level; very well effective for the advanced-high level; and effective for all the language domains.

### **Developing a Classroom Environment that Centers ESL Practice**

Thelma arranged her classroom into U-shaped with student's desks outlining the perimeter. On the inside of the U-shape there were two groups of student's desk arranged into a two by three format. Walls were minimally covered and decorated; however, the board posted a paraphrased version of the Texas Essential Knowledge and Skills (TEKS) for language-arts that read, "10A Main and Supporting Details, Complete M&I Supporting Details Pre-Assessment, Show What You Know." One section of the room stacked neatly arranged red bins with green hanging folders for student's portfolios. Reminders for homework were also written in a corner easy for students to view. And, when the bell rang to signal a period change, Thelma positioned herself outside the door and enthusiastically greeted each student by name with a handshake saying "Buenos Dias" as they entered the room. She provided clear and simple instructions for students to follow and said, "Come in, grab your folder, and have a seat". Finally, Thelma created a classroom environment that was supportive and spoke about guiding her ELLs and their families through the process of their new schooling experiences. She said,

It really depends on the culture. Some cultures are more hands-on with their students, in school and some just aren't. Some of our Hispanic students, you try to call the parent, but they only speak Spanish at home. It's difficult to

communicate so we have to go and get a counselor or whatever to call and relay the message. Most of the students that I have when I do communicate with them, they're supportive but sometimes I feel like maybe they don't know how to be supportive because they are not familiar with classroom structure and classroom procedures (Thelma, Interview, March 24, 2004).

This example demonstrated Thelma's confidence in applying students' home cultures to acquire new learning. Furthermore, she viewed communication with parents as essential even if it meant finding alternative solutions so that parents understood home and school expectations.

### **Classroom Observation**

I observed Thelma's classroom during a 4th period language-arts class on Friday morning. The classroom was composed of 17 students, four of which were identified as ELLs. Thelma reviewed the TEKS from the previous class periods on text structures and making connections while referring to the time that they spent learning and mastering those objectives. She went on and said, "Today is a pre-assessment on what you know about main idea." Thelma instructed her students to open their journals and to write this heading and the date at the top. She began probing about what students know about main idea, whether they have learned it previously in 5<sup>th</sup> grade or at any other time during reading. Responses from students included: "some facts about the story, supporting details, and things about the whole story." Thelma then scribed the sentence, "Lions protect their cubs." on the board, and questioned what would be the three supporting details of that main idea. As students responded, Thelma wrote their paraphrased supporting details in the numbered slots below the main idea. Thelma verbalized a



second example on main idea and said, “If the main idea is Robert saw a rainbow, what would be three supporting details that go along with that?”

Thelma then set up the document camera, dimmed the lights, and projected the passage from the classroom wall. She asked the students to return to their packets and read along as she read the directions and first paragraph out loud. After reading the first paragraph, Thelma asked, “How many of you if the paragraph makes sense, raise your hand?” When not a single hand ejected into the air, she supplemented with, “How many of you, this paragraph is blah, blah, blah, and you don’t understand?” After noticing that the majority of the students raised their hands in response to this question, Thelma, with a frustrated sigh, reminded students that they are not in 5<sup>th</sup> grade anymore, that they would have to figure it out, and today is a pre-assessment so next week they will break down the concept of main idea more.

Thelma instructed the students to write the words *to entertain* and *to persuade* on a column next to the passage. She walked over to one ELL student (Martin, pseudonym) and scribed the same words on his paper. Thelma then told him to remind her to go over this with him later. Students volunteered to read the remaining paragraphs and after each one, Thelma debriefed the passages orally together. As Thelma gathered student’s responses on each paragraph’s main idea and supporting details, she instructed students to underline key vocabulary words from the passages and to write the main ideas down next to paragraphs. She also reminded students that the main idea is not always the first sentence of every paragraph. Thelma guided students through the next several passages

together as a whole class activity. During this time, I noted that Thelma initiated several discussions regarding student's personal experiences to build background in relation to the text passages. Such examples included her questions on whether students can hike 20 miles and to share about their unique family traditions.

Students continued this activity until the final passage when they were instructed to complete the exercise independently. Thelma rotated the room to ensure that students were on task while pairing one of the ELLs (Victoria, pseudonym) to another non-ELL who was seated next to her. I also noted that Thelma made way to another ELL (Celeste, pseudonym) and reminded her that if she didn't understand something while reading that she needed to seek clarification. Finally, Thelma spent several minutes checking for students' understanding and reminded students to use their peers if they needed assistance. She also mentioned to students that if they are having a difficult time, the concept of main idea will get easier once they spend more time unpacking it next week in preparation for the benchmark tests and the TAKS test.

### **Analysis**

From Thelma's survey responses and interview, I was dumbfounded by the classroom observation. I expected to see more sheltered-instruction practices and the use of specific ESL strategies. Thelma had initially responded that she believed the ESL certification is essential for all teachers to have and that her participation in the 30-hour institute from the region had significantly impacted her abilities for ELLs. Thus, she made a reference in regards to the disappointment of finding out that ESL certification

was not a requirement of the district nor was the focus on using applicable methods for ELLs when she said,

But reading instruction, it really didn't focus a lot on ESL strategies at all. When I took the 30 hours institute at Region 13 was when I really got into that and it was really helpful... In the past district, we were required to be ESL certified so we went through that. We had ESL updates and things like that that were given on campus that you need to know and that was really helpful. It kept strategies fresh in you mind. Here, we choose our own PD throughout the year and there wasn't really any required ESL PD... We have a huge ESL population here, so it would be helpful to have someone come in and just say, "Alright, this student is here, we are trying to get him here, here are their goals." You know just to sit down and talk about these kids, specifically on what their learning goals are and what we can be doing as a campus to get those kids to where they need to be. Um, not just in English, but in all subjects. Um, our ELL kids really struggle in science because of vocabulary and I was asking our science teachers if they are ESL certified, and they're not. So, it's just surprising to me that with our population that we're not more focused on ESL strategies on my campus. I don't know about other campuses. But here on my campus, it's not focused (Thelma Smith, Interview, March 24, 2011).

Thelma expressed the need in making professional development align to the school's growing population of ELLs and that teachers had lacked the experience in developing certain strategies that she had gained from her ESL certification. Thus, teachers needed the most support in helping ELLs develop academic vocabulary in all of the content areas so that they can help their students accomplish their goals.

Thelma showed evidence of reflective practice in the interview taking part in her own professional learning and noting specific strategies necessary for ELLs that were transpired into the instructional accommodations that were made for students. These decisions included: her direct attempt to make connections to student's learning by probing them about shared similar experiences to the reading passages; the explicit pairing of students; and the highlighting of vocabulary words in those reading. However,

she lacked one key feature from that of a successful reflective practitioner as emphasized by Zeichner and Liston (1996) in her inability to take part in change efforts in the way the curriculum was taught. Her entire lesson was based on preparation for the sixth grade TAKS test rather than meaningful lesson of the learning expectations. While she probed for student's responses often during the reading of the passages, they were traditionally low-leveled comprehension questions instead of those that promoted a more complex level of understanding. Thelma could have created an environment where smaller discussion groups or debates were facilitated on particular topics of interest to allow students to dialogue about the main idea and supporting details. These were better alternatives for Thelma which would have promoted her thoughtful action as a reflective teacher.

This chapter presented the data from both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Findings from quantitative data were represented through descriptive and inferential statistics with a statistically significance found in several areas. Qualitative data included a description of each of the five teachers studied as well as an analysis of each case with respect to survey data, interviews, and classroom observation.

## **Chapter Five: Discussion, Limitations, and Implications for Future Research**

### **Discussion**

The purpose of this study was to examine teachers' perceptions of their preparedness and efficacy beliefs for teaching ELLs. Both quantitative and qualitative procedures were carried out to determine whether teachers' knowledge affect instructional decisions made for ELLs and whether their efficacy beliefs aligned with the strategies that they employed in the classroom for meeting the needs of ELL students. The use of surveys, interviews, classroom observations, and field notes triangulated the data to provide in depth analysis to the study. Four main research questions addressed in the study were: 1) What perceptions are held by in-service teachers about teaching practices for ELLs? 2) What is the relationship, if any, between teacher knowledge about teaching ELL students and the instructional practices employed by teachers when instructing ELL students? 3) How effective do in-service teachers feel in teaching ELL students? 4) What factors influence teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy about teaching ELL students?

### **Findings**

There are six main findings that emerged from this study, three from quantitative data, two from qualitative data, and one from both approaches. One major finding from the quantitative data was teachers' abilities to be bilingual in a second language. Another finding included an ESL certification on teachers' teaching credentials. Thus, the route

in which teachers received their teaching certification was another major finding from the quantitative data. Two findings emerged from the qualitative approach in the study. One of these included the use of specific strategies that were exhibited from the five teachers studied. The second qualitative finding included the cultural competence necessary for teaching ELLs. Finally, between both approaches, the last finding involved professional development opportunities in regards to time spent and the quality of such programs.

### **Teachers' Bilingualism in a Second Language**

The first major finding that evolved from the survey data is the difference on teachers' abilities to speak a second language or not. Results from the compare means and independent samples-t test reveal that a statistically significance exists between teachers who indicated that they were bilingual versus teachers who were not with both perception and efficacy items. The six items that reveal the most statistically significance according to perception items were: develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge (.029); incorporate cultural values into the curriculum (.057); include student's home cultures into the curriculum (.007); encourage students to use their native language (.000); create opportunities for students to practice their written English (.031); and encourage students to respond using higher order questioning (.049). Furthermore, from the efficacy ratings, there are 21 items that reveal that a statistically significance exists with eight items showing a very high significance between teachers who rated themselves as bilingual versus teachers who were not. These eight items were: develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge (.000); incorporate cultural values into the curriculum (.000); include

student's home cultures into the classroom (.000); encourage students to use their native language (.000); tap into student's prior knowledge (.002); help students connect new knowledge to prior experiences (.002); provide oral directions that are clear and appropriate (.004); and use a variety of technologies to assist in student's understanding (.005). Thus, the other 13 items reveal that a statistically significance exists suggesting that additional research needs to be examined regarding the impact of teachers' bilingualism in their perception and efficacy for teaching students who come from linguistically diverse backgrounds.

