

ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation:

A QUEST TO PREPARE ALL ENGLISH
LANGUAGE TEACHERS FOR DIVERSE
TEACHING SETTINGS: IF NOT US, WHO?
IF NOT NOW, WHEN?

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Fueled by present-day globalization and influx of migration, the unprecedented global demand for English language necessitates the provision of high-quality education for English language learners across the world. This picture places English language teaching at the top of the educational agenda in both English-speaking and non-English-speaking countries. As a result of this critical prominence of the global English language teaching enterprise, the need for preparing *all* language teachers (teacher-learners coming from a range of ethnolinguistic, cultural, racial age, backgrounds with various past teaching, learning and educational experience) for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts is more pivotal than ever. The current dissertation research sheds an important light on this need by adopting a TESOL teacher education department and its three MATESOL programs as a research context, and by providing a multifaceted exploration of how program components provide affordances and constraints in developing a knowledge base for ethnolinguistically diverse teacher-learners to work effectively with English language learners in diverse teaching contexts.

The current research project is a holistic descriptive case study utilizing quantitative and qualitative analyses to explore the perceptions of (a) an ethnolinguistically diverse group of teacher-learners who were enrolled in, (b) an ethnolinguistically diverse alumni who graduated from, and (c) instructional faculty teaching in three MATESOL teacher education programs housed in a large, research-intensive university located in a bustling metropolitan area in the mid-Atlantic United States. The data collection sources included questionnaires, a series of semi-structured, in-depth interviews, classroom observations, and programmatic documents. The current study primarily draws upon sociocultural perspectives and more specifically utilizes Activity Theory as an analytical organizing framework to examine the complex interrelations among the participants, and to identify existing institutionalized tensions and contradictions among systemic components in the activity system under scrutiny.

Activity theoretical analysis of individual and programmatic efforts towards preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts brought together three interrelated results that highlight an increased need for (1) diversification and dynamic re-orchestration of programmatic efforts, (2) reimagining distributed agency, and (3) developing practicum alternatives. The study concludes with the urgency of embracing the critical need, role and importance of English language teacher education, re-examining the current efforts in our quest to prepare all teachers for diverse teaching settings. The study closes by providing a series of recommendations for diversifying teacher education practices and developing a shared accountability in teacher preparation for diverse teaching settings and contexts.

**A QUEST TO PREPARE ALL ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS
FOR DIVERSE TEACHING SETTINGS:
IF NOT US, WHO? IF NOT NOW, WHEN?**

By

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Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the
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Dedication

Bu günlere gelebilmemdeki sonsuz emek ve destekleri için Anneme, ve rahmet ve
özlemle andığım sevgili Babamın aziz hatırasına...

Bu zorlu süreci benimle paylaşan ve hayatı daha anlamlı kılan Bengü'me...

To my Mother, and to the living memory of my Father who would be so proud, for their
immense devotion, love and support...

To Bengü, for sharing this strenuous process, and making my life more meaningful...

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My sincere gratitude is extended to participants (current and graduated teacher-learners, and teacher educators) in the current study for sharing their valuable insights

and experience with me, and taking the time out of their busy schedules to participate in this study from different parts of the U.S. and the world. I have tried my best to represent their voice, words, thoughts, and experiences in a multifaceted and an accurate manner.

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CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION

Everything about yesterday has gone with yesterday. Today, it is needed to say new things.

— Mevlana Celaladdin Rumi

1.1. Background to the Study

The exponential growth of English as a global language across the world is now an international phenomenon, which has a wide spectrum of local impacts in areas like education, trade, tourism and foreign relations. What makes English different from other widely spoken languages such as Mandarin, Spanish and Arabic is the fact that English is spoken by a large number of native speakers of other languages (McKay, 2002), and its role as a lingua franca, or “the world’s first truly global language” (Crystal, 2004, p.4). Similarly, Crystal (1997) argues that in order for a language to attain a global status it should have a special role recognized in every country in the form of official language used in government, courts, education or in the nation’s educational system. Although statistics may vary, English is used by approximately 1.5 billion speakers with varying degrees of competencies (Curtis & Romney, 2006), and 375 million of them as their first language, as the national language or as an official language in about 75 countries (British Council, n.d.). Today, the English language is unquestionably the lingua franca of the world (Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 2006) and consequently is at the center of the cultural, linguistic, educational and sociopolitical issues structured around it. Coleman (2006) argues that “ever wider use of English is promoted through economic, political and strategic alliances, through scientific, technological and cultural cooperation, through mass media, through multinational corporations, through improved communications, and through the internationalization of professional and personal domains of activity” (p.2).

The bi-directional interplay between English language and globalization makes the complex picture even more complex for those who want to understand the consequences of the linguistic landscape of the world.

The global influx of the English language is probably best manifested in the context of English language teaching (also referred to as “Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages,” and abbreviated as “TESOL”) across the world. The importance of the English language in the educational realm is twofold: First, the increased importance of the English language is ubiquitously evident in every level of the educational curricula worldwide. Second, the omnipresence of English acts as a positive feedback loop, and consequently systematically contributes to the global expansion of the language. Parallel to massive expansion of the English language in the realms of media, business, politics, science and education, the size and scope of global English language teaching also expands. The stakeholders involved in the teaching and learning process include learners, their families, teachers, administrators, institutions, materials producers, textbook publishers, examination providers, policy makers, and governments, who all have varying degrees of vested interests in the English language teaching.

Having a linguistic link to the lingua franca of the 21st century is an important asset in today’s globalized society. The revolutionary progress in the fields where English plays a critical role, such as technology, commerce, communication, and transportation, “have all further reinforced the global preeminence of English” (Rubdy & Saraceni, 2006, p.6). The global dominance of the English language is not only causing but also caused by an increased interest in English language teaching. Therefore, understanding the globalized status of English necessitates the understanding of teaching-learning

trends, particularly in contexts where English is adopted as a foreign or additional language. Today, considered as “the world’s first truly global language” (Crystal, 2004, p.4), “the common linguistic denominator” (Power, 2005) or “the international language par excellence” (Phillipson, 1992, p.6). English fulfills an array of pragmatic and instrumental functions in all domains of life, and the field of education is no exception. For this reason, English is appreciated for being a “basic survival skill” (Graddol, 1996), and considered *sine qua non* for citizens of the globalized world. As a result of this global predominance, today, English is used by an estimated over 2 billion speakers, and that means nonnative speakers of English outnumber native speakers three to one (Crystal, 1997). Interestingly enough, the number of English language learners in China is greater than the total number of speakers of English in the United States (Taylor, 2002, as cited in Jiang, 2003, p.3).

A recent report by British Council (2006) asserts that within a decade, around 2 billion people will be studying English and about half of the world –more than 3 billion people– will be speaking it in varying degrees of proficiency. Considered “the UK’s biggest export success story” by the British Council’s local websites in Portugal and Brazil, the sociocultural and practical importance of the English language is blended with its monetary value. To be more specific, the English language teaching sector makes up nearly £1.5 billion for the UK only, and with other education-related exports, the number reaches up to £10 billion (Graddol, 2006). On the other side of the Atlantic, the international student market, comprised of speakers of English as a native, second, foreign or World language, reached a peak level in the 2010/11 academic year, as 723,277 international students were enrolled at institutions of higher education in the

U.S., (Institute of International Education, 2011), and contributed over \$20 billion to the U.S. economy (Association of International Educators, 2011).

The English language skills are seen integral qualities of global citizenship and considered to be vital for active participation in the global economy and accessing to the information and dissemination of knowledge that provide the basis for socio-economic development (Burns & Richards, 2009). Therefore, the global demand for English language proficiency necessitates providing a quality education for English language learners (henceforth, ELLs). Today, “the need for better accommodating the needs of ELLs has no geographical and professional boundaries” (Selvi, 2011, p.389) since the English language is an urgent reality in the educational agenda of both English-speaking and non-English-speaking countries. The necessity to provide a better education for ELLs and to ensure a successful transition to mainstream classrooms is a strategic priority of the national education system in the United States. The urgency of the situation is also reflected in the demographic trends of ELLs in the US. Currently, there are five million ELLs enrolled in US K-12 schools, which reflects a sharp increase by 57% over the last decade, and almost 60% of adolescent ELLs qualify for Free and Reduced Price Meals (FARMS) (National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2007; 2008). If the current exponential demographic shifts continue, it is estimated that all teachers across the country will encounter ELLs at some point in their careers (National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2008). The impact of this widespread and immediate need, which determines ELLs’ successful transition to mainstream classrooms is also affecting mainstream teachers. The need to better serve ELLs is an urgent necessity in the nation’s classrooms today, and the provision of effective teaching practices targeting

ELLs requires specialized skills focusing on sociocultural and political foundations for teaching ELLs, foundations of second language acquisition, knowledge for teaching academic content to ELLs, effective instructional practices for teaching academic content to ELLs, and assessment practices and accommodations for ELLs (National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2008). Despite the widespread immediacy of the need, only less than 1/6th of universities in the US offer pre-service teacher preparation including training on working with ELLs, and only 26% of the in-service teachers have had training addressing the issues related to ELLs in their staff development programs (National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2008).

The diverse implications of the global spread of the English language mingled with the perennial need to provide better education to ELLs across the world put an emphasis on the importance of teacher education. The global “triumph” of the English language necessitates ubiquitous implementations of activities related to English language teaching. As English has become an integral part of the educational curricula at all levels from kindergarten to post-doctoral levels, the growing need for well-prepared English language teachers has become evident. This realization has consequently paved the way to the development of teacher education programs, which equip language teachers with the professional development and qualifications to meet the needs of ELLs across the world (Richards, 2008). Furthermore, these implications, spearheaded by the global status of English and diverse needs of ELLs, have also necessitated a reconfiguration in English language teaching and teacher education. As McKay (2002) explains “the teaching and learning of an international language must be based on an

entirely different set of assumptions than the teaching and learning of any other second and foreign language” (p.1). This call for reconceptualization in English language teaching and teacher education has a number of implications such as English as an international language/English as a lingua franca norms, native speaker as a goal and model of competence, native speaker as a quality of the ideal teacher, the standards of World Englishes, the monolingual approach in language teaching, and the monocultural approach in language teaching (Zacharias, 2003).

Having outlined the larger context informing the current study, I will now present an overview of the current state of the teacher education programs preparing TESOL teachers (henceforth, MATESOL¹ programs) in the United States with an intention to contextualize present the study.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Understanding the current state of second language teacher education (henceforth, SLTE), and especially the condition of MATESOL programs in the United States, is instrumental in forming and informing the preparation of the English language teacher labor force for the diverse needs of ELLs in a variety of contexts. For this reason, it necessitates a multifactorial analysis of major cornerstones influencing this process, and each of these cornerstones forms the foundation for this study. The present study rest upon three major cornerstones: (1) the need for an increased supply of teachers in the field of English language teaching, (2) the importance of the perceived effectiveness of the training in the teachers’ lives and in their professional development, (3) the need for

¹ A great majority of the TESOL teacher education programs in the U.S. are programs at master’s level. Despite the great diversity in nomenclature (such as Master’s in “TESOL,” “Applied Linguistics,” or “Second Language Studies”) and type of master’s degree (such as Master’s of “Arts,” “Education,” “Arts in Teaching”), the term “MATESOL” is adopted in the current study since the term resonates the tendency of use in the TESOL literature.

preparing all teachers (teachers coming from a range of ethnolinguistic, cultural, racial backgrounds with various past teaching, learning and educational experience) for diverse teaching settings in the US and international contexts.

The first of these cornerstones is the need for increased supply in the field of English language teaching. As briefly described in the previous section, the global spread of the English language increases the value and importance of English language skills for the citizens of our increasingly globalized world. The increased global demand for English language knowledge understandably leads to a widespread need for an English language teacher labor force across the world. This global need for professionals in TESOL is manifested in the proliferation of MATESOL programs in the United States in the last couple of decades. The number of MATESOL programs in the United States increased approximately 30% from 1989 to 1995 (Butler-Pascoe, 1997), exceeded 200 as of 1998 (Garshick, 1998), and reached nearly 420 programs in 232 institutions in the United States and Canada by 2005 (Christopher, 2005). These programs in the U.S. play an unprecedented leadership role in the current global context of English language teaching, and therefore are responsible for preparing teachers for both ESL and EFL contexts (Govardhan, Nayar & Sheorey, 1999). The United States, the largest English-speaking country with 98% of the population speaking English (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010), and a leading global actor in research and development in higher education, is undoubtedly key in shaping the future of English language teaching. Today, the graduates of MATESOL programs in the U.S. are recruited to fulfill a range of duties (such as instructional responsibilities, curricular adaptation, material design and adaptation, designing, implementing, evaluating assessment tools, establishing positive ties with

students' parents and collaborative relationship with teachers, administrators and other school personnel and many more) in the TESOL field in the U.S. and beyond. For this reason, it is imperative to examine the current state of the MATESOL programs in the United States.

The second cornerstone is the importance of the perceived effectiveness of the teacher education in teachers' lives and its relationship to their professional development and teaching practices. In the past couple of decades, the field of SLTE has witnessed a surge of interest in the study of language teacher cognition, defined as what language teachers think, know and believe (Borg, 2006). What lies at the heart of teacher cognition research is the growing understanding that teaching is influenced by teachers' own beliefs and perceptions (Richards & Lockhart, 1994); and therefore, teachers' understandings of their own needs will inform their future practices (K. A. Johnson, 2001). The emergence and proliferation of the teacher cognition research also meant transformation of orientations to the conceptualization of teaching, and consequently teacher education. As Borg (2006) acknowledged, the field witnessed a conceptual shift from information-processing, decision-making and teacher effectiveness to an understanding of teacher knowledge and its growth and use, which is the crux of the work of teacher education. Therefore, the interplay between the teachers' cognitions and their growth through teacher education programs necessitates a closer look at the role and influence of programmatic efforts. This line of inquiry is also important in terms of highlighting the unique quality of teacher education, what I call "omnitemporality." To be more specific, I argue that programmatic efforts in teacher education programs are unique in the sense that they are ideally operationalized in an omnitemporal fashion, which is interweaving

past teaching-learning experiences of teacher-learners with present programmatic efforts in order to prepare them for their future teaching tasks and contexts that might be distant in terms of time and space. Therefore, teacher education programs become as intermediary states and periods during which past (teaching and learning experiences, and knowledge, beliefs and predispositions on language learning and teaching) and future (teaching contexts and activities) are manipulated, merged and coded into the knowledge base of teacher-learners by means of a range of interconnected and discursive mediational means.

The third cornerstone is the need for providing high-quality teacher education practices that prepare all teachers to work with ELLs in diverse teaching settings in the United States and international contexts. It is evident that teacher-learners in MATESOL programs come from a range of ethnolinguistic, cultural, racial backgrounds with various past teaching, learning and educational experience. The notion of diversity of teacher-learners in MATESOL programs has multiple levels. The homogeneity in teacher-learners' profile in respect to their backgrounds, past experiences and future orientations not only necessitates thorough examination of programmatic efforts in addressing the multitude of needs and complexities, but also precludes making straightforward conclusions regarding the image of a typical teacher-learner in an MATESOL program. A remarkable manifestation of this phenomenon comes from the term complexity of terms "native" and "non-native" in the field of English language teaching.

Parallel to the global expansion of the English language, non-native English-speaking professionals are considered to be forerunners of English language teaching since "there never will be enough professional teachers of English who are native

speakers to meet the demand of the world over” (Tarnopolsky, 2000, p.1) and 80% of world’s English language teacher force are non-native English-speaking professionals. Despite the fact that many non-native English-speaking teachers attend teacher education programs in their home countries, there has been a growing trend in terms of teacher-learners attending MATESOL programs in English-speaking countries. Surveys on international students (England & Roberts, 1989) and administrators in MATESOL programs in the U.S. (D. Liu, 1999) showed that about 40% of all teacher-learners in these programs were non-native English speaking students. While commonsensical treatment of the terms “native” or “non-native” might suggest associating native English speakers with the U.S. and non-native English speakers with non-U.S. contexts, the reality is far more complex than that. TESOL teacher workforce in the U.S. and international contexts are comprised of both native and non-native English-speaking professionals who completed their MATESOL programs in the United States. This phenomenon not only complicates any rudimentary treatment of the terms native and non-native in relation to teacher-learners’ future professional orientations, but also validates the need for inquiring into and devising ways and means of enhancing the MATESOL programs in the U.S. in accommodating diverse needs of teacher-learners (K. A. Johnson, 2001).

Resting upon these three major underpinnings, the current dissertation study provides a multifaceted exploration of how program components provide affordances and constraints in developing a knowledge base for native and non-native English-speaking teacher candidates to work effectively with English language learners in diverse teaching contexts. It is hoped that the findings of the present study serve as a guide for diverse

avenues of further research and teaching opportunities in the field of TESOL, SLTE, and program evaluation, and ultimately serve our quest to better serve the diverse needs of our ELLs in the U.S. and in different corners of the world.

1.3. Research Questions

The current study is a multifaceted exploration of how components, practices, and relations in three MATESOL programs in a large, research-intensive university in a bustling metropolitan area in the mid-Atlantic U.S. provided affordances and constraints in developing a knowledge base for teacher-learners to work effectively with English language learners in diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts. Building upon this formulation, the present research study aimed to explore the following research questions:

1. How do teacher-learners in three MATESOL programs perceive the effectiveness of their programs in preparing them for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts?
 1. Do teacher-learners' perceptions change according to
 - a. participants' post-program aims?
 - b. the existence of a practicum in their program?
 - c. the type of program they attend?
2. What components of these programs were perceived to be the most and the least effective by teacher-learners?
3. To what extent do teacher-learners in this study feel prepared to plan, teach and assess various language skills in diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts?

1. Do teacher-learners' perceptions change according to
 - a. participants' post-program aims?
 - b. the existence of a practicum in their program?
 - c. the type of program they attend?

1.4. A Brief Overview of Methodology

The present study is a multifaceted exploration of how components, practices, and interrelations in three master's in TESOL teacher education programs housed in a large, research-intensive university located in a bustling metropolitan area in the mid-Atlantic U.S. provided affordances and constraints in developing a knowledge base for teacher-learners to work effectively with ELLs in diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts. This study sought to gain insights into the efforts of these three programs in preparing ethnolinguistically diverse teacher-learners for diverse teaching settings in the United States and abroad. More specifically, it aims to explore the multifaceted nature and complexity of the phenomenon of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings, and identify a range of factors that inform, shape and affect participants' (current teacher-learners', graduated teacher-learners', and teacher educators') views, beliefs, and practices regarding teacher preparation for diverse teaching settings.

In order to embrace the multifaceted nature of these efforts and practices perceived by different stakeholders in the program, I decided to utilize a holistic descriptive case study methodology with quantitative and qualitative analyses. Furthermore, I intended to deepen the analytical depth and rigor of the triangulation process by entering into a dialog with current students in the programs, observing them in

their classes, and talking to alumni of these programs who were practicing ESOL teachers in different parts of the United States and world. Meanwhile I also engaged in conversations with instructional faculty and administrators about their approaches and practices, and I also observed their classes and reviewed their syllabi. This research design helped me realize, appreciate, and interpret different perspectives, realities, challenges, opportunities and needs shared by different stakeholders who belong to the same activity system. Furthermore, this integrated investigation of multiple data sources through the theoretical lens of Activity Theory (Engeström, 1999), incorporation of existing literature and utilization of my personal subjectivity as an instrument of auto-ethnographic sense-making all helped me to develop a working understanding and dynamic stance for the themes in the present study.

1.5. Theoretical Framework

The present study utilizes Cultural Historical Activity Theory (Vygotsky, 1978; Engeström, 1999) (abbreviated as CHAT and often referred to as Activity Theory) as an analytical organizing and interpretative framework to examine the complex interrelations between the participants, identify existing institutionalized tensions and contradictions, and thus provide a theoretical basis for a multifaceted discussion about these programs' overall aim of preparing ethnolinguistically diverse teacher population for diverse teaching settings. Activity Theory provides a useful interpretative framework within which the interconnected nature of relationships among community members (teacher-learners, teacher educators, mentors and the TESOL Unit) engage in an object-oriented artifact-mediated and outcome-driven activity of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings. This notion of interconnectedness allowed me to develop an in-depth analysis

that I navigated through different levels and “zoom in” to understand individual learners as they interacted within the activity, and “zoom out” to see the activity (comprised of these individuals and other components) as the unit of analysis. From this standpoint, Activity Theory served as a powerful descriptive and exploratory lens through which competing conceptualizations of various participants provided a multifaceted picture of the case under scrutiny. A more detailed consideration of Activity Theory will be presented throughout the study.

1.6. Purpose of the Study

Understanding the current status of MATESOL programs in the United States is a pressing issue, as it encapsulates major key trends, issues, and contradictions forming the SLTE and sheds a unique light to the future of working with ELLs in diverse teaching settings. Therefore, the current study investigates the interplay between teachers’ understandings of their professional needs and future practices, and reveals insights into teacher-learning in the process of preparing for all teachers for diverse teaching settings.

It is hoped that the current study will take a step toward greater (a) acknowledgement that MATESOL programs in the U.S. welcome a range of diverse teacher-learner population who are interested in teaching in a multitude of settings in the U.S. and international contexts, (b) acknowledgment of teacher-learners as a major stakeholder in the process of examining these programs and spearheading innovation and curricular initiatives (such as creating, administering, evaluating and re-designing) in MATESOL programs, and (c) exploration of the interplay between teacher-learning and the development of the knowledge base in MATESOL programs.

1.7. Definition of Terms

English language learners (ELLs) – In this study, the term is used to refer to the students from a non-English-speaking background who have not yet developed sufficient proficiency in English for various purposes (e.g. academic, communicative) in EFL or ESL context. In the case of ESL, and specifically in the United States, ELLs could refer to both students in the process of transitioning towards mainstream instruction in K-12 schools, and students in the intensive English programs or other types of institutions who are still developing their linguistic abilities in English. In the case of EFL, the term refers to learners from all linguistic backgrounds learning English for all types of reasons ranging from interpersonal communication to academic literacy.

MATESOL (Master’s in Teaching English to the Speakers of Other Languages) programs – The term is used to encompass only master’s degree-granting teacher education programs that prepare English as a second/foreign language teachers in the United States. Despite the fact that these programs are graduate-level, a great majority of MATESOL programs in the U.S. serve as pre-service teacher education programs. Therefore, comparisons with other countries need to include pre-service teacher education programs rather than graduate-level degrees. There is no unified title (e.g. M.A./M.Ed./M.A.T. in TESOL, English (with specialization in TESOL), Second Language Education and Culture, Second Language Studies, Applied Linguistics, Bilingual Education and TESOL) or degree (e.g. M.A., M.Ed., or MAT) for these programs.

NEST (Native English-Speaking Teacher) – The term is used to describe an ESL/EFL teacher whose first language is English.

NNEST (Non-Native English-Speaking Teacher) – The term is used to describe an ESL/EFL teacher whose first language is not English.

NS (*Native Speaker (of English, in this case)*) – Although subject to extensive controversial theoretical criticism, the term is used to describe “a person speaking the language they learnt first in childhood” (Cook, 2005, p.49).

NNS (Non-Native Speaker (of English, in this case)) – The term is used to describe someone who has learned a language other than English as a first language, and is learning or has learned English as an additional language.

EFL (English as a Foreign Language) – The term is used to describe contexts where English is taught as a foreign language in non-English-speaking countries such as Brazil, Germany, or Turkey. The distinction between ESL and EFL is not always clear, especially in multilingual countries.

ESL (English as a Second Language) – The term is used to describe contexts where English is taught as a second or additional language to international students or immigrants in English-speaking countries such as USA, UK, Ireland, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, India or South Africa. Again, the distinction between ESL and EFL can be problematic in multilingual countries.

ELT (English Language Teaching) – The term is used to describe the profession of teaching English (generally refers to teaching of English as a foreign or second language), and used interchangeably with TESOL.

Teacher-learners – Teacher-learners are individuals who were currently enrolled in or graduated from the MATESOL programs reviewed in the study. Within the scope of the current study, two types of teacher-learners were identified: Current teacher-learners and

graduated teacher-learners. While current teacher-learners were individuals who were enrolled in one of the three MATESOL programs in the study, graduated teacher-learners referred to individuals who completed these programs within the last 5 years.

Teacher educators – Teacher educators refer to individuals who were responsible for providing programmatic efforts (coursework, course assistance, supervision, advising and so forth) to teacher-learners in these academic programs.

TESOL (Teachers of English (or Teaching English) to Speakers of Other Languages or Teaching English as a Second or Other Language) – Depending on the context, this acronym can carry multiple meanings as follows:

1. The world’s largest international organization for English language teachers to speakers of other languages. Founded in 1966, TESOL International Association has more than 12,000 members in more than 150 countries. The organization is also affiliated with 98 independent organizations worldwide with a total membership of more than 47,000 professionals worldwide.
2. The teaching and research field, sometimes also called TESL, TEFL or ELT.
3. The educational program and qualification (e.g. MATESOL).

1.8. Scope and Delimitations

Generally utilized “to narrow the scope of a study” (Creswell, 2003, p. 148), the delimitations of the current study include the U.S. educational context, pre-service programs, pre-service teachers, and formal education, and are listed below. The first delimitation is the fact that the examination of MATESOL programs is limited to the U.S. educational context. I acknowledge the fact that the global need for English language skills necessitates a global response to teacher preparation by means of teacher education

programs across the world. Nevertheless, due to its special role and prominence in the global English language teaching landscape, the scope of the current study was limited to the United States.

The second delimitation asserts that within the scope of this study, SLTE is limited to pre-service programs, and specifically to MATESOL programs. In broad terms, the scope of SLTE activity includes two distinct main phases, namely pre-service and in-service teacher education. While the former refers to teacher development activities spanned over a time period usually prior to formal teaching after graduation, the latter signifies teacher development of currently practicing teachers. The current study covers pre-service teacher development programs², and specifically focuses on the MATESOL programs in the United States.

The third delimitation suggests that the stakeholders in the MATESOL programs were limited to teacher-learners (current and graduated teacher-learners) and instructional faculty (also known as teacher educators). To be more specific, while the current study acknowledges the presence of other stakeholders interested in SLTE such as ELLs, policy makers, and administrators in school systems or institutions that provide ESOL teaching and services, the scope of the current study only encompasses views of teacher-learners, and instructional faculty in three MATESOL programs reviewed in the study.

² I hereby acknowledge that the term pre-service may not necessarily be adequate to capture complex histories and experiences of teacher-learners in these programs since these programs welcome teacher-learners who had formal or informal teaching experiences in U.S. or abroad. However, the practical application of the term was found to be useful since it contextualizes these programs as separate activities.

1.9. Organization

Thus far, the current study has provided an overview of the global landscape of the spread of English language learning-teaching, contextualized different factors informing the current study, put forward a set of purposes for the current study, and presented a number of questions, terms and delimitations.

Following this introductory chapter, the second chapter (Literature Review) chapter consists of two major components: The first section presents the pillars informing the conceptual framework informing the study, and embeds the theoretical framework of the study. The literature review operationalize definitions used throughout the study, contextualizes the empirical and theoretical foundation of the present study. The current research utilized various aspects of SLTE literature as a conceptual framework, which is complemented by the guiding theoretical lens of socioculturally-informed Activity Theory as an analytical sense-making tool.

The third chapter (Methodology) presents an in-depth discussion of the methodological framework employed in the current study. More specifically, it includes sections on research questions guiding the current work, the specifics of the research design, a detailed description of the research settings and participants (including information about program descriptions and student demographics), and data collection tools used in this study.

The fourth chapter (Looking at the Case: The TESOL Unit) is the first of three chapters that presents, discusses and extends the research results gleaned from multiple sources and types of data collected for the current study. More specifically, this chapter

aims to provide a thorough understanding of structural and programmatic components of the programs housed within a large, research-intensive university located in a bustling metropolitan area in the mid-Atlantic U.S. in providing affordances and constraints in developing a knowledge base for teacher-learners to work effectively with ELLs in diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts. The second half of this chapter discusses Activity Theory as a theoretical and interpretative lens in the context of these programs, which is utilized as an overarching foundation for the discussion in the subsequent chapters. It is hoped that the comprehensive description of these programs would not only allow readers to grasp the commonalities and particularities of the case but also provide a basis for the transferability of the research results to other qualified contexts.

The fifth chapter (Issues in Teacher Education for Diverse Teaching Settings: Multiple Perspectives, Multiple Directions) is the second of three chapters that presents, discusses and extends the research results gleaned from multiple sources and types of data collected for the current study. This chapter opens with a review of diversity of orientations that teacher-learners bring to their respective academic program, followed by a discussion of their post-program aims, and perceived preparedness of teacher-learners in diverse teaching settings. The last part of the present chapter is devoted to an in-depth analysis of programmatic components and efforts in these programs. Interactions within and among systemic components, and contradictions in these programs are scrutinized using thematic analysis through the theoretical lens afforded by Activity Theory. The discussion is derived from a combination of multiple data sources including questionnaires, interviews, classroom observations and document analyses gathered from

multiple participants including current and graduated teacher-learners, and teacher educators in the TESOL Unit.

The concluding chapter (Conclusions and Future Directions) presents conclusions, suggestions, and future directions regarding the preparation of teacher-learners for diverse teaching settings in three MATESOL programs housed within the TESOL Unit studied in this study. The current chapter opens with a brief overview of efforts and suggestions to resolve contradictions in the activity system of the three MATESOL programs under scrutiny in the present study. The discussion is followed by theoretical and methodological reflections on Activity Theory analysis, and concludes with a presentation of future directions at the intersection of policy and research levels, as well as presenting a brief conclusion of the entire study.

CHAPTER 2 – LITERATURE REVIEW

“If I have seen further than certain other men, it is by standing upon the shoulders of giants.”

— Sir Isaac Newton

2.1. Introduction

The present chapter presents a theoretical framework for the current study, reviews and expands upon the essential theoretical and practical concepts guiding this study and synthesizes the research foundation relevant to the issues presented throughout the study. Resting upon Cultural Historical Activity Theory (also referred to as Activity Theory) (Engeström, Miettinen & Punamäki, 1999; Leont’ev, 1978), the present literature review presents a detailed account of second language teacher education (henceforth SLTE) with specific emphases on the ongoing discussion on the SLTE knowledge base, the standards movement, and models in pre-service teacher education. Furthermore, I present a wide range of empirical studies on MATESOL programs in the overall discussion in order to enhance the synthesis in this chapter and better understand theoretical and empirical debates informing the present state of MATESOL programs.