### **ESL Certification on Teachers' Credentials**

Another finding from the survey results is the difference in self-reported sense of efficacy with respect to instructing ELLs between teachers who held ESL certification as compared to those teachers who did not have these credentials. The means for the two groups of teachers were statistically significantly different for 14 of the 30 statements about sense of efficacy, with each of the results showing a greater sense of efficacy for those holding ESL certification than those who did not. These results corroborate with Grant and Wong's (2003) suggestions that CREDE recommendations are not sufficient in helping teachers establish good teaching practices, but rather, the importance of ESL methodology coursework that leads to teacher credentials. In this way, teachers have strong foundational tools to establish beneficial teaching practices for meeting the varied needs of ELLs. This study also extends from a report by Walton et al., (2002) that investigated over 300 teacher education programs focusing on its structure, curriculum

content, and process for increasing teachers' capacity to serve linguistically and culturally diverse students. The study found that university pre-service and in-service programs were the most comprehensive; however, they prepared the least number of certified ESL teachers whereas the least comprehensive programs were in-service programs but prepared the largest number of certified ESL teachers. And because this study is only a small sample of teachers and not representative of Texas, more research needs to be explored in this area with regards to integration of ESL program preparation across traditional pre-service and in-service teacher education programs to expand each program's comprehensibility and to ensure the quality of experiences for future teachers. In this way, all teachers are infused with specialized training in the study of second language acquisition methodologies along with a deep understanding of how students' diverse cultural patterns and populations have shaped the U.S. Thus, teachers become better prepared in addressing the social, cultural, linguistic, and economic backgrounds of all their students to serve them more appropriately.

### **Route of Teaching Certification**

Another finding that resulted from the analysis of the quantitative data is the mean difference in teacher's perceptions of their preparedness from traditional programs such as a bachelors and post-baccalaureate program versus alternative certification programs. The mean averages for teachers who received their certifications through the traditional program are higher than the mean averages for teachers who participated in alternative methods of certifications. Within the efficacy ratings, the mean averages among teachers



from a traditional program ranged between 3.61 (encourage students to use their native language) as the lowest to 4.94 (use a variety of hands-on activities) as the highest whereas the mean averages for teachers from an alternative program ranged between 2.57 (encourage students to use their native language) to 4.00 (use visuals, nonverbal cues, demonstrations, and graphic aids as teaching tools). This suggests that teachers' sense of efficacy regarding the specific knowledge they obtain in alternative programs may be somewhat different than that of traditional undergraduate and university environments.

Alternative certification policy is present in almost every state in the U.S. allowing institutions other than university preparation programs to create certification programs for teachers. However, debate existed in the policy effects regarding its purpose to overcome teacher shortage and to improve teacher quality arguing that the concept of alternatives to traditional state certification left room for interpretation of its meaning (Darling-Hammond, 1990) and the rapid route in which teachers received their credential (Hawly, 1990). Thus, Darling-Hammond and Youngs (2002) argued against the support of alternative certification method for improving the quality of the teaching force indicating that if states desire to meet the federal mandate of highly qualified teachers, they need to take into the consideration the research on preparing teachers effectively. The authors said, "(M)eeeting the highly qualified teacher challenge will require states to stay the course with respect to the gains they have already made, rather than to reverse course on the basis of a fictionalized account of what research says about what effective teachers know and how they come to know it" (p. 23). Furthermore, other critiques of alternative certification programs argued over the low retention rates for

teachers from these programs (Fisk et al., 2001) and the low achievement scores of students who are taught by teachers from alternative routes (Laczko-Kerr & Berliner, 2002).

While Feistritzer (2009) have catalogued states' alternative routes since 1983, reporting that alternative certification programs have improved requiring participants to hold a bachelor's degree; pass a screening process; engage in job-related training; complete education coursework; and meet performance standards, the quality of such participants can still be improved as recommended by Fuller (2010) in the Study on the Distribution of Teacher Quality in Texas Schools. This study suggested that not only have entrance requirements for many alternative certification programs been low, but also some candidates can receive teaching placements after having only completed a minimum of 12 undergraduate credit hours in the subject area of their initial certification and the requirements of the alternative program. On the contrary, teacher candidates who enter the field from traditional undergraduate or post-baccalaureate programs often are required to complete a major in their subject area and/or have selected education as their field of study. The study recommended an increase in the caliber of qualified candidates who enter alternative programs. Therefore, with these recommendations and given that this research study is only a small sample of Texas' teachers, more research needs to be explored in the area of teacher training for ELLs to determine the effects of alternative preparation programs and that of traditional university programs.

### **Use of ESL Strategies**

Critical to the knowledge base for teaching ELLs is the use of specific ESL methodologies in the classroom as one major qualitative finding. All five teachers referred the need for certain strategies applicable to ELLs such as: slowed speech, repetition, highlighted vocabulary, native language and peer support, visual scaffolds, and clarification of tasks during their interviews and classroom observations. While some teachers demonstrated a clearer understanding of these strategies when implemented in their classroom, the five teachers made explicit pedagogical adaptations appropriate to proficiency levels of the ELLs in their classroom. These teachers not only reduced the affective filter in the classroom enabling ELLs to feel confident and comfortable (Krashen, 2003) but also appeared to have a foundation in second language methodologies gravitating toward explicit pedagogies that are crucial to ELLs' academic language development (Schleppergrell, 2004). Scaffolds and student interaction were noted widely in the examples of flexible grouping and/or pairing strategies facilitated by all of the teachers during the lesson delivery. Moreover, these teachers were aware of their student's linguistic strengths to facilitate and enhance ELL's English academic success. Rather than mislabeling student's English errors into special education classification as referenced by Thelma (Interview, March 24, 2011), teachers were conscious in recognizing students' language differences as developmental progress helping students produce both social and academic language.

### **High Levels of Cultural Competence**

The second finding from the case studies is the focus on teachers' deep understanding of cultural competence. While the majority of teachers from the survey rated themselves lower in this section, the five teachers sample exhibited a wider range of knowledge and strategies for teaching diverse learners. Emphasizing Gay's (2000) notion of culturally responsive teaching, these teachers drew on the background knowledge of their students, accommodated to their diverse learning needs, and worked to build bridges between home and school experiences with appropriate expectations for all students. Such examples were noted through Timothy's modeling of sentence stems, Antonia's celebration of students' individual and collective accomplishments during the fish observation, Thelma's praising of students' cultural heritages, Matthew's use of *realia*, and Lulu's native language support. These practices demonstrated that they have developed a certain level of cultural relevance creating connections between academic abstractions to lived sociocultural realities of their students. Thus, three of the five cases are novice teachers who indicated that they believed that their teacher training program adequately prepared them for cultural aspects in education. Nevertheless, this finding supports the literature that culturally-responsive curricular is essential for connecting student's prior knowledge to new learning with explicit English language learning strategies that utilizes the principles of second language acquisition for responsive pedagogical practices for ELLs' academic success (Goldenberg, 2008; Lucas et al., 2008). Furthermore, all pre-service and in-service teachers, regardless of their prior teaching experience and teacher preparation program, should be exposed to cultural and linguistic diversity that enables them to appreciate students with different backgrounds

than their own (Gannon, 2005). When teachers engage in learning opportunities that dispel their misconceptions, they create dynamic environments for their students by utilizing students' strengths and cultural values as a bridge to academic success.

### **Professional Development**

Finally, professional development presents itself as a crucial element in teachers' efficacy ratings. Teachers with more than two days of professional development pertaining to issues with ELLs indicated a greater sense of efficacy than teachers who had acquired less than two days of professional growth for teaching ELLs. The quantitative analysis indicated a statistically significance existed between the two group suggesting the importance of high quality professional development that is critical in teacher learning. Extending the research from Borko (2004) who emphasized a professional development model for in-service teachers through a situative framework, teachers feel best supported when their learning occurs in terms of content focus as participants in an active community. Furthermore, teachers not only emphasized the need for more trainings conducive to ELLs' specific needs, time for implementation of strategies, and direct material that is hands-on, applicable, and easy to implement professional development experiences but also a strong coherence of objectives across the professional development program to alleviate the frustrations that they have encountered from campus and district-related support staff. With this notion, Harper, deJong, and Piatt (2008) argued that professional development should be mandatory for all teachers of ELLs and with quality learning opportunities that infuse issues pertaining to their

academic success of all students that should permeate throughout the teacher preparation curriculum (Meskill, 2005).

### **Research Questions**

For research question one: What perceptions are held by in-service teachers about teaching practices for ELLs? I analyzed the 30 perception *likert* scale items and found that the five highest items rated as having an effect from their teacher training program were: use visuals, nonverbal cues, demonstrations, and graphic aids as teaching tools (4.50); use a variety of hands-on activities (4.50); establish opportunities for students to interact (4.45); provide appropriate wait time for students to respond (4.45); and help students connect new knowledge to prior experiences (4.34). Teachers believed that their preparation program positively prepared them for carrying out these behaviors and practices when teaching ELLs. Teachers perceived that their preparation experiences from prior coursework have somewhat impacted their instruction for ELLs. Thus, these kinds of pedagogical practices is consistent with what prior research emphasized with recommended competencies that all teachers need in working with ELLs (deJong & Harper, 2005; Lucas et al., 2008). As previous literature suggested, scaffolds are critical in the facilitation of language development for ELLs when done properly with a more capable peer or adult (Echevarria et al., 2004; Gibbons, 2002; Walqui, 2008). Moreover, teachers perceived that teacher preparation has done a better job in helping them understand that student interaction is necessary to reinforce learning and develop academic language.

On the other hand, the five items with the lowest *likert* scale means were: encourage students to use their native language (3.01); develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge (3.30); incorporate student's home cultures into the curriculum (3.35); incorporate cultural values into the curriculum (3.50); and engage families in educational experiences of their students (3.51). Most of the lowest rated items are questions that pertain to teachers' cultural competency. This suggests that teacher training programs still need to improve in preparing teachers for working with students from diverse backgrounds and homes. Over 79.4% of the participants indicated that they are White in this study and given the literature on the homogeneous population of teachers coming from predominantly White backgrounds (NCES, 2003), this does support past research about the cultural framework that is necessary for teachers who come from backgrounds different than their students (Au, 1980; Heath, 1983; Lee, 1993; Sleeter & Grant, 1987). Otherwise, teachers come to the profession with preconceived notions of what students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds can and cannot do.

To answer research question two: What is the relationship, if any, between teacher knowledge about teaching ELL students and the instructional practices employed by teachers when instructing ELL students?, I analyzed individual teacher's cases from their survey responses, interview transcripts, and field notes taken from the classroom observation. Here was where cross-case analysis occurred with these findings. Overall, the five teachers in the case studies perceived that their preparation experiences have affected their teaching abilities. Perception items from all teachers ranged from the lowest of 17 items rated to the highest of 24 items rated as well prepared to very well

prepared. Four out of the five teachers displayed a high level of efficacy in their abilities to support ELLs by rating themselves from effective to very effective from the lowest of 17 to the highest of all 30 items. Furthermore, most teachers felt that they were most effective in planning and delivering instruction to ELLs at the advanced-high proficiency level and reading and writing language domains while being the least effective for the beginning proficiency level and in the listening and speaking domains.