2.2. Theoretical Framework

The theoretical underpinnings informing the current study are primarily motivated by the sociocultural turn that “defines human learning as a dynamic social activity that is situated in physical and social contexts, and distributed across persons, tools, and activities” (Johnson, 2006, p. 237) and is essentially contextualized with the theoretical parameters of Activity Theory (Leont’ev, 1978; Engeström, Miettinen & Punamäki, 1999). To better explicate these perspectives, I will first briefly review the origins and the central tenets of Vygotskian sociocultural theory and its implications in SLTE. Then, I

will contextualize the theoretical discussion utilizing Activity Theory as a theoretical and interpretative framework in the current study.

2.2.1. The Origins of Sociocultural Perspectives

The epistemological departure point of sociocultural perspectives stems extensively from the ground-breaking work of Lev Semyonovich Vygotsky (1971, 1978, 1986), a Russian constructivist psychologist. Later on, his colleagues and followers such as Leont'ev (1978, 1981), and their 'theory-extenders' including Cole's *Cultural Psychology* (1996), Lantolf's (2000) and Lantolf and Thorne's (2006) applications in second language learning, Lave and Wenger's *Situated Learning* (1991), Rogoff's *Cultural Nature of Human Development* (2003), Wertsch's *Voices of the Mind: A Sociocultural Approach to Mediated Action* (1991), Engeström's (1987) *Learning by Expanding: An Activity-theoretical Approach to Developmental Research*, and Engeström, Miettinen & Punamäki's (1999) *Perspectives on Activity Theory*. From psychology to second language teacher education, the term "sociocultural" was conceptualized and implemented in different and domain-specific manners. Regardless of this diversity in conceptualizations and implementations, the overarching quality of the sociocultural perspective is the fact that it represents an epistemological shift in human learning as opposed to deep-rooted behavioral/cognitive orientations. As opposed to views that define human learning through behavioral modeling cause and effect (i.e. behaviorism), or the understanding that the cognitive capacity of an individual exists only in the mind of the individual, independent of context and interaction (i.e. cognitivism), Sociocultural theory perceives human learning as a dynamic social and mental activity situated in social and physical contexts, and organized through culturally constructed

artifacts. John-Steiner and Mahn (1996) argued that sociocultural approaches to learning are built upon “the concept that human activities take place in cultural contexts, are mediated by language and other symbolic systems, and can be best understood when investigated in their historical development” (p. 191). A similar perspective was iterated by Wertsch et al. (1996) who defined the goal of the sociocultural approach as “explicit[ing] the relationships between human action, on the one hand, and the cultural, institutional, and historical situations in which this action occurs, on the other” (p. 11). This is particularly important because it places social life at the center of the higher-level human cognition of an individual (Johnson, 2009a). In other words, the intertwined nature of learning and knowledge within the social context is the core of sociocultural learning.

Vygotskian sociocultural theory places a considerable emphasis on dynamic engagement in social activities in the process of construction of human cognition. Therefore, “it is the social relationships and the culturally constructed materials, signs, and symbols, referred to as *semiotic artifacts*, that mediate those relationships that create uniquely human forms of higher-level thinking” (Johnson, 2009a, p.1). The unique epistemological perspective it brings to the reconceptualization of human cognition acknowledges the interactive process mediated by culture, context, language, and social interaction.

The importance attached to human agency and the commitment to the societal context in the learning process is another cornerstone of sociocultural theory. It acknowledges the fact that learning is a gradual, dynamic and mediated construction of knowledge within a particular social context, primarily driven by human agency, and

leads to a transformation of self, the activity, and the context (Johnson, 2009a). Human agency is at the core of “the relational interdependency of agent and worlds, activity, meaning, cognition, learning and knowing” (Lave & Wenger, 1996, p.145). This view is a 180-degree shift from the cognitive orientation to learning, which views learning as an acquisition of skills and knowledge through simple exposure. The realization of the embeddedness of human agency in the learning process and the notion of context-dependency led Thorne (2005) to conclude that the sociocultural perspective “offers a framework through which cognition can be investigated systematically without isolating it from social context or human agency” (p. 393).

2.2.2. The Sociocultural Turn in Second Language Teacher Education

The intellectual climate in the field of second language learning and teaching has undergone an ontological and epistemological shift in its orientation, which reached a culmination because of Firth and Wagner’s (1997) call for a reconceptualization of the field of second language acquisition (henceforth, SLA). What lies at the heart of their call was the idea that the field of SLA needs to embrace “(a) significantly enhanced awareness of the contextual and interactional dimensions of language use, (b) increased emic (participant-relevant) sensitivity, and (c) broadening of the traditional SLA database” (p.285). Their theoretical positioning acknowledged language as an embedded element of the sociocultural context within which individuals interact using the language. This reciprocal construction between language and sociocultural context, therefore, challenged the existing cognitive perspectives which viewed language learning within the mental representations of an individual learner (mainstream SLA), and proposed sociocultural perspectives which view contextualized human cognition within social

interaction (Social SLA). Although Firth and Wagner (1997) spurred a lot of interest and intellectual criticism at the same time, their novel perspective was acknowledged as “a turn” since it had an intention to strip SLA research of “the hegemony exerted by a cognitive view of SLA as a mentalistic and inherently individual process [that] was inhibiting the exploration of more social, discursive approaches to the nature of the mind” (Lafford, 2007, p. 735).

The sphere of influence of sociocultural theory is not limited to challenging ontological foundations of SLA, and bringing a thought-provoking perspective by viewing language learning as a social process. In addition to the ongoing intellectual debate in SLA, sociocultural theory inspired a parallel paradigm shift in the field of SLTE (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, 2004, 2005; Hawkins, 2004; Johnson, 2006, 2009a, 2009b; Johnson & Golombek, 2011; Lantolf & Johnson, 2007). From the sociocultural lens of SLTE, teacher knowledge is considered to be “normative and lifelong, as emerging out of and through experiences in social contexts: as learners in classrooms and schools, as participants in professional teacher education programs, and later as teachers in the settings where they work” (Johnson, 2006, p.239). Sociocultural perspectives have recently received wider recognition in SLTE due to an accumulation of three major trends: (1) a shift from a positivist paradigm to an interpretive paradigm, (2) the emergence of teacher cognition research, and (3) the reconceptualization of the knowledge base of SLTE (Johnson, 2009a).

First, there is a shift from a positivist paradigm towards an interpretive paradigm. Historically dominated by positivist paradigms, second language teacher development was conceived and treated as a body of knowledge to be transmitted to teachers by others

in the form of conventional methods such as theoretical readings, university-based lectures, and workshops that are disconnected from the actual language teaching-learning classrooms (Johnson, 2009a). Therefore, this body of knowledge encapsulates a set of positivistic features such as being decontextualized, and transferrable. These features formed an understanding of the milestones of ‘good teaching’ and consequently, ‘best practices in teacher education.’ However, beginning in the mid-1970s, the realization of interpretive perspectives has led to an epistemological shift in educational research. Johnson (2009a) places interpretive perspectives as “grounded in the assumption that knowledge is socially constructed and emerges from the social practices that people engage in. Therefore, social reality is understood as being created by people, and exists, in large part, within people’s mind” (p.9). This theoretical perspective translates into second language teacher education as an emphasis on teacher’s mental lives (Freeman, 2002), and understanding the role of their prior experiences, interpretations, and the contexts within which they work.

Second, there is the emergence of teacher cognition research, which extends the interpretive perspectives explicated in the previous paragraph. The primary purpose of teacher cognition research is to examine “the complex, practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs that language teachers draw on in their work” (Borg, 2006, p.272). The emergence of this research domain is particularly prominent because it brings about a number of implications for teacher education: First, it acknowledges that the knowledge of teaching is socially constructed –rather than acquired– in relation to those affecting and affected by the teaching activity such as students, parents, other teachers, and administrators (Johnson,

2009a). Second, teacher development is a life-long process and is dependent upon social contexts, “built through experiences in multiple social contexts first as learners in classrooms and schools, then later as participants in professional teacher education programs and, ultimately in the communities of practice in which teachers work (citing Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Grossman, 1990)” (Johnson, 2009a, p.10). Finally, it is acknowledged as a life-long developmental enterprise as a “result of participation in the social practices and contexts associated with learning and teaching” (Johnson, 2009a, p.10).

Third, and finally, there is the call for reconceptualization of the knowledge base of second language teacher education. Within the scope of SLTE, the knowledge base informs three areas: (a) what second language teachers need to know, (2) how second language teachers should to teach, and (c) how second language teachers learn to teach (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). This formulation of the knowledge base means that it constitutes the foundations of SLTE. As reviewed in the overall discussion of the conceptual framework of the current study, the knowledge base of second language teacher education is embedded in the positivist epistemological standpoint. This perspective is manifested in the curricula of SLTE programs, constituted by a number of disconnected theoretical courses on different areas of applied linguistics and SLA, without establishing organic ties with teaching. In other words, it has been a tradition of “fostering persistent divide between subject matter and pedagogy” (Ball, 2000, p.242). In this tradition, three broad areas forming the knowledge base were as follows:

(a) *what second language teachers need to know* were SLA theories, and applied linguistics knowledge,

(b) *how second language teachers should teach* was translation of SLA theories/applied linguistics knowledge into instructional practices, and

(c) *how second language teachers learn to teach* was going through educational programs to get exposed to items (a) and (b).

The need for reconceptualization rests at the nexus of the conventional understanding of the knowledge base which is “largely drawn from other disciplines, and not from the work of teaching itself” (Freeman, 2002, p.1), and SLA perspectives which provide inadequate views by ignoring the sociocultural construction of the language (Firth and Wagner, 1997). Freeman and Johnson (1998) argued that in addition to disciplinary or subject matter knowledge, the knowledge base needs to include “what and how language is actually taught in second language classrooms as well as teachers’ and students’ perception of that content” (p.410).

2.2.3. Activity Theoretical Perspective to Second Language Teacher Education

The change in epistemological winds shaping our understanding of human learning, accompanied by the emergence of a research domain investigating teacher cognition, and finally a fundamental call for reconceptualizing what constitutes the knowledge base of second language teacher education were the conceptual milestones of a sociocultural perspective on SLTE. Built upon the foundational principles of sociocultural theory linking the individual with the social world, and consequently emphasizing socially situated aspects of learning and development, this section aims to present an Activity Theoretical perspective to SLTE. I will first discuss the theoretical

underpinnings of Activity Theory and will discuss its theoretical and practical significance in the context of SLTE.

2.2.3.1. Activity Theory

An extension of Vygotskian Sociocultural Theory by Leont'ev (1978) and Luria, and by their followers such as Engeström (1987, 1999), and Lantolf and Thorne (2006), Activity Theory is considered to be a framework, meta-theory, or a descriptive tool for a system describing the social influences and interdependencies in a complex web of human activity. By placing the emphasis on mediation of mind through activities unlike Vygotskian emphasis on mediation of mind by cultural tools, the theory provides a broader theoretical perspective. This view, according to Johnson (2009a), is actually “operationalized the role of communities, division of labor, power and responsibilities among the participants in an activity system” (p.78). Therefore, what lies behind the ubiquitous interest in this line of thinking is the conceptualization that views social practices as situated, individuals in engaging in such practices by working with available symbolic and materialistic resources in specific settings for practices in a dialectical relationship among themselves as well as with the broader parameters of individuals’ contexts (Ellis, Edwards & Smagornisky, 2010). Therefore, built upon Vygotskian social and semiotic mediation with a spin on emphasis from individual to collective subjects and activity *per se*, Activity Theory is more interested in goal-directed actions in a collective activity within the cultural-historical context. The unique emphasis on object-oriented and collectively-organized tenets of Activity Theory distinguishes it from other sociocultural theories. More specifically, these characteristics encompass the entire activity system comprised of interrelated components and is not limited to a single

actor or individual within such a system. Rather, the theory is more interested in providing a global account by focusing on the complexities of interrelatedness of the individuals, perspectives, motivations, actions, artifacts, history and culture.

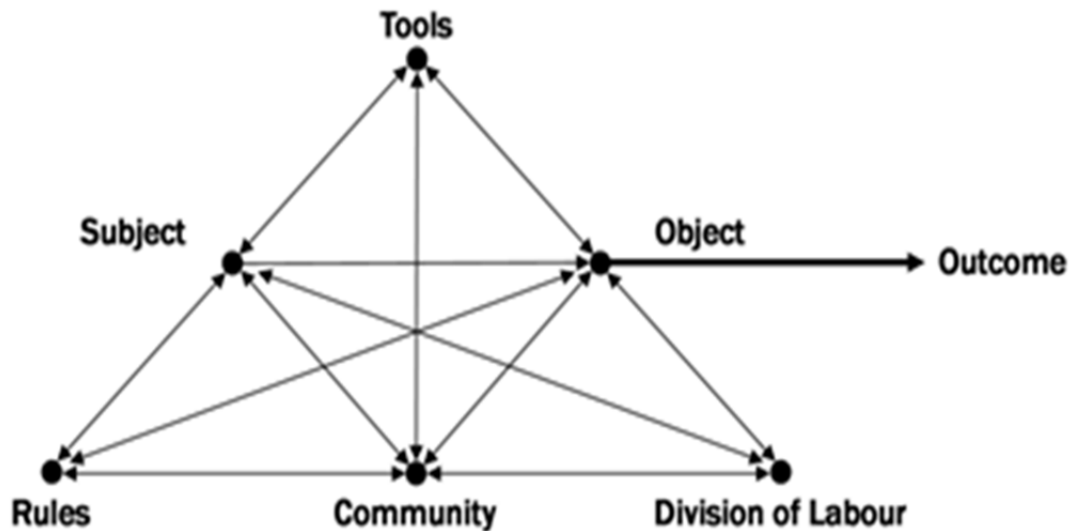


Figure 1. Activity theory system (based on Engeström, 1987, 1999)

An important milestone in Activity Theory has been made by Yrjö Engeström (1987, 1999), who spearheaded the Scandinavian tradition of Activity Theory and generated a triangular visual representation of the components in an activity system, as provided in Figure 1 above. To be more specific, Engeström's representation is very meaningful in describing the complex relationships impacting an activity, consisting of a number of components, intertwined with individual activities. In an activity system, the ultimate aim is to reach an *outcome*, which can only be achieved by co-constructing certain *objects* shaped by a number of *tools* or *mediating artifacts*. The *subject* is the individual or group aiming to achieve the *object*. In an activity system, the *community* refers to a group of individuals or organization mediated by a general shared *object*. The

subject of an activity is a part of the *community* towards the *object* as a goal, where the process is usually governed by a *division of labor* defining the explicit and implicit *rules* defining limits and power or status distributions.

The aforementioned components in an activity system are not static entities that exist in isolation from each other. On the contrary, they are dynamic and continuously interacting with each other through which the activity system is collectively defined and operationalized in an inherently historical fashion. Therefore, an examination of any phenomenon using Activity Theory as an analytical lens necessitates a diligent scrutiny of the dynamic nature of and interrelations among these components. The ultimate emphasis in the activity theoretical analysis is the understanding of how *subjects* transform *objects* and how the constituents and interrelations among the systemic components mediate this concept of transformation. It is, in fact, this dynamic interrelationship that spearheaded the shift from the traditional view of mind of the individual to the entire activity system as the unit of analysis (Barab *et al.*, 2002).

An important component in Activity Theory analysis is the notion of contradictions (Engeström, 1987, 1993; Leont'ev, 1978). Marxist perspectives of activity systems suggest that changes and transformation are driven by contradictions that may exist both within and/or between activity systems or systemic components (Il'enkov, 1977). Seen as “historically accumulating structural tensions within and between activity,” contradictions are considered to be “sources of change and development” and should not be treated as “problems or conflicts” (Engeström, 2001, p.137). Activity Theory suggests four possible sources of contradictions: (1) within components of an activity system, (2) between components of an activity system, (3) between activity

systems, and (4) historical disturbances (contradictions within components over time). From a contradiction standpoint, Activity Theory could be defined as a process of contradiction-driven transformatory and expansive cycles, which incessantly re-develop activity systems over time. Therefore, an activity system analysis also necessitates a comprehensive search for contradictions with an ultimate motivation of realizing its potential as a springboard for transformation.

In conclusion, Activity Theory provides a comprehensive theoretical and interpretative tool to understand SLTE programs' efforts in preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts. More specifically, it provides a non-dualist approach to learning and development. In other words, it directs our attention to the inseparability of learning and acting, conceptualizes learning as an "activity in and with the world" (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 53) and practice as learning (Engeström, 1999) and views the activity *per se* as the unit of analysis. This non-dualist quality of Activity Theory led Barab and Duffy (2000) to suggest that distinction between individual and context also becomes trivial. This suggests that "context is not simply a container nor a situationally created experiential space but is an entire activity system, integrating the participant, the object, the tools (and even communities and their rules and divisions of labor) into a unified whole (Engeström, 1993)" (Barab et al., 2002, p.80). Therefore, an analysis focusing on systemic components (their operation and the interrelations among them) in tandem with a careful identification and resolution of the disturbances, tensions, and contradictions embedded in the activity system need to be integral sources of guidance in establishing the theoretical and interpretative foundation of the present study.

2.2.3.2. Activity Theory and SLTE

Considered to be “the best kept secret in academia” (Engeström, 1993, p. 64), Activity Theory has attracted considerable and growing attention in a wide range of academic disciplines and SLTE is no exception (Feryok, 2009; Johnson, 2009a; Swain, Kinnear, & Steinman, 2011). Having acknowledged the importance of Activity Theory for SLTE, Johnson (2009a) argued that “it is critical to account for how an individual’s activities shape and are shaped by the social, cultural, and historical macro-structures that constitute that professional world” (p.77). This dialogic perspective influencing the development of Self within SLTE activity is well-captured by Activity Theory.

One of the aims of the current discussion is to implement Activity Theory as a framework to investigate the current SLTE activity. Figure 2 below describes this activity. This representation indicates that the primary unit of analysis in SLTE activity, labeled by *subjects* category, is teacher-learners (Kennedy, 1991) or participants in university-based MATESOL teacher education programs. Teacher-learners are expected to go through a transformation and develop a knowledge-base. They participate in the programmatic activities in MATESOL programs for the purposes of producing the outcome defined as a level of preparedness to teach in diverse teaching settings.

This process of professional development is actualized or mediated through a number of mediational tools and artifacts that mediate the actions of the subjects within the system. The participants or subjects in the activity are equipped with certain tools and artifacts which include the curriculum, academic resources available to them such as coursework (readings, assignments, class discussions) and practicum (teaching, school visits, conferences, ELLs in the schools), and other program components such as their

program-culminating portfolio, and action research. In addition, teacher-learners utilize their predispositions or cognition regarding teaching-learning process, which is what Lortie (1975) referred to as “apprenticeship of observation.”

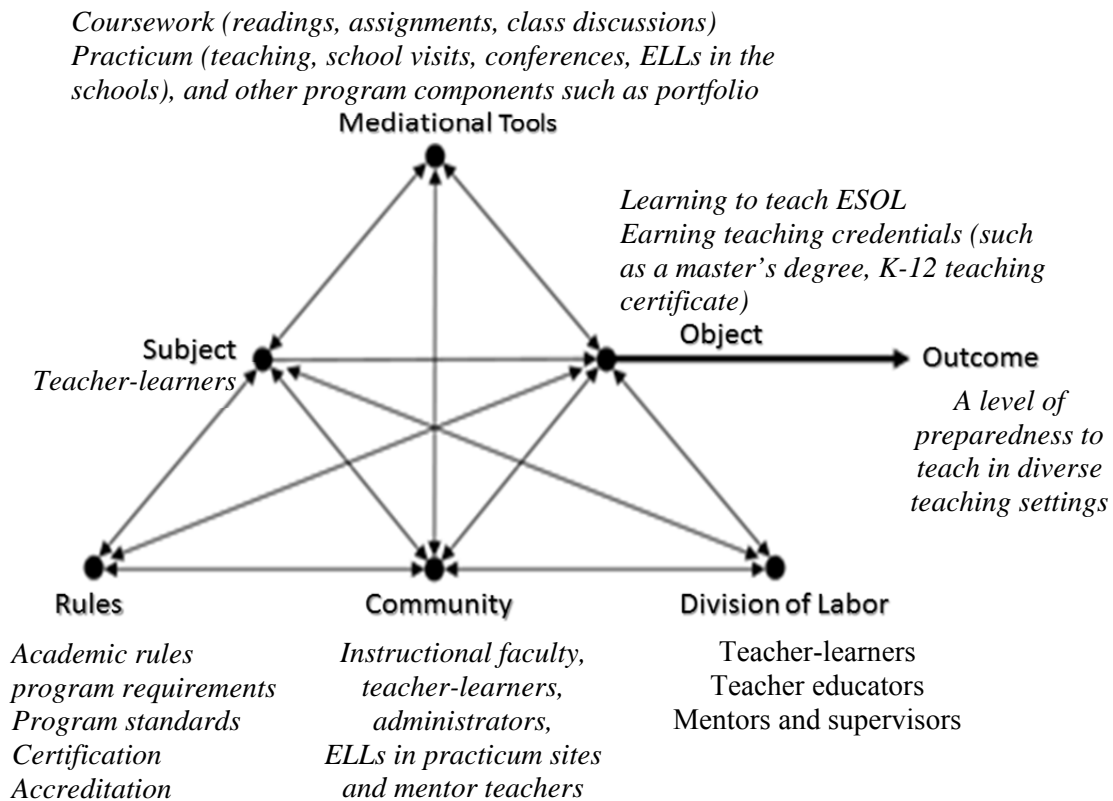


Figure 2. SLTE programs in the U.S. as activity system

The *object* of the activity, also known as the “raw material or problem space at which the activity is directed” (Engeström, 1993, p.67) is learning to teach English as a second or foreign language and earning teaching credentials (such as a master’s degree or a K-12 teaching certification). This includes the theoretical and practical knowledge necessary for teaching in a variety of contexts and working with a wide range of learners. The *community* component in the activity system includes teacher-learners and instructional faculty in the academic programs, mentor teachers, supervisors, ELLs in practicum sites, the TESOL profession, and society at large. The members comprising the

community in this activity have varying degrees of impact in the overall transformations of the participants, which might be manifested in an array of different ways and forms. Division of labor in the current activity reflects the visible interactions among various stakeholders in the activity, and is generally regulated by power and status relations (Thorne, 2004). The division of labor in SLTE activity is distributed among teacher-learners, instructional faculty, mentor teachers, practicum supervisors, and staff in local public school. Finally, the rules of the current SLTE activity includes a number of implicit and/or explicit norms regulating the overall activity and these rules include the current academic rules program requirements, program standards, and certification and accreditation requirements that are part of the organizational structure and operational procedures of MATESOL programs.

In conclusion, I argue that bringing a socioculturally informed activity theoretical lens to examine MATESOL programs provides a useful interpretative lens because (a) it conceptualizes the activity as the unit of analysis, which affords magnification of focus at individual and programmatic levels, (b) it offers a powerful interpretative lens focusing on the interrelationships among systemic components that comprise the activity of an MATESOL program, and (c) it provides a reality check to understand the extent to which MATESOL programs are sensitive to complex social, political, cultural, economic, and historical realities of the contexts where second language teachers are expected to teach (Johnson, 2009a). Following Johnson's (2009a) call for "understand[ing] broader social, cultural, and historical macro-structures that shape those activities" (p.77), to better understand "the activities that L2 teachers and their students engage in" (p.77), I will now

review the present state of the field of SLTE, review pre-service teacher education models, and provide a summary of empirical research on MATESOL programs.

2.3. Second Language Teacher Education

The exponential growth of the English language over the last couple of decades necessitated English language teaching by a great variety of individuals around the world, trained and untrained teachers, native and non-native speakers (Bailey, 2001). Ideally, effective learning practices depend on the professionals who are equipped with expertise in the English language, and specialize in English language teaching. Based upon this premise and the increasing interest in MATESOL programs (Christopher, 2005), it could be argued that the growth of the English language across the world meant the growth of the second language teacher education. The role and importance of teacher education is extensively acknowledged in the field of English language teaching. It is believed that teacher education programs in TESOL programs for both native and non-native speaking teachers have a critical impact on the development of English language learners (Moussu, 2006).

This section of the discussion will begin by presenting the historical development of SLTE, which dates back to the emergence and growth of TESOL as a field since the 1960s. This examination will place a specific emphasis on the interconnected nature and parallel growth of mainstream education and SLTE. It will be argued that the developments in mainstream education have been having a ripple effect on SLTE. The knowledge base of second language teacher education and teacher cognition are two distinct but interconnected domains of research which could be cited as manifestations of this effect. The second half of the discussion will be devoted more specifically to pre-

service teacher education programs with particular emphases on models and standards used in these programs, and a discussion on the complex picture of MATESOL programs in the United States.

2.3.1. An Overview of Second Language Teacher Education

The short history of second language teacher education is intertwined with that of TESOL and dates back to the 1960s (Richards, 2008a, 2008b). Since then, the breadth and depth of the field of SLTE has expanded considerably. In half a century, our understanding of teaching has undergone many changes, which has significantly impacted the ways we conceptualize the broader field of SLTE and more specifically, the scope of the knowledge base of SLTE, including the nature of teacher-learning both within and beyond the programs.

The first wave of the global expansion of English emerged with second language teaching methodologies such as Audiolingualism. The emergence of a particular approach for language teaching constituted the foundation of language teacher education first in short training programs such as CELTA (formerly RSA-CTEFLA, which stands for Royal Society of the Arts Certificate of Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Adults), which is a four to five week intensive course that leads to an internationally-recognized teaching certificate jointly issued by the Royal Society of Arts (RSA) the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES), a part of the University of Cambridge. The scope of these short courses included providing systematic training to individuals to provide them with the skills necessary to implement the new methods. Parallel to the growth of the English language and teacher education was the growth of applied linguistics as a discipline. The growing body of research and

knowledge accumulated in the discipline of applied linguistics was used to feed the curriculum of second language teacher education programs. The knowledge in applied linguistics (e.g. language analysis, learning theory, methodology, and sometimes a teaching practicum) became an essential aspect of the curriculum and the content of MATESOL programs, which began to be offered in the 1960s (Richards, 2008a). According to Crandall (2000), “applied linguistics (psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, language description, and language teaching and language methodology) formed the core of language teacher education, not unexpected, since language teaching has historically been the primary focus of applied linguistics (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1997; Crandall, 1995; 1996)” (p.34).

The decade of the 1980s is considered to be a period of attempts to systematize the goal and scope of SLTE. According to Freeman (2009), the top-down perspective that dominated throughout the 1980s had two central tenets: First, the goal of SLTE was to learn ways to apply professional input in contexts through the activity of teaching, where professional input was defined as a combination of knowledge and skills. Second, the context of teacher education was defined as a venue for application, and not as a basis of learning. This decade is also known as a period when language teachers, researchers and educators interested in teacher training and, teacher development established collaborative relations within professional organizations (Johnston & Irujo, 2002) . To be more specific, TESOL’s *Teacher Education Interest Section*, IATEFL’s (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language) *Teacher Development Special Interest Group*, and *Teacher Training Special Interest Group* (mid-1980), ACTFL’s (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) *Teacher Development Special*

Interest Group, and NABE's (National Association for Bilingual Education) *Professional Development Special Interest Group* were established in this decade.

It would not be far-fetched to argue that the field of second language teacher education grew exponentially in the 1990s in many aspects. The growth of advancements in the field were evident in the number of publications (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1997; Braine, 1999; Freeman & Cornwell, 1993; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Richards & Nunan, 1990; Roberts, 1998; Wallace, 1991; Woods, 1996), and in the broadening of the conceptual boundaries and (re)defining the theoretical underpinnings of SLTE (Freeman and Johnson, 1998). The developments in second language teacher education in the 1990s led to the four major shifts listed below (Crandall, 2000), which established the foundations of the developments and theoretical discussions in the first decade of the new millennium:

- (1) Shift from transmission, product-oriented theories to constructivist, process-oriented theories of learning, teaching and teacher learning,
- (2) Realization of the failure of language teacher education programs in preparing teachers for the realities of the classroom which acted as a rationale to “transform teaching through a focus on situated teacher cognition and practice, and the development of concrete and relevant linkages between theory and practice throughout the teacher education program” (p.35),
- (3) Growing recognition that “teachers’ prior learning experiences play a powerful role in shaping their views of effective teaching and learning and their teaching practices” (p.35),

- (4) Perception which views teaching as a profession, and teachers as agents for “developing theory and directing their own professional development through collaborative observation, teacher research, and inquiry, and sustained in-service programs, rather than the typical short-term workshop or training program” (p.36)

Crandall (2000) encapsulates her formulation of these points into her insightful evaluation of the field by arguing “in fact, the last decade can be viewed as a search for a theory of language teaching and, by extension, of language teacher education at both the micro and macro levels (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 1996; Larsen-Freeman, 1990; Richards, 1990)” (p.34).