While only some teachers had participated in direct coursework experiences related to the ESL methodologies, I assert that they all benefited from their preparation experiences in some way. The knowledge gained from their general teaching program especially a sense of Shulman's pedagogical content knowledge (1987) provided a framework on which pedagogical applications were tailored to meet the needs of their ELLs. The use of ESL strategies was apparent in the classroom observations even though some teachers showed greater strength in implementing them (i.e. repetition, visuals). Both novice and experienced teachers utilized the strategy of interaction the most and emphasized the complex vocabulary that students encountered during the lessons. Moreover, teachers created an inviting and supportive atmosphere for their ELLs to practice oral and/or written English and to achieve learning expectations.

Finally, most important to all teachers is the knowledge and understanding of student's cultures as a means to facilitate authentic instruction and activities for ELLs. Each of the five teachers articulated this aspect emphasizing: the use of "funds of knowledge" approach (Moll, et al., 1992) to welcome the differences in communication



between cultures and providing parents and students a means to navigate the school system referenced by Thelma; utilizing native language to bridge and make connections with students and their parents while developing reasoning and higher-order thinking (Banks, 2003) referenced by Timothy; the experience of being immersed in an entirely different speaking community and relating to someone who doesn't understand the language referenced by Matthew as a way to select materials that are representative of varied cultural groups (Ladson-Billings, 2002); the differences between varied cultures and its expectations referenced by Lulu to having the knowledge to include multiple representations of different groups (Lee, 1993); and the ability to connect to students' cultures, their families, and heritages by providing a supportive community classroom referenced by Antonia as a way to celebrate students as individuals of their community (Nieto-Rolon, 1997). These teachers developed culturally responsive practices by providing learning opportunities that not only incorporated student's cultural values, their background knowledge, and experiences, but also promoted a respectful environment where student's home values were cultivated and respected with opportunities for native language support.

For research question three: How effective do in-service teachers feel in teaching ELL students?, teachers' efficacy beliefs were analyzed according to the *likert* scale items. The mean averages for the highest five items rated on the survey were: establish opportunities for students to interact (5.01); model appropriate English use (4.99); use a variety of hands-on activities (4.92); help students connect new knowledge to prior experiences (4.84); establish opportunities for students to speak to reinforce learning

(4.84); and provide oral directions that are clear and appropriate (4.84). These ratings suggest that teachers have developed second language acquisition principles in their classroom with output as a vital factor for learning language. Because engagement with the language through expression and/or speaking (Swain, 1995), teachers overall do feel that they are competent in carrying out this strategy with modeling appropriate English use and establishing opportunities for students to practice English as a means of reflection or learning reinforcement. Thus, teachers indicated the highest efficacy in planning for social interaction affirming to past research regarding this knowledge as it allows for the zone of proximal development to occur so that ELLs have support and are actively participating in the learning process to promote conversational and academic proficiency (Gass, 1997; Vygotsky, 1978; Wong-Fillmore & Snow, 2005).

The mean averages for the five lowest items were: encourage students to use their native language (3.88); engage families in educational experiences of their students (4.10); include student's home cultures into the classroom (4.19); and use a variety of technologies as alternative assessments; incorporate cultural values into the curriculum (4.34); and develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge (4.39). These ratings suggest the need for professional development to infuse understandings of cultural, family, and access the "funds knowledge" so that teachers are equipped with bridging the cultural divide between student's home communities and school. In this way, teachers have the knowledge and skills to explicitly plan for instruction while inquiring into student's backgrounds that are relative to learning objectives (Gutierrez & Rogoff, 2003). Teachers' ratings on use of technology suggest that while teachers may use other forms

of assessments for ELLs' academic proficiency, they lack technological tools as a competency area. Consequently, the mean average for teachers' beliefs in encouraging native language use was the lowest suggesting the lack of understanding of Cummin's (1981) notion of common underlying proficiency where students' foundation in one language is transferable to their second language. Thus, teachers need to grasp how native-language ability allows students to negotiate meaning in their L1 allowing them to acquire their L2.

In answering research question four: What factors influence teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy about teaching ELL students?, I utilized data from the open-ended responses from the survey and interviews and found that various factors influence teachers' efficacy in teaching ELLs. One factor was ESL certification training provided either through the district and/or one of the regional service centers. Teachers described these experiences on the open-ended question as the most valuable training that they have received in their careers. Other factors that teachers indicated as beneficial learning experiences that improved their capabilities for teaching ELLs were SIOP trainings and having the opportunity to collaborate with other colleagues such as the ESL teacher, bilingual teachers, and various campus professionals at their campus. Survey results reflected this finding when teachers indicated "other" with 3.28 as the highest mean average specifying that these individuals were believed as effective in improving their abilities to teach ELLs. This supports the recommendations by Putnam and Borko (2000) that teachers learn best in collaborative environments where communities of practice are

developed, honored, and respected becoming integral intersections where learning is constructed in an active and meaningful way.

### **Limitations of the Study**

This research study utilized strengths from both quantitative and qualitative methods; however, limitations still exist. One such limitation is ensuring validity. My choice of methodology, personal beliefs, and interpretation of findings are factors accounted for in researcher's bias. And, although literature documented the need for the study of teacher's perceptions and efficacy beliefs to better improve programs for teachers working with ELLs, my personal views about the topic including intellectual curiosity supported the research more closely. Credibility and trustworthiness were gained from the teachers through my current and past experiences as a district administrator and staff developer; however, I believe that the research evolved into a relationship around affinity between myself and the individual cases studied even in my direct attempt to stay out. This interaction helped to create and support the phenomenon being studied. Thus, the cases were purposefully selected from all volunteered participants for phase two of the data. However, if participants and cases were randomly selected, internal validity could have been improved for the study. I also encountered issues with member checking during the research. In the first case, I was able to take both the transcript analysis and observation data back to the teacher to ensure that the results were plausible. While this strategy proved successful in the first case, I neglected to do the same for the remaining cases. Finally, the SIOP observation tool was not used

accurately during the classroom observation. While the tool is designed to check teaching behaviors across the eight components, I used it for a strengths analysis according to what behaviors teachers displayed consistently. Thus, the SIOP tool limited the observer to those eight components without a section for native language support; however, I noted these occurrences in my field notes.

Small retrieval rate is another limitation to the study. While 144 teachers participated in the survey portion, this number is not representative of the entire population. An email invitation was sent to over 900 elementary and secondary teachers who qualified to participate in the study; however, only 16% of this population responded to the survey. Issues of junk and spam email boxes may have caused some teachers who received the email but neglected to open the email to participate. Participants only had the option of completing surveys on-line rather than a mail-in option, which may be associated with the retrieval rate. Moreover, the power of analysis may not be completely accurate from the small sample size. The study should be replicated with a larger sample size both through survey responses and teacher cases.

The timing of the interviews and classroom observations, yet, is another limitation to the study. I conducted all of the interviews and classroom observations during March and April of 2011. During this time, state assessments had simultaneously occurred which meant overwhelmed and exhaustive teachers working in those grades that were tested. At one district that participated in a calendar system where grades were dispersed every quarter, district common assessments had occurred to complete the third nine-

weeks cycle. Teachers were not only preparing for these assessments but also for state-mandated tests for all mainstream students in grades three and above. Additionally, for teachers of ELLs, across all grade levels, TELPAS (Texas English Language Proficiency Assessment System) was occurring as part of the federal testing requirement of NCLB Act of 2001 designed to assess the progress of ELLs annually. Online reading proficiency tests were administered for students from second grades and beyond and observation protocols were necessary for students K-12 in the domains in the areas of listening, speaking, and writing. Given these factors, the retrieval rate was affected including possible subjectivity on survey responses, interviews, and classroom observation when authentic teaching was compromised with test preparation.

Finally, at the time that the survey invitation was released in March 2011, the education system in Texas was undergoing a budget deficit. The budget shortfall not only drastically reduced funding for public education, higher education, prekindergarten and Early Start programs, but also influenced restructuring of job assignments at local and district levels. For one of the districts in the study, this meant 217 teachers who were on probationary year one contracts (new-to-profession teachers or new to the district teachers with less than five consecutive years of employment at any school district) would be non-renewed for the following year. Initially, the study hoped to receive more responses from new-to-profession teachers; however, the budget news may have affected their participation resulting in only 11 new teachers or 8.3% of the total number who completed the survey. Thus, sentiment was expressed by all six teachers interviewed on having faith and vitality in the teaching profession as security of their positions remained

unclear. One teacher commented on the difficulty to remain focused and still do a good job given the constraints knowing that she was not returning in the fall. Overall, the budget crisis was a significant setback in the study affecting participation, attitudes, and job satisfaction about the profession.

### **Implications for Future Research**

Many approaches are considered for future directions in research to this topic. This research sheds light into a topic that has been least explored in the literature regarding teachers' perceptions and efficacy beliefs for working with ELLs. Continued research is necessary in this topic to determine how novice teachers feel in their preparation experiences and efficacy for planning and delivering instruction to their ELL students. Given the finding on the significance of bilingual/ESL certification, it seems appropriate that teacher education programs (traditional and alternative) restructure the coursework experiences for their teacher candidates to require embedded ESL methodology training.

Research on teacher candidates' field experiences and student teaching internship is also an area of study. Examining the perceptions of teacher's field experiences and their student teaching is useful to determine the impact of applicable tools learned for ELLs. Additionally, few studies have studied the effects of the professor in residence notion and/or field experiences as collaborative approaches between university supervisors and teacher candidates and/or between experienced teachers with an aspiring bilingual/ESL teacher candidate. Therefore, a recommendation is to initiate an action

research project regarding the benefits of such programs that may merit new directions to field experiences and student teaching. Another recommendation is a longitudinal study on pre-service teacher candidates during their coursework related to bilingual/ESL training and following teacher candidates through their first year of teaching. This may provide a deeper perspective on whether certain knowledge and skills learned in coursework actually affect field experiences, student teaching, and behaviors during first year of teaching.

The professional development literature regarding teachers' beliefs of the quality and scope of such programs for ELLs is also a future direction for research. Since professional development has been documented as crucial to improving teacher quality, it is necessary to examine teacher's attitudes and behaviors regarding their participation of these experiences. It is also necessary to determine the value of such professional development programs and whether the knowledge, skills, and strategies learned are implemented in the classroom for ELL's academic success. For example, in one of the districts studied, an ESL Academy is offered to in-service teachers throughout a four-day institute session designed to prepare teachers to take and pass the Texas certification test to teach ELL students. However, there have been no studies that are known to date in regards to teacher's perceptions on knowledge and skills learned from this professional development program nor have there been any statistically analysis that documents the relationship of the program to implementation of strategies actually used in the classroom. Consequently, follow-up studies are necessary to address teachers'



professional development needs as they take and pass required certifications and are currently teaching ELLs.

Given the current budget crisis affecting the entire state of Texas at the time of the study, one final direction for research is a study the outcome that these cuts have on teachers' efficacy, job satisfaction, and retention rates in the profession. A longitudinal study can also examine teacher's perceptions of their abilities in working with ELLs during and after the effects of the budget cuts from novice to experienced teacher within their careers. Thus, other studies can research the aftermath of those teachers whose jobs are non-renewed and to determine the attitudes and/or career choices that they select in their future endeavors.