Understanding the complex landscape of SLTE necessitates an understanding of the major cornerstones of the field and leads to a richer appreciation of the vital links between SLTE and ELT. To begin with, the dominant mentality that equated teacher development with mastering the discipline of applied linguistics attained through university-based master’s degree programs was criticized because of the lack of the emphasis given to the practical skills of language teaching (Richards, 2008a). This insightful criticism, which deeply examined the beliefs and the practices of teachers and teacher educators, and translated into institutionalized practices in SLTE, reached a culmination through the call for reconceptualization of the knowledge base of teachers. The re-examination of the traditional fundamentals of the knowledge base resulted in questioning the role of language-based knowledge for SLTE (Doğançay-Aktuna, 2006; Freeman, 2002; Freeman & Johnson, 1998, 2004). Combining the current debates regarding the teacher education curriculum and the need for reconceptualization of the

knowledge base of second language teachers, the synthesis by Burns & Richards (2009) outline the curricular implications as follows:

Rather than the Master's course being a survey of issues in applied linguistics drawing from the traditional disciplinary sources, coursework in areas such as reflective teaching, classroom research and action research now form parts of the core curriculum in many TESOL programs and seek to expand the traditional knowledge base of language teaching. (p.3)

Another prominent feature of SLTE today is the fact that the distinction between training and development (or education) is no longer valid. This perspective has been replaced by a new line of thinking that reformulates the nature of teacher learning and views it “as a form of socialization into the professional thinking and practices of a community of practice” (Richards, 2008b, p.160). While on one hand the knowledge base of second language teachers is in the process of reconceptualization (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, 2004), on the other, the foundation of the field is bolstered by sociocultural perspectives (Lantolf, 2000), and the field of teacher cognition (Borg, 2006). Finally, as Bailey (2001) argued, some widely held beliefs about English language teaching have been challenged in the new millennium (e.g. the (near-)native speaker as the goal of proficiency for language learners, benchmark of quality for language teachers; the shift from the standard English-only perception to recognition of English as an International Language (EIL), English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) and World Englishes paradigms; the shift from the monolingual approach to a multilingual approach in language teaching; the growing need for the use of information technologies in language learning-teaching). Fueled by the globalization of the English language and the necessity for English language teachers across the world, the teacher competencies, expectations, concerns, preparation, hiring

practices, roles of and collaboration between native and non-native English-speaking teachers have attracted considerable attention in the fields of English language teaching and teacher education.

Traditionally, second or foreign language teachers were native speakers of the target language with training in education, philology, linguistics or education, or they were individuals with near-native abilities. The literature suggests that even today, this perception is so alive that being a native speaker of a particular language is still considered enough to be able to teach the language (Braine, 1999; Kamhi-Stein, 2004). However, the global spread of English intertwined with the linguistic, pedagogical and sociopolitical implications lead to a reconceptualization of SLTE, and a recognition of the non-native English-speaking professionals in the field (Selvi, 2011b). The vitality of teacher education is particularly important for NNESTs who feel that discrimination in the workplace might stem from their lack of “qualification” caused by inadequate teacher preparation (Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Kamhi-Stein, 1999; Liu, 1999) and might lead to workplace and hiring discriminations (Selvi, 2010), despite a number of anti-discriminatory efforts by TESOL International (TESOL, 1992, 2006).

2.3.2. The Knowledge Base of Second Language Teacher Education

What constitutes, or should constitute, the knowledge base of SLTE? This has been one of the most important and controversial questions raised in SLTE. On one hand, it has been a vital question because it captures the essence of the field of SLTE (and therefore has significant implications in English language teaching) and serves as “...the basis upon which we make decisions about how to prepare second language teachers to do the work of this profession” (Johnson, 2009a, p.21). On the other hand, it has been

controversial by being at the heart of SLTE that has been undergoing “a quiet revolution” (Johnson, 2000, p.1), and being the core element of the “revolution’s manifesto” (Yates & Muchisky, 2003, p.135).

The typical relationship between mainstream teacher education and language teacher education was evident in the case of understanding and problematizing the knowledge base of second language teachers: borrowing the famous Newtonian metaphor, language teacher education was standing on the shoulders of giants (i.e. mainstream teacher education). The interest in the question of what constitutes the knowledge base of teachers emerged and grew in mainstream teacher education in the 1980s. The growing interest in this phenomenon paved the way for the emergence of a number of theoretical representations of the knowledge base of teachers especially at the K-12 level (Calderhead, 1996; Carter, 1990; Clandinin, 1985; Elbaz, 1983; Grossman, 1990; Shulman, 1987). At one end of the spectrum was the componential representation of teacher knowledge models (Grossman, 1990; Shulman, 1987), and at the other end, were rather experiential models (Elbaz, 1983; S. Johnston, 1992). Undoubtedly, the most influential framework of the time was the formulation of Shulman’s (1987) model of teacher knowledge, which was based upon the knowledge development of secondary school teachers, and consisted of the following categories of teachers’ knowledge:

1. Subject matter content knowledge
2. Pedagogical content knowledge
3. General pedagogical knowledge
4. Curricular knowledge
5. Knowledge of learners (and their characteristics)

6. Knowledge of educational aims, ends, goals, values and purposes
7. Knowledge of subject content

Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) is the most important component of Shulman's (1987) work and viewed as the "special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers" (p.8). For Shulman, successful teaching requires not only subject matter knowledge but also pedagogical content knowledge.

While this has been the case in SLTE, the plethora of models describing teacher knowledge in mainstream research generated an interest in the knowledge base of second language teachers. Building on Shulman's (1987) work, Day and Conklin (1992) proposed a model that contains four types of knowledge forming the knowledge base of second language teachers:

- 1. Content knowledge** — knowledge of the subject matter, linguistic and cultural aspects of the subject matter (e.g. aspects of language in terms of syntax, semantics, phonology, pragmatics, etc., literary and cultural aspects)
- 2. Pedagogic knowledge** — knowledge of teaching strategies, beliefs and practices (e.g. classroom management, motivation, beliefs and decision-making)
- 3. Pedagogic content knowledge** — knowledge of representing content knowledge in a way students come to understand the subject matter (e.g. difficulties, misconceptions, overcoming the barriers of learning, material evaluation, development and adaptation, program/curriculum evaluation and development, and ESOL methods)

4. Support knowledge — interdisciplinary perspectives that inform teaching and learning the language (e.g. research methods, SLA, and hyphenated linguistics such as psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, etc.)

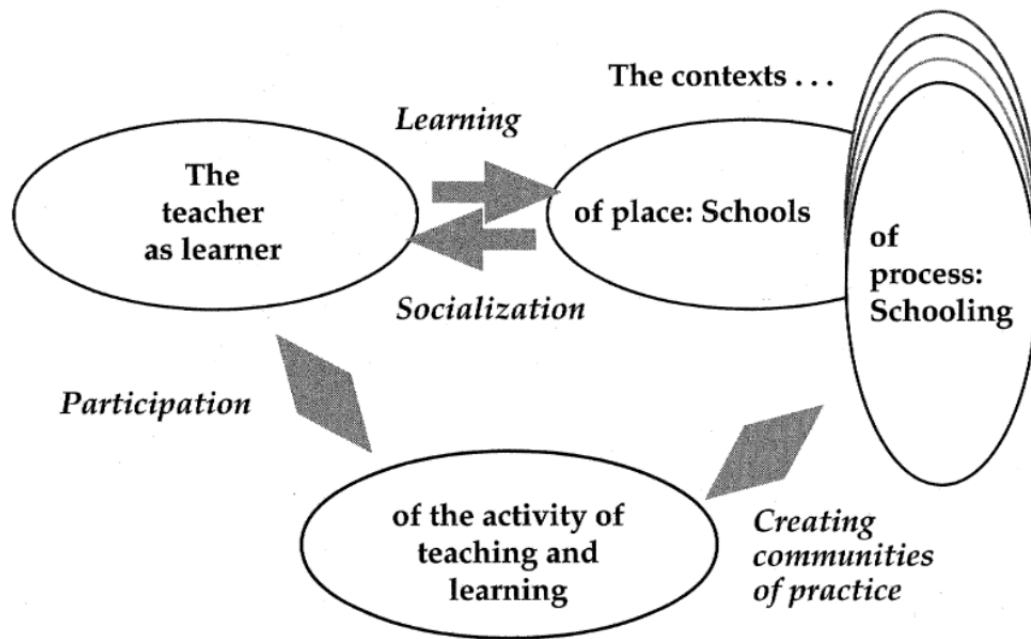
The model by Day and Conklin (1992) is obviously a domain-specific attempt to contextualize the growing interest in defining the knowledge base for language in the broader mainstream teacher education realm. This is a clear manifestation of the fact that the growth of inquiry investigating the knowledge base of second language teachers happened in tandem with the growth in the interest in mainstream education. This parallelism led Crandall (2000) to conclude that “language teacher education is a microcosm of teacher education, and many of the trends in current language teacher education derive from theory and practice in general teacher education” (p.34).

2.3.3. Reconceptualizing the Knowledge Base of Language Teacher Education

The previous section describes that there have been two perspectives within TESOL and SLTE when it comes to defining the knowledge base of the field: classroom teaching skills and pedagogic issues (i.e. knowledge how) and the knowledge about language and language learning (i.e. knowledge about) (Richards, 2008a). Richard’s (2008a) distinction asserts that while the latter knowledge constitutes knowledge about the language (e.g. language-related disciplines such as language analysis, phonology, syntax and semantics,) the core curriculum of SLTE programs, the former knowledge constitutes knowledge of how teachers teach the language (e.g. methodology, material evaluation, adaption, and development, curriculum design, etc.). The state of the field reviewed in the previous section has been severely criticized for being “behavioristic” and providing passive instructional settings that are disconnected from the actual realities of schools and classrooms that teachers will be a part of in the future (Freeman &

Johnson, 1998), and consequently often failing to apply such knowledge in their instructional practices (Bartels, 2006). This problematic nature stems from two important facts: first, it has been argued that “the knowledge base is largely drawn from other disciplines, and not from the work of teaching itself” (Freeman, 2002, p.1), and second, the conventional conceptualization of mainstream SLA does not provide a comprehensive view of the learning as it puts no emphasis on language learning as a socioculturally-mediated phenomenon (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Norton, 1997).

In the mid-1990s, teacher knowledge and cognition has entered into a massive transformation or “quiet revolution” (Johnson, 2000, p.1) that resulted in a call for a comprehensive re-evaluation of second language teacher knowledge. The call for reconceptualization of the knowledge base of second language teachers was argued in an article by Freeman and Johnson (1998) that appeared in a special issue of *TESOL Quarterly*, and became known as “the revolution’s manifesto” (Yates & Muchisky, 2003, p.135). In this article, Freeman and Johnson (1998) provided a revolutionary view of the knowledge base of language teaching, calling for a new formulation, which is germane and sensitive to sociocultural dynamics of the teaching-learning context and teachers’ professional practices in their classrooms. They provide a rationale by arguing that “the core of the new knowledge base must focus on the activity of teaching itself; it should center on the teacher who does it, the contexts in which it is done, and pedagogy by which it is done” (p. 397). As seen in Figure 3 below, their formulation is operationalized at three distinct levels: (a) the nature of the teacher-learner; (b) the nature of schools and schooling; and (c) the nature of language teaching, in which we include pedagogical thinking and activity, the subject matter and the content, and language learning (p. 406).



Note. Domains are in boldface; processes are in italics.

Figure 3. Framework for the knowledge-base of SLTE (from Freeman and Johnson, 1998, p. 406)

Today, the knowledge base in SLTE informs three broad areas (Johnson, 2009a, p.21):

- (1) The content of SLTE programs – What second language teachers need to know, or *knowledge about* (Richards, 2008b),
- (2) The pedagogies that are taught in second language teacher education program – How second language teachers should teach, or *knowledge how* (Richards, 2008b), and
- (3) The institutional forms of delivery through which both the content and pedagogies are learned – How second language teachers learn to teach, or the nature of teaching itself (Richards, 2008b).

The call for a reconceptualization of the knowledge base of SLTE by Freeman and Johnson (1998) has become a source of appreciation (Richards, 2008b) and discontent (Yates & Muchisky, 2003) in SLTE and TESOL. From a theoretical perspective, it could be argued that it signifies a shift from process-product paradigm to interpretative paradigm (Potocka, 2011), referred to as a “widening gyre” (Freeman, 2009, p.12), since it rests upon the foundation “that knowledge is socially constructed and emerges from the social practices that people engage in” (Johnson, 2009a, p.9) and practical aims of “documenting and analyzing what actually goes on in the classroom, rather than simply measuring the end point of learning” (Nunan, 1989, p.6).

Most significantly, Freeman & Johnson’s (1998) call meant a departure from positivistic stance positioned teachers “as conduits to students and their learning was found to be insufficient for explaining the complexities of teachers’ mental lives and the teaching processes that occur in classrooms” (Johnson, 2006, p. 236). This movement refreshed our traditional understanding of teacher education, which was traditionally defined as transmission of “discrete amounts of knowledge, usually in the form of general theories and methods that were assumed to be applicable to any teaching context” (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 399). With a greater emphases on “situatedness” of teacher-learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991), and the scrutiny of individual mental processes involved in the social nature of teacher-learning, the field of SLTE is now moving towards a more interpretative and constructivist paradigm. As a result, today, teacher-learning is considered to be occurring in a context and evolving through the participants’ interaction and participation in that context (Richards, 2008b) and “as translating knowledge and theories into practice but as constructing new knowledge and

theory through participating in specific social contexts and engaging in particular types of activities and processes” (Richards, 2008, p. 164). Finally, as Johnston and Irujo (2002) argue, the line of inquiry spearheaded by Freeman & Johnson (1998) is still in its infancy, and deserves further attention in areas such as how teachers acquire the knowledge they have, and disparate kinds and sources of knowledge available to teachers as crucial components in the context of teaching.

2.3.4. Second Language Teacher Cognition

Spearheaded by mainstream education research and more specifically aligned with the interpretative strands, the growing interest in teacher cognition research made field-specific impacts including SLTE and became an established area of inquiry in the mid-1990s. (Bartels, 2006; Borg, 2003, 2006; Freeman, 1996, 2002; Johnson, 2006; Woods, 1996). This line of inquiry was primarily concerned with understanding what teachers think, know and believe (Borg, 2006), and the interplay between their beliefs and practices. This growing interest resulted in a substantial body of research known as ‘teacher cognition research’, which, according to Borg (2006), refers to “the complex, practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs that language teachers draw on in their work” (p. 272). The growth of research in this domain since the 1970s has contributed to our understanding of teaching, professional development and teacher education, in general.

Dominated by the process-product paradigm in the 1970s, and cognitive psychology in the 1980s, teacher cognition became a well-established area of research in mainstream education from the 1980s onwards. Today, the general principles of teacher cognition are laid out by Phipps and Borg (2007) as follows:

- Teachers' cognitions can be powerfully influenced by their own experiences as learners;
- These cognitions influence what and how teachers learn during teacher education;
- They act as a filter through which teachers interpret new information and experience;
- They may outweigh the effects of teacher education in influencing what teachers do in the classroom;
- They can be deep-rooted and resistant to change;
- They can exert a persistent long-term influence on teachers' instructional practices;
- They are, at the same time, not always reflected in what teachers do in the classroom.
- They interact bi-directionally with experience (i.e. beliefs influence practices but practices can also lead to changes in beliefs).

These foundational principles are particularly important because they reveal what second language teachers –including pre-service teachers– know, think and believe, and how their conceptions influence their practices. Borg (2006) concludes that the research efforts in second language teacher education has confirmed many of the findings from mainstream education, and also provided domain-specific challenges faced by second language teachers.

Any discussion on teacher cognition in relation to teacher-learners in MATESOL programs would be incomplete if it did not make an emphasis on Lortie's (1975) notion of the "apprenticeship of observation," which refers to the "phenomenon whereby student

teachers arrive for their training courses having spent thousands of hours as schoolchildren observing and evaluating professionals in action” (M. Borg, 2004, p. 274). Lortie (1975) asserted that teacher-learners’ prior experiences as learners have a significant influence in their understanding about teaching and learning. As Kanno and Stuart (2011) reminded us the estimation by Kennedy (1990) who argued that while typical recipients of bachelor’s degrees have 3,060 days of experience as students, a typical graduate of teacher education programs only has 75 days of classroom experience. This extended period spent in the school context as students help individuals to develop an understanding of teaching and learning. More specifically, teacher-learners bring these conceptualizations of teaching and learning to the context of teacher education programs. From a constructivist point of view, this suggests the need to pay a considerable attention to the complex interrelations between teacher-learners prior knowledge and the programmatic efforts and activities. More importantly, acknowledging, foregrounding and building upon teacher-learners’ conceptions and predispositions are seen important aspects of mediational tools in teaching learning.

2.4. Pre-service Second Language Teacher Education

Teacher education, in general, is generally conceptualized in two main levels: pre-service education, and in-service education. While the former refers to the activity of teacher learning prior to undertaking any teaching assignment and actually engaging in the act of teaching, the latter refers to the course of professional development for practicing teachers throughout their careers (Chafe & Wang, 2008). The discussion in this section will present its scope within the U.S. context, and consists of three major sections,

namely, models in pre-service SLTE, standards in pre-service SLTE, and pre-service SLTE programs in the United States.

2.4.1. Models in Pre-service Second Language Teacher Education

Historically speaking, language teacher education programs are housed in departments such as applied linguistics, education, or languages and literature (Crandall, 2000), and English. This organic relationship between the academic programs and the SLTE practices result in particular, discipline-specific, conceptualizations of the knowledge base. To be more precise, the traditional knowledge base of second language teachers consisted of knowledge gathered through often disconnected, compartmentalized courses about language, language learning, language teaching and a field experience where these aspects were expected to transform into practice (Freeman & Johnson, 1998). A body of comprehensive declarative or explicit knowledge about the language was the dominant view about the knowledge base of second language teachers. It was hoped that the structural knowledge about the language would be transferred into reality through the activity of teaching.

Reviewing the models that are widely practiced in SLTE is particularly important in our quest to understand the current status of the field. Within the scope of this study, the term “model” refers to a characterization of “...the overall way in which a pre-service program presents or delivers knowledge to its learners... and should not be taken to refer to the focus of an individual course that may be offered by a program” (Day, 1991, p.41). Day (1991) identifies four major models of language teacher education: (1) the apprentice-expert or “craft” model (Wallace, 1991), (2) the rationalist model, (3) the case studies model, and (4) the integrative model.

The first of these models is the apprentice-expert model which is also known as “the craft model” (Wallace, 1991). Freeman (1996) labels this as “teaching as doing” or “the behavioral view.” He categorizes this view within the process-product paradigm research, and defines it as a model emphasizing the investigating teachers’ actions to develop skills or craft model of teacher education. The “craft” or apprentice-expert model, the oldest model still in use in a very limited way, aims to apprentice a less experienced trainee with an expert teacher. In this model, the expertise of teaching lies in the experienced teacher, and there is a one-way relationship between the trainer and trainee (Bardhun & Johnson, 2009). Expectedly, the less experienced trainee acquires knowledge through passive, behavioristic methods such as observation, instruction, discussion with the cooperating teacher, and is followed up by practice. This model has attracted considerable criticism, and has been labeled as “a static approach to a dynamic profession” (Wallace, 1991, p.6). Although Day (1991) agrees with the criticism to a great extent, he also argues that it helps the learner to build pedagogic, content and pedagogical content knowledge, and provide opportunities to develop experiential knowledge.

The second model is known as the rationalist model, and proposes the teaching of applied science to students and expects students to apply this knowledge in real-world teaching settings. Freeman (1996) labels this as “teaching as thinking and doing” and categorizes it within cognitive perspective. Freeman (1996) defines it as a model emphasizing teachers’ cognitions (i.e. what they know, how they know, how they conceive of what they do), fostering the development of cognitive orientation as a model of teacher education. Due to this shuttling between scientific knowledge (i.e. theory) and

real-life applications (i.e. practice), the model is also labeled as “theory-to-practice model” (Crandall, 2000, p.37) or “rationalist learn-the-theory-and-then-apply-it model” (Ur, 1992, p.56). The theoretical assumptions underlying this model assert that “teaching is a science and as such can be examined rationally and objectively” (Day, 1991, p.42), and such examinations are to be conveyed by the experts whose main duty is to inform students about the fundamental elements of the profession that they subjectively decide. Despite its widespread implementations in SLTE programs, the model has received four major criticisms: (a) it leads teacher educators to focus on transferring content rather than how it influences actual pedagogical practice (Lasley, 1989); and therefore students equate pedagogical practice to the application of their internalized scientific knowledge (Day, 1991); (b) it perpetuates the disconcert between theory and practice as the realities of teacher educators and teachers might not be aligned with each other (Wallace, 1991); (c) it fails to address many of the important issues in teaching English that the current theoretical discussions do not empirically address (Day, 1991); and (d) as Barduhn and Johnson (2009) argue “the followers of this model believe that all teaching problems can be solved by experts in content knowledge and not by the ‘practitioners’ themselves” (p.61). These criticisms lead Ur (1992) to conclude that the rationalist model does not contribute to the professional development of the students as it lays heavy emphasis on the theoretical studies which may not resonate with the pedagogical challenges of the teachers in real-life. Ur’s (1992) conclusion is that although the model is an excellent source of content and support knowledge it has a very limited value for pedagogic and pedagogical content knowledge (Day, 1991).

The third model, known as the case studies or reflective model, involves discussion, analysis, evaluation, and contemplating upon the snapshots of actual teaching practices. Freeman (1996) labels this as “teaching as knowing what to do” or “the interpretivist view,” and categorizes it within interpretivism, and defines it as a model evaluating teachers’ actions in different contexts and fostering the development of interpretation to theory and skill development as a model of teacher education. Barduhn and Johnson (2009) define this model as “the current trend in teacher education and development, envisions as the final outcome of the training period that the novice teacher become an autonomous reflective practitioner capable of constant self-reflection leading to a continuous process of professional self-development” (p.61). Although the case studies model has been embraced by law, business and medical schools in the US, it has not made the same impact in teacher education programs (Day, 1991). Having acknowledged the status of the model, Day (1991) further made the point that parallel to the growth of SLTE paradigm, “it is reasonable to anticipate the development of a case literature and the incorporation of a case studies approach into second language teacher education” (p.44). It was acknowledged that this approach which puts emphasis on knowledge acquisition through the study of cases is a good source of content knowledge but is rather limited in providing pedagogic, pedagogical content, and support knowledge.

The fourth model is called the integrative model and it is defined as “a systematic approach to second language teacher education that ensures that the learner gains pedagogic, content, pedagogical content, and support knowledge through a variety of experiences and activities” (Day, 1991, p.46). The model was as a criticism against the previous models since “relying exclusively on any one of them would result in a failure

to deal adequately with the knowledge base" (p.45). As its name suggests, it integrates the strengths of these models by fostering a component called "reflective practice" which refers to a critical examination of multifaceted nature of the knowledge base in a way to provide students with prominent understandings that lead to professional development. He further provides Schön's (2003) "reflection in action" model as the basis for teachers to experience a cyclical process of action-reflection-hypothesis development. Activities such as journals, and discussion groups that provide opportunities for incorporating reflective practice in SLTE create not only a milieu for reflecting on the experiential knowledge but also a rationale for testing the received knowledge. Finally, in order to maintain the notion of integration, Day (1991) argues that such activities need to be critical components throughout the program.

Today, Crandall (2000) argues that the current status of SLTE is partially in line with Day's (1991) notion of integrating all these models of language teacher education, but also differs from it because these models need to be integrated to varying extents, depending upon the experience and understanding of the teachers. Crandall's (2000) vision includes these methods but is not limited to them. She further highlights the need for "opportunities for teachers to reflect upon their beliefs and practices and to construct their personal theories of language teaching and learning (Bailey, 1992, Flowerdew *et al.*, 1992; Freeman & Richards, 1996; Sachs et al., 1996)" (p. 37).

2.4.2. Standards in Pre-service Second Language Teacher Education

The increase in the depth and breadth in the scope of English language teaching paved the way to a greater demand for professionalization in the field. Burns and Richards (2009) unpack this notion of professionalism and believe that it is

operationalized in three distinct levels: (a) ELT as a career in the realm of education, (b) ELT as a profession which necessitates a specialized knowledge base developed through academic study and practical experience in the field, and (c) ELT as a field of work regulated by entry requirements and standards. The interplay between English language teaching and teacher education cannot remain unaffected by the winds of change towards professionalism of English language teaching. Therefore, the increased professionalism results in wider accountability in language teaching practices which can only be ensured by proliferation of standards for English language teaching and teacher education. Today, English language teaching is a multi-billion dollar industry with professional journals, practitioner magazines, and professional conferences and organizations (Leung, 2009). Having addressed the first two levels in Burns and Richard's (2009) category, namely, ELT as a career in the realm of education, and as a profession which necessitates a specialized knowledge base, this section will specifically focus on the requirements and standards for English language teaching and teacher education.

As Antunez (2002) reported, there have been several national organizations, which contributed to the development of the standards movement by addressing the issue of teacher preparation, and drafting standards for teacher competencies. These organizations and their standards included AACTE's (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education) resolution entitled *Preparing Teachers for Second Language Learners* (2003), CREDE's (Center for Research on Education Diversity & Excellence) *Standards for Effective Teaching Practice* (1998), NABE's (National Association for Bilingual Education) Professional Bilingual/Multicultural Teachers (1992), TESOL/NCATE's (National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education) Standards

for Recognition of Initial TESOL Programs in P-12 ESL Teacher Education (2010), NBPTS's (National Board of Professional Teaching Standards) English as a New Language Standards (1998), and TESOL's (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) Pre-K-12 ESL Teacher Education Standards (2002). The common denominator of these standards is the emphasis given to aspects such as "proficiency in two languages, an understanding of the impact of students' cultures on their learning, and how to assist students in the development of their language abilities" (Antunez, 2002, p.3). Serving for language teacher candidates as "a frame, a map, to the range of alternative pedagogical strategies used by the teacher to optimize foreign language learning" (Phillips and Lafayette, 1996, p.201), these standards are important aspects of pre-service teacher education programs in the United States. Three important characteristics of the standards were outlined as "dynamic," "systemic," and, "encompassing a range of performance levels" (Katz & Snow, 2009, p.73).

To exemplify the standards movement in the context of United States, TESOL/NCATE program standards provide a foundation of teacher education consisting five major domains, as listed in Table 1 below. The TESOL/NCATE standards are primarily designed for initial teacher preparation but can also be used as guides for language teacher development in the early career and beyond (Tellez & Waxman, 2006). The importance of these standards in the U.S. context was recognized by Harper and de Jong (2009) who argued their significance is threefold: first, they spearheaded a movement towards the acknowledgement of the unique professional skills, knowledge and dispositions of ESL educators. Second, these standards generated and disseminated accountability by raising the quality benchmarks of teacher education programs in

institutions aiming to adopt or retain the NCATE accreditation. Third, “ESL had finally taken a legitimate place at the table along with other core curriculum areas such as English, Math and Science in which professional teaching qualifications were recognized and even required” (p.139).

Table 1.

TESOL/NCATE Standards for Recognition of Initial TESOL Programs in P-12 ESL Teacher Education (TESOL, 2010)

Domain 1: Language

Candidates know, understand, and use the major theories and research related to the structure and acquisition of language to help English language learners’ (ELLs’) develop language and literacy and achieve in the content areas.

Domain 2: Culture

Candidates know, understand, and use major concepts, principles, theories, and research related to the nature and role of culture and cultural groups to construct supportive learning environments for ELLs.

Domain 3: Planning, Implementing, and Managing Instruction

Candidates know, understand, and use evidence-based practices and strategies related to planning, implementing, and managing standards-based ESL and content instruction. Candidates are knowledgeable about program models and skilled in teaching strategies for developing and integrating language skills. They integrate technology as well as choose and adapt classroom resources appropriate for their ELLs.

Domain 4: Assessment

Candidates demonstrate understanding of issues and concepts of assessment and use standards-based procedures with ELLs.

Domain 5: Professionalism

Candidates keep current with new instructional techniques, research results, advances in the ESL field, and education policy issues and demonstrate knowledge of the history of ESL teaching. They use such information to reflect on and improve their instruction and assessment practices. Candidates work collaboratively with school staff and the community to improve the learning environment, provide support, and advocate for ELLs and their families.

The efforts in the development of foundational standards for teacher education are not limited to English-speaking countries. There have been number of initiatives fostering

standards development in countries such as China (Agor, 2006), Egypt (Katz & Snow, 2003), and Oman (Katz & Snow, 2009), at both pre-, and in-service levels. In addition, the Council of Europe's (2001) Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) could be cited as a valid example of standards ensuring the communication among different European nations belonging to different linguistic and cultural heritage.

The quest for standardizing and providing quality practices in any sector or field has always been a tremendous challenge, and the fields of TESOL and SLTE are not exceptions. Despite the considerable efforts in many countries and by numerous professional organizations (Leung & Teasdale, 1998) in this direction, there is no widely held consensus on the standards of quality in language teaching and language teacher education, or teacher competencies (Katz & Snow, 2009; Murray, 2001). Despite being valued for providing a framework for language teacher competencies, these standards have also received criticisms. Richards (2008a) reported that these efforts are often criticized for being an extension of business and organizational management models that are based on intuition rather than research; and therefore, might be considered as a reductionist approach in learning.

2.4.3. MATESOL Programs in the United States

Throughout the paper, it has been argued that the global influx of the English language increases the need for English language, and consequently necessitates ubiquitous implementations of English language teaching activities by language teachers. Considering the fact that the global rise of English is likely to continue in the 21st century (Graddol, 1997), it could be further argued that the need for competent English language teachers is more relevant than ever. There lies the critical importance second language

teacher education for TESOL profession. This section will present the landscape of MATESOL programs in the U.S. by making specific references to program and student profiles.

2.4.3.1. MATESOL Program Profiles

The argument above regarding the rise of the English and the importance of SLTE is manifested in the growth in the number of MATESOL programs in the U.S., as well as the number of individuals attending these programs. Historically speaking, the enactment of the National Defense Education Act in 1964, in the context of post-Sputnik era, spurred the interest in English as a second language teaching and provided the gateway for teacher training. It resulted in galvanized interest in second language teaching manifested in increased funding allocated to these programs to identify more effective ways of teaching foreign languages. This movement paved the way to the emergence of Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) (also known as “Army Method”), which was later adopted in non-military context and known as Audiolingual Method. Based upon B. F. Skinner’s ideas on behavioral psychology, borrowed from Direct Method and utilized structural linguistic theories, Audiolingual method was a popular language teaching method in 1960s. The growing interest in language teaching expectedly paved the way to a greater interest in teacher preparation. As reported by Kreidler (1987), 46 programs in 36 institutions were listed in a 1972 directory of TESOL preparation programs. Within a little more than a decade, the number of programs listed in the *Directory of Professional Preparation Programs in TESOL in the United States* reached 196 in 143 institutions in 1987 (Frank-McNeil, 1986). The updated directory listed 350 programs in 194 institutions in 1998 (Garshick, 1998). Today, there are approximately

420 programs in 232 institutions in the United States and Canada (Christopher, 2005).

Figure 4 below describes the growing historical trend of TESOL programs in the United States in terms of the number of programs and institutions.

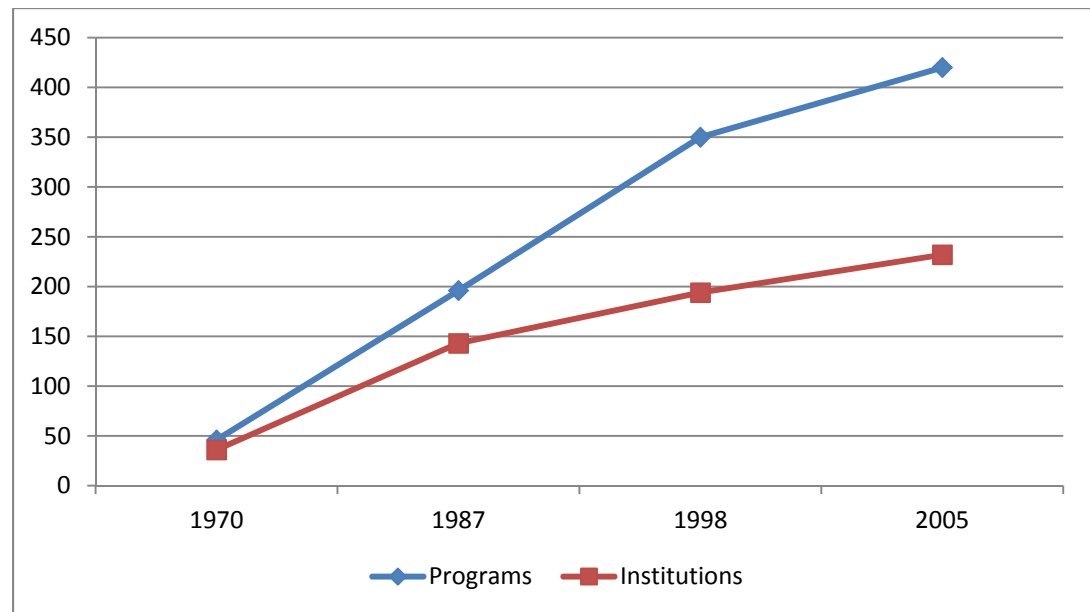


Figure 4. Historical development of TESOL programs in the U.S. between 1970-2005 (Adapted from Christopher, 2005)

The figure is particularly important because it represents the horizontal and vertical growth of the field. First, it describes the developmental trajectory of the SLTE field in the United States in the last 40 years. To be more specific, the number of SLTE programs has increased more than 9 times between 1970 and 2005. Similarly, the number of institutions hosting these programs increased more than 6 times within this period. This could be perceived as the horizontal growth of the field. Second, it clearly represents that the SLTE field has expanded in terms of both depth and breadth. To be more specific, there is almost one-to-one correspondence between the number of programs and institutions in 1970s. However, the growth of the field also meant the growth in terms of

specialization in the field, which is reflected in the ratio of programs to institutions. As of 2005, the average program-institution ratio doubled. The growth of programs within the same institution could be interpreted as deeper specialization (through different programs and tracks) or vertical growth in the SLTE field.

In this phase of the discussion, the program characteristics of MATESOL programs in the United States will be deconstructed to demonstrate the complexities of the present situation of SLTE programs.

No uniform degree. The lack of uniformity in terms of degree refers to the fact that academic programs with similar goals and aims might grant either Master's of Arts (M.A.), Master's of Education (M.Ed.) or Master's of Arts in Teaching (M.A.T.) degrees. Therefore, when investigating pre-service teacher education programs, the term MATESOL does not capture the entire picture, and necessitates a more comprehensive outlook.

No uniform title. Likewise, academic programs with similar goals and aims might have different names such as M.A./M.Ed./M.A.T. in TESOL, English with specialization in TESOL, Second Language Education and Culture, Second Language Studies, Applied Linguistics, Bilingual Education and TESOL. Therefore, understanding stereotypical naming of the MATESOL programs requires deconstructing the term because neither "MA" nor "TESOL" might be sufficient enough to understand the whole picture.

No particular location. In the same vein, academic programs with similar goals and aims might be housed in different departments ranging from Linguistics to English and to Curriculum and Instruction, and sometimes in different colleges ranging from

Education to Humanities. In contrary to general stereotype, the fact that “T” in MATESOL refers to “teaching” does not necessarily mean that these academic programs are located in Colleges of Education.

Different tracks. The concept of specialization comes into the play as another difference in our quest for understanding pre-service second teacher language teacher education programs in the United States. There exist different track options such as those that lead to state-wide certification, and those that do not.

Different formats. The growth of information technologies have provided opportunities for different formats of these programs ranging from purely online environments to hybrid contexts where the instruction is a combination of online and in-class environments, to entirely conventional in-class formats.

Admission requirements. These programs tend to follow the admission requirements such as undergraduate GPA above 2.50-3.00/4.00, TOEFL (and sometimes TSE) and sometimes GRE scores by the graduate school of the institution, and also have program-specific requirements such as letters of recommendation, and a statement of purpose.

Exit requirements. This is one area where a greater variability is observed due to the very diverse nature of the programs across the nation, or even within same institution. While some programs require successful completion of the coursework, others require coursework and a comprehensive exam, and some others might require a thesis, or a mandatory practicum.

Duration. The duration of MATESOL programs varies across the nation.

Usually, the programs run between 2 semesters to 6 semesters, and a great majority of the programs are 4 semesters.

Practicum. The practicum is an essential component in pre-service SLTE.

Therefore, most of the programs do mandate practicum as part of their curriculum. Yet, there are institutions which do not require practicum component, or require a practicum for certain tracks, such as those that lead to certification.

Having a closer look at the global landscape of pre-service second language teacher education programs in the U.S. leads us to conclude that the current picture of MATESOL programs in the U.S. context consists of a number of a very complex, and sometimes fragmented pieces. This fragmented, diverse and complicated landscape in SLTE necessitates the deconstruction of the term MATESOL, which is the Zeitgeist of the field.

2.4.3.2. MATESOL Student Profiles

Another important facet in our quest to understand the current status of MATESOL programs in the U.S. is the diverse profiles of teacher-learners in these programs. This is particularly important since the graduates of MATESOL programs in the U.S. are recruited to fulfill the need for English language teaching professionals both in the U.S and beyond.

A closer examination of MATESOL programs easily reveal the complex backgrounds of teacher-learners in these programs. More specifically, MATESOL programs in the U.S. welcome teacher-learners who bring a range of diversities in terms of age, post-programmatic aims, past teaching and learning experience, academic

background, ethnic, linguistic and racial orientations. Despite the fact that many non-native English-speaking teachers attend teacher education programs in their home countries, there has been a growing trend in terms of students attending MATESOL programs in English-speaking countries in the last couple of decades. The survey on international students and program administrators in MATESOL programs (England & Roberts, 1989), and on NNS students (D. Liu, 1999) both showed that about 40% of all teacher-learners in these programs were non-native English-speaking individuals. This important figure validates the need for a closer examination of MATESOL programs to the extent, which they accommodate the needs of both NS and NNS teachers (K. A. Johnson, 2001).

On one hand, the diversity of student profiles could be considered to be a unique asset for these programs since diversity of individuals means diversity of perspectives and a more enhanced teacher-learning environment not only for teacher-learners but also for teacher educators. That being said, this complexity of orientations (both in terms of diversity of orientations teacher-learners bring to their programs and their post-program aims covering various teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts) also posits unique challenges that MATESOL programs are to address in order to provide effective teacher preparation. An important implication of this diversity concerning the MATESOL programs is the multifaceted picture of a typical teacher-learner in these programs. As graduates of these programs join the English language teaching force in the U.S. and international contexts, it becomes almost impossible to make straightforward conclusions (such as “U.S.-born students teach in the U.S.,” or “international students teach in international contexts”) about these populations.

2.5. Review of Research

This section of the literature review chapter is primarily oriented towards reviewing the relevant research regarding MATESOL programs in the United States. More specifically, this section consists of four main areas, namely studies on teacher-learners in MATESOL programs in the U.S., on content of MATESOL programs, on teacher educators' in MATESOL programs, and finally on the expectations of TESOL program administrators' expectations from MATESOL programs.

2.5.1. Studies on Teacher-learners in MATESOL Programs in the U.S.

Studies focusing on the perceptions of teacher-learners in MATESOL programs are particularly important as they constitute an integral feedback mechanism in our understanding of the current state of these programs as well as provide insights into how these programs should look like in the future. Within the scope of this study, four major pillars of the current literature will be reviewed, namely teacher-learner characteristics, post-program aims, self-perceptions as prospective teachers, and pre-service teacher cognition, each serving as parameters affecting teacher candidates' perceived effectiveness of the programs they attend.

Regardless of the academic field, institutions of higher education in the United States have always been a source of academic excellence and therefore attracted students from all around the world. This phenomenon also holds true for MATESOL programs. Despite the fact that these programs across the world are the primary sources for local teacher development, MATESOL programs in the U.S. are comprised of a combination of domestic and international teacher-learners. (D. Liu, 1999; England & Roberts, 1989; Llurda, 2005). To be more specific, England & Roberts (1989) investigated students and

program administrators in 63 MATESOL programs in the U.S. and found out that 42.5% of all MATESOL students were NNSs of English as of 1989. Within less than a decade, the TESOL's Directory of Professional Development Programs in TESOL in the U.S. and Canada (1995) listed that 37% of the graduates of the TESOL programs (both MA and PhD, both in the U.S. and Canada) were NNSs (D. Liu, 1999). This number corroborated a study by Llorca (2005) where he focused on 32 TESOL graduate programs in North America, where 36% of the prospective teachers were NNSs of English. Due to the fact that NSs are usually trained in their own countries, no similar studies are found in the EFL context, as MATESOL programs outside the U.S., both at graduate and undergraduate levels, host predominantly NNSs of English (Medgyes, 1999).

Another theme representing the studies investigating students in SLTE programs, and particularly MATESOL programs, is the students' post-program aims. The growing literature suggests that a great majority of NNSs who travel to the U.S. for the MATESOL programs are likely to return their home countries at the end of their programs. In her survey, Polio (1994) worked with 43 NNS MATESOL students and found out that 90% of them planned to return to their home countries to teach English after graduation. Almost a decade later, a similar trend was observed in Llorca (2005) where 78% of all NNS participants were likely to return to their home countries upon graduation. Despite this likelihood, which is spearheaded by visa and work permit regulations, our personal interactions and anecdotal evidence suggest that many international students in these programs share their interest in working in the U.S. upon graduation. While some international students do take various teaching positions in the U.S. and stay in the country permanently, others would like to return to their home

countries after getting work experience in the United States. When combined with relevant work experience, the symbolic value of an MATESOL degree from an institution of higher education in the U.S. becomes more valuable. The other side of the coin is the domestic or U.S.-born teacher-learners. Similarly, their post-programmatic aims are complex and includes both the U.S. and international contexts.

As mentioned briefly mentioned before, self-perception as prospective English language teachers was another facet of research on students in MATESOL programs. The common denominator in the literature investigating this is that there are a number of factors influencing MATESOL students' self-perceptions as prospective language teachers. To better explicate this point, Samimy & Brutt-Griffler (1999) worked with 17 NNS TESOL graduate students who are in MA and PhD TESOL programs. Respondents in this study were reportedly subscribed to "native speaker fallacy" (Phillipson, 1992), and believed that NESTs were superior teachers as compared to NNESTs. The respondents in their study acknowledged the difficulty of feeling qualified, and appreciated especially in ESL contexts where their professional identities and thereby teaching competencies are questioned. On the other hand, they perceived themselves as socially, culturally, emotionally or experientially-sensitive role models in their home countries. The results of this study corroborate Llurda's (2005) and Reves and Medgyes's (1994) findings where they showed that the self-perceptions of the prospective teachers depend on a number of factors including the teaching context.

As briefly reviewed in the previous section, research on the pre-service teacher cognition has attracted considerable attention in the SLTE literature. Teacher cognition research emerged in the late 1970 at the same time as cognitive perspectives, and is now

a well-defined, and well-established field of research. Probably just like any other growing research domain, it has been developing in a rather fragmented fashion with a wide spectrum of issues being studied from an array of diverse perspectives (Borg, 2006). The transformation in the field of SLTE, a shift from behaviorist to situated, socially-appropriate views of teacher education and teacher-learning (Johnson, 2009a), had a lasting impact on the teacher cognition research. More specifically, pre-service teacher cognition research aims to shed light on trainee's prior learning experiences and cognitions, their beliefs about language teaching, their decision-making, beliefs, and knowledge during the practicum and change in trainees' cognition during teacher education (Borg, 2006; 2009). This section will cover the aspects which refer to points other than practicum, as it will be discussed as part of the discussion in the next section, the content of TESOL programs.

The role of prior language learning experience is well-defined in pre-service language teacher cognition research. Lortie (1975) initiated this view by establishing the notion of the "apprenticeship of observation," which refers to the belief that prior experiences as learners informs the beliefs about teaching held by prospective teachers. This perspective has a significant impact on the treatment of teachers' prior knowledge in SLTE curriculum and practicum practices, as formulated by Graves (2009): "teachers were not empty vessels; the educational program was not a matter of filling them with knowledge of content and pedagogy" (p.117). To put this view differently, Borg (2009) argued that "at the start of teacher education, then, pre-service teachers will already have strong beliefs about teaching, and there is much evidence that these ideas have a persistent influence on trainees throughout their initial training and beyond" (p.164).

Researchers illustrated how these beliefs had diverse impacts on pre-service teachers by different sources such as learning histories (Bailey et al., 1996), at different stages or contexts of teacher education such as practicum (Farrell, 2001; Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996; Warford & Reeves, 2003). In general, pre-service teachers are believed to bring a set of prior language learning experiences, which may foster or hinder their teacher-learning (Borg, 2009).

In the studies discussed above, it becomes clear that the literature focusing on MATESOL students has a number of gaps. First, it has been dominated by NNEST-driven perspectives, which suggests that our understanding of MATESOL programs is predominantly shaped by the limited studies focusing on NNSs of English. This is particularly problematic for two main reasons. First, it limits our perspective to NNSs of English and ignores the voices of NSs in these programs. Second, and even more importantly, it has a potential threat of treating NSs and NNSs as monolithic group of individuals. In fact, the English language teaching activity encompasses diverse teaching contexts and learners and welcomes both native and non-native-speaking professionals as indispensable parts of the labor force. This perspective translates into the need for NESTs in non-English-speaking contexts as well as NNESTs in English-speaking contexts. In order to better understand the reflection of this complexity in the teacher education realm, the current study includes the perspectives from teacher-learners from diverse ethnolinguistic backgrounds who have a multitude of different post-programmatic aims. Pursuing this route will also provide a detailed descriptive account of teacher-learners' reasons for enrollment in MATESOL programs in the U.S. and the interplay between their programs and future teaching activities.

2.5.2. Studies on the Content of MATESOL Programs in the U.S.

Throughout its short history, the structural organization of, and the curricular content in MATESOL programs have attracted the attention of teacher educators and researchers. What lies at the heart of this debate is the knowledge base of SLTE (Freeman & Johnson, 1998) and how MATESOL programs provide this knowledge (Tedick, 2005). As discussed earlier in the paper, the traditional knowledge base foundations of SLTE have been rooted in applied linguistics, which defined SLTE as a process of accumulation of interdisciplinary knowledge about the language (Byrnes, 2000; Richards, 2008). However, the realization of the importance of “pedagogical content knowledge” (Shulman, 1987) in mainstream teacher education transformed our understanding of what language teachers need to know, thereby how language teacher education programs need to prepare them. As a result of this, spearheaded by Freeman and Johnson (1998), the field has called for a reconceptualizing of the knowledge base of SLTE highlighting the activity of teaching, teacher learning, beliefs, knowledge and practices informing language teaching as the fundamentals of the contemporary knowledge base. The implication of this trend in SLTE programs has been insightfully laid out by Richards (2008a) as follows:

Rather than the Master’s program being a survey of issues in applied linguistics drawn from the traditional disciplinary sources, course work in areas such as reflective teaching, classroom research, and action research is now part of the core curriculum in many TESOL programs that seek to expand the traditional knowledge base of language teaching. (p.5)

Having recapped the aforementioned pillars in SLTE research, it is imperative to move towards a direction where I explicate curricular practices woven into the fabric of SLTE practices in the United States. These practices could be grouped under three major

headings, namely, the role of linguistics and linguistic knowledge in the content of these programs, the role and impact of practicum, and teacher preparation for local and international contexts.

As briefly mentioned above, SLTE curricula has traditionally attributed a critical attention to linguistic knowledge in language teacher preparation activity, as “knowledge of how language is structured, acquired, and used remains fundamental to our understanding of language learning and the activity of language teaching” (Johnson & Golombek, 2002, p.8). The fundamental motivation behind encompassing linguistics and linguistic knowledge in SLTE practices was the assumption that linguistic knowledge would equip teachers with a better understanding of the integral representations of the language that they teach, and therefore enable them with skills needed for catering student problems (Bartels, 2005). As Potocka (2011) argued, “our history [in SLTE]...assumes one can simply take disciplinary knowledge about language and SLA and apply it to the language classroom” (p. 174) because “knowledge base of SLTE has been defined largely based on how language learners acquire a second language and less so on how L2 teaching is learned or how it is practiced” (Johnson (2009a, p. 21). In spite of the recent call for reconceptualizing the knowledge base of SLTE, today, a great majority of MATESOL programs in the U.S. include advanced linguistics courses as an integral part of their language teacher education practices (Govardhan *et al.*, 1999). Still, this call for promoting the activity of teaching itself over the linguistic theory and consequently, envisioning SLTE practices sensitive to the interplay between social contexts and pedagogical processes raised question marks over the omnipresence of linguistic training and thereby infused researchers with critical perspectives on the

debate. In this vein, Johnston and Goettsch (2000) contended that "...it is the teaching that is most important, not the language: that language teaching is first and foremost an educational enterprise, not a linguistic one" (p.438). Govardhan *et al.* (1999) situates this argument within MATESOL programs in the U.S., and attested that most of these programs perpetuate "an overinfusion of elements of linguistic theory only remotely relevant to language pedagogy" (p.121-122). Despite these institutional practices, LaFond and Doğançay-Aktuna (2009) reported anecdotally that students in SLTE programs share the pervasive critical perspectives questioning the role and importance of linguistic theory in their professional development. Even more interestingly, when they share "... theoretical findings to language teachers in the field, we have found that in-service skepticism about the value of linguistic theory sometimes mirrors the pre-service lack of interest" (p.346), a view shared by other teacher educators in the field. In conclusion, linguistics and linguistic knowledge has penetrated so deep into the knowledge base of SLTE that the current SLTE practices and curricula are still under the influence of the traditional views.

Another theme that attracted considerable attention in the literature focusing on the content of MATESOL programs in the U.S. is the role and impact of the practicum experience on prospective teachers' professional development. Today, despite having a variety of names such as practicum, practice teaching, field experience, internship or teaching experience, some form of teaching experience is a common practice in many SLTE programs (Borg, 2009). Regardless of the name given to it, the practicum is considered to be an integral aspect of pre-service language teacher development (Clarke & Collins, 2007). Highlighting the institutionalized manifestation of this belief, Reid

(1997) reported that almost two thirds of the MATESOL programs in the U.S. require supervised teaching practice as part of their curricula. In her compilation described in Table 2 below, Gebhard (2009) outlines the opportunities that the practicum experience provides for pre-service teachers:

Table 2.
The Goals of Practicum (from Gebhard, 2009, p. 251)

Goals of Practicum	Reference
(1) gain practical classroom teaching experience; (2) apply theory and teaching ideas from previous course work; (3) discover from observing experienced teachers; (4) enhance lesson-planning skills; (5) gain skills in selecting, adapting, and developing original course materials.	Richards and Crookes (1988)
(6) expand awareness of how to set their own goals related to improving their teaching	Crookes (2003)
(7) question, articulate, and reflect on their own teaching and learning philosophies, which include an amalgamation of assumptions, beliefs, values, educational, and life experiences	Crookes (2003); Gebhard and Oprandy (1999); Johnson (1996); Pennington (1990); Richards (1998)
(8) see their own teaching differently by learning <i>how</i> to make their own informed teaching decisions through systematic observation and exploration of their own and others' teaching	Fanselow (1988); Gebhard and Oprandy, (1999)

In order to achieve these goals, the practicum activity consists of a number of teacher development activities including actual classroom teaching, keeping teaching journals and portfolios, observation of other teachers (pre-service and in-service), self-observation and reflection, and seminar discussions (with fellow pre-service teachers, mentor teachers and teacher educators), mentoring, supervision, and action research.

Traditionally speaking, the rationale behind including school-based pre-service teaching in campus-based teacher education programs is to overcome the perennial

theory-practice polarity, which has permeated the field of SLTE (Johnson, 2006), and to substitute it with the notion of “praxis” (Sharkey, 2009, p. 126), which eradicates the dichotomy and binary opposition and fosters and sustains an ongoing dialogical relationship between two. To be more specific, SLTE programs were operated by the premise that pre-service teachers who are theoretically equipped with content and pedagogy would be able to transform their knowledge into practice in their practicum activities. This belief could be perceived as a direct influence of the “training” (as opposed to development) framework (Burns & Richards, 2009) dominating second language teacher education at the time. Gebhard (2009), on the other hand, viewed the practicum as an activity to foster teacher “development” (as opposed to training) where the practicum experience is defined in terms of opportunities for teacher-learning, socialization into the teaching environment, developing teacher identity, learning to collaborate with others, and developing a critical understanding to evaluate teaching practices. This contemporary perspective initiates a shift in our understanding of practicum from a point where it is defined as an activity to apply theoretical knowledge from the SLTE program, to a point where it is viewed as a central process providing teachers with social context to grow as teachers. This could be attributed to the efforts to broaden the depth and scope of SLTE. To illustrate this point, Johnson (1994) reported that pre-service teachers’ viewed teaching experience as more influential than their experience in SLTE programs, and they reached this conclusion by critically evaluating the applicability of SLA theories, the skeleton of the traditional knowledge base of SLTE. Johnson’s (1994) findings were particularly influential in establishing the foundation for the transformation of the knowledge base of SLTE, as the teaching experience acted as a

reality check (in)validating SLA theories for the participants. In the same vein, Gebhard (2009) reported that student-teachers often perceive a gap between the theoretical courses offered in teacher education programs and the practicum component.

The interest in the relationship between SLTE programs and teaching practices within MATESOL programs is not limited to Johnson's (1994) study. For instance, a number of researchers investigated the role of prior language learning in teacher-learning during practicum (Numrich, 1996; Warford & Reeves, 2003), and especially the impact of teachers' own experiences as language learners had on their approach to teaching and their understanding of how we learn language. Golombek (1998) investigated the role of personal practical knowledge in ESL practices of two ESL teachers, and reported that personal practice knowledge, consisting of the knowledge of the self, subject matter, instruction and context, provide these pre-service teachers with a framework to analyze and interpret their classroom practices. Numrich (1996) investigated 26 pre-service ESL teachers' perceptions of needs during their practicum using diaries and found out that teachers had a number of concerns regarding time management, providing effective directions, catering to students' needs and teaching grammar. Warford & Reeves (2003) approached to the issue from a different perspective by focusing on understanding the influence of the preconceptions of the pre-service teachers during the practicum. They concluded that pre-service teachers "do not enter [these programs] with a tabula rasa" (p.61), a finding validating earlier research.

The role and impact of the practicum also attracted attention in the NNEST literature where researchers generally approached the issue from the perspectives of socialization processes and identity development of prospective NNESTs in MATESOL

programs. These studies investigated the practicum course contents (Brady & Gulikers, 2004; Polio & Wilson-Duffy, 1998), self-perceptions (Brinton, 2004; Polio & Wilson-Duffy, 1998) and the perceptions of host teachers and practicum supervisors (Derwing & Munro, 2005; Llurda 2005; Nemtchinova, 2005). Brady and Gulikers (2004) and Polio and Wilson-Duffy (1998) argued that the practicum courses need not only address issues of teacher proficiency, but also provide pedagogically, academically, contextually-meaningful and supportive environments for the development of prospective teachers. Both of these studies highlighted the need for creating learning opportunities relevant to teaching outside the United States.

The last but not the least facet of inquiry focusing on the content of pre-service SLTE programs is the interplay between the curricula and the preparation of native and non-native-speaking students for local and international teaching contexts. However, the discrepancy between the content of teacher education programs and the realities of the teaching context has been one of the dominating characteristics of SLTE research (Braine, 1999; Canagarajah, 2005; Holliday, 2005; Johnson, 1996; Gebhard, 2009). Therefore, this section will focus on the studies investigating the different roles that SLTE programs play to overcome these contradictions. The specific emphasis will be on the roles of these programs such as preparing teachers to teach in local and international teaching settings, serving as a venue to develop NS' and NNS' needs, and fostering NS and NNS collaboration.

Understanding the role, impact and effectiveness of MATESOL programs in preparing teachers for local and international teaching settings has attracted the attention of a number of researchers (Braine, 1999; Canagarajah, 1999; 2005; D. Liu, 1998;

England & Roberts, 1989; Govardhan et al., 1999; Kamhi-Stein, 2004, 2009; Kamhi-Stein *et al.*, 1999). Govardhan et al. (1999) examined the content of 120 MATESOL programs in the TESOL Directory and were not able “identify any program that [was] quintessentially geared toward preparing ESL/EFL teachers for teaching abroad” (p.122). Moreover, their analysis showed that TESOL programs in North America have only several courses relating loosely to English language teaching in international contexts. Polio and Wilson-Duffy (1998), on the other hand, approached the issue from the perspective of NNS pre-service teachers. Having observed that the general tendency of these teachers to go back to their home countries to teach English, the authors noted that MATESOL programs do not provide enough courses addressing the professional issues and challenges that these prospective teachers face once they graduate. In the same vein, Derbel and Richards (2007) conducted a small-scale follow-up research of 10 MATESOL/Applied Linguistics programs in the U.S. context. Their research highlighted the need for curricular change for MATESOL programs to better prepare students for their prospective teaching tasks in the globalized world. Their curricular recommendations included infusion of the new courses, or modification of the existing ones to promote understanding of the significance of World Englishes perspectives, and a range of international perspectives on English language learning and teaching. This view is in line with the perspectives outlined by Llurda (2004) and Eguiguren (2000) who supported the view that NSs of English need to have a broader understanding of the global status of English, as well as different varieties across the world. Adopting a World Englishes perspective in teacher education, asserting to develop teachers who could teach English as a global medium of communication as opposed to an inner-circle (North

America, Britain, Australia) language, was considered to be very instrumental for cross-cultural communication for prospective EFL/ESL teachers (Canagrajah, 2005). Finally, Braine (1999) argued that SLTE programs need to address international contexts, especially the more problematic situations involving large classes, limited materials and resources and unfamiliar educational policies and teaching practices.

The second strand of thought embedded in the curricula of MATESOL programs views teacher education programs as a venue to develop the NNSs' particular socio-linguistic and pedagogical needs. This perspective asserts that NNSs going through SLTE programs also need to be scaffolded in linguistic, socio-pragmatic and methodological aspects (England & Roberts, 1989; Kamhi-Stein, 1999; 2004) to maintain the excellent linguistic and pedagogical expertise necessary to teach in ESL/EFL settings (Shin, 2008). This view was first raised by England and Roberts (1989) who outlined that while a considerable portion of these programs are comprised of NNS teacher-learners, none of these programs provided them with additional or tailored training for their development. Brinton (2004) and Kamhi-Stein (2004) both supported the critical importance of undertaking necessary modifications in SLTE programs as this approach is a way to empower NNSs' of English in the profession by promoting their self-efficacy and competencies. In her review, Moussu (2006) summarized Kamhi-Stein's (2000; 2004) views on the role of TESOL programs to ensure student-teacher development:

1. Provide both NSs and NNSs TESOL students with a mentor and if possible, match an NS with an NNS and vice-versa;
2. Start an electronic bulletin that allows both NSs and NNSs TESOL students to discuss critical issues and share experiences;
3. Encourage collaboration between NSs and NNSs in class as well as out of class;

4. Provide many opportunities for professional growth and help students write and submit articles and present papers at regional, state or international conferences;
5. Allow for in-class discussions about language learning experiences and case discussions with the NSs and NNSs, a process that will let NNSs view themselves as a valuable source of information;
6. Ask the students to reflect about teaching philosophies and about school, country, or program language policies, as well as about their own beliefs as teachers. (p.20-21)

The suggestions outlined by Kamhi-Stein (2000; 2004) above manifest themselves in various ways such as revising existing courses to tailor them to meet the needs of NS and NNS, including new courses in grammar, pronunciation, culture, socio-pragmatic issues, or making customized arrangements such as pairing NS and NNS teachers in the practicum process.

Built upon the premise that "a teacher's confidence is most dependent on his or her own degree of language competence" (Murdoch, 1994, p. 258), courses in MATESOL programs focusing on linguistic aspects might aim to foster particular areas such as pronunciation, vocabulary, writing and fluency (Lee, 2004). Courses targeting linguistic aspects of the language as well as cross-cultural aspects of language learning and teaching would be beneficial to teacher learners from various ethnolinguistic and cultural backgrounds. (Brady & Gulikers, 2004; Cullen, 1994; Lee, 2004; Lin et al., 2005). A similar view was echoed by Pasternak and Bailey (2004) who supported the inclusion of such classes to foster the sociolinguistic expertise necessary in language teaching. Reid (1997) argued that courses in culture or intercultural communication in MATESOL programs were always treated as peripheral to core curriculum. Courses emphasizing methodology would enable prospective teachers to tailor their teaching

methodology in relation to their learners' goals and needs. In order to address their lack of self-confidence about second language proficiency, the field's perceived bias favoring NSs, a lack of role models and their voice in the profession, Crandall (2000) suggests pairing NS and NNS teachers in field experiences, assigning NNS students to NNS mentor teachers, integrating issues related to NNESTs into the curriculum and addressing language proficiency needs. Although these suggestions from the literature specifically focus on the curricular content of MATESOL programs, NNS students need to be supported outside the classroom in terms of linguistic (Kamhi-Stein, 2000; Shin, 2008) as well as sociocultural aspects.