## **Conclusion**

The changing demographic student population has initiated local, district, and state changes to better serve teachers and students from a diverse linguistic, economic, and cultural background. Improvements in teacher education programs are underway as states and universities focus on embedding ELL instruction into their program (Tellez & Waxman, 2005) and as demonstrated in this study from the perceptions and efficacy beliefs of current teachers with less than five years of experience. Furthermore, this study hopes to contribute to the research on teacher education supporting past recommendations in addressing the needs of ELL students and creating a quality teacher training program that sufficiently prepares all teachers for the realities of a diverse classroom.

**Appendix A**  
**Tables of Means, Inferential Statistics**

**Table A1 Mean and Standard Deviations for Teachers' Perceptions of Preparedness**

N=144	Mean	Std. Deviation
Develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge.	3.3050	1.40379
Develop an understanding and sensitivity that appreciates differences as well as similarities.	4.0355	1.31155
Incorporate cultural values into the curriculum.	3.4965	1.38680
Include student's home cultures into the classroom.	3.3475	1.49277
Develop relationships with families.	3.7801	1.53573
Engage families in educational experiences of their students.	3.5106	1.53817
Encourage students to use their native language.	3.0922	1.61644
Tap into student's prior knowledge.	4.1915	1.45364
Use realia (real--life) objects as a teaching strategy.	4.2695	1.45837
Help students connect new knowledge to prior experiences.	4.3404	1.38270
Use a variety of vocabulary strategies in lessons.	4.0780	1.37877
Use visuals, nonverbal cues, demonstrations, and graphic aids as teaching tools.	4.5035	1.39194
Use a variety of technologies to assist in student's understanding.	4.1631	1.38164
Incorporate total physical response (TPR) methods in teaching.	3.5390	1.56076
Establish opportunities for students to interact.	4.4468	1.33858
Establish opportunities for students to speak to reinforce learning.	4.2624	1.27417
Adjust the speed of English speech delivery.	3.6596	1.39811
Model appropriate English use.	4.3121	1.41993
Provide oral directions that are clear and appropriate.	4.3262	1.34428
Create opportunities for students to practice their oral English.	4.1418	1.38658
Create opportunities for students to practice their written English.	4.0426	1.46323
Encourage all students to elaborate on their responses.	4.1631	1.40216
Scaffold instruction to help students understand concepts.	4.1844	1.44223
Use a variety of hands-on activities.	4.5035	1.38164
Incorporate student's responses into lessons.	4.1277	1.40332

Provide appropriate wait time for students to respond.	4.4539	1.38087
Encourage students to respond using higher order questioning.	4.1418	1.37623
Provide appropriate accommodations based on student's language proficiency.	3.6170	1.46219
Provide various formats of assessments according to student's intelligence and/or learning style.	3.9007	1.43579
Use a variety of technologies as alternative assessments.	3.5957	1.45886

**Table A2 Mean and Standard Deviations for Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs**

N=86	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge.	4.3882
Develop an understanding and sensitivity that appreciates differences as well as similarities.	4.8023	1.04959
Incorporate cultural values into the curriculum.	4.3372	1.17434
Include student's home cultures into the classroom.	4.1860	1.25099
Develop relationships with families.	4.3953	1.22982
Engage families in educational experiences of their students.	4.1047	1.27445
Encourage students to use their native language.	3.8837	1.45859
Tap into student's prior knowledge.	4.7326	1.03383
Use realia (real--life) objects as a teaching strategy.	4.7558	1.11604
Help students connect new knowledge to prior experiences.	4.8353	1.04480
Use a variety of vocabulary strategies in lessons.	4.5465	1.19466
Use visuals, nonverbal cues, demonstrations, and graphic aids as teaching tools.	4.7907	1.06402
Use a variety of technologies to assist in student's understanding.	4.6163	1.11849
Incorporate total physical response (TPR) methods in teaching.	4.2558	1.37358
Establish opportunities for students to interact.	5.0116	.95171
Establish opportunities for students to speak to reinforce learning.	4.8353	1.07844
Adjust the speed of English speech delivery.	4.5116	1.10341
Model appropriate English use.	4.9882	1.07453
Provide oral directions that are clear and appropriate.	4.8372	.93129
Create opportunities for students to practice their oral English.	4.8118	1.04077
Create opportunities for students to practice their written English.	4.5581	1.22335

Encourage all students to elaborate on their responses.	4.7209	1.15454
Scaffold instruction to help students understand concepts.	4.6353	1.08942
Use a variety of hands-on activities.	4.9176	1.02599
Incorporate student's responses into lessons.	4.6024	1.20911
Provide appropriate wait time for students to respond.	4.7529	1.07909
Encourage students to respond using higher order questioning.	4.5412	1.19077
Provide appropriate accommodations based on student's language proficiency.	4.4048	1.16287
Provide various formats of assessments according to student's intelligence and/or learning style.	4.4471	1.27714
Use a variety of technologies as alternative assessments.	4.1905	1.32152

**Table A3 Mean Averages for Teachers' Efficacy Beliefs in Different Routes of Certification**

Preparation Area	Route to Certification			Difference
	University Based	Alternative	Total	Univ-Alt
Provide appropriate accommodations based on student's language proficiency.	3.89	3.26	3.60	0.63
Adjust the speed of English speech delivery.	3.84	3.28	3.59	0.57
Use a variety of technologies as alternative assessments.	3.80	3.19	3.52	0.61
Help students connect new knowledge to prior experiences.	4.66	3.84	4.29	0.81
Develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge.	3.66	2.91	3.32	0.74
Incorporate cultural values into the curriculum.	3.93	2.97	3.49	0.96
Develop relationships with families.	4.07	3.43	3.78	0.64
Provide various formats of assessments according to student's intelligence and/or learning style.	4.19	3.47	3.86	0.72
Encourage all students to elaborate on their responses.	4.44	3.76	4.13	0.68

Engage families in educational experiences of their students.	3.83	3.17	3.53	0.66
Use a variety of hands-on activities.	4.94	3.88	4.46	1.06
Encourage students to respond using higher order questioning.	4.49	3.67	4.12	0.81
Include student's home cultures into the classroom.	3.76	2.86	3.35	0.90
Establish opportunities for students to interact.	4.79	3.93	4.40	0.85
Model appropriate English use.	4.56	3.90	4.26	0.66
Use visuals, nonverbal cues, demonstrations, and graphic aids as teaching tools.	4.83	4.00	4.45	0.83
Provide oral directions that are clear and appropriate.	4.59	3.97	4.30	0.62
Incorporate total physical response (TPR) methods in teaching.	4.01	2.95	3.53	1.07
Create opportunities for students to practice their oral English.	4.41	3.74	4.11	0.67
Create opportunities for students to practice their written English.	4.33	3.71	4.05	0.62
Tap into student's prior knowledge.	4.60	3.67	4.18	0.93
Use realia (real--life) objects as a teaching strategy.	4.59	3.74	4.20	0.84
Establish opportunities for students to speak to reinforce learning.	4.51	3.91	4.24	0.60
Scaffold instruction to help students understand concepts.	4.47	3.71	4.13	0.76
Incorporate student's responses into lessons.	4.40	3.67	4.07	0.73
Use a variety of technologies to assist in student's understanding.	4.46	3.66	4.09	0.80
Develop an understanding and sensitivity that appreciates differences as well as similarities.	4.34	3.66	4.03	0.69
Encourage students to use their native language.	3.61	2.57	3.14	1.05
Use a variety of vocabulary strategies in lessons.	4.37	3.66	4.05	0.72

Provide appropriate wait time for students to respond.	4.83	3.90	4.41	0.93
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**Table A4 ESL Certification and Efficacy Beliefs**

**Group Statistics**

	Type of Certification - ESL Endorsement	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge.	.00	54	4.1667	1.29949	.17684
	YES	31	4.7742	.99028	.17786
Encourage students to use their native language.	.00	54	3.5926	1.43433	.19519
	YES	32	4.3750	1.38541	.24491
Tap into student's prior knowledge.	.00	54	4.5370	1.12791	.15349
	YES	32	5.0625	.75935	.13424
Use a variety of vocabulary strategies in lessons.	.00	54	4.2963	1.25337	.17056
	YES	32	4.9688	.96668	.17089
Incorporate total physical response (TPR) methods in teaching.	.00	54	3.9259	1.43871	.19578
	YES	32	4.8125	1.06066	.18750
Establish opportunities for students to interact.	.00	54	4.8333	1.02331	.13926
	YES	32	5.3125	.73780	.13043
Establish opportunities for students to speak to reinforce learning.	.00	53	4.6604	1.10842	.15225
	YES	32	5.1250	.97551	.17245
Adjust the speed of English speech delivery.	.00	54	4.2593	1.21601	.16548
	YES	32	4.9375	.71561	.12650
Provide oral directions that are clear and appropriate.	.00	54	4.6111	.97935	.13327
	YES	32	5.2188	.70639	.12487
Create opportunities for students to practice their oral English.	.00	54	4.6296	1.10396	.15023
	YES	31	5.1290	.84624	.15199
Create opportunities for students to practice their written English.	.00	54	4.2593	1.29127	.17572
	YES	32	5.0625	.91361	.16150

Scaffold instruction to help students understand concepts.	.00 YES	54 31	4.4630 4.9355	1.14452 .92864	.15575 .16679
Provide appropriate wait time for students to respond.	.00 YES	54 31	4.5556 5.0968	1.12714 .90755	.15338 .16300
Provide appropriate accommodations based on student's language proficiency.	.00 YES	53 31	4.2075 4.7419	1.19869 1.03175	.16465 .18531

### Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge.	Equal variances assumed	4.301	.041	-2.252	83	<b>.027</b>	-.60753	.26972	-1.14400	-.07106
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.422	76.380	<b>.018</b>	-.60753	.25081	-1.10702	-.10804
Encourage students to use their native language.	Equal variances assumed	.333	.565	-2.476	84	<b>.015</b>	-.78241	.31600	-1.41081	-.15401
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.498	67.063	<b>.015</b>	-.78241	.31317	-1.40749	-.15732
Tap into student's prior knowledge.	Equal variances assumed	5.217	.025	-2.337	84	<b>.022</b>	-.52546	.22481	-.97252	-.07840
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.577	82.533	<b>.012</b>	-.52546	.20391	-.93106	-.11987
Use a variety of vocabulary strategies in	Equal variances assumed	4.839	.031	-2.608	84	<b>.011</b>	-.67245	.25786	-1.18524	-.15967

lessons.	Equal variances not assumed			-2.785	78.160	<b>.007</b>	-.67245	.24144	-1.15311	-.19180
Incorporate total physical response (TPR) methods in teaching.	Equal variances assumed	4.205	.043	-3.029	84	<b>.003</b>	-.88657	.29268	-1.46860	-.30455
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.270	79.897	<b>.002</b>	-.88657	.27109	-1.42606	-.34709
Establish opportunities for students to interact.	Equal variances assumed	.753	.388	-2.314	84	<b>.023</b>	-.47917	.20708	-.89096	-.06737
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.511	80.656	<b>.014</b>	-.47917	.19080	-.85882	-.09952
Establish opportunities for students to speak to reinforce learning.	Equal variances assumed	1.025	.314	-1.957	83	<b>.054</b>	-.46462	.23747	-.93693	.00769
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.020	72.062	<b>.047</b>	-.46462	.23004	-.92319	-.00605
Adjust the speed of English speech delivery.	Equal variances assumed	10.960	.001	-2.870	84	<b>.005</b>	-.67824	.23630	-1.14815	-.20833
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.256	84.000	<b>.002</b>	-.67824	.20829	-1.09245	-.26403
Provide oral directions that are clear and appropriate.	Equal variances assumed	2.550	.114	-3.066	84	<b>.003</b>	-.60764	.19820	-1.00178	-.21350
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.327	80.643	<b>.001</b>	-.60764	.18263	-.97105	-.24423
Create opportunities for students to practice their oral English.	Equal variances assumed	3.238	.076	-2.176	83	<b>.032</b>	-.49940	.22947	-.95582	-.04299
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.337	76.125	<b>.022</b>	-.49940	.21371	-.92502	-.07378
Create opportunities for students to	Equal variances assumed	6.064	.016	-3.087	84	<b>.003</b>	-.80324	.26017	-1.32062	-.28586



practice their written English.	Equal variances not assumed			-3.366	81.244	<b>.001</b>	-.80324	.23866	-1.27809	-.32839
Scaffold instruction to help students understand concepts.	Equal variances assumed	3.099	.082	-1.957	83	<b>.054</b>	-.47252	.24145	-.95276	.00772
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.071	73.498	<b>.042</b>	-.47252	.22820	-.92727	-.01777
Provide appropriate wait time for students to respond.	Equal variances assumed	3.394	.069	-2.281	83	<b>.025</b>	-.54122	.23729	-1.01319	-.06925
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.418	73.867	<b>.018</b>	-.54122	.22382	-.98721	-.09523
Provide appropriate accommodations based on student's language proficiency.	Equal variances assumed	1.908	.171	-2.072	82	<b>.041</b>	-.53439	.25787	-1.04737	-.02140
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.156	70.660	<b>.035</b>	-.53439	.24789	-1.02871	-.04007
Note: Bolded Items show statistical significance at the P-value of .005.										

**Table A5 Professional Development Experience and Efficacy Beliefs**

**Independent Samples T-Test**

**Group Statistics**

	ELL PD	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge.	1.00	42	4.0476	1.37845	.21270
	2.00	26	4.8077	1.13205	.22201
Include student's home cultures into the classroom.	1.00	42	3.8571	1.31727	.20326
	2.00	27	4.6296	1.18153	.22739
Tap into student's prior knowledge.	1.00	42	4.4762	1.21451	.18740
	2.00	27	5.0000	.78446	.15097
Use realia (real--life) objects as a teaching strategy.	1.00	42	4.4048	1.30775	.20179
	2.00	27	5.1481	.81824	.15747
Incorporate total physical response (TPR) methods in teaching.	1.00	42	3.8333	1.51282	.23343
	2.00	27	4.6296	1.11452	.21449

Establish opportunities for students to interact.	1.00	42	4.7619	1.10010	.16975
	2.00	27	5.2963	.77533	.14921
Adjust the speed of English speech delivery.	1.00	42	4.1429	1.18056	.18216
	2.00	27	4.8889	1.08604	.20901
Provide oral directions that are clear and appropriate.	1.00	42	4.5952	1.10563	.17060
	2.00	27	5.0741	.72991	.14047
Create opportunities for students to practice their oral English.	1.00	42	4.5476	1.17291	.18098
	2.00	27	5.0741	.91676	.17643
Create opportunities for students to practice their written English.	1.00	42	4.2381	1.44508	.22298
	2.00	27	4.9259	1.03500	.19919
Scaffold instruction to help students understand concepts.	1.00	42	4.3810	1.28694	.19858
	2.00	26	5.0385	.87090	.17080
Use a variety of hands-on activities.	1.00	42	4.6190	1.18841	.18338
	2.00	26	5.1923	.80096	.15708
	2.00	26	4.2308	1.33589	.26199

### Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means								
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge.	Equal variances assumed	2.094	.153	-2.360	66	.021	-.76007	.32207	-1.40311	-.11703
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.472	60.748	.016	-.76007	.30746	-1.37493	-.14522
Include student's home cultures into the classroom.	Equal variances assumed	.650	.423	-2.473	67	.016	-.77249	.31236	-1.39597	-.14900
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.533	59.899	.014	-.77249	.30499	-1.38258	-.16240
Tap into student's prior knowledge.	Equal variances assumed	5.845	.018	-1.988	67	.051	-.52381	.26354	-1.04983	.00222

	Equal variances not assumed			-2.177	66.991	<b>.033</b>	-.52381	.24065	-1.00415	-.04347
Use realia (real--life) objects as a teaching strategy.	Equal variances assumed	5.142	.027	-2.637	67	<b>.010</b>	-.74339	.28194	-1.30613	-.18064
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.904	66.974	<b>.005</b>	-.74339	.25596	-1.25429	-.23248
Incorporate total physical response (TPR) methods in teaching.	Equal variances assumed	3.440	.068	-2.353	67	<b>.022</b>	-.79630	.33845	-1.47184	-.12076
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.512	65.656	<b>.014</b>	-.79630	.31701	-1.42929	-.16330
Establish opportunities for students to interact.	Equal variances assumed	1.291	.260	-2.195	67	<b>.032</b>	-.53439	.24343	-1.02027	-.04851
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.364	66.361	<b>.021</b>	-.53439	.22601	-.98558	-.08320
Adjust the speed of English speech delivery.	Equal variances assumed	1.545	.218	-2.642	67	<b>.010</b>	-.74603	.28239	-1.30969	-.18238
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.691	58.937	<b>.009</b>	-.74603	.27725	-1.30082	-.19124
Provide oral directions that are clear and appropriate.	Equal variances assumed	5.665	.020	-1.987	67	<b>.051</b>	-.47884	.24103	-.95993	.00226
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.167	66.928	<b>.034</b>	-.47884	.22099	-.91995	-.03773
Create opportunities for students to practice their oral English.	Equal variances assumed	3.902	.052	-1.975	67	<b>.052</b>	-.52646	.26659	-1.05857	.00566
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.083	64.334	<b>.041</b>	-.52646	.25275	-1.03133	-.02158

Create opportunities for students to practice their written English.	Equal variances assumed	5.012	.029	-2.143	67	<b>.036</b>	-.68783	.32101	-1.32858	-.04709
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.301	66.134	<b>.025</b>	-.68783	.29899	-1.28476	-.09090
Scaffold instruction to help students understand concepts.	Equal variances assumed	5.362	.024	-2.297	66	<b>.025</b>	-.65751	.28628	-1.22909	-.08593
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.510	65.401	<b>.015</b>	-.65751	.26193	-1.18055	-.13447
Use a variety of hands-on activities.	Equal variances assumed	3.890	.053	-2.170	66	<b>.034</b>	-.57326	.26413	-1.10062	-.04590
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.374	65.451	<b>.021</b>	-.57326	.24146	-1.05542	-.09110
Note: Bolded Items show statistical significance at the P-value of .005.										

**Table A6 Bilingual in Second Language and Perception Items  
Independent Samples T-Test**

**Group Statistics**

Are you bilingual in another language?		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge.	YES	32	3.7813	1.40814	.24893
	.00	109	3.1651	1.37783	.13197
Incorporate cultural values into the curriculum.	YES	32	3.9063	1.37628	.24329
	.00	109	3.3761	1.37295	.13150
Include student's home cultures into the classroom.	YES	32	3.9688	1.46979	.25982
	.00	109	3.1651	1.45624	.13948
Encourage students to use their native language.	YES	32	4.0000	1.70389	.30121
	.00	109	2.8257	1.49595	.14329
Create opportunities for students to practice their written English.	YES	32	4.5313	1.41386	.24994
	.00	109	3.8991	1.45262	.13914
Encourage students to respond using higher order questioning.	YES	32	4.5625	1.36636	.24154
	.00	109	4.0183	1.36070	.13033

### Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge.	Equal variances assumed	.133	.716	2.213	139	<b>.029</b>	.61611	.27839	.06568	1.16655
	Equal variances not assumed			2.187	49.747	<b>.033</b>	.61611	.28175	.05014	1.18209
Incorporate cultural values into the curriculum.	Equal variances assumed	.005	.944	1.919	139	<b>.057</b>	.53010	.27619	-.01598	1.07618
	Equal variances not assumed			1.917	50.522	<b>.061</b>	.53010	.27656	-.02524	1.08545
Include student's home cultures into the classroom.	Equal variances assumed	.000	.985	2.739	139	<b>.007</b>	.80361	.29340	.22351	1.38371
	Equal variances not assumed			2.725	50.245	<b>.009</b>	.80361	.29490	.21137	1.39586
Encourage students to use their native language.	Equal variances assumed	2.58	.110	3.781	139	<b>.000</b>	1.17431	.31058	.56023	1.78839
	Equal variances not assumed			3.521	45.942	<b>.001</b>	1.17431	.33355	.50289	1.84574
Create opportunities for students to practice their written English.	Equal variances assumed	.219	.641	2.177	139	<b>.031</b>	.63217	.29034	.05811	1.20622
	Equal variances not assumed			2.210	51.764	<b>.032</b>	.63217	.28605	.05809	1.20624
Encourage students to respond using higher order	Equal variances assumed	.148	.701	1.987	139	<b>.049</b>	.54415	.27383	.00273	1.08557

questioning.	Equal variances not assumed		1.983	50.452	<b>.053</b>	.54415	.27446	-.00699	1.09530
Note: Bolded Items show statistical significance at the P-value of .005.									