The interest in the interplay between content of the MATESOL programs and the needs of MATESOL students in the literature is neither limited to NNSs, nor international contexts. The literature places emphasis on the needs of NS teachers from the perspectives of student-teachers (Moussu, 2006), language educators (Golombek & Jordan, 2005; Kamhi-Stein, 2000), and language program administrators (England & Roberts, 1989; Flynn & Gulikers, 2001; Llorca, 2005). The general consensus in the literature asserts that additional classes enhancing the scope of the MATESOL programs as well as sensitizing NNSs' needs in a range of areas such as linguistic and cultural aspects of the language would better equip NS pre-service teachers for their assignments in local or international contexts (Moussu & Llorca, 2008). In particular, this kind of preparation would be useful prospective to NNESTs in MATESOL programs who are planning to teach in international settings.

In the studies discussed above, it becomes clear that the literature focusing on the content of MATESOL programs has a number of gaps. Perhaps the most important

problem with the existing literature is the treatment of NS and NNS as static entities, a problem raised in the previous section in relation to the students in MATESOL programs. This overarching problem of the literature is particularly important as many practices and implications are built upon this understanding. Pasternak and Bailey (2004) gave an example of this stereotypical treatment in the literature by highlighting that "teachers who are perceived as speaking a language other than English as their mother tongue – regardless of their actual proficiency with English – are typically labeled as 'nonnative English speakers'" (p.156). The diversity within single constructs is not reflected in research efforts. This translates as so-called 'irregularities' (e.g. NSs planning to work in international contexts, NNSs planning to work in local contexts, or contexts other than their home countries) are not addressed in the content of the MATESOL programs. Although this point is a reiteration of the same problem mentioned in respect to the literature focusing on students in TESOL programs, the problem is so critical that its implications embrace different aspects of SLTE practices. Therefore, the present research study aims to push the field beyond monolithic descriptions of SLTE students by acknowledging that U.S.-based MATESOL programs welcomes teacher-learners with diverse backgrounds and prepares them for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts.

In addition, the literature summarized in this section suffers from the paucity of research, a characteristic shared by both mainstream teacher education and SLTE. Using practicum, "the black box of the teacher education program" (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p.303), as an example, Borg (2006) made the case that "the volume of research in this area [practicum in SLTE] remains small; additionally, given the global nature of

language teaching, the geographical spread of this work is limited too” (p.71). It is hoped that the present study makes a contribution to this line of inquiry.

2.5.3. Studies on Teacher Educators in MATESOL Programs in the U.S.

The unique intermediary role and critical position of teacher educators between theory and practice throughout the process of teacher education has attracted considerable attention both in mainstream and SLTE literature. Understanding teacher educators’ perspectives towards teacher preparation is particularly important as teacher educators are found at the top of the list of stakeholders responsible for providing quality SLTE. A number of teacher educators have provided a number of suggestions or implications for SLTE (Brutt-Griffler and Samimy, 1999; Carrier, 2003, Kamhi-Stein, 2000) in the U.S., as well as in international settings (Cullen, 1994; Doğançay-Aktuna, 2008). What lies at the heart of this strand of research is the notion that “[t]eacher educators have the responsibility to assist students in gaining a sense of self as teacher, in creating an atmosphere that fosters respect, and in providing guidance in culturally appropriate norms of behavior and discipline” (Brinton, 2004, p.202). Studies regarding two types of teacher educators, faculty teaching at MATESOL programs, and practicum coordinators and host teachers, will be summarized in this section.

Despite the fact that the whole body of SLTE literature provides implications for teacher educators, the interest in teacher educators’ perspectives on the current status and the future of MATESOL programs in the U.S. is a relatively new phenomenon. Built on the foundation outlined by Brinton (2004) above, a number of studies in this category investigate the ways teacher educators could facilitate SLTE practices. Certainly, this perspective has undergone a massive transformation. To be more specific, according to

England and Roberts' (1989) findings a great majority of MATESOL program administrators in the U.S., similar to their counterparts in EFL contexts (Medgyes, 1999), acknowledged cultural and linguistic gaps or challenges faced by MATESOL students, but did not take any concrete steps to accommodate their needs. Today, adding new courses into the existing SLTE curricula to address the current issues and challenges that prospective teachers might face is the general tendency occurring in the field and being suggested in the literature (Carrier, 2003; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999). For instance, Samimy and Brutt-Griffler (1999) proposed a graduate-level seminar class to raise students' awareness of the NS/NNS discourse and promoting counter-discourses to refute the perpetuated stereotypes in SLTE and TESOL. Similarly, Carrier (2003) enlarged the scope of this idea and proposed an introductory course for the incoming international students in MATESOL programs to address their professional needs. The course emphasizes on "contextually responsive teacher education content, training in a different school culture, competing with native English-speaking teacher trainees, self-confidence, and encouraging contributions by non-native teacher trainees to the field of English language teaching" (Carrier, 2003, p. 242). While these teacher educators viewed the inclusion of new courses to address these issues, Kamhi-Stein (2000) proposed a "cross-curricular approach," which referred to a more comprehensive treatment of curricular implementations (ranging from online discussions to conferences) in and outside the classroom across the MATESOL curriculum.

From a methodological point of view, campus-based activities constitute the lion's share in teacher education programs and therefore needs to be critically evaluated in the proposed study. Another type of teacher educators whose perspectives are found in

SLTE literature is practicum coordinators and host teachers. The literature suggests that practicum coordinators experience difficulties in student-teacher placements when it comes to NNS MATESOL students (Brady & Gulikers, 2004; Tang, 1997). Although the lack of linguistic and cultural proficiency and students' preference for NESTs are said to be the reasons, Nemtchinova (2005) provided counter-evidence to show the positive attitudes of host teachers. Llurda (2005), on the other hand, showed that practicum supervisors who valued language awareness of NNS students generally recommend them to teach in low-level classes. Interestingly, a great majority of the practicum supervisors in Llurda's (2005) study shared the fact that they only accepted the most successful NNS students. The practicum experience is an integral aspect of any teacher education program, and therefore deserves a particular attention in the proposed study.

The literature on teacher educators in MATESOL programs is limited in terms of volume of research, and perspectives. The combination of these factors makes studies in this area of research limited in terms of depth and scope. As summarized above, teacher educators approach the issue from the perspectives of NNS students and their professional identity development throughout different stages of MATESOL programs, such as coursework and practicum. The future of SLTE research would certainly benefit from a research agenda which deepens and widens the current research efforts in terms of participant pool, by focusing on NS students in MATESOL programs, or methodology, by exploring more qualitative and observation-based studies (Moussu & Llurda, 2008).

2.5.4. Studies on the Expectations of TESOL Program Administrators from MATESOL Programs in the U.S.

The final research domain contributing to our understanding of the current status of MATESOL programs in the U.S. comes from an indirect source: expectations of TESOL program administrators. TESOL program administrators' expectations from MATESOL programs can be summarized in two major headings: teacher preparation and development of linguistic, and cultural skills.

Flynn and Gulikers (2001) investigated the issues related to hiring practices of ESL teachers in the U.S., especially from NNESTs' point of view. Their conclusion was that teachers need to have excellent command in writing and oral skills, and have a deeper understanding of American culture, which could be addressed by and during SLTE practices. These findings corroborate Mahboob et al.'s (2004) conclusion that NNESTs' lower levels of accuracy and fluency lead program administrators to favor NESTs in the hiring process. Having outlined the sources of problems that NNESTs could face in the hiring process, Flynn and Gulikers (2001) provided a number of implications for MATESOL programs including that students should take coursework in applied linguistics and curriculum design, and all students should go through a practicum experience which provides them with an opportunity during their program to observe and teach in diverse contexts such as in K-12, community college, and intensive English program (IEP) settings.

A comparatively brief discussion of program administrators' perspectives on MATESOL programs is the manifestation of the dearth of research efforts, and therefore indicates a need for further investigations. I acknowledge the fact that while this area of

research adds a distinct perspective to evaluate the current status and the future of SLTE practices in the US, the efforts are still in their infancy. An important gap in the current picture is that there is an overemphasis on the perspectives of IEP administrators in the research on program administrators’ perspectives. Moussu (2006) argued, even the research involving IEP administrators is very scattered, which may be explained by the lack of unity among these institutions in terms of organization and administration. Still, the expectations of TESOL program administrators might differ in respect to the dynamics of the teaching context. In other words, the needs and expectations of a K-12 administrator serving in a linguistically and culturally diverse school district might be very different than that of an IEP administrator serving pre-college level international students in a private, urban university. To be more specific, the TESOL field, which treats NS and NNS constructs as uniform entities, needs to avoid the same mistake and acknowledge the variety of diverse teaching settings.

2.6. Conclusion

The primary purpose of the current chapter was to outline a theoretical discussion in which the present study is situated, and review major trends and research relevant for the overall discussion in the present study. Therefore, I have begun the chapter by presenting the recent theoretical transformation in our understanding of the language and language learning infused by the Vygotskian sociocultural theory, which conceptualizes language as a social and discursive process, and prioritizes learning through social interactions within the sociocultural and contextual parameters in contexts of use. Emerged from the Vygotskian sociocultural theory, Activity Theory offered a unique and powerful organizational and interpretative tool to conceptualize and examine the activity

under scrutiny in the present research—preparing all teachers for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts.

Having presented the activity theoretical foundation of the present study, I embarked upon a comprehensive journey of depicting the present day of the SLTE field today, as organized in three major sub-sections. The first sub-section provided a broad overview of SLTE field and reviewed major debates, discussions and lines of inquiry such as the shift from process-product paradigm to interpretative paradigms, reconceptualization of the knowledge base of SLTE, and second language teacher cognition. The second subsection focused on the models and standards in pre-service SLTE and reviewed the current profiles of MATESOL programs in the U.S. context with specific references to program characteristics and student backgrounds. The last subsection in this chapter was devoted to the review of research studies on teacher-learners, content, teacher educators of MATESOL programs in the U.S as well as covered expectations of TESOL program administrators from these programs.

The next chapter, Methodology, will open up a discussion on the methodological underpinnings of the present study, and include a demonstration of the methodological framework employed in the current study in relation to the theoretical framework of Activity Theory. A more specific discussion on guiding research questions, research design, settings, data collection and interpretation tools will be extensively discussed and justified throughout the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3 – METHODOLOGY

“...methodologies are imperfect, human-designed tools—tools that allow...researchers to provide at best mere hints of static fragments of lives and realities that are unfathomably complex, fluid, and ongoing”

— Atkinson (2005, p. 49)

3.1. Introduction

The present study is a multifaceted exploration of how components, practices, and interrelations in three master’s in TESOL teacher education programs housed in a large, research-intensive university located in a bustling metropolitan area in the mid-Atlantic U.S. provided affordances and constraints in developing a knowledge base for teacher-learners to work effectively with ELLs in diverse teaching settings in both U.S. and international contexts.. More specifically, it aims to explore the multifaceted nature and complexity of the phenomenon of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings, and identify a range of factors that inform, shape and affect participants’ (current teacher-learners’, graduated teacher-learners’, and teacher educators’) views, beliefs, and practices regarding teacher preparation for diverse teaching settings.

In order to embrace the multifaceted nature of these efforts and practices perceived by different stakeholders in the program, I decided to utilize a holistic case study methodology with qualitative and quantitative tools and analyses. Furthermore, I intended to deepen the analytical depth and rigor of the triangulation process by entering into a dialog with current students in the programs, observing them in their classes, and talking to alumni of these programs who were practicing ESOL teachers in different parts of the United States and world. Meanwhile I also engaged in conversations with instructional faculty and administrators about their approaches and practices, and I also

observed their classes and reviewed their syllabi. This research design helped me realize, appreciate, and interpret different perspectives, realities, challenges, opportunities and needs shared by different stakeholders who belong to the same activity system.

Furthermore, this integrated investigation of multiple data sources through the theoretical lens of Activity Theory (Engeström, 1999), incorporation of existing literature (Burns & Richards, 2009; Govardhan, Nayar & Sheorey, 1999; Kamhi-Stein, 2000; Polio & Wilson-Duffy, 1998; Ramanathan, Davies, & Schleppegrell, 2001) and utilization of my personal subjectivity as an instrument of autoethnographic sense-making all helped me to develop a working understanding and dynamic stance for the themes in the present study.

The primary purpose of the current chapter, however, is to present the methodological framework employed in the current study. More specifically, it includes sections on research questions guiding the current work, the specifics of the research design, a detailed description of the research settings and participants (including information about program descriptions and student demographics), and data collection tools used in this study. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary of the methodology of the study.

3.2. Research Questions

The current study is a multifaceted exploration of how components, practices, and relations in a TESOL teacher education program in a large, research-intensive university in a bustling metropolitan area in the mid-Atlantic U.S. provided affordances and constraints in developing a knowledge base for native and non-native English-speaking teacher-learners (native-, and non-native English-speaking teacher candidates) to work

effectively with English language learners in diverse teaching contexts (U.S. and international contexts).

Building upon this formulation, the present research study aimed to explore the following research questions:

1. How do teacher-learners in three MATESOL programs perceive the effectiveness of their programs in preparing them for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts?
 1. Do teacher-learners' perceptions change according to
 - a. participants' post-program aims?
 - b. the existence of a practicum in their program?
 - c. the type of program they attend?
 2. What components of these programs were perceived to be the most and the least effective by teacher-learners?
 3. To what extent do teacher-learners in this study feel prepared to plan, teach and assess various language skills in diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts?
 1. Do teacher-learners' perceptions change according to
 - a. participants' post-program aims?
 - b. the existence of a practicum in their program?
 - c. the type of program they attend?

3.3. Research Design and Rationale

The current research project is a sequential, descriptive, case study utilizing quantitative and qualitative analyses to explore the perceptions of (a) teacher-learners who are currently enrolled in, (b) alumni who graduated from, and (c) instructional faculty teaching in three master's in TESOL teacher education programs housed in a large, research-intensive university located in a bustling metropolitan area in the mid-Atlantic United States. The programs covered in this study included (a) ShortCert, a 13-month program leading to K-12 certification in the State, (b) LongCert, a 2-year program leading to a K-12 certification in the State, and (c) NonCert, a 2-year program which does not lead to any type of certification. More specifically, the project aims to uncover the nature of participants' experiences, beliefs, and perspectives, and their interaction with and participation in the teacher development practices in these programs. Resting upon an interpretive epistemological orientation, the study aims to contribute to the understanding of the educational and professional experiences of different stakeholders (teacher-learners, alumni, and teacher educators), and shed light upon the multiple realities co-constructed by the researcher and participants (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

In the remainder of this section, I will explain my rationale behind adopting a case study methodology. Later, I will describe the research context, participants, and data collection instruments.

3.3.2. Case Study Methodology

Case study research has gained tremendous popularity in recent years and therefore has been theorized and espoused by many researchers (Creswell, 1998, 2009; Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). Some researchers view it as a methodology or

inquiry (Creswell, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2003) and define it as “the study of an issue explored through one or more cases within a bounded system (i.e. setting, or a context)” (Creswell, 2007), whereas others like Stake (2005) conceptualize it as a choice of what is to be studied (i.e. a case within a bounded system) (Stake, 2005). Gall *et al.* (2003), on the other hand, describe case study research as “the in-depth study of instances of a phenomenon in its natural context and from the perspective of the participants involved in the phenomenon” (p. 436).

The plethora of definitions and standpoints within the case study literature is testament to the complexity of this research design, and necessitates operationalization of its definitions for local needs. The present study rests upon several definitions and qualities of case study. The first of these definitions was formulated by Sanders (1981) who stated that “case studies help us to understand processes of events, projects, and programs and to discover context characteristics that will shed light on an issue or object” (as cited in Merriam, 1998, p. 33). The great emphasis that Sanders (1981) places on “understanding of processes” and “discover[ing] context characteristics” is well-aligned with the theoretical and methodological aims of the present study. On a methodological level, the present study is interested in the phenomenon of “preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings” as a process contextualized within three graduate-level TESOL programs. On a theoretical level, it presents an Activity Theory analysis of the contextual characteristics that will shed light on how the idea of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings is constructed from multiple perspectives. Since the present study attempted to both glean insights from the complex interrelations within the scope of teacher education programs, and establish connections to participants’ histories and

future aims, its theoretical orientation of using case study methodology rests upon the following quote by Yin (2003) who defined case study as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident” (p.13).

This conceptualization of case study is particularly important as it creates a dialogue between the researcher and the participant, which enables participants to share their stories (Crabtree & Miller, 1999). In addition, it enables case study researchers to “describe and analyze a phenomenon or social unit such as an individual, group, institution or community” (Merriam & Simpson, 1995, p.108). In line with this argument, Stake (1995) underlines the prioritization of “particularization” over “generalization” and argues that the emphasis is “on uniqueness, and that implies knowledge of others that the case is different from, but the first emphasis is on understanding the case itself” (p. 8).

The current study aims to adopt the case study design because it qualifies for the guidelines outlined by Robert Yin (2003, as cited in Schwandt, 2007):

...a case study strategy is preferred when the inquirer seeks answers to how or why questions, when the inquirer has little control over events being studied, when the object of study is a contemporary phenomenon in a real-life context, when boundaries between the phenomenon and the context are not clear, and when it is desirable to use multiple sources of evidence. (p. 28)

In the present study, I was interested in exploring questions such as “**how**” teacher candidates felt about how their programs prepared them to teach in diverse teaching settings and “**why**” they felt a particular way about their perceived effectiveness and preparedness. Similarly, I was also interested in “**how**” teacher educators prepared teacher-candidates to effectively serve ELLs in diverse teaching settings and “**why**” they did what they did. Furthermore, I have little control over teacher education programs

across bounded systems, which, in fact, translated into adopting a very descriptive researcher's standpoint in this study. It could also be argued that "the boundaries of teacher education" are not limited to academic programs, which makes the interplay between boundaries and phenomena more complex, less distinguishable, more fuzzy, yet even more interesting.

3.3.2.1. Rationale for Case Selection

One of the most critical steps in any case study inquiry is the identification of case or cases to serve as the unit of analysis, which is vital in understanding the phenomenon under scrutiny (Creswell, 1998; Patton, 1990). Miles and Huberman (1994) define the case as "a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context" (p.25). The case is, "in effect, your unit of analysis" (p. 25). An important point in the decision-making process in case study research is to determine the parameters of what constitutes the case(s). A case study research design may include single or multiple cases (Yin, 2003). Depending on their foci, single-case designs can be classified as "holistic" (examining a global nature of a case study), or "embedded" (including multiple units of analysis). Xiao (2010) suggests that case study researchers develop an operational definition of the case and its unit(s) of analysis in order to ensure the appropriateness and relevance of the case to the issues and questions that the inquiry pursues. Following her call, I will now turn to operationalizing my case.

Within the scope of the current project, I operationalize a holistic single-case design of the TESOL Unit as the case, which consists of three graduate-level TESOL teacher education programs. The primary reasons for the selection of the Unit included the following factors:

a. Contextual factors:

- i. The institution houses a range of graduate-level TESOL teacher programs (ShortCert, LongCert, and NonCert)
- ii. These programs aim to prepare teachers to work with ELLs, both in U.S. and international contexts
- iii. These programs varied in terms of internal characteristics (entry requirements, exit requirements, duration, organizational structure and programmatic components)
- iv. The student body in these programs came from a range of ethnolinguistic backgrounds

b. Personal factors:

- i. As a researcher, I had a relatively easier access to this context as a research site
- ii. From a researcher's point of view, I found myself in a unique situation because although I was not affiliated with these programs as a student, I served as an instructional faculty and taught in these programs.

Furthermore, at a more focused level, each of these graduate-level TESOL teacher education programs (1) ShortCert, (2) LongCert, and (3) NonCert served as internal components comprising the holistic case. Finally, at a micro level, the prospective teachers in these programs with respect to their current and prospective teaching contexts (United States or international settings) were considered to be another way of dynamic approach to the case. This decision was built upon Yin's (2011) formulation, which

views the case as a “bounded entity...but the boundary between the case and its contextual conditions – in both spatial and temporal dimensions— may be blurred” (p.6). As will be discussed in greater detail in *Research Context* section later in this chapter, there was a complex and blurry picture in this case context where teacher-learners from different programs were often classmates and were in classes together with the same teacher educators.

Therefore, the present study utilized a holistic single-case (i.e. a TESOL teacher education unit) comprised of three programs (i.e. three graduate-level programs) from the perspective of a range of stakeholders (i.e. current and graduated students in each of these programs and instructional faculty teaching in these programs). The importance of this conceptualization is captured by Baxter and Jack (2008) who indicated that it could lead to both within and cross-case analysis.

For this reason, the ability to understand and interpret the efforts of a teacher education unit in preparing teacher-learners for diverse teaching settings in the United States and beyond, as perceived by different participants (current teacher-learners, graduated teacher-learners, instructional faculty/administrator) was a “powerful” (Baxter & Jack, 2008) endeavor when the analysis of data was done within, between, and across these subunits. Different from the selection of *a priori* cases at the global levels (the unit and its programs), the selection of cases or individuals required a very careful and in-depth familiarity with the individuals, and will be discussed subsequently in the *Research Participants* section, later in this chapter.

3.3.2.2. *Rationale for the Type of Case Study*

So far, I have discussed the phenomenon under investigation, presented the guiding questions informing this research, justified the case study methodology, and identified the case with its boundaries and sub-units. The next step is to determine the specific type of case study within the scope of this project. Two major lines of thinking (and therefore vocabulary) exist regarding the type of case study: Stake (1995) and Yin (2003). I will now briefly discuss each perspective and contextualize their relevance for the present study.

Stakian (1995) typology suggests that cases in case study research can be classified into three categories: (1) intrinsic, (2) instrumental, and (3) collective. In intrinsic cases, the researcher often intends to bring an exploratory perspective to the research context and engages in the research endeavor guided by his/her genuine interest, and has no intentions to extend theory or identify common threads across cases. In instrumental cases, however, the case is considered to be “secondary” to understanding a particular phenomenon, which prioritizes the purpose of the study over the case *per se*. Finally, collective case studies include the exploration of multiple instrumental case studies. Based on this typology, it has been very difficult to classify the present study in one of these terms since it bears the characteristics of both intrinsic and instrumental cases. The study was primarily intrinsic because it explored micro-level and atomistic understandings of individuals situated within each TESOL teacher-education program. In addition, I intended my case study to build towards the current theories of program development and practices, which made it instrumental. In other words, this study combined the intentions of a multifaceted construction of the teacher development

practices in three TESOL teacher education programs in preparing teacher-learners for diverse teacher settings. This eclectic approach is embraced by Grandy (2010) who argues that “researchers often have multiple research interests and thus engage in both intrinsic and instrumental case research. The key in both the intrinsic and instrumental case study is the opportunity to learn” (p. 474).

Yin (2003), on the other hand, categorizes case studies explanatory, exploratory, or descriptive. While explanatory case studies are interested in “what” questions, exploratory case study focuses on “how” and “why” questions, and descriptive case studies reveal patterns, establish connections and builds, extends or contributes to theory development. According to this classification of Yin (2003), the present study bears characteristics of explanatory and descriptive case studies since it sought to describe the current picture of three TESOL teacher education programs, answer “what” and “why” regarding the study’s overall aims, and thereby extended the current theorization of teacher development practices co-constructed from the perspectives of the major stakeholders of these programs.

Finally, looking at the research design types from a more global perspective, Merriam (1998) identifies four essential properties of any case study as follows: (1) *Particularistic* – They “focus on a particular situation, event, program, or phenomenon” (p. 29); (2) *Descriptive* – “The end product is a rich, ‘thick’ description of the phenomenon under study” (p. 29), (3) *Heuristic* – They “illuminate the reader’s understanding of the phenomenon under study” (p. 30), (4) *Inductive* – they rely on inductive reasoning, with hypotheses generated as data are collected. Following Merriam’s (1998) characterization, the study was a *particularistic* attempt because

working across three different teacher education programs within a TESOL teacher education unit enabled me to focus on the intrinsic values, practices and particularities situated in respect to each program, and provided a window on seeing the unique trees within the forest. Moreover, it was a *descriptive* attempt because the fundamental purpose of this study was to understand, describe, portray, and provide information on how teacher education programs prepare teachers for diverse teaching settings, and how programmatic efforts were constructed from multiple points of view. This approach lies at the heart of the case study methodology since case study researchers are “interested in insight, discovery, and interpretation rather than hypothesis testing” (Merriam, 1998, p.10). It was a *heuristic* attempt because the interest in this study lied in shedding a light onto the education of TESOL teachers for diverse teaching settings. Therefore, the common patterns, complexities, multiple realities, and particularities within and across units illuminated my understanding of the teacher education practices and further improved the entire activity in this local context and other transferrable contexts. It was an *inductive* attempt because the emphasis was not on testing *a priori* hypotheses brought to the research context but rather on developing “working conclusions” (and further guiding questions) through a deeper appreciation and understanding of the current research context. In conclusion, by drawing upon and across individual and programmatic orientations, the present study provided a contextualized understanding of the multiple views on three TESOL teacher education programs’ practices for the purposes of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings.

3.4. Research Context

The primary research context of this study was three master's in TESOL teacher education programs, offered by a TESOL Teacher Education Unit (hereafter called "The TESOL Unit"), which is part of a department (hereafter called "The Department of Teaching") in the College of Education, housed in a large, research-intensive university located in a bustling metropolitan area in the mid-Atlantic United States. The Department of Teaching, in which the TESOL Unit is housed, is the largest department in the College considering its characteristics such as student enrollment, alumni, academic programs available, and faculty numbers. The Department placed considerable emphasis on the research, teaching, and service efforts of the University, with an intention of making positive changes in the educational practices in the State and in the nation. The Department's efforts included research, teaching, and service activities investigating, promoting and extending various aspects of teaching and learning, curriculum, program evaluation, teacher education, and professional development.

The TESOL Unit is one of the largest units within the Department in terms of student enrollment and the programs it offers. There are a total of 9 academic programs offered by this Unit, and these program options are fully accredited by National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), State Department of Education, American Psychological Association (APA), Middle States Commission on Higher Education (MSCHE), Council on Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Professions (CACREP), and Council on Rehabilitation Education (CRE). A summary of the programs is visually represented in the Figure 5 below:

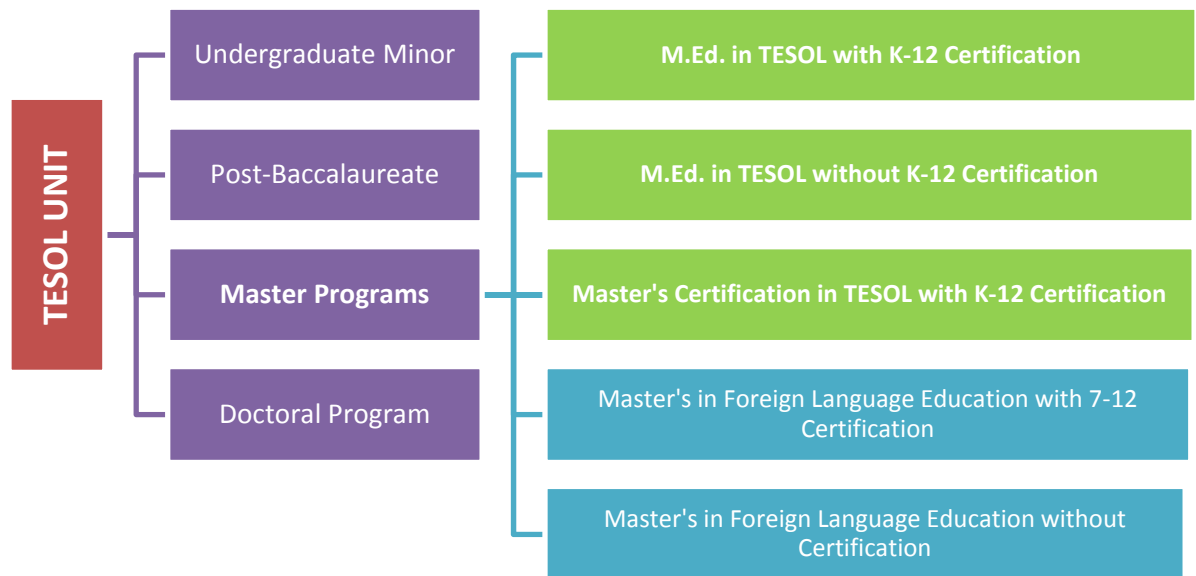


Figure 5. The TESOL Unit and its academic programs

Considered to be a nationally-recognized unit, offering programs in both TESOL and Foreign Language Education programs, The Unit describes itself as an innovative unit which offers a dynamic curriculum establishing links among theory, research and practice and bringing different aspects of second language education in such a way that prepares teacher-learners to work with methods, materials and curricula in diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts.

One of the notable features of the TESOL Unit was that it welcomed an ethnolinguistically diverse group of students from different parts of the world. The student population included a combination of domestic and international students, who came from a wide range of backgrounds. The diversity was manifested in terms of having teacher-learners from various age levels, a number of career change students and commuter students, as well as those who were working and studying simultaneously, and international students. The student body included mid-life career changers. Moreover,

many students were beginning their professional careers, and others brought TESOL-related experience from K-12 teaching or university settings, adult education programs, school districts or the federal government both in the United States and in different parts of the world. As a result, the Unit prepares practitioners who join the teacher force in teaching foreign languages such as Spanish or French in public or private elementary, secondary or postsecondary institutions; teach English as a foreign language (EFL) in other countries to both school-age populations and adults; or teach English to speakers of other languages (ESOL or ESL) in the United States to K-12 students and adults. As stated in official archival documents, graduates of these programs “take positions as K-12 and adult education teachers, community college teachers, university professors, researchers, supervisors and coordinators of language programs, consultants, language and diversity policy analysts, and project officers in non-profit organizations and government agencies.”

Since most definitions of case study highlight the importance of a bounded nature of the case (Smith, 1978), this idea of boundedness acts as a tool of delimitation for the inquiry. In the current research project, the case is bounded by the three TESOL teacher education programs at the master’s level offered by the TESOL Unit, namely ShortCert, LongCert and NonCert programs. This delimitation, therefore, resulted in exclusion of the minor, post-baccalaureate, foreign language and doctoral programs offered by the Unit. The specific features of each program (entry requirements, program duration, existence and duration of the practicum/student internship, exit requirements and whether it leads to state-wide licensure) are summarized in Table 3 below:

Table 3.
Summary of the Research Context

MASTER'S LEVEL TESOL PROGRAMS OFFERED BY THE TESOL UNIT			
Type of Institution	Public		
College/School	College of Education		
Department	Department of Teaching		
Programs Offered	Short Cert LongCert NonCert		
	ShortCert	LongCert	NonCert
Entry Requirements	3.0 (or B) GPA (Undergraduate) Relevant experience TOEFL 100 Admission interviews Praxis I (Reading 177, Math 177, Writing 173) 3 letters of recommendation Personal statement	3.0 (or B) GPA (Undergraduate) 3 reference letters A statement of goals Composite score of 527 for Praxis I, passing scores on reading/writing TOEFL 100 (International students)	3.0 (or B) GPA (Undergraduate) Relevant experience TOEFL 100 (International students) Admission interviews 3 letters of recommendation Personal statement
Program Duration	42 credit hours (13 months)	42 credit hours (2 years)	30 credit hours (2 years)
Practicum/Internship	Yes	Yes	No
Duration of Internship	2 semesters	2 semesters	N/A
K-12 State Certification	Yes	Yes	N/A
Exit Requirements	Coursework Teaching portfolio Internship Praxis II	Coursework Seminar paper Teaching portfolio Year-long internship Praxis II	Coursework Comprehensive Exam Seminar Paper

3.5. Research Participants

Considered to be the “key participants” (Richards, 2001a) in program evaluation research, the teacher candidates, including those who were enrolled and graduated within 5 years from these programs at the time of the data collection, and instructional faculty members consisted the primary participant pool for this study. Furthermore, I intended to deepen the depth of data types and sources through a triangulation process drawing upon a dialog I entered into with current teacher-learners who were currently in their respective

programs at the time of data collection, observed them in their classes. Moreover, I also talked to teacher-learners of these programs who had graduated within the past 5 years and who were practicing ESOL teachers in different parts of the United States and world. Additionally, my conversations with instructional faculty and one program administrator provided me an opportunity to interpret their approaches to, practices of teacher preparation. I also observed their classes and reviewed their course syllabi.

In this section, my discussion of research participants will reflect the sequential nature of the present study, and will first include a discussion on selecting research participants for quantitative data collection (i.e. questionnaires) procedures followed by a discussion on identifying participants for qualitative data collection procedures (i.e. interviews). Figure 6 summarizes the participants in the current study.

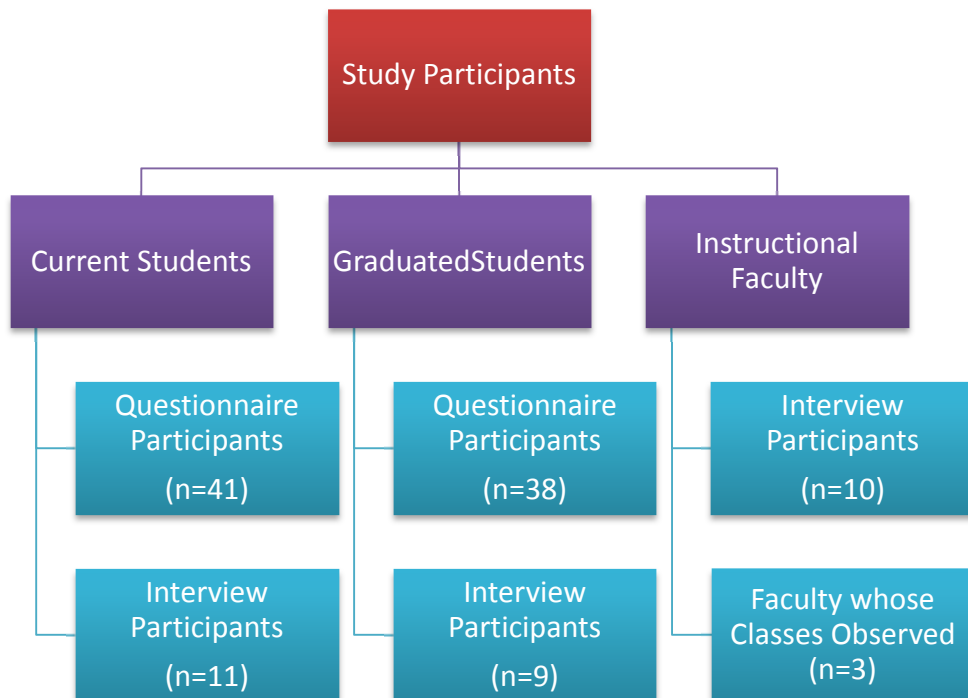


Figure 6. Study participants in the research context

3.5.1. Participants in the Quantitative Data Collection Phase

For the purposes of the first phase of the study (questionnaires) a combination of convenience sampling (Dillman, 2000) and purposeful sampling (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Miles & Huberman, 1994) was utilized in a customized way for each target participant group in this phase, namely the current teacher-learners and graduated teacher-learners.

The current teacher-learner group consisted of forty-one teacher-learners who were attending one of these programs at the time of the data collection in Spring-Fall 2011 semesters. No specific selection criterion was used for this group other than being currently enrolled in one of the three master's in TESOL programs offered by the TESOL Unit at the time of data collection. Expectedly, the current teacher-learner participant group displayed a great diversity in terms of linguistic, cultural, racial, educational and professional backgrounds.

The graduate teacher-learner group consisted of thirty-eight people who graduated from one of the master's in TESOL programs offered by the TESOL Unit. Obviously, when it comes to the recruitment of graduated teacher-learners, the boundedness characteristic of the case study methodology manifests itself on a time plane. Therefore, I delimited the current study by inviting participants who graduated from these programs within the last 5 years, which rests upon a four-fold rationale: During this time period, (1) the present curricular structure of the programs (entrance requirements, curricular structure, exit requirements) has not altered, (2) the instructional faculty body has not significantly changed, and (3) all three programs have been in existence, (4) I have been involved in the teacher-education practices of the Unit.

3.5.2. Participants in the Qualitative Data Collection Phase

For the purposes of the second phase of the study (semi-structured, in-depth, individual interviews, classroom observations, and document analyses) purposeful sampling (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Miles & Huberman, 1994) was utilized, as it allowed for intentional selection of individuals, who were considered to be “information-rich” (Patton, 1990, p.169) cases “from which the most can be learned” (Merriam, 1998, p. 61) and that could contribute to the construction of a developing theory (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003). In line with this argument, Miles and Huberman (1994) have provided sampling parameters upon which research studies can be built. These include relevance to conceptual framework, potential to generate rich information, analytic generalizability, potential to generate believable explanations, ethics, and feasibility. The participant selection process was done in the light of several aspects including Miles and Huberman’s (1994) suggestions, overarching research questions, the conceptual framework informing the current study, participants’ responses in the questionnaire, and my personal connections and history with participants as a researcher. This process generated the categories shown in Figure 7 as follows

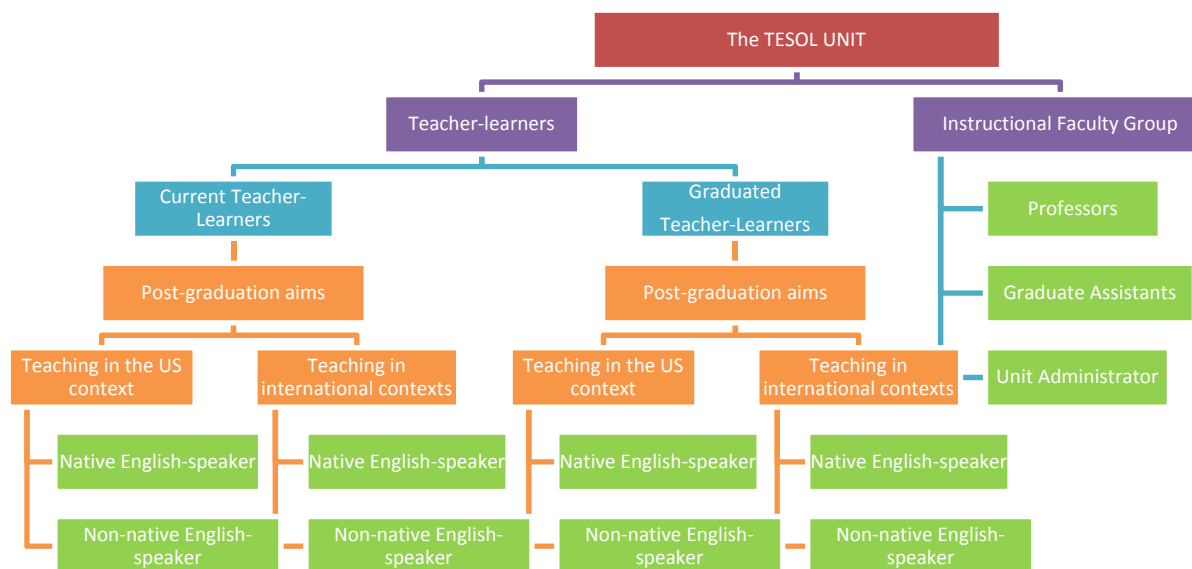


Figure 7. An overview of participants in the qualitative data collection phase

The current teacher-learner group consisted of ten teacher-learners who were enrolled in one of these programs at the time of the data collection in Spring – Fall 2011 semesters. In addition to the specific selection criterion of being currently enrolled in one of the three master’s in TESOL programs offered by the TESOL Unit, these participants were carefully selected on the basis of two specific conditions: (a) envisioned teaching context upon graduation (i.e. U.S. and international contexts), and (b) their self-reported “nativeness” (i.e. native vs. non-native English-speakers), in order to represent a wider range of diversity in the programs. The general characteristics of the participants in this group are summarized in Figure 8 below.

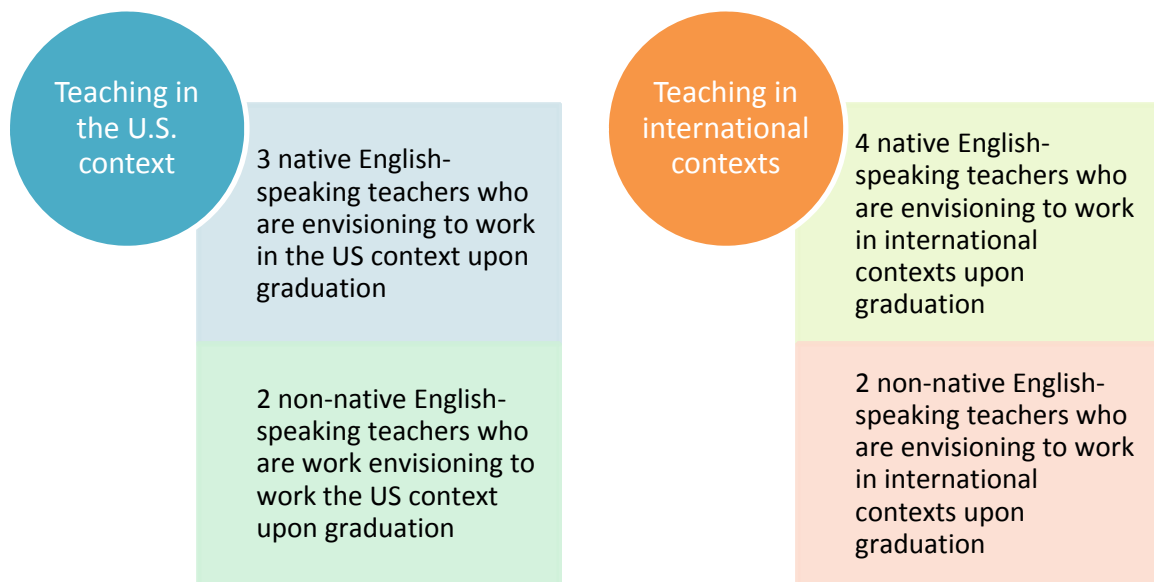


Figure 8. Current teacher-learner group in the qualitative data collection phase

The graduated teacher-learner group consisted of nine people who graduated from one of the master's in TESOL programs offered by the TESOL Unit. In addition to the specific selection criterion of having graduated from one of the three master's in TESOL programs offered by the TESOL Unit since 2006, these participants were carefully selected on the basis of two specific conditions: (a) envisioned teaching context upon graduation (i.e. U.S. and international contexts), and (b) their self-reported nativeness (i.e. native vs. non-native English-speakers), in order to represent a wider range of diversity in the programs. The general characteristics of the participants in this group are summarized in Figure 9 below.

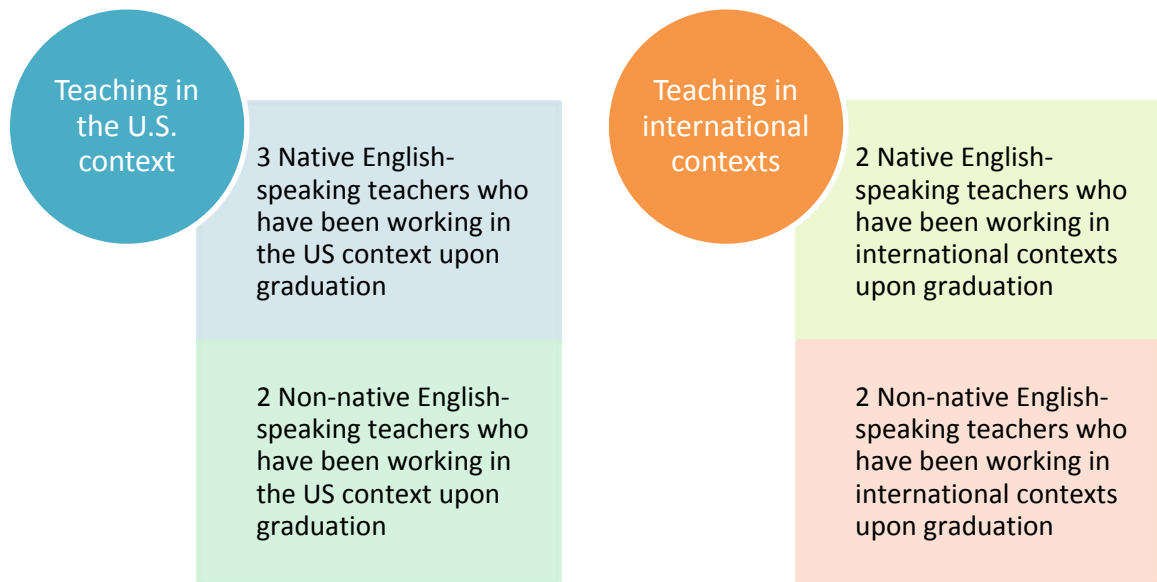


Figure 9. Graduated teacher-learner group in the qualitative data collection phase

Finally, the instructional faculty group consisted of nine people (six professors and three doctoral students) who have taught in one of these TESOL teacher education programs within the TESOL Unit since 2006. In addition to these individuals, I recognize my role as a research participant since I taught graduate-level classes in these master's programs as an instructional faculty member of the TESOL Unit. Therefore, the instructional faculty group consisted of ten people including myself. My personal and collegial relations with the members of this group afforded easy access to the instructional faculty group. The only selection criterion employed for this group was that participants have had teaching experience in any of these three Master's in TESOL programs since 2006. The general characteristics of the participants in this group are summarized in Figure 10 below.

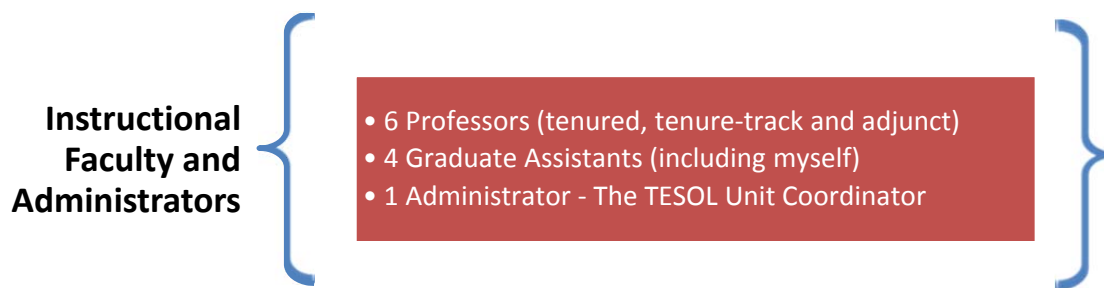


Figure 10. Instructional faculty group in the qualitative data collection phase

3.6. Data Collection Tools and Processes

Regardless of the particular epistemological orientation on which research questions and methodological tools are built, data resources are considered to be analytical points of departure for any tradition in scholarly research, and case study research is no exception. Looking at this issue from the perspective of case study research, McGinn (2010) indicates that “conducting a case study involves gathering an extensive array of data resources related to the central phenomenon under investigation, that is, accumulating evidence about the case.... [is] woven together into a coherent description, exploration, or explanation of the case” (p.274). According to Yin (2006), this idea of interweaving lies at the heart of the case study research, which should be built upon “multiple sources of evidence” since “in collecting...data, the main idea is to ‘triangulate’ or establish converging lines of evidence to make [the] findings as robust as possible” (p. 115).

In order to examine the research questions and deepen my contextualized understanding of the perceived role, influence, and effectiveness of TESOL teacher education programs in preparing teacher-learners to teach in diverse settings through the lenses of teacher-learners’ and instructional faculty, the current study utilized four

primary data collection sources including questionnaires, interviews, classroom observations and document analyses, which are summarized in Figure 11 below.

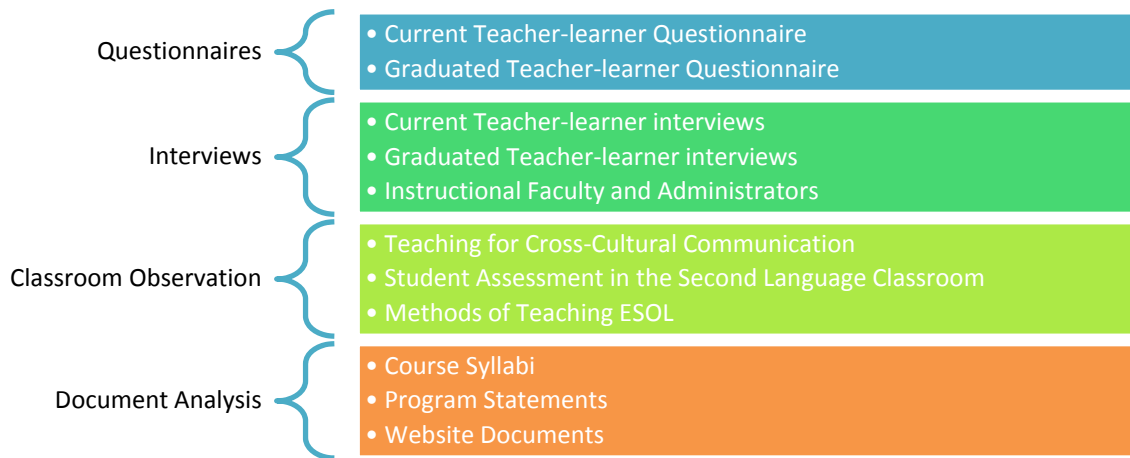


Figure 11. Data sources and types

The decisions to utilize both quantitative and qualitative evidentiary sources were in line with Yin (2003) who pragmatically capitalizes on using a combination of both data sources as a legitimate way of gleaning multiple sources of data for the case study. Moreover, this decision was particularly geared towards developing a richer understanding of the case both at a macro- and micro-levels. In the remainder of this section, I will highlight the specific data collection methods that I employed in exploring my research questions.

3.6.1. Questionnaires

Questionnaires are extensively used in social sciences and education research, and considered to be a useful instrument to collect structured and often numerical data. In the realm of educational research, their value has been embraced by many researchers as they are employed for collecting “information about affective dimensions of teaching and learning, such as beliefs, attitudes, motivations, and preferences” (Richard & Lockhart,

1994, p. 10). Brown (2001) supports the use of Likert-scale questions and argues that they are “effective for gathering respondents’ views, opinions, and attitudes about various language-related issues” (p. 41), whereas Dörnyei (2003) highlights that this could result in generating simple and superficial data as researchers do not generally follow up with participants about their responses. In the present research study, the quantitative data were collected through two self-developed questionnaires (Current Teacher-learner Questionnaire – CTLQ, and Graduated Teacher-learner Questionnaire – GTLQ) that were adapted from Baniabdelrahman (2003), Helfrich (2007), Salli-Copur (2009), and Tezel (2006).

3.6.1.1. Current Teacher-learner Questionnaire – CTLQ

The Current Teacher-learner Questionnaire, which can be abbreviated as CTLQ and found in Appendix A, consisted of four three components: (1) demographic questions, (2) perceived preparedness to teach in diverse teaching settings, (3) evaluation of importance and effectiveness of the major program components. I will now describe the parts of the each questionnaire and discuss construction, revision and implementation processes.

In the first section, participants were asked to respond to 15 questions including the program in which they were enrolled (ShortCert, LongCert and NonCert), their enrollment status (full-time or part-time), individual characteristics (gender, age, nationality, linguistic abilities, educational background, and professional experience), and their self-reported nativeness in English language. In addition to these questions, participants were asked their goals upon graduation at two different points in time: at the time of beginning their programs and of taking the questionnaire. Finally, the last two

questions inquired about participants' inclinations towards teaching in a context that was not actually their preferred teaching context. More specifically, if participants indicated their preferred teaching context after graduation as the U.S. context, they were asked the likelihood of working in international contexts and vice versa. Throughout this section and the entire questionnaire, participants were given an open-ended "Other (please specify)" option, whenever possible, in order to accommodate every participant.

In the second section in CTLQ, teacher-learners were asked about their post-program aims, defined as professional goals that they wished to accomplish after they graduated from the programs. This section included four questions such as their preferred "teaching context" (United States, international context, either US/international, or undecided), "teaching setting" (PreK-12, college level such as community college, 4-year colleges, intensive English programs, language schools/contractual positions such as teaching English for general/academic/specific purposes, self-employed positions such as private tutoring), they would like to be a part of, and "proficiency level" (beginner, intermediate, advanced) and "age group" (young learners, adolescents, adults) of the target ELLs that they would like to work with upon graduation. In addition to these questions, this section also included items on perceived confidence of the participants in terms of "teaching setting," "proficiency level," and "age group" in different teaching contexts (i.e. United States and international contexts) by utilizing six 5-point Likert scale questions, ranging from "not confident at all" to very confident".

The third section in CTLQ was divided into two sub-sections. The first sub-section, composed of nineteen 4-point Likert Scale questions ranging from "very underprepared" to "very well-prepared," investigated participants' perceived

preparedness in terms of planning, teaching, and assessing skills necessary for effective teaching practices in diverse teaching settings. The skills assessed in this sub-section included teaching language skills (reading, listening, writing, speaking, structure of English, grammar, cultural aspects), assessment skills (formal and informal), and other competencies such as differentiating instruction, using technology in language teaching, instructional planning and delivery, creating a safe learning environment, professional collaboration, personal reflection, and culturally responsive/inclusive teaching. The second sub-section focused on participants' perceptions on the programs' effectiveness on preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings. This sub-section included a combination of one multiple choice question, eleven 5-point rating scale questions ranging from "1," being "least successful" to "5" being "most successful," and four 4-point Likert scale questions ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree," and seven open-ended questions.

The last section in CTLQ investigated the importance and effectiveness of major program components seen through the eyes of current teacher-learners, and was organized under three major sub-sections. The first sub-section included major program components such as coursework and teaching experience and asked participants the extent to which they found it important in developing participants' teacher competencies using 4-point Likert scale from "least important" to "most important" both in the U.S. and international teaching contexts. In other words, this section enabled teacher-learners to share their views about two main points: (a) the extent to which they found program components important, and (b) the extent to which these program components contributed to their development to teach in the U.S. and international contexts.

Following the same format, the second and third sub-sections further expanded on these major program components, coursework and institutionalized teaching experience, respectively. The second sub-section included a comprehensive list of coursework being offered to the participants in three master's-level TESOL teacher education programs within the TESOL Unit. Similarly, participants were asked to indicate their ratings of the (a) importance of each course in developing their teacher competencies, and (b) contribution of each course in developing their teaching competencies in the U.S. and international contexts. The third sub-section replicated the same model as in the second one, and applied it to the institutionalized teaching experience provided to the teacher-learners of these programs. The components of teaching experience included classroom observations, individual student tutoring, teacher assistantship, co-teaching, supervised individual whole-class teaching, supervision, support from the mentor teacher, developing a teaching portfolio, action research, relations with mentor teacher, relations with the University supervisor, support from the University supervisor, practicum course/seminar in the program, reflection on teaching, instructional planning, evaluation, communication with parents/guardians, community/parent involvement, and integrating technology into teaching. Since a formal practicum component was not available in the NonCert program and students may not necessarily have had experience with the list of courses provided in this section, they were given the option of “not applicable” (n/a).

3.6.1.2. Graduated Teacher-learner Questionnaire – GTLQ

The Graduated Teacher-learner Questionnaire, abbreviated as GTLQ and found in Appendix B, consisted of five major sections: (1) demographic questions, (2) professional path after graduation, (3) perceived preparedness to teach in diverse teaching

settings in terms of teaching setting, proficiency level and age group, (4) perceived preparedness to plan, teach and assess various language skills in diverse teaching settings, and (5) evaluation of importance and effectiveness of the major program components. I will now describe the parts of the each questionnaire and discuss construction, revision and implementation processes.

In the first section, participants were asked to respond to a total of seventeen multiple choice and open-ended items for the purposes of obtaining extra information about their programs (ShortCert, LongCert, NonCert), their start/graduation semesters, their enrollment status (full-time or part-time), individual characteristics (gender, age, nationality, linguistic abilities, educational background, and professional experience), other degrees/diplomas they have, and their self-reported nativeness in English language. In addition to these questions, participants were asked their teaching experience prior to pursuing their degree, reasons for entering the program they completed, and their goals upon graduation at two different points in time: at the time of beginning and exiting their programs. The last question of this section asked participants about their overall professional satisfaction in the program they completed in terms of their primary purpose of enrollment.

The second section of the questionnaire consisted of twelve items and aims to gather information about the participants' professional trajectory after they completed their academic studies at the TESOL Unit. The specific questions included their primary employer (K-12 school, government bodies, self-employed or private practice, and continuing graduate education), job status (full-time vs. part-time), and primary activity (teaching, researching, both teaching and researching, administration/management, or

further study). In order to include the voices of those graduates who might have left the field of TESOL upon graduation, there were specific questions asking if the participants were still working in the field and if not, their decision for leaving the field. Since a job that a participant gets after graduation might not be the same job they held at the time of completing the questionnaire, the next two questions asked participants about their current employer (K-12 school, government bodies, self-employed or private practice, and continuing graduate education) and their current activity (teaching, researching, both teaching and researching, administration/management, or further study) as an employee at the time of completing the questionnaire. The final set of questions dealt with participants' desired post-program aims by making specific references to the educational contexts in the United States and abroad.

The third section in GTLQ includes six 5-point Likert-scale questions ranging from "not confident at all" to "very confident" about their perceived preparedness in terms of "teaching setting," "proficiency level" and "age group" in different teaching contexts (i.e. United States and international contexts).

The fourth section in GTLQ was composed of nineteen 4-point Likert Scale questions ranging from "very underprepared" to "very well-prepared." The questions in this section were mirrored from the CTLQ and investigated participants' perceived preparedness in terms of planning, teaching, and assessing skills necessary for effective teaching practices in diverse teaching settings. The skills assessed in this sub-section included teaching language skills (reading, listening, writing, speaking, structure of English, grammar, cultural aspects), assessment skills (formal and informal), and other competencies such as differentiating instruction, using technology in language teaching,

instructional planning and delivery, creating a safe learning environment, professional collaboration, personal reflection, and culturally responsive/inclusive teaching. Different from CTLQ, each item was followed by a 5-point rating scale of the program's contribution ranging from "least helpful" to "most helpful."

The fifth section in CTLQ investigated the importance and effectiveness of major program components seen through the eyes of graduated teacher-learners and was organized under four major sub-sections. The first sub-section included major program components such as coursework and teaching experience and asked participants the extent to which they found it important in developing participants' teacher competencies using 4-point Likert scale from "least important" to "most important" both in the U.S. and international teaching contexts. In other words, this section enabled teacher-learners to share their views about two main points: (a) the degree to which they found program components important, and (b) the degree to which these program components contributed to their development to teach in the U.S. and international contexts. Following the same format, the second and third sub-sections further expanded on these major program components, coursework and institutionalized teaching experience, respectively. The second sub-section included a comprehensive list of coursework being offered to the participants in three master's-level TESOL teacher education programs within the TESOL Unit. Similarly, participants were asked to indicate their ratings of the (a) importance of each course in developing their teacher competencies, and (b) contribution of each course in developing their teaching competencies in the U.S. and international contexts.

The third sub-section replicated the same model as in the second one, and applied it to the institutionalized teaching experience provided to the teacher-learners of these programs. The components of teaching experience included classroom observations, individual student tutoring, teacher assistantship, co-teaching, supervised individual whole-class teaching, supervision, support from the mentor teacher, developing a teaching portfolio, action research, relations with mentor teacher, relations with the University supervisor, support from the University supervisor, practicum course/seminar in the program, reflection on teaching, instructional planning, evaluation, communication with parents/guardians, community/parent involvement, and integrating technology into teaching. Again, considering the fact that a practicum component was not available in the NonCert program and teacher-learners may not necessarily have had experience with the list of classes provided in this section, they were given the option of “not applicable” (n/a).

The last sub-section focused on participants’ perceptions on the programs’ effectiveness on preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings. This sub-section included a combination of four categories of questions. The first category included one multiple-choice question asking the overall focus of the program the participants completed. The second category contained fourteen 5-point rating scale questions ranging from 1, being “least successful” to 5, being “most successful” exploring specific program features such as depth, duration focus, and adequacy. The third category comprised four 4-point Likert scale questions ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree,” investigating participants’ perceived preparedness to teach in the US and international settings followed by spaces allowing them to elaborate on their responses. Finally, the

last category involved eight open-ended questions inquiring factors influencing programs' (in)effectiveness and participants' recommendations, suggestions and messages for the major stakeholders in the program including administrators, instructional faculty and students in terms of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings.