**Table A7 Bilingual in Second Language and Efficacy Items**

**Independent Samples T-Test**

**Group Statistics**

	Are you bilingual in another language?	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge.	YES	23	5.1739	.77765	.16215
	.00	62	4.0968	1.23752	.15717
Develop an understanding and sensitivity that appreciates differences as well as similarities.	YES	23	5.2174	.79524	.16582
	.00	63	4.6508	1.09484	.13794
Incorporate cultural values into the curriculum.	YES	23	5.2174	.73587	.15344
	.00	63	4.0159	1.14289	.14399
Include student's home cultures into the classroom.	YES	23	5.2609	.75181	.15676
	.00	63	3.7937	1.16617	.14692
Develop relationships with families.	YES	23	4.9130	.99604	.20769
	.00	63	4.2063	1.25927	.15865
Engage families in educational experiences of their students.	YES	23	4.5217	1.23838	.25822
	.00	63	3.9524	1.26272	.15909
Encourage students to use their native language.	YES	23	4.8696	1.25424	.26153
	.00	63	3.5238	1.36615	.17212
Tap into student's prior knowledge.	YES	23	5.3043	.63495	.13240
	.00	63	4.5238	1.07549	.13550
Use realia (real--life) objects as a teaching strategy.	YES	23	5.2609	.75181	.15676
	.00	63	4.5714	1.17383	.14789
Help students connect new knowledge to prior experiences.	YES	23	5.3913	.65638	.13686
	.00	62	4.6290	1.08995	.13842
Use a variety of vocabulary strategies in lessons.	YES	23	5.0000	1.08711	.22668
	.00	63	4.3810	1.19715	.15083
Use a variety of technologies to assist in student's understanding.	YES	23	5.1739	.88688	.18493
	.00	63	4.4127	1.13073	.14246
Establish opportunities for students to interact.	YES	23	5.4348	.58977	.12298

	.00	63	4.8571	1.01373	.12772
Establish opportunities for students to speak to reinforce learning.	YES .00	23 62	5.3043 4.6613	.70290 1.14439	.14657 .14534
Adjust the speed of English speech delivery.	YES .00	23 63	4.9130 4.3651	1.20276 1.03646	.25079 .13058
Model appropriate English use.	YES .00	23 62	5.3913 4.8387	.65638 1.16216	.13686 .14759
Provide oral directions that are clear and appropriate.	YES .00	23 63	5.3043 4.6667	.63495 .96720	.13240 .12186
Create opportunities for students to practice their written English.	YES .00	23 63	5.1304 4.3492	1.05763 1.22024	.22053 .15374
Encourage all students to elaborate on their responses.	YES .00	23 63	5.1739 4.5556	.83406 1.21520	.17391 .15310
Scaffold instruction to help students understand concepts.	YES .00	23 62	5.0870 4.4677	.84816 1.12669	.17685 .14309
Encourage students to respond using higher order questioning.	YES .00	23 62	5.0000 4.3710	1.04447 1.20428	.21779 .15294

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means								
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Develop a deep sense of cultural knowledge.	Equal variances assumed	4.144	.045	3.891	83	.000	1.07714	.27685	.52650	1.62778
	Equal variances not assumed			4.770	62.772	.000	1.07714	.22582	.62584	1.52843
Develop an understanding and sensitivity that appreciates differences as well as similarities.	Equal variances assumed	2.514	.117	2.269	84	.026	.56660	.24968	.07008	1.06311
	Equal variances not assumed			2.627	53.834	.011	.56660	.21569	.13413	.99906
Incorporate cultural values into the curriculum.	Equal variances assumed	2.744	.101	4.690	84	.000	1.20152	.25620	.69204	1.71100

	Equal variances not assumed			5.710	61.018	.000	1.20152	.21042	.78076	1.62228
Include student's home cultures into the classroom.	Equal variances assumed	7.459	.008	5.612	84	.000	1.46722	.26146	.94728	1.98716
	Equal variances not assumed			6.829	60.940	.000	1.46722	.21485	1.0375	1.89685
Develop relationships with families.	Equal variances assumed	3.256	.075	2.426	84	.017	.70669	.29136	.12730	1.28609
	Equal variances not assumed			2.704	49.220	.009	.70669	.26135	.18154	1.23184
Engage families in educational experiences of their students.	Equal variances assumed	.002	.963	1.860	84	.066	.56936	.30608	-.03932	1.17804
	Equal variances not assumed			1.877	39.834	.068	.56936	.30329	-.04370	1.18242
Encourage students to use their native language.	Equal variances assumed	2.332	.130	4.129	84	.000	1.34576	.32590	.69766	1.99385
	Equal variances not assumed			4.298	42.365	.000	1.34576	.31308	.71409	1.97742
Tap into student's prior knowledge.	Equal variances assumed	3.739	.057	3.271	84	.002	.78054	.23862	.30602	1.25505
	Equal variances not assumed			4.120	66.381	.000	.78054	.18944	.40234	1.15873
Use realia (real-life) objects as a teaching strategy.	Equal variances assumed	2.223	.140	2.622	84	.010	.68944	.26296	.16652	1.21236
	Equal variances not assumed			3.199	61.344	.002	.68944	.21551	.25855	1.12034
Help students connect new knowledge to prior	Equal variances assumed	2.574	.112	3.142	83	.002	.76227	.24259	.27977	1.24478



experiences.	Equal variances not assumed			3.916	65.362	<b>.000</b>	.76227	.19466	.37355	1.15100
Use a variety of vocabulary strategies in lessons.	Equal variances assumed	2.373	.127	2.173	84	<b>.033</b>	.61905	.28488	.05254	1.18555
	Equal variances not assumed			2.274	42.814	<b>.028</b>	.61905	.27227	.06989	1.16821
Use a variety of technologies to assist in student's understanding.	Equal variances assumed	2.502	.117	2.914	84	<b>.005</b>	.76121	.26122	.24175	1.28068
	Equal variances not assumed			3.261	49.654	<b>.002</b>	.76121	.23344	.29226	1.23017
Establish opportunities for students to interact.	Equal variances assumed	1.356	.248	2.572	84	<b>.012</b>	.57764	.22455	.13109	1.02419
	Equal variances not assumed			3.258	67.280	<b>.002</b>	.57764	.17730	.22378	.93150
Establish opportunities for students to speak to reinforce learning.	Equal variances assumed	3.759	.056	2.519	83	<b>.014</b>	.64306	.25530	.13528	1.15084
	Equal variances not assumed			3.115	64.163	<b>.003</b>	.64306	.20641	.23073	1.05539
Adjust the speed of English speech delivery.	Equal variances assumed	.002	.961	2.078	84	<b>.041</b>	.54796	.26372	.02353	1.07239
	Equal variances not assumed			1.938	34.642	<b>.061</b>	.54796	.28275	-.02627	1.12219
Model appropriate English use.	Equal variances assumed	2.600	.111	2.151	83	<b>.034</b>	.55259	.25685	.04172	1.06347
	Equal variances not assumed			2.745	69.180	<b>.008</b>	.55259	.20129	.15106	.95413
Provide oral directions that are clear and	Equal variances assumed	1.583	.212	2.934	84	<b>.004</b>	.63768	.21737	.20543	1.06994

appropriate.	Equal variances not assumed			3.544	59.827	<b>.001</b>	.63768	.17994	.27773	.99763
Create opportunities for students to practice their written English.	Equal variances assumed	1.803	.183	2.718	84	<b>.008</b>	.78123	.28743	.20964	1.35281
	Equal variances not assumed			2.906	44.822	<b>.006</b>	.78123	.26883	.23972	1.32274
Encourage all students to elaborate on their responses.	Equal variances assumed	4.168	.044	2.250	84	<b>.027</b>	.61836	.27478	.07193	1.16478
	Equal variances not assumed			2.669	57.136	<b>.010</b>	.61836	.23170	.15441	1.08231
Scaffold instruction to help students understand concepts.	Equal variances assumed	2.223	.140	2.393	83	<b>.019</b>	.61921	.25880	.10447	1.13395
	Equal variances not assumed			2.722	52.169	<b>.009</b>	.61921	.22749	.16276	1.07567
Encourage students to respond using higher order questioning.	Equal variances assumed	2.484	.119	2.213	83	<b>.030</b>	.62903	.28420	.06377	1.19430
	Equal variances not assumed			2.364	45.095	<b>.022</b>	.62903	.26613	.09306	1.16500

Note: Bolded Items show statistical significance at the P-value of .005.

**Table A8 Beginner, Advanced, and Advanced-High Proficiency Levels and ELL Certification**

**Independent Samples T-Test**

**Group Statistics**

	Ellcert	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
<b>ProfLevBeg</b>	.00	49	3.4490	1.40032	.20005
	1.00	37	4.1622	1.16699	.19185

### Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
<b>Prof Lev Beg</b>	Equal variances assumed	3.887	.052	-2.508	84	<b>.014</b>	-.71318	.28432	-1.27858	-.14778
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.573	83.133	<b>.012</b>	-.71318	.27717	-1.26446	-.16191

Note: Bolded Items show statistical significance at the P-value of .005.

### Group Statistics

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
<b>ProfLev</b>	.00	49	4.3265	1.12524	.16075
<b>Adv</b>	1.00	37	4.9459	.88021	.14471

### Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper

									Lower	Upper
<b>Prof Lev Adv</b>	Equal variances assumed	4.793	.031	-2.768	84	<b>.007</b>	-.61942	.22377	-1.06440	-.17443
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.864	83.876	<b>.005</b>	-.61942	.21629	-1.04953	-.18930

Note: Bolded Items show statistical significance at the P-value of .005.

### Group Statistics

	Ellcert	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
<b>ProfLevAdv High</b>	.00	48	4.4375	1.14680	.16553
	1.00	37	5.0541	.94122	.15473

### Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
<b>ProfLev Adv High</b>	Equal variances assumed	2.384	.126	-2.652	83	<b>.010</b>	-.61655	.23245	-1.07889	-.15422
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.721	82.64	<b>.008</b>	-.61655	.22659	-1.06726	-.16585

Note: Bolded Items show statistical significance at the P-value of .005.



OFFICE OF RESEARCH SUPPORT

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**Appendix B**  
**University IRB Letter**

FWA # 00002030

Date: **03/04/11**

PI(s): **Yune K Tran**

Department & Mail Code:

Title: **Perceptions of Teachers' Preparation for English Language Learners**

IRB EXPEDITED APPROVAL: IRB Protocol # **2011-01-0040**

Dear: **Yune K Tran**

In accordance with the Federal Regulations the Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed the above referenced research study and found it met the requirements for approval under the Expedited category noted below for the following period of time: **03/04/2011- 03/03/2012**. Expires 12 a.m. [midnight] of this date.

Expedited category of approval:

- (1)** Clinical studies of drugs and medical devices only when condition (a) or (b) is met. (a) Research on drugs for which an investigational new drug application (21 CFR Part 312) is not required. (Note: Research on marketed drugs that significantly increases the risks or decreases the acceptability of the risks associated with the use of the product is not eligible for expedited review). (b) Research on medical devices for which (i) an investigational device exemption application (21 CFR Part 812) is not required; or (ii) the medical device is cleared/approved for marketing and the medical device is being used in accordance with its cleared/approved labeling.
  
- (2)** Collection of blood samples by finger stick, heel stick, ear stick, or venipuncture as follows: (a) from healthy, non-pregnant adults who weigh at least 110 pounds. For these subjects, the amounts drawn

may not exceed 550 ml in an 8 week period and collection may not occur more frequently than 2 times per week; or (b) from other adults and children<sup>2</sup>, considering the age, weight, and health of the subjects, the collection procedure, the amount of blood to

be collected, and the frequency with which it will be collected. For these subjects, the amount drawn may not exceed the lesser of 50 ml or 3 ml per kg in an

8 week period and collection may not occur more frequently than 2 times per week.