3.6.2. Piloting and Implementation of Questionnaires

Defined broadly as a preliminary test of the research design and instruments, the piloting process is considered to be an integral part of questionnaire construction (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010) “at various stages of its development on a sample of people who are similar to the target sample the instrument has been designed for” (p.53) before actually using it in a research study. This is a particularly important process acting as an important source of feedback about the validity of the instrument and enabling the researcher a unique chance to “iron out” (Sudman & Bradburn, 1983, p. 120) existing shortcomings and construct the final version of the questionnaire. I operationalized the piloting process at two different levels: a preliminary pilot analysis with colleagues and a pilot administration with actual participants.

The piloting process was completed in light of the major methodological guidelines (Brown, 2001; Brown & Rogers, 2002; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000; Dörnyei, 2003; Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010), and revisions such as clarification requests and organizational/structural changes; and suggestions regarding the overall appearance and clarity of instructions were embedded. The questionnaire was piloted to promote its validity, reliability and usability. Items that were not clearly understood by the participants were removed from the questionnaire and other necessary changes and

adjustments were made. The length of the questionnaire was substantively reduced by revising, merging, and excluding certain components to make the instrument more manageable.

Depending on the purpose of researchers, questionnaires can be administered in several modes such as one-to-one and group administration, and formats such as by paper and pencil, by mail, by telephone, or by computerized formats. For the purposes of the current study, the medium of questionnaires varied in accordance with the target group. Where I had collective access to a group of respondents at once for a period of time (as opposed to establishing individual contacts), I provided a printed version of the questionnaire and administered it to the entire group, a technique called “group administration” (Dörnyei, 2003). As Thomas (1998) argues, this choice “enables the researcher to collect a quantity of data in a brief period of time, but also to monitor the activity, ensuring that respondents complete their questionnaires independently and that everyone returns a completed form to the investigator” (p.169). Having obtained the approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University, and necessary permissions from the individual course instructors, I personally visited each class that is offered to the teacher-learners in these programs and administered the CTLQ in group setting for convenience. In order to reach current teacher-learners who were not in the class at the time of data collection or those who were not interested in filling out the survey in-class, I supplemented the data collection process by making the questionnaire available online. From time to time, I asked individual instructional faculty members to forward the participant invitation email (see Appendix D) to increase the response rate.

Having set the parameters for the target population, I considered survey administration options to determine the best mode for implementation. The decisive factor in selection was the geographically dispersed participants. In order to obtain the easiest access to graduates of the programs in different parts of the United States and world, online administration stood out as the most desirable option. Researchers have recognized the benefits of web-based questionnaires such as automatic storage of participants' responses, easy transfer into Microsoft Excel or SPSS platforms, low cost for preparation, speedy delivery, and minimizing costs related to development and administering (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). The first step in the implementation process was to gather email addresses of the participants. For this reason, I contacted the Unit, Department and College administrations, shared with them my overall aims in the research project, my treatment of participants' information under the IRB approval, and requested access to the email addresses of alumni of these programs since 2006. I was able to obtain the information of only those who agreed to disclose their information with the College administration under the authorization through the IRB. In addition to these points of contact, I sent emails to those individuals with whom I have personal acquaintance in their programs and invited them to participate in this study. While this group was significantly larger than other groups of participants, the ultimate response rate turned out to be lower due to challenges inherent to web-based questionnaire, such as the geographical dispersion of the individuals, inability to gather a comprehensive list of individuals and difficulty in following up with participants via email.

3.6.3. Interviews

Widely used as a fundamental data collection tool in qualitative research in education (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Creswell, 2009; Denzin & Lincoln, 2003; Marshall & Rossman, 2006; McKay, 2006; Patton, 1990), interviews are considered to be an “attempt to understand the world from the subject’s point of view, to unfold the meaning of peoples’ experiences, to uncover their lived world” (Kvale, 1996, p.1). Qualitative researchers extensively utilize interviews as a data collection instrument as they lead to elicitation of in-depth perspectives from participants (Creswell, 2009) and enable researchers to develop rich, thick description (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003), and understand what is “in and on someone else’s mind” (Patton, 1990, p.278). Due to the fact that questionnaire data are often criticized for insufficient depth and comprehensiveness (Dörnyei, 2003), interviews are extensively utilized in studies adopting case study methodology to gain a more comprehensive account of participants’ experiences, perceptions, feelings and attitudes, especially when combined with field notes and observational data (Barlow, 2010).

As any other data collection tool, interviews are conducted in many different formats (e.g. face-to-face, by telephone, online, via email) and forms (e.g. structured, semi-structured, unstructured, and informal). In the current inquiry, I utilized *semi-structured* interviews, which are also referred to as *semi-standardized* interviews, and are located in between completely structured and unstructured interviews on the continuum. Berg (2007) describes semi-structured interviews as “the implementation of a number of predetermined questions and special topics....typically asked of each interviewee in a systematic and consistent order” (p.95). This type of “more-open and less structured” and

“more flexibly worded” (Merriam, 2009, p.90) interview is particularly useful in providing a diverse set of opportunities for interviewee and interviewer to negotiate their perspectives in a more contextualized and non-standardized fashion (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000; Dunn, 2005; Fontana & Frey, 2005). In fact, while conducting semi-structured interviews, “the interviewers are permitted (in fact expected) to probe far beyond the answers to their prepared and standardized questions” (Berg, 2007, p. 95).

For the present study, interview questions came from a diverse set of distinct yet connected sources including *a priori* questions I brought to the research context (see Appendix E for teacher-learners and Appendix F for instructional faculty), questions that arose from the analysis of questionnaire data, concepts/questions that participants brought to the interview, and spontaneous concepts and questions that emerged at the time of the interview. In this sense, the semi-structured interview format proved suitable, since it “allows the researcher to respond to the situation at hand, to the emerging worldview of the respondent, and to new ideas on the topic” (Merriam, 1998, p. 74).

The participants for the interviews came from three groups namely, current teacher-learners enrolled in one of the master’s programs offered by the TESOL Unit, teacher-learners who graduated from one of the master’s programs offered by the TESOL Unit anytime since 2006, and instructional faculty in the TESOL Unit teaching master’s-level courses anytime since 2006. Individuals who participated in the interviewing phase were the individuals who were participants in the programs that I described earlier. Prior to their formal participation, each participant was provided with an IRB-approved consent form in English (see Appendix C), and reminded of their rights as participants in this study.

The interviews with the participants were conducted at a mutually convenient time and location. The English language served as a common linguistic denominator and medium of interaction since participants came from diverse linguistic backgrounds. Each interview session lasted about 47–160 minutes depending on the interviewees and their schedules. As a result, this phase generated nearly 40 hours of interview data. Whenever possible, instructional faculty and current and graduated teacher-learners were interviewed multiple times.

The interviews were digitally audio-recorded to immerse myself in the data through an array of tools such as reading, reflecting, evaluating, and elaborating (Patton, 2002) on the interview transcripts. Immediately after the interview, I transcribed interviews verbatim in accordance with the transcription conventions listed in Appendix G and prepared them for subsequent stages of data analysis since “verbatim transcription of recorded interviews provides the best database for analysis” (Merriam, 1998, p. 88). During the interviews, I took notes both to inform the current flow of the interview and to facilitate post-interview analysis. I also employed a range of interviewing tactics including prompts, probes, and silences. In addition, Wengraf’s (2001) “double attention” (p. 194) was influential as I listened to my informants’ responses to understand their message and, at the same time, tried to make sure that every question was adequately addressed. Note taking before, during and after the interview, post-interview reflection and immediate transcribing served as ways to facilitate my ability to pay double attention to participants’ responses.

3.6.4. Classroom Observations

Another cornerstone in the data collection process in the current case study was classroom observations and keeping field notes. Briefly defined as the “watching of behavioral patterns of people in certain situations to obtain information about the phenomenon of interest” (Johnson & Christensen, 2007, p. 211), observations are considered to be an important way of collecting information in educational research. Merriam (1998) indicates two major benefits of naturalistic observations of social phenomena: (a) “observations take place in the natural field setting instead of a location designated for the purpose of interviewing” (p.94), and (b) “observational data represent a first-hand encounter with the phenomenon of interest rather than a second-hand account of the world obtained in an interview” (p. 94). The contextualized and *in situ* characteristics of observations allow researchers to go beyond the potential incongruence between attitudes and behaviors.

The present study included unobtrusive naturalistic observations (Patton, 2002) of three of the six courses that were offered in the three master’s level TESOL teacher education program by the TESOL Unit in the Fall 2011 semester. These observations brought together current teacher-learners, instructional faculty and the researcher in the same room. The observations followed the pre-defined Observation Protocol (see Appendix H). The formal observations of instructors’ classroom practices in preparing teacher-learners for diverse teaching settings resulted in 21 classroom observations of three instructors. Since two of these three classes were scheduled on the same date and time, and different locations (on- and off-campus), I visited the overlapping classes on an

alternating basis. Each of these observations lasted about 3 hours, unless the researcher or the instructor had other instructional plans or commitments.

In addition to the interviews, classroom observations allowed as a reality check for (a) how instructional faculty members' views, beliefs and strategies practices actually manifested in actual classroom practices, (b) why they were manifested in certain ways, (c) if and how they changed or evolved over the course of the semester, and (d) approaching the phenomenon of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings from different perspectives. This combination afforded "more of an interpretive context for interview" (Rueda & Garcia, 1994, p. 317).

3.6.5. Documents

Defined as "an umbrella term to refer to a wide range of written, visual, and physical material relevant to the study at hand" (Merriam, 1998, p. 112)" or "mute evidence" (Hodder, 1998, p. 110), documents are regarded as important data collection sources in qualitative studies (Creswell, 1998, 2009; Marshall & Rossman, 2006). Documents may include primary data (collected by the researcher), and secondary data (collected and archived or published by others) (Schensul, 2008). They not only provide "an unobtrusive method, rich in portraying the values and beliefs of participants in the setting" (Marshall & Rossman, 2006, p.107), but also offer artifacts to stimulate the thinking of any resourceful investigator (Merriam, 1998). Unlike Lincoln and Guba's (1985) distinction, my operationalized understanding of documents will include both *records*, "any statement prepared by an individual or agency for the purposes of attesting to an event or providing an accounting" (p.228), and *documents*, texts that are created to

“make others aware of a point of view, to persuade, to aggrandize, to explicate, or to justify” (p.230).

The documents gathered for the present study included any type of documents that facilitated a contextualized understanding of the teacher candidates’ views on the perceived effectiveness of their programs and their perceived preparedness to teach in diverse settings. Examples of documents included institutional statements, departmental/program reports, handbooks, policy manuals, course syllabi, annual reports, demographic materials, pamphlets, program regulations, and campus-related materials. Complying with the ethical considerations, any identifiable information from the documents was erased and the original copies were photocopied and returned to the owner, when necessary. These documents provided valuable information about the internal characteristics of teacher education programs found in the research context and thereby provide a deeper understanding of the entire research inquiry. To be more specific, I utilized the program website and program catalogs to compile a detailed list of program descriptions, entry and exit requirements, course offerings and descriptions in these programs.

3.7. Data Analysis

While there are different perspectives on the extent to which case study researchers employ a predetermined set of guidelines to inform themselves throughout the research process, there is a consensus that they draw upon an array of analyses from quantitative and qualitative strands to develop “a better understanding of this particular case” (Merriam, 1998, p. 437). Since the current study utilized a holistic single case study approach, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analyzed to inform

my contextualized understanding of the teacher candidates' views on the perceived effectiveness of their programs and their perceived preparedness to teach in diverse settings.

The data analysis process is summarized in three main phases. The initial data analysis process went hand in hand with the data collection process because both processes informed one another (Merriam, 1998). This symbiotic relationship between data collection and data analysis was evident in both the quantitative and qualitative data collection phases. The results of the quantitative surveys generated new questions that I embedded into the specific interview protocols. My observation and field notes were influential in shaping new questions and fine-tuning existing questions in my interviews. My interviews enhanced my overall understanding in my observations and even developed patterns that I utilized in different interviews.

The next process involved both quantitative and qualitative data analysis. For the quantitative analysis, the statistical analysis of questionnaire data was completed with the help of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Participants' responses on the questionnaire were analyzed following these steps:

1. Data were sorted, coded, and entered into SPSS spreadsheets and prepared for analyses.
2. Descriptive statistics (mean, frequency, standard deviation, and percentage) were gathered to obtain a more in-depth and global picture about the participants (such as educational background, self-reported nativeness, teaching experience, post-program aims, and current teaching context).

3. Descriptive statistics were run for each statement in the questionnaire.
4. One-sample Wilcoxon signed-rank test was used to determine if there were differences in perceived effectiveness among teacher candidates' ratings in respect to their teaching contexts.
5. Qualitative comments on the questionnaires were analyzed using a thematic analysis method.

In qualitative research, data collection and analysis are interconnected, and therefore occur in a simultaneous fashion (Merriam, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994). In addition to analyzing the quantitative data, I also analyzed the transcribed interview data, classroom observation and field notes, and researcher's memos (that I keep throughout the research project in and out of the research sites) and any additional documents (institutional statements, departmental/program reports, handbooks, policy manuals, course syllabi, annual reports, demographic materials, pamphlets, program regulations, campus-related materials). In this analysis, I used thematic analysis method and a "funnel structure" (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995, p. 206). The funnel structure model suggests development of more nuanced and focused analysis through gradual fine-tuning of broad observations in a recursive fashion. I have extensively relied on the NVIVO 8 qualitative data analysis software to organize, code and analyze the data. Thematic analysis is defined by Lapadat (2010) as an approach that encompasses "identifying themes or patterns of cultural meaning; coding and classifying data, usually textual, according to themes; and interpreting the resulting thematic structures by seeking commonalities, relationships, overarching patterns, theoretical constructs, or explanatory principles" (p. 925-926). One crucial difference that distinguishes thematic analysis from grounded

theory (Glaser, 1992; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1998) is that the former seeks to provide an exploratory angle to the data without necessarily aiming to develop a theory to explain it (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Drawing upon multiple sources in the analysis has been instrumental in developing the general case (i.e. the TESOL Unit with three master's in TESOL programs) as well as a within-case analysis of each program at the macro level, and individuals at micro levels. The data analysis process included the following steps:

1. Preliminary acquaintance with data through exploring the verbatim transcripts, and field notes (Riessman, 1993)
2. Initial open coding of the data by breaking them down to meaningful, recurring units (Creswell, 1998)
3. Making connections across similar codes to develop themes
4. Sorting and connecting interconnected themes (Creswell, 1998)
5. Developing the thematic analysis for each program
 - a. identifying themes or patterns of meaning,
 - b. coding and classifying data according to themes,
 - c. interpreting the resulting thematic structures by seeking commonalties, relationships, overarching patterns, theoretical constructs, or explanatory principles (Lapadat, 2010)
6. Synthesizing and reporting “lessons learned” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985)

The final stage of case study analysis was the exploration of the teaching context of the TESOL Unit from the perspective of an activity system, more specifically in terms

of *subject, object, mediational means, outcomes, community, division of labor, and rules*, as formulated by Engeström (1987, 1999, 2001), and explained in the next section in greater detail.

3.7.1. Data Analysis from Activity Theory Lens

The dialectical and collective conceptualization of activity has made Activity Theory appealing for researchers in the field of TESOL and Applied Linguistics in the last decade. Recently, Kim (2011) applied Activity Theory to understand the concept of motivation, and Thorne (2004) and Smolcic (2009) utilized it to investigate the learning context of a TESOL certificate program. The interconnectedness embedded in this interpretive framework enables seeing, organizing, and interpreting the interrelated patterns through the analysis of the activity towards a shared goal. Since the present research brought together different stakeholders constituting the TESOL Unit as research participants, Activity Theory served as a theoretical and practical lens to understand the phenomenon of preparing ESOL teachers for diverse teaching settings as a mediated activity with the TESOL Unit system. Inherent in this activity were the bi-directional relations among different elements constituting this system. This interconnectedness enabled me as a researcher to navigate through different levels and “zoom in” to understand individual learners as they interact within the activity and “zoom out” to see the activity (comprised of these individuals and other components) as the unit of analysis. In conclusion, the thematic within case analysis through the lens of Activity Theory offered me a both descriptive and exploratory lens through which I examined the participants’ conceptualizations and provided a multifaceted picture of the case under scrutiny.

I will now present a customized view of the research context from the perspective of the Activity Theory system framework as visually represented in the Figure 12 below.

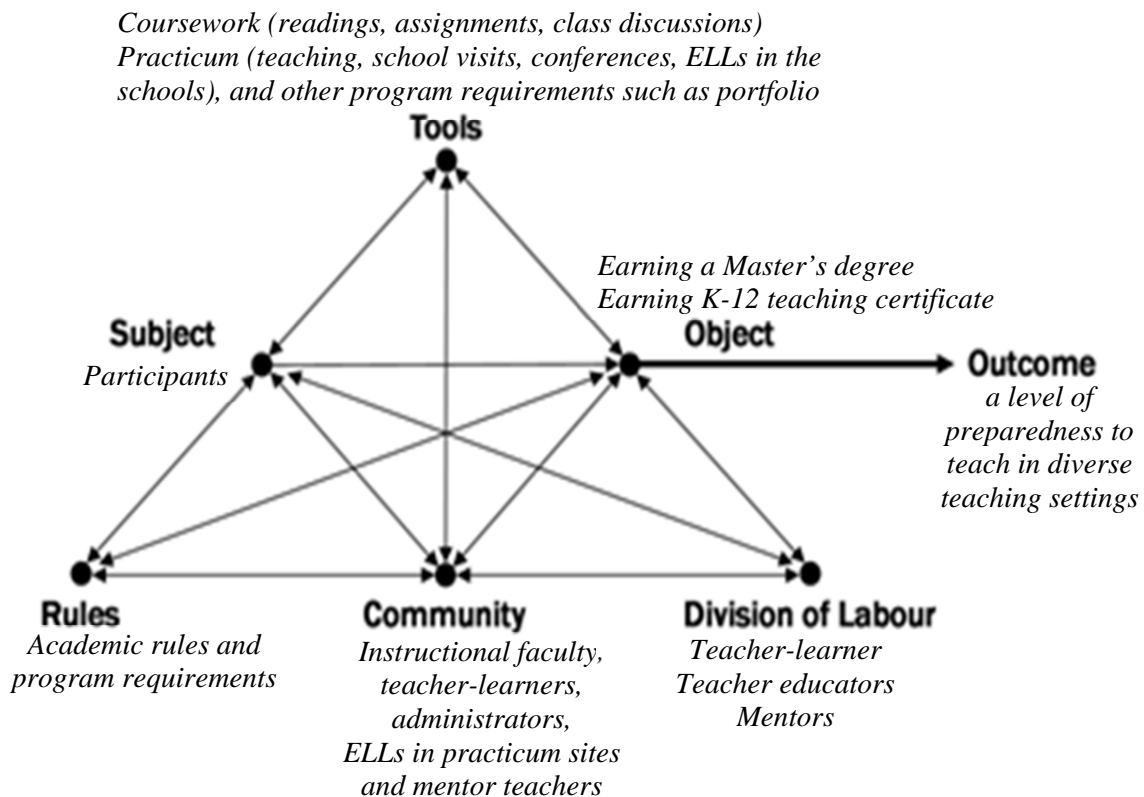


Figure 12. The TESOL Unit as an activity system

The first of these categories is the “*subject*,” which concerned the teacher-learners who went through and participated in the activities of these programs with an intention to develop an “*outcome*” which was a level of preparedness to teach in diverse teaching settings. The outcome was influenced by what each teacher-learner, also known as “*subject*,” brought to the activity system, that was, their personal history, and educational and linguistic background. This influence was captured in Lortie’s (1975) concept of “apprenticeship of observation,” which refers to “the phenomenon whereby student teachers arrive for their training courses having spent thousands of hours as

schoolchildren observing and evaluating professionals in action” (Borg, 2004, p. 274). Besides, within the scope of this activity, there are symbolic or material artifacts that mediate the actions of the subjects within the activity system, also known as “*mediational tools*”. In the present study, these tools include components of the academic programs such as coursework (readings, assignments, class discussions), practicum (teaching, school visits, conferences, ELLs in the schools), and other program requirements such as portfolio. Another component of the activity system is known as the “*object*” and refers to orientation to the activity, the “raw material,” or “problem space” at which the activity is directed (Engeström, 1993, p. 67). The *object* of an activity system is usually complex, relativistic, multiple, and dynamic in nature. It might include the personal motives of the *subject(s)* in the activity. Some of the objects that teacher-learners hold might include “earning a Master’s degree,” “earning a K-12 teaching certificate,” and “developing skills and competencies for teaching ELLs”. In addition, the participants that share a particular activity create a “*community*,” which in this research project, refers to the community composed of instructional faculty, teacher-learners, administrators, ELLs in practicum sites, parents of ELLs, and mentor teachers. Furthermore, “*division of labor*” refers to the interactions among participants within an activity in terms of such issues as power, status, ownership and dominance, and might further afford or constrain the activity system (Engeström, 1993, Thorne, 2004, Smolcic, 2009). Finally, “*rules*” are known as explicit and implicit regulational norms affecting the activity, and might refer to academic rules and program requirements set by the TESOL Unit, Graduate School, Public School Systems (in practicum sites), and the University.

3.8. Data Validation

Many methodologists attributed prime importance to the evaluation of the rigor and the assessment of trustworthiness of data in qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Peshkin, 1993; Wolcott, 1994; Creswell, 1998). This line of thinking brings a set of responsibilities on the part of the researcher to ensure rigorous data collection and analysis is done, and more trustworthy results are constructed. In a discussion about the “validity of validity,” Yue (2010) conceptualized “the very applicability of validity as a “quality of research” issue” (p.962). In order to better address these issues within the scope of the current research project, I will now turn to a discussion of data validation with specific references to the issues including validity, reliability and data triangulation.

3.8.1. Validity

Validity refers to “the extent to which a concept is actually represented by the indicators of such concepts... [and] because case studies may comprise quantitative and/or qualitative data and approaches, validity is more or less an issue of research quality” (Yue, 2010, p.959). Duff, (2007) discusses the issue of internal validity within case study from an epistemological standpoint and presents two contested principles: internal validity and interpretative validity. Internal validity “generally relates to the credibility of results and interpretations (e.g., regarding relationships among variables) based on the conceptual foundations and evidence that is provided” (p. 175). On the other hand, interpretive validity defined by Gall *et al.* (2002) as “judgments about the credibility of an interpretive researcher’s knowledge claims” (p.462) is regarded to be the ultimate objective.

Despite the fact that “internal validity is only a concern for causal (or explanatory) case studies” (Yin, 2003, p. 36) and the research questions informing this study are descriptive and exploratory in nature, a series of actions have been taken to minimize the threats to internal validity. These steps included (1) data triangulation (Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2003), (2) statement of researcher’s experiences, assumptions, and biases (Merriam, 1998), (3) maintaining a chain of evidence (Yin, 2003), (4) defining and testing rival interpretations of the data (Yin, 2003), (5) submersion/engagement in the research situation (Merriam, 1998), and (6) providing thick descriptions.

External validity, on the other hand, deals with whether or not “a study’s findings are generalizable beyond the immediate case study” (Yin, 2003, p. 37), and “concerned with the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations” (Merriam, 1998, p. 207). Considering the fact that this study is primarily concerned with three master’s in TESOL teacher education programs housed within the TESOL Unit, I acknowledge that the immediate relevance of the present study lies with these programs. Although the discussion of generalizability is a contested phenomenon among case study methodologists (Bessey, 1999; Cousin, 2008; Flyvbjerg, 2006; Stake, 1995; Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2003), some believe that a case study might actually generate particular generalizations beyond the scope of the case it derives from (Flyvbjerg, 2001; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003). Since reconciling these terms and perspectives derived from competing epistemologies that undergird particular research paradigms is a subjective task, I leave the discussion at the discretion of the reader and the quality of the research report.

Methodologists who acknowledge “generalizability” as an inherent characteristic of a case study have different standpoints. While Flyvbjerg (2001) attributes the idea of

generalizability to “the power of a good example” (p. 77), Bassey (1999) argues the most desirable aim for case study research is to make “fuzzy generalizations,” referring to rough generalizations about a case. Stake (1995), on the other hand, first reminds us that “the real business of case study is particularization, not generalization” (p. 8) and then recognizes the value of generalizations. He admits that an intrinsic case within a single case study might yield to “petite generalizations” (p.8) about the recurring themes along the study, or a case study might corroborate or refute *a priori* “grand generalizations” (p.8) by presenting a particular case. Assigning particular responsibility to the reader, Stake (1995) ultimately defines the goal of a case study in terms of presenting an in-depth detail and analysis so that a reader can make judgment about a particular case, known as “naturalistic generalizations” (p. 85). This idea is defined as “vicarious experience so well constructed that the person feels as if it [the experience] happened to themselves” (p. 85). This Stakian idea is along the lines of “comparability” by Goetz and LeCompte (1994) who argued that it is imperative for case study researcher to depict the case that “may be compared and contrasted among relevant dimensions with other phenomena” (p. 229). The conceptually dense, in-depth, multifaceted representation of the TESOL teacher education programs, from the perspectives of their current and graduated students, and instructional faculty members yielded “naturalistic generalizations” about TESOL teacher education programs with similar characteristics.

Finally, the last point I would like to make with respect to the issue of generalizability is the idea of “analytic generalizations” (Yin, 2003), defined as utilizing “a previously developed theory...as a template with which to compare the empirical results of the case study” (p. 32-33). While it does not necessarily confirm or disprove the

existing theory, it enables case study researchers to have a theoretical lens through which they look at the case study data and to “talk back to theory” through provision of further (dis)confirming evidence. Employing Activity Theory as an analytical lens for this study also gave me the space to develop analytical generalizations about the Theory when it is applied to interpret three master’s in TESOL teacher education programs.

3.8.2. Reliability

Although the concept of reliability is another contested terrain among methodologists subscribed to different epistemological orientations, Duff (2007) acknowledges that it can be characterized by the idea of “consistency” in sampling, data collection and analysis procedures. To exemplify this, while Yin (2003) indicates that “the goal of reliability is to minimize the errors and biases in a study” (p. 37), Merriam (1998) criticizes this approach by saying, “reliability is problematic in the social sciences simply because human behavior is never static” (p. 205). Merriam goes on to describe her standpoint as follows:

Because what is being studied in education is assumed to be in flux, multifaceted, and highly contextual, because information gathered is a function of who gives it and how skilled the researcher is at getting it, and because the emergent design of a qualitative case study precludes a priori controls, achieving reliability in the traditional sense is not only fanciful but impossible. (p. 206)

As a researcher, I acknowledge that studies that investigate these programs in the future might as well lead to an array of different findings and conclusions due to the constantly evolving and dynamic nature of these programs, its participants (teacher-learners, and instructional faculty), and certain changes in the way these programs are organized, run, and evaluated.

Although I adopted this Merriamian view, that does not necessarily mean abandoning the Yinian perspective; and in fact I used Yin's suggestions to achieve reliability in this case study by following a number of steps. The first of these steps is what Yin (2003) calls "making as many steps as operational as possible" (p. 38). The idea of operationalization was discussed throughout this chapter, which included discussions on research design and rationale, research context, sampling strategies, data collection tools, and analytic strategies. The second step is promoting the transparency of data through maintaining what Yin (2003) calls "a chain of evidence" (p. 105). My personal interest and investment in this issues and literature-driven conceptual framework provide a foundation for this study, and this ultimately informed the research questions guiding this study. The remaining chapters depict how multiple sources of data shed light on answers that helped illuminate the case. The last step promoting the reliability of a case study is sharing researcher's bias to and predispositions about the case under scrutiny. This is an honest way of embracing the researcher's subjectivity and sharing it with the reader. More importantly, it allows the researcher to adopt the role of a "curious student who comes to learn from and with research participants" (Glesne, 1999, p. 41). The reader of this work will hear my voice through different means as a participant, researcher and observer, which I elaborated in *Researcher's Role and Positioning* section found later in this chapter.

3.8.3. Data Triangulation

In simple terms, the term "triangulation" refers to drawing upon various data types and resources for the purposes of a more elaborate, reliable and valid data analysis. Therefore, this theme has recursively occurred throughout this chapter. Originated in

positivist epistemology with an intention to employ multiple sources in order to discover the single Truth, triangulation from a constructivist standpoint “serves also to clarify meaning by identifying different ways the case is being seen (Flick, 1998; Silverman, 1993)” (Stake, 2005, p. 454). Then, the ultimate aim becomes understanding and embracing multiple forms of realities constructed and interpreted differently.

Within the scope of the present research, I paid careful attention to data sources by enacting Merriam’s (1998) notion of “having a conversation with the data” (p.182) by relying on multiple sources of evidence (Denzin, 1989; Esterberg, 2002) for the purposes of developing “converging lines of evidence” that leads to “more convincing and accurate” findings (Yin, 2003, p. 98). Triangulation methods (Creswell, 2009; Stake, 2000; Yin, 2003) were used as data verification and validation tools across (a) different sources (e.g. questionnaire, interviews, classroom observations, and documents, (b) multiple programs (e.g. ShortCert, LongCert and Non-Cert) and (c) participants (e.g. current teacher-learners, graduated teacher-learners, and instructional faculty). Member checks (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Stake, 1995) were done with participants after the completion of transcription and analysis via email or face-to-face meetings, peer debriefings (Creswell, 2009), and with external reviewers who were familiar with the research context at the time of data analysis and interpretation. The triangulation process was done with an intention to enhance the accuracy of data analysis (Patton, 2002) and thereby improve the credibility of the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 2002).

3.9. Participatory and Ethical Considerations

The current study was conducted in a manner that fully complied with the guidelines established by the University of Maryland’s Institutional Review Board (IRB)

for the Protection of Human Subjects. The data collection process did not begin until the researcher received the approval from the Campus IRB Office. The study was conducted in the manner outlined by the IRB procedures by obtaining informed consent forms from the research participants. All research participants were asked to carefully read and sign a consent form that provided them detailed information about their rights and responsibilities as research participants (see Appendix C). More specifically, the consent form consisted of following sections: (1) the purpose of the study; (2) the procedures of the study; (3) potential risks and discomforts of the study; (4) the potential benefits of the research; (5) confidentiality matters; (6) the rights of the participants in this research; (6) the researcher's contact information in case participants have questions in the future; (7) a statement of age and participant consent; and (8) a designated space for participants to sign and date the form. In addition, the participants were presented a brief orientation about the purpose of the study and the data collection procedure in their communication with the researcher. They were also reminded that withdrawing from the study at any time will be reserved as their rights.