**(3)** Prospective collection of biological specimens for research purposes by Non-invasive means. Examples:

- (a) hair and nail clippings in a non-disfiguring manner;
- (b) deciduous teeth at time of exfoliation or if routine patient care indicates a need for extraction; (c) permanent teeth if routine patient care indicates a need for extraction;
- (d) excreta and external secretions (including sweat);
- (e) uncannulated saliva collected either in an un-stimulated fashion or stimulated by chewing gumbase or wax or by applying a dilute citric solution to the tongue;
- (f) placenta removed at delivery;
- (g) amniotic fluid obtained at the time of rupture of the membrane prior to or during labor;
- (h) supra- and subgingival dental plaque and calculus, provided the collection procedure is not more invasive than routine prophylactic scaling of the teeth and the Process is accomplished in accordance with accepted prophylactic techniques;
- (i) mucosal and skin cells collected by buccal scraping or swab, skin swab, or mouth washings; (j) sputum collected after saline mist nebulization.



**(4)** Collection of data through noninvasive procedures (not involving general anesthesia or sedation) routinely employed in clinical practice, excluding procedures involving x-rays or microwaves. Where medical devices are employed, they must be cleared/approved for marketing. (Studies intended to evaluate the safety and effectiveness of the medical device are not generally eligible for expedited review, including studies of cleared medical devices for new indications).

Examples:

- (a) physical sensors that are applied either to the surface of the body or at a distance and do not involve input of significant amounts of energy into the subject or an invasion of the subject's privacy;
- (b) weighing or testing sensory acuity;
- (c) magnetic resonance imaging;

(d) electrocardiography, electroencephalography, thermography, detection of naturally occurring radioactivity, electroretinography, ultrasound, diagnostic infrared imaging, doppler blood flow, and echocardiography;

(e) moderate exercise, muscular strength testing, body composition assessment, and flexibility testing where appropriate given the age, weight, and health of the individual.

- (5)** Research involving materials (data, documents, records, or specimens) that have been collected, or will be collected solely for non-research purposes (such as medical treatment or diagnosis). (NOTE: Some research in this category may be exempt from the HHS regulations for the protection of human subjects. 45 CFR 46.101(b)(4). This listing refers only to research that is not exempt).
- X(6)** Collection of data from voice, video, digital, or image recordings made for research purposes.
- X(7)** Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies. (NOTE: Some research in this category may be exempt from the HHS regulations for the protection of human subjects. 45 CFR 46.101(b)(2) and (b)(3). This listing refers only to research that is not exempt).
- X** Use the attached approved informed consent.
- X** You have been granted a Waiver of Documentation of Consent according to 45 CFR 46.117 and/or 21 CFR 56.109(c)(1).
- X** You have been granted a Waiver of Informed Consent according to 45 CFR 46.116(d).

**Responsibilities of the Principal Investigator:**

1. Report immediately to the IRB any unanticipated problems.
2. Ensure the proposed changes in the approved research during the IRB approval period will not be applied without IRB review and approval, except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subject. Changes in approved research implemented without IRB review and approval initiated to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subject must be promptly reported to the IRB, and will be reviewed under the unanticipated problems policy to determine whether the change was consistent with ensuring the subjects continued welfare.
3. Report any significant findings that become known in the course of the research that might affect the willingness of subjects to continue to participate.

4. Ensure that only persons formally approved by the IRB enroll subjects.
5. Use only a currently approved consent form (remember that approval periods are for 12 months or less)
6. Protect the confidentiality of all persons and personally identifiable data, and train your staff and collaborators on policies and procedures for ensuring the privacy and confidentiality of subjects and their information.
7. Submit for review and approval by the IRB all modifications to the protocol or consent form(s) prior to the implementation of the change.
8. Submit a Continuing Review Application for continuing review by the IRB. Federal regulations require IRB review of on-going projects no less than once a year (a Continuing Review Application and a reminder letter will be sent to you two months before your expiration date). If a reminder is not received from Office of Research Support (ORS) about your upcoming continuing review, it is still the primary responsibility of the Principal Investigator not to conduct research activities on or after the expiration date. The Continuing Review Application must be submitted, reviewed and approved, before the expiration date.
9. Upon completion of the research study, a Closure Report must be submitted to the ORS.
10. Include the IRB study number on all future correspondence relating to this protocol. If you have any questions call or contact the ORS (Mail Code A3200) or via e-mail at [orssc@uts.cc.utexas.edu](mailto:orssc@uts.cc.utexas.edu).

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Jody L. Jensen". The signature is fluid and cursive, with the first name "Jody" being the most prominent part.

Jody L. Jensen, Ph.D.  
Professor

Chair, Institutional Review Board



**Appendix C**  
**Survey Questionnaire**

**Perceptions of Teachers' Preparation for Teaching English Language Learners**

Demographic Information:

Please indicate the following that best describes you.

1. Age:
  - a. < 25
  - b. 25-34
  - c. 35-44
  - d. 45-54
  - e. 55+
  
2. Gender:
  - a. Female
  - b. Male
  
3. Ethnicity:
  - a. Caucasian/White
  - b. African-American
  - c. Hispanic
  - d. Asian or Pacific Islander
  - e. Native American
  - f. Other: (please specify)\_\_\_\_\_
  
4. Teaching Certification:
  - a. \_\_\_ University-Based Traditional Undergraduate Program:  
\_\_\_ Univ of Texas at Austin  
\_\_\_ Texas State University  
\_\_\_ Southwestern University  
\_\_\_ Concordia University  
\_\_\_ St. Edward's University  
\_\_\_ Huston-Tillotson University  
\_\_\_ Univ of Texas at San Antonio  
Other: \_\_\_\_\_
  
  - b. \_\_\_ University-Based Post-Baccalaureate/Masters Program:  
\_\_\_ Univ of Texas at Austin  
\_\_\_ Texas State University  
\_\_\_ Concordia University  
\_\_\_ St. Edward's University  
\_\_\_ Huston-Tillotson University  
\_\_\_ Univ of Texas at San Antonio  
Other: \_\_\_\_\_

- c. \_\_\_ Alternative Certification:  
     \_\_\_ Region XIII ESC ACP  
     \_\_\_ Austin Community College  
     Other: \_\_\_\_\_
5. Do you hold an ESL Endorsement on your Teacher Certification?  
 a. YES  
 b. NO
6. In your certification program, did you study a second or foreign language?  
 a. YES If yes, please indicate how many semesters \_\_\_\_\_  
 b. NO
7. Please indicate your teaching experience:  
 a. New to profession (less than one year)  
 b. 1 – 2 years  
 c. 3 – 4 years  
 d. 5 years  
 e. More than 5 years
8. Please classify your main assignment and/or role at the school:  
 a. Regular teacher  
 b. Other staff who teach regularly scheduled classes (i.e.: administrator, library, media specialist, support staff, counselor, other support staff)  
 Please specify: \_\_\_\_\_
9. School instructional level:  
 a. Elementary school (K-5)  
 b. Middle school (6-8)  
 c. High school (9-12)  
 d. Other: \_\_\_\_\_
10. Indicate whether you are a general-education or content-area area teacher (If content area, please specify content)  
 a. General-Ed  
 b. Content-Area (Please specify): \_\_\_\_\_
11. What best describes the way YOUR classes at THIS school are organized (Check one only).  
 a. Self-contained class ( You teach multiple subjects to the same class of students all or most of the day)  
 b. Team-teaching in a regular setting (You collaborate with one or more teachers in teaching one subject to more than one class of students).  
 c. Team-teaching in a cluster setting (You collaborate with one or more teachers in teaching multiple subjects to more than one class of students).  
 d. Departmentalized instruction (You teach subject matter courses (i.e. math, chemistry, history,) to several classes of different students all or most of the day).

12. School enrollment size:
  - a. Less than 300
  - b. 301 to 500
  - c. 501 to 700
  - d. 701 to 1000
  - e. 1,000 or more
  
13. School locale
  - a. Urban
  - b. Suburban (predominantly economically disadvantaged and/or minority)
  - c. Suburban (predominantly not economically disadvantaged and/or predominantly White)
  - d. Rural/small town
  - e. Small suburban
  
14. Percent of students identified as English Language Learners (ELLs)
  - a. Less than 5 percent
  - b. 6 to 10 percent
  - c. 11 to 20 percent
  - d. 21 to 39 percent
  - e. 40 to 59 percent
  - f. 60 or more percent
  
15. Percent of economically disadvantaged students (participating in the free-/reduced-price lunch program)
  - a. Less than 5 percent
  - b. 6 to 10 percent
  - c. 11 to 20 percent
  - d. 21 to 39 percent
  - e. 40 to 59 percent
  - f. 60 to 79 more percent
  - g. 80 to 90 percent
  - h. More than 90%
  
16. ELL/ESL Training: In your teaching preparation program and/or credential program, have you taken courses related to ELL/ESL students such as Multicultural Education, Second Language Acquisition, Bilingual Teaching, ESL Methods?
  - a. YES If yes, please specify how many courses and the names?
  - b. NO
  
17. Please indicate the amount of ESL/ELL training that you have received as professional development in addition to your teaching preparation program and/or credential program:
  - a. None
  - b. Less than 8 clock hours
  - c. Between 8 and 16 clock hours
  - d. More than 2 days up to 5 days
  - e. More than 5 days up to 10 days
  - f. More than 10 days

18. During your teaching preparation program and/or credential program, indicate how you feel that you were prepared in each of the following areas in working with ELLs by circling the most appropriate corresponding number.

<b>1 = Not at all prepared</b>	<b>2 = Somewhat prepared</b>	<b>3 = Prepared</b>	<b>4 = Fairly well prepared</b>	<b>5 = Well prepared</b>	<b>6 = Very well prepared</b>
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<b>I feel that my teaching preparation has enabled me to:</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>Cultural Practices</b>						
1. Define "culture."						
2. Acknowledge different cultures.						
3. Incorporate cultural values into the curriculum.						
4. Encourage students to use their native language.						
5. Include student's home culture into the classroom.						
6. Engage families in educational experiences.						
<b>Teaching Strategies</b>						
7. Tap into student's prior knowledge.						
8. Use <i>realia</i> (real-life) objects as a teaching strategy.						
9. Help students connect new knowledge to prior experiences.						
10. Use a variety of vocabulary strategies in lessons.						
11. Use visuals, nonverbal cues, demonstrations, and graphic aids as teaching tools.						
12. Use a variety of technologies.						
13. Incorporate total physical response (TPR) methods in teaching						
<b>Teaching Practices</b>						
14. Establish opportunities for students to interact.						
15. Establish opportunities for students to speak to reinforce learning.						
16. Adjust the speed of English speech delivery.						
17. Model appropriate English use.						
18. Provide oral directions that are clear and appropriate.						
19. Create opportunities for students to practice their oral English.						
20. Create opportunities for students to practice their written English.						
21. Encourage students to elaborate on their responses.						
22. Scaffold instruction to help students understand concepts.						
23. Use a variety of hands-on activities.						
24. Make content comprehensible for all students.						
25. Incorporate student's responses into lessons.						
26. Provide appropriate wait time for students to respond.						
27. Encourage students to respond using higher order questioning.						
<b>Assessment Practices</b>						
28. Provide appropriate accommodations (including technology) based on student's language proficiency.						
29. Provide various formats of assessments (including technology) according to student intelligences.						
30. Engage in a variety of technologies to assist in student's understanding.						

19. In the specific areas of teaching and working with ELLs in your current role, please indicate how effective you feel in each one.

<b>1 = Very ineffective</b>	<b>2 = Ineffective</b>	<b>3 = Somewhat ineffective</b>	<b>4 = Somewhat effective</b>	<b>5 = Effective</b>	<b>6 = Very effective</b>
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<b>How effective do you feel in the following?</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>Cultural Practices</b>						
1. Defining "culture."						
2. Acknowledging different cultures.						
3. Incorporating cultural values into the curriculum.						
4. Encouraging students to use their native language.						
5. Including student's home culture into the classroom.						
6. Engaging families in educational experiences.						
<b>Teaching Strategies</b>						
7. Tapping into student's prior knowledge.						
8. Using <i>realia</i> (real-life objects) as a teaching strategy.						
9. Helping students connect new knowledge to prior experiences.						
10. Using a variety of vocabulary strategies in lessons.						
11. Using visuals, nonverbal cues, demonstrations, and graphic aids as teaching tools.						
12. Using a variety of technologies.						
13. Incorporating total physical response (TPR) methods in teaching						
<b>Teaching Practices</b>						
14. Establishing opportunities for students to interact.						
15. Establishing opportunities for students to speak to reinforce learning.						
16. Adjusting the speed of English speech delivery.						
17. Modeling appropriate English use.						
18. Providing oral directions that are clear and appropriate.						
19. Creating opportunities for students to practice their oral English.						
20. Creating opportunities for students to practice their written English.						
21. Encouraging students to elaborate on their responses.						
22. Scaffolding instruction to help students understand concepts.						
23. Using a variety of hands-on activities.						
24. Making content comprehensible for all students.						
25. Incorporating student's responses into lessons.						
26. Providing appropriate wait time for students to respond.						
27. Encouraging students to respond using higher order questioning.						
<b>Assessment Practices</b>						
28. Providing appropriate accommodations based on student's language proficiency.						
29. Providing various formats of assessments according to student intelligences.						
30. Engaging in a variety of technologies to assist in student's understanding.						

20. Please indicate how effective you feel in establishing instructional decisions for ELLs' varied proficiencies and language domains indicated below.

<b>1 = Very ineffective</b>	<b>2 = Ineffective</b>	<b>3 = Somewhat ineffective</b>	<b>4 = Somewhat effective</b>	<b>5 = Effective</b>	<b>6 = Very effective</b>
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<b>How effective do you feel in the following?</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>Planning Instruction Based on Students' Language Proficiencies</b>						
Beginning						
Intermediate						
Advanced						
Advanced High						
<b>Planning Instruction Based on Students' Language Domains</b>						
Listening						
Speaking						
Reading						
Writing						

21. Overall, please indicate how effective you feel in your current knowledge, skills, and abilities in working with ELLs:

- a. Very ineffective
- b. Somewhat ineffective
- c. Ineffective
- d. Effective
- e. Somewhat effective
- f. Very Effective

22. How effective are the following people in improving your skills for instructing ELL students:

- 1-Very ineffective
- 2-Ineffective
- 3-Effective
- 4-Very effective

NA-Person does not provide any instructional assistance related to ELL students

<b>Person's Job Title/Responsibility</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>NA</b>
a. Principal					
b. Assistant Principal					
c. Department Chairperson					
d. Other teachers					
e. Central office instructional specialists					
f. Other:					

**Please answer the following questions:**

1. What do you consider has been the most valuable training you have received in working with ELLs?
  
2. What organization (e.g. university, school district, other) provided you with this training?
  
3. What do you consider has been the most valuable training you have received in working with ELLs?
  
4. What area do you feel was most lacking from your preparation in working with ELLs?
  
5. What are some ways that teacher preparation and staff development could be improved to better serve ELLs?
  
6. Is there anyone on your campus who provides useful feedback and/or suggestions that improves your instruction with respect to ELL students? Please list only titles and not personal names.

If so, who provides instructional assistance to you:

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I would be interested in engaging in an interview or focus-group with the researcher regarding my preparation experiences and also to allow the researcher to observe my teaching with the use of strategies to meet the needs of ELLs. Below is my contact information:

Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Email: \_\_\_\_\_ Phone: \_\_\_\_\_

**Appendix D**  
**Letter to Participants (Cover Letter for Internet Research) & Consent Form**

You are invited to participate in a research study being conducted by Yune Tran, a Ph.D. candidate in the Department of Education in Curriculum and Instruction of The University of Texas at Austin. The purpose of this study is to examine teachers' perceptions of their preparation experiences in their certification program and efficacy beliefs in teaching English Language Learners (ELLs).

It will take approximately 10-15 minutes of your time to complete the questionnaire. You are free to contact the researcher at (512) 627-1752 or [yunetran@yahoo.com](mailto:yunetran@yahoo.com) to discuss the survey.

Information collected from the survey responses is anonymous, unless the participant chooses to provide their name and contact information at the end of the survey for participation in the follow-up interview/focus-group and observations.

If you choose to volunteer for the researcher to conduct classroom observations and interviews, you will be automatically entered by your email address for a chance to win 1 out of two \$25 gift certificates to Teacher Heaven, a teacher resource store located in North Austin.

Your participation in this survey is voluntary. You may decline to answer some question(s), decline to participate, and withdraw from participation at any time. Your decision to participate will have no effect on your relationship with UT Austin or your school district.

If you agree to participate, please click on the link below:

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/VNXJ3CB>

Thank you very much for your participation.



## **Consent Form**

Title: Perceptions of Teachers' Preparedness for Teaching English Language Learners

Conducted By: Yune Tran, Ph.D. Candidate, School of Education of The University of Texas at Austin: Department of Curriculum and Instruction

Telephone: (512) 627-1752 Email: yunetran@yahoo.com

You are being asked to participate in a research study. This form provides you with information about the study. The person in charge of this research will also describe this study to you and answer all of your questions. Please read the information below and ask any questions you might have before deciding whether or not to take part. Your participation is entirely voluntary. You can refuse to participate or stop participating at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You can stop your participation at any time and your refusal will not impact current or future relationships with UT Austin or participating sites. To do so simply tell the researcher you wish to stop participation. The researcher will provide you with a copy of this consent for your records.

**The purpose of this study** is to gather additional data regarding your perceptions of preparation and teaching experiences for working with ELLs.

### **If you agree to be in this study, we will ask you to do the following things:**

- You may be interviewed individually or asked to participate in a focus-group with 4-6 other participants.
- Answer questions related to your experiences, coursework and staff development, and suggestions on ways to improve your abilities in teaching ELLs.
- The interview and/or focus-group will last about 20 minutes and will use audio recording.
- You will be given a number to identify you during the interview and/or focus group.
- The researcher will conduct one classroom visit of each participant teaching to observe teaching behaviors related to researched-based strategies recommended for ELLs.

**Total estimated time to participate** in study is approximately 20 minutes.

### **Risks** of being in the study:

There are minimal risks associated with this research project. One risk is the aspect of participants being tired or restless during the focus group interview. There is also the

potential risk that information discussed during the focus group is shared between the participants and outside the interview beyond the researcher's control. The researcher will do her best to minimize these risks by upholding the privacy and confidentiality of the participants and also by requiring participants' consent during the focus-group interview that information will be kept strictly confidential.

**Benefits** for participation of this study:

No direct benefits are anticipated for participants in this research study. The potential benefits resulting from this study will enhance teacher education in identifying best practices to prepare teachers for working with ELLs.

**Compensation:**

- Participants who agree to participate in the interview or focus-group will be included into a random drawing to win 1 out of two \$25 gift certificate(s) to Teacher Heaven, a local teacher resource store.

**Confidentiality and Privacy Protections:**

If you agree to be in the study, your participation will be kept strictly confidential. Participants will be given a number to identify them during the interview and/or focus group.

- The interview or session will be audio taped.
- Tapes will be coded so that no personally identifying information is visible on them.
- Tapes will be kept in a secure place in a locked file cabinet in researcher's home.
- Tapes will be heard only for research purposes by the researcher.
- Tapes will be erased after there are transcribed and coded.
- Transcripts from interviews/focus groups will be stored in an electronic file on a password protected computer with access only by the researcher.
- The transcripts will be retained for 5 years and then deleted.

The data resulting from your participation may be made available to other researchers in the future for research purposes not detailed within this consent form. In these cases, the data will contain no identifying information that could associate you with it, or with your participation in any study.

The records of this study will be stored securely and kept confidential. Authorized persons from The University of Texas at Austin and members of the Institutional Review Board have the legal right to review your research records and will protect the confidentiality of those records to the extent permitted by law. All publications will

exclude any information that will make it possible to identify you as a subject. Throughout the study, the researcher will notify you of new information that may become available and that might affect your decision to remain in the study.

**Contacts and Questions:**

If you have any questions about the study please ask now. If you have questions later, want additional information, or wish to withdraw your participation call the researcher conducting the study. The name, phone number, and e-mail address are at the top of this page.

If you would like to obtain information about the research study, have questions, concerns, complaints or wish to discuss problems about a research study with someone unaffiliated with the study, please contact the IRB Office at (512) 471-8871 or Jody Jensen, Ph.D., Chair, The University of Texas at Austin Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects at (512) 232-2685. Anonymity, if desired, will be protected to the extent possible. As an alternative method of contact, an email may be sent to [orisc@uts.cc.utexas.edu](mailto:orisc@uts.cc.utexas.edu) or a letter sent to IRB Administrator, P.O. Box 7426, Mail Code A 3200, Austin, TX 78713.

*You will be given a copy of this information to keep for your records.*

**Interview/Focus Group Questions:**

1. Describe your experiences in teaching ELL students?
2. How has your coursework experiences affected your role in working with ELLs?
3. What knowledge, skills, and teaching behaviors do you feel are most important in working with ELLs? (i.e. cultural, family, etc.).
4. What other factors influence your ability to effectively teach ELL students?
5. What kinds of training do you feel are most beneficial to your role in working with ELLs?
6. What else can be done to improve your ability to effectively teach ELL students?

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information and have sufficient information to make a decision about participating in this study. I consent to participate in the study.

Signature of Person Consenting: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Signature of Investigator: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

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