There are no major risks involved in the current study. However, the researcher tried to ensure that the process was smooth and fulfilling for the participants by being readily available for them to accommodate their needs. In addition, I further aimed to minimize risk by ensuring confidentiality and protecting anonymity. For the purposes of protecting participants' anonymity and ensuring their confidentiality, all data sources that related to the current research have been stored in a locked cabinet in the researcher's office and in a password-protected computer. Any kind of identifiable information that

might reveal their identity (e.g. their names, etc.) was replaced with pseudonyms at all times, and were not shared with third parties.

3.9.1. Researcher's Role and Positioning

It is widely acknowledged that the researcher plays a crucial role in the processes of data collection and analysis. To be more specific, Stake (1995) asserts that, “of all the roles, the role of interpreter and gatherer of interpretations, is central” (p. 99). Therefore, elucidating and contextualizing a researcher's role in the research process is important not only for the researcher to embrace his subjectivity, but also for “readers to understand the researcher's personal investment in the case, or perhaps intimate familiarity with the context or participants” (Duff, 2007, p. 131). This notion of “intimate familiarity with the context or participants” was also captured in Goetz & LeCompte (1984) who approached the issue from an ethnographic standpoint and argued that “the special relationships that ethnographers develop in their research sites are critical to the depth and breadth of the information they acquire... [and] must be addressed and discussed clearly and openly for the study to be credible” (p. 238). Despite the fact that I am not an ethnographer, the ethnographic elements of this research study and my personal involvement in/with the research site is aligned with this tradition.

Back in 2007, when I came to the United States for my doctoral studies, the first thing that struck me was the diversity of the student population in the classes that I was taking. There were doctoral students from different parts of the United States and the globe. The class discussions were conceptually dense, academically rich, and extremely interesting. As students, we were building upon a rich repertoire of background knowledge and teaching experience that we brought into the academic milieu. As time

went on, I became more acclimated with the academic environment in the program and became cognizant of one matter: Although I was able to make very relevant comments drawing from my experience and training in a different teaching context, I was baffled and completely shut off when I heard concepts like No Child Left Behind (NCLB), National Reading Panel, pull out vs. plug in models, SIOP, since my understanding of the U.S. education system and its challenges, initiatives, historical issues, successes and future directions was missing in the picture. There were three main reasons for this: First, I was not a “product” of this education system as a student since I moved to the U.S. for my doctoral studies. Second, I was not “trained” in this context, as I completed my undergraduate and graduate degrees in English Language Teaching in Turkey. Finally, I was not an ESOL teacher in this context, which significantly impacted my understanding of the educational system in the United States.

Having this conceptualization in mind, I developed a heightened sense of understanding about the educational system more specific to the ESOL teaching and teacher education in the United States. As I took more responsibilities as a research and teaching assistant, I happened to be more vigilant about this issue, especially within the context of the TESOL Unit and more specifically at master’s in TESOL programs level. A unique characteristic of the TESOL profession and as well as these programs is that it welcomes all sorts of linguistic, ethnic, racial, and religious diversities. When I analyzed these programs more closely, I realized that these programs accepted students from all around the world and prepared them for diverse teaching contexts both in the US and in international settings. I was more fascinated when I noticed interesting cases and orientations such as domestic students who were interested in teaching in international

contexts and international students who were interested in joining ESOL teacher force in the US upon graduation. This complex picture spurred my interest towards examining how this complex picture is construed from multiple perspectives, and how these programs prepare a diverse group of teacher-learners for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international settings.

In addition to this researcher-observer perspective, I also would like to recognize my researcher-participant perspective and share my personal insights regarding a graduate-level Second Language Acquisition class that I have been teaching for the past three years in the TESOL Unit. When I stepped into the classroom, the complex yet interesting picture that I described above was something I had to deal with as an instructor of record. I found myself in a situation where I had to cover the field of second language acquisition in such a meaningful way to make the utmost contribution to the knowledge base of future ESOL teachers in my classroom who were going to work with ELLs in the U.S. and different parts of the world. So, the phenomenon of preparing teachers for diverse teaching setting was also something professionally interesting to me.

This complex picture set the foundation for the present research study and is in line with Wolcott (1994, 2008) who provides the three e's in (ethnographic) qualitative data collection: experiencing (participant-observation), enquiring (interviewing), and examining (studying documents). Therefore, I utilize experiencing (self-experiencing, and classroom observations), enquiring (self-enquiring, questionnaires and interviewing) and examining (self-examining, studying documents) in the present research study. My goal was to "capture data on the perceptions of local actors 'from the inside', through a process of deep attentiveness, of empathetic understanding, and of suspending or

“bracketing” preconceptions about the topics under discussion (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 6). This “from the inside” perspective combined with my personal involvement as an instructional faculty member in the TESOL Unit and afforded me to perceive and interpret the reality as a person who is constantly shuttling between researcher and participant roles within the case, as opposed to a researcher who is externally interested in this case (Yin, 2003). This organic relationship with the research context might be regarded as being “too close to the case to see things differently” (Duff, 2007, p. 131) and lead to certain biases, especially in the data analysis section. I have established a self-reflexive dialog by writing a personal researcher’s memo in which I described my propositions (Baxter and Jack, 2008) about the case and embraced my researcher’s bias as a starting point for my point of departure and constantly reminded that to myself in sense-making. This delicate balance between subjectivity and objectivity throughout the study, or “rigorous subjectivity” in Wolcott’s (1994, p.354) terms, has been my guide towards having “differently contoured and nuanced” (Richardson, 1994, p. 521) interpretations.

3.10. Conclusion

The present study is a holistic single case study including both qualitative and quantitative analyses, and it aims to construct a multifaceted picture of the efforts of three master’s-level TESOL teacher education programs housed in teacher education department in preparing a group of ethnolinguistically diverse teacher-learners for diverse teaching settings in the United States and abroad. The participants of this study include (a) teacher-learners who are currently enrolled in, (b) alumni who graduated from, and (c) instructional faculty teaching in these programs. With an intention to interpret multiple

realities co-constructed by the researcher and participants regarding their experiences, beliefs and perspectives on the teacher development practices in these programs, the present study is situated in a descriptive, subjective and interpretive epistemological orientation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). For the purposes of answering the research questions, the current study utilizes four primary data collection sources namely (a) questionnaires (current teacher-learner questionnaire and graduate teacher-learner questionnaire), (b) semi-structured in-depth interviews (with current teacher-learners, graduated teacher-learners and instructional faculty), (c) classroom observations (of three classes throughout the Fall 2011 semester) and (d) official documents such as institutional statements, departmental/program reports, handbooks, policy manuals, course syllabi, annual reports, demographic materials, pamphlets, program regulations, and campus-related materials.

As discussed at length in the next chapter, multiple sources and types of data gleaned from multiple perspectives were used in quantitative, qualitative and thematic within-case analysis through the theoretical lens of Activity Theory. The utilization of Activity Theory granted a descriptive and exploratory lens to the data, provided a dynamic examination of the participants' conceptualizations, and yielded construction of a multifaceted picture of the case under scrutiny.

CHAPTER 4 – LOOKING AT THE CASE: THE TESOL UNIT

Facts do not really exist, only interpretations, and interpretations of interpretations, according to Nietzsche.... There are no facts per se. What is "known" represents a group of "phenomena" or appearances that are tied together and ordered in terms of a particular perspective and reflect the vital demands of a center of Will to Power.

— (Allison, 1985, p. 194)

4.1. Introduction

This chapter is the first of three chapters that will present, discuss and extend the research results gleaned from multiple sources and types of data collected for the current study. More specifically, this chapter aims to provide a thorough understanding of structural and programmatic components of the programs housed within the TESOL Unit. In the second half of this chapter, I will depict a picture constructed by the Activity Theory lens, which will serve as the theoretical foundation for the discussion in the subsequent chapters. In conclusion, this comprehensive description of these programs will not only allow readers to grasp the commonalities and particularities of the case but also provide a basis for the transferability of the research results to other qualified contexts.

4.2. The TESOL Unit at a Glance

Housed within a College of Education, the TESOL Unit defines itself as an innovative, vibrant and growing program, and educates both ESOL and foreign language teachers in a wide range of programs, which bring together various aspects of theory, research, and practice. The overall mission of the Unit includes combining various components of second language learning and teaching for the purposes of equipping teacher-learners with a knowledge base by which they can evaluate and adapt methods,

instructional materials, and curricula in a range of culturally and linguistically diverse settings in the United States and international contexts.

The present study explores the Unit's emphasis on preparing teacher-learners for a range of culturally and linguistically diverse settings in the United States and international contexts. The programs offered by the TESOL Unit are nationally and internationally recognized, and fully accredited by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the State Department of Education (SDE). Although the Unit offers an undergraduate TESOL minor, a Master's in Foreign Language Education, and a PhD program, the overarching focus of this study is on the ShortCert, LongCert and NonCert³ programs.

4.3. Master's in TESOL programs within the TESOL Unit

Developing a thorough understanding of these programs will be operationalized at two distinct yet interrelated levels: (1) brief descriptions of these programs, (2) structural and programmatic components, and (3) characteristics of stakeholders, including current teacher-learners, graduated teacher-learners and instructional faculty. The first level presents a brief description of each program. The discussion at this level mainly draws upon official documents, pamphlets, and reports. The second level offers a discussion of structural and programmatic components. Although each program has its own distinct features, the TESOL programs within the Unit share similar characteristics across a set of key dimensions including entry requirements, curricular organization, a practicum (for the LongCert and ShortCert programs), exit requirements such as comprehensive exam, seminar paper, teaching portfolio and Praxis tests. Including a description and discussion

³ All program names are pseudonyms to protect anonymity.

of these structural and programmatic components is particularly important since the next chapter creates a three dimensional picture of these components as seen through the eyes of participants. The discussion at this level mainly draws upon official documents, pamphlets, personal accounts and reports. The last level outlines the characteristics of stakeholders (teacher-learners, graduated teacher-learners and instructional faculty) in these programs with specific reference to demographic background information and characteristics gathered through surveys, interviews and personal relations with the participants.

4.3.1. A Discussion of Program Descriptions

The Master's of Education in TESOL degrees are grouped under two major categories. ShortCert and LongCert programs are found under the initial teacher certification programs to teach in U.S. K-12 schools category, whereas NonCert program is considered to be a part of the teacher leadership programs. The official description of each program is summarized in Table 4 below.

As seen below, K-12 educational settings in the U.S. were featured in the ShortCert and LongCert programs, and post-secondary settings were featured in the NonCert program, which also offers an opportunity for certified K-12 teachers in the U.S. to develop their expertise in TESOL and ultimately get certified in TESOL in the State. On the other hand, the NonCert program is responsible for preparing teachers for all educational settings in international contexts. All of these programs lead to a Master's in Education degree, and the programs except the NonCert program provide teacher-learners with a K-12 teaching certification in the State.

Table 4.
MATESOL Programs Offered by the TESOL Unit

Program Title	Program Description	Preparing teachers for...
ShortCert	The ShortCert program is an alternative teacher education program for individuals who have completed a baccalaureate degree and intend to teach at the K-12 level. The ShortCert program is a 13-month, full-time program that leads to a Master's of Education (M.Ed.) as well as eligibility for the State certification to teach in elementary or secondary schools.	K-12 in the State/US
LongCert	The LongCert program is designed for students who have earned a bachelor's degree in any subject matter, and wish to become certified as teachers of English to speakers of other languages for elementary, middle and high school students in this State. This degree consists of 42 credits (36 hours of coursework and 6 hours of field experience).	K-12 in the State/US
NonCert	The NonCert program is recommended for (1) certified K-12 teachers in the U.S. who wish to develop expertise in TESOL and (2) for practicing or prospective teachers in US post-secondary or international contexts.	K-12 in the State/US Post-secondary US International contexts

4.3.1.1. Major Driving Forces: Accreditation, Certification, and Conceptualization

The TESOL Unit, like any other academic program housed in any type of institution of higher education, is accountable to meet the standards and requirements determined at the College, State and National levels. These standards and requirements serve as expressions of dedication to and pursuit of the knowledge, values, and skills on which the internal (Unit, Department, College, University) and external (the State Department of Education, Accreditation bodies, and educational community) reached consensus. Manifested in the forms of conceptual framework, accreditation and certification forms, these tools define, and sustain the quality of the education being

provided to teacher-learners, and ensure recognition for the institution in accomplishing its mission and goals. Therefore, a discussion of the TESOL Unit as a case would be significantly incomplete without mentioning some major driving forces behind the accreditation, certification and conceptualization processes. In addition, from a methodological point of view, a thorough description of the case will illuminate the reader's understanding of the issues embedded in and discussions emerging from the case, as well as making a methodological contribution to the transferability and ecological generalizability (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2001) of the study.

At the micro level, the College of Education requires that graduates of all these programs (and others across the college) demonstrate the following four core proficiencies:

- 1) Candidates demonstrate competency in their knowledge of subject matter, curriculum, and pedagogy, as well as pedagogical content knowledge.
- 2) Candidates demonstrate understanding of learners and their social and cultural contexts with a global perspective and intentional sensitivity to other cultures.
- 3) Candidates practice evidence-based decision-making through the use of assessment as well as the critical interpretation of research and inquiry in order to improve educational practice.
- 4) Candidates competently integrate technology in instruction to support student learning and develop data-driven solutions for instructional and school improvement.

Certification regulations for ESOL PreK-12 teachers in the State has been set by the State Board of Education and presented in the Code of State Regulations. These

regulations indicate that in order to receive certification in ESOL (PreK-12), the teacher-learners need to meet the requirements under three major categories: (1) Content courses; (2) Professional Education Courses; and (3) Reading Courses.

1. Content Courses (21 semester hours) to include:
 - a. 6 semester hours of coursework in general linguistics and in structure of American English;
 - b. 6 semester hours of coursework in a single modern foreign language at the college or university level or the completion of a college level examination program or comparable test;
 - c. 3 semester hours of course work in cross-cultural studies to include coursework covering knowledge and sensitivity toward modern cultures; and
 - d. 6 semester hours of course work in language learning to include coursework such as language learning and acquisition, psycholinguistics, and language development.
2. Professional Education Courses
 - a. 6 semester hours in foundations of education, including a course in psychological foundations of education;
 - b. 12 semester hours in methodology for the ESOL teacher to include 3 semester hours in:
 - i. ESOL methods;
 - ii. Methods in the teaching of reading to limited English proficiency (LEP) students;
 - iii. Methods in the teaching of writing to limited English proficiency (LEP) students; and
 - iv. ESOL tests and measurements;
 - c. 3 semester hours in inclusion of special needs student populations; and
 - d. 6 semester hours in supervised observation and student teaching in ESOL, or 1 year of successful teaching experience in ESOL.

3. Reading Courses (6 semester hours in reading methods at the secondary level) to include:
 - a. Types of reading;
 - b. Use of reading assessment data to improve instruction;
 - c. Skills in reading including cognitive strategies in reading;
 - d. Reading instruction including reading aloud strategies and methods for diagnosing reading difficulties and making instructional modifications and accommodations for the student;
 - e. Strategies for intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for reading;
 - f. Teaching students to learn from text by applying theories, strategies, and practices in daily classroom use including additional content in types of reading using authentic texts;
 - g. Skills in reading including processing of multimedia information and strategies to connect reading with study skills; and
 - h. Reading instruction that integrates content area goals with reading goals including strategies for students to communicate effectively orally and in writing about what they have read in content area texts.

Collaboratively created by the TESOL International Association and National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), TESOL/NCATE Standards for P–12 ESL Teacher Education Programs (NCATE, 2010) require institutions to embody their teacher candidates with a set of knowledge, skills, and dispositions to work successfully with ELLs. The standards consist of the following domains (denoted by numbers) and standards (denoted by letters):

1. Language
 - a. Language as a System
 - b. Language Acquisition and Development
2. Culture
 - a. Language Acquisition and Development

3. Planning, Implementing, and Managing Instruction
 - a. Planning for Standards-Based ESL and Content Instruction
 - b. Implementing and Managing Standards-Based ESL and Content Instruction
 - c. Using Resources and Technology Effectively in ESL and Content Instruction
4. Assessment
 - a. Issues of Assessment for English Language Learners
 - b. Language Proficiency Assessment
 - c. Classroom-Based Assessment for ESL
5. Professionalism
 - a. ESL Research and History
 - b. Professional Development, Partnerships, and Advocacy

4.3.2. A Discussion of Programmatic Components

Despite the fact that they exhibit certain variation as to specific program, these programs in fact share a remarkable number of programmatic components. Within the scope of this project, the programmatic components include entry requirements, curriculum, internship, and exit requirements such as a comprehensive exam, seminar paper, and an acceptable score on the *Praxis II* test. While some of these components such as internship are program specific, the others (e.g. entry requirements) pervade the three programs.

4.3.2.1. Entry Requirements

Typical of any graduate school application in the United States, the application process means satisfying requirements set by the Graduate School and by the respective departments as summarized in Table 5 below.

Table 5.
Admission Requirements by Program

ShortCert	LongCert	NonCert
3.0 (or B) GPA (Undergraduate/Graduate)	3.0 (or B) GPA (Undergraduate/Graduate)	3.0 (or B) GPA (Undergraduate/Graduate)
3 letters of recommendation	3 letters of recommendation	3 letters of recommendation
TOEFL 100/IELTS 7 For international students	TOEFL 100/IELTS 7 For international students	TOEFL 100/IELTS 7 For international students
A personal statement of goals and interests	A personal statement of goals and interests	A personal statement of goals and interests
Praxis I (Reading 177, Math 177, Writing 173)	Composite score of 527 for Praxis I, passing scores on reading/writing	n/a
Résumé	n/a	n/a
Relevant experience (No formal teaching)	n/a	n/a
Admission interviews	n/a	n/a

Therefore, before initiating an application for any of these programs, the teacher-learners should check whether they meet the University’s general requirements for the admission, which include (a) earning a four-year baccalaureate degree from a regionally accredited U.S. institution, or an equivalent degree from a non-U.S. institution, (b) earning a 3.0 GPA (on a 4.0 scale) in all prior undergraduate and graduate coursework, (c) providing an official hard copy of a transcript for all of their post-secondary work, (d) submitting at least three letters of reference describing the applicants’ academic talents, work ethic, and intellectual strengths, and (e) paying a non-refundable application fee. In addition to these documents, international students need to submit an evidence of English language proficiency by submitting TOEFL⁴ or IELTS⁵ scores. If applicants are admitted to the University without satisfying this requirement, their admission will be provisional

⁴ The total composite Internet-based TOEFL score for admission with no provision is 100. Individual breakdown of the score is as follows: Speaking – 22, Listening – 24, Reading – 26, and Writing – 24.

⁵ The IELTS score for admission with no provision is 7. Individual breakdown of the score is as follows: Speaking – 6.5, Listening – 7, Reading – 7, and Writing – 7.

and that they will be required to take an English proficiency exam during orientation or further English courses in their first semesters. In addition to these documents required by the Graduate School of the University, the department also requires submission of a statement of goals, experiences, and research interests describing the relationship between the applicant's academic career objectives and experiences and their fit with the intended program of study.

On a more specific level, the ShortCert program requires participants to (a) complete the required academic content⁶ for the TESOL certification area either before the application or during the course of the program, (b) have some teaching experience with children as an evidence of an informed commitment to the teaching profession such as coaching, mentoring, tutoring, volunteering or substitute teaching experiences in school settings, or other relevant experiences, (c) submit passing scores in Reading, Mathematics and Writing sections of the Praxis I⁷ test, and (d) a curriculum vitae, outlining academic, professional and volunteer experience of the applicants. ShortCert candidates who meet the program qualifications are interviewed by two members of the College and ShortCert faculty for a final decision regarding their admission. The only difference between the ShortCert and LongCert admission processes is that the former requires previous teaching experience and admission interviews, whereas the latter requires a composite score of 527 for Praxis I, and passing scores on reading and writing.

⁶ The required academic content includes the following courses: "*Foundations of Second Language Education*" and "*English Grammar for TESOL*," which can be completed prior to admission or added into the program sequence.

⁷ While the ShortCert program does not require a passing composite score, it requires passing scores in each section as follows: Reading 177, Mathematics 177, and Writing 173.

4.3.2.2. Duration and Credit Distributions

The programs offered by the TESOL Unit show a great variation in terms of duration. As a 13-month, and 42-48 credit program, ShortCert program assumes that prospective teacher-learners bring competence in their knowledge of their subject matter and completed state-required academic courses relevant to their field. This program provides an intensive, fast-paced, full-time teaching development experience that integrates both theory and practice in a school-based program. Teacher-learners in the ShortCert program complete 30 credits of graduate coursework and a year-long, 12-credit internship, and graduate with a Master's in Education degree and eligibility for ESOL Teaching Certification for the State. LongCert program, on the other hand, is a 2-year, 42-credit program, which prepares teacher-learners with a strong foundation to teach in the U.S. elementary and secondary school context. Teacher-learners in the LongCert program complete 30 credits of graduate coursework and a year-long, 12-credit internship and graduate with a Master's in Education degree and eligibility for ESOL Teaching Certification for the State. Finally, NonCert program is 2-year, 30-credit program aimed for individuals who are interested in teaching outside of the U.S. or in the U.S. at post-secondary levels, or who have a teaching certificate and want to earn a Master's degree in TESOL. Teacher-learners in the NonCert program complete 30 credits of graduate coursework and graduate with a Master's in Education degree.

While the ShortCert program always begins in June and runs through the end of June of the following year, the other programs admitted students both in Fall and Spring semesters in the past. Starting from 2010-2011 academic year, Fall semester

matriculation has been decided as the only option as program beginning date for these programs.

4.3.2.3. Coursework

Regardless of the program, coursework is an integral part of teacher-learners' lives. In addition to exit requirements designated for each program, coursework is comprised of 71% of the credits in ShortCert and LongCert programs, and an exhaustive 100% of the credits in the NonCert program.

The coursework experience for ShortCert teacher-learners consists of 30-36 credits, depending on the individual's background and the fulfillment of the pre-requisite courses "*Foundations of Second Language Education*" and "*English Grammar for TESOL*". The courses and course schedules are fixed, meaning that the program's intensive nature leaves no room for electives. Thus, teacher-learners in the ShortCert program take two courses at night during the week as well as some Saturdays. Since ShortCert is an outreach partnership project, the classes are not held on the campus but in satellite locations within a 20-mile radius from the Campus in three partner counties. The course schedule and the sequence of the ShortCert program are as follows:

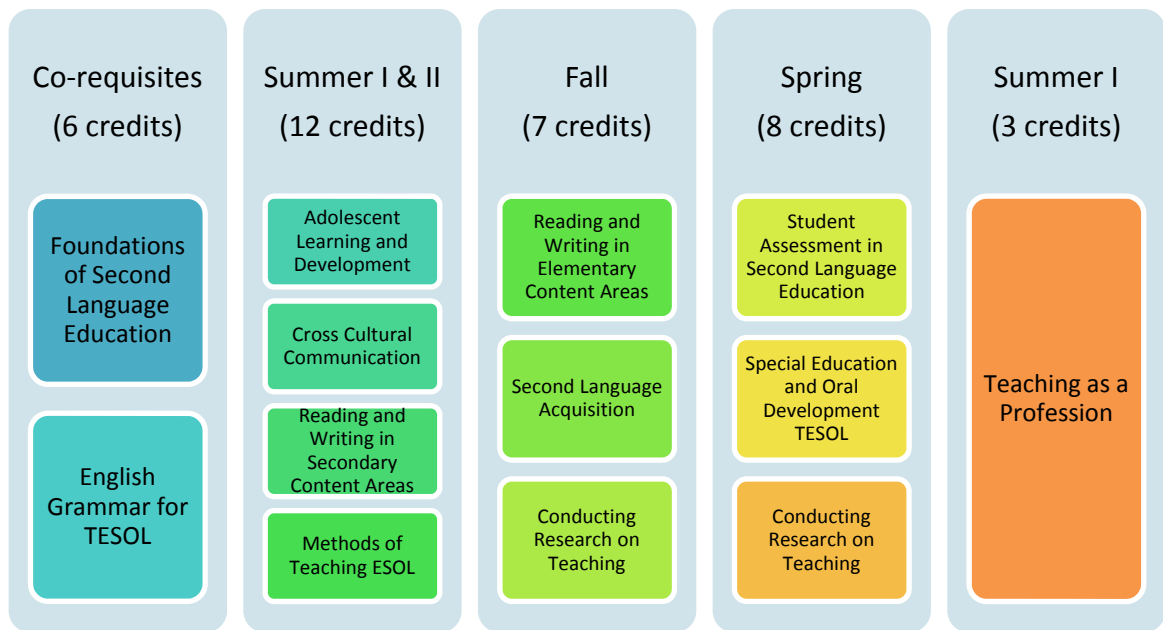


Figure 13. ShortCert program sequence

The coursework experience for teacher-learners in LongCert program consists of 36 credits. The coursework is conceptualized under five categories:

(1) Studying Student Learning in Diverse Settings

- a. Special Education and Oral Language Development in TESOL
- b. Teaching for Cross-Cultural Communication

(2) Research Foundations for Teaching

- a. Research Methods
- b. Research Methods/Quantitative Research Methods

(3) Practices and Policies for Second Language Education

- a. Foundations of Second Language Education: Trends and Issues in Second Language Teaching, Learning and Assessment
- b. Student Assessment in the Second Language Classroom
- c. Methods of Teaching ESOL
- d. English Grammar for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages
- e. Teaching ESOL Reading and Writing in Elementary Classroom Areas

f. Teaching ESOL Reading and Writing in Secondary Content Areas

(4) Leadership and Professional Development

- a. Practice and Theory in Teaching English Language Learners
- b. Educational Psychology
- c. Advanced Laboratory Practice in Foreign Language/ TESOL Education/Teaching Internship

(5) Capstone Course

- a. Second Language Acquisition

The course schedule and the recommended sequence of the courses are as follows:

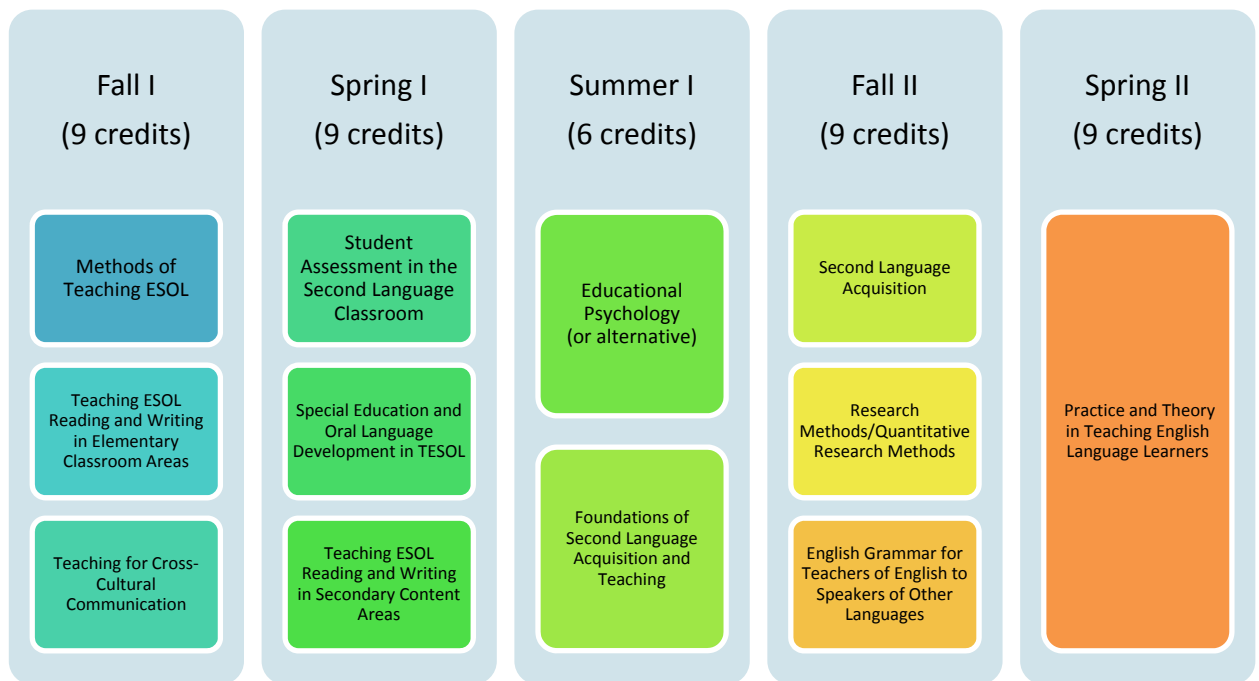


Figure 14. LongCert program sequence

The coursework experience for teacher-learners in NonCert program consists of 30 credits. The coursework is conceptualized under the same categories as the LongCert but organized differently as follows:

(1) Studying Student Learning in Diverse Settings

- a. Teaching for Cross-Cultural Communication

(2) Research Foundations for Teaching (choose 1 course)

- a. Research Methods
- b. Research Methods/Quantitative Research Methods

(3) Practices and Policies for Second Language Education (4 courses)

- a. Student Assessment in the Second Language Classroom
- b. Methods of Teaching ESOL
- c. English Grammar for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

- Choose 1 of the following courses -

- d. Teaching ESOL Reading and Writing in Elementary Classroom Areas
- e. Teaching ESOL Reading and Writing in Secondary Content Areas

(4) Leadership and Professional Development

- a. Foundations of Second Language Education: Trends and Issues in Second Language Teaching, Learning and Assessment

(5) Capstone Course

- a. Second Language Acquisition

(6) Electives

- a. Special Education and Oral Language Development in TESOL
- b. Teaching ESOL Reading and Writing in Elementary Classroom Areas
- c. Teaching ESOL Reading and Writing in Secondary Content Areas
- d. Theory and Research in Second Language Teaching & Learning

The course schedule and the recommended sequence⁸ of the courses are outlined in Figure 14 below:

⁸ It is advised for the students that they should prioritize the core requirements in designing their course sequence. The recommended sequence here is for information purposes only since class schedules are subject to change and some classes might not be offered every year.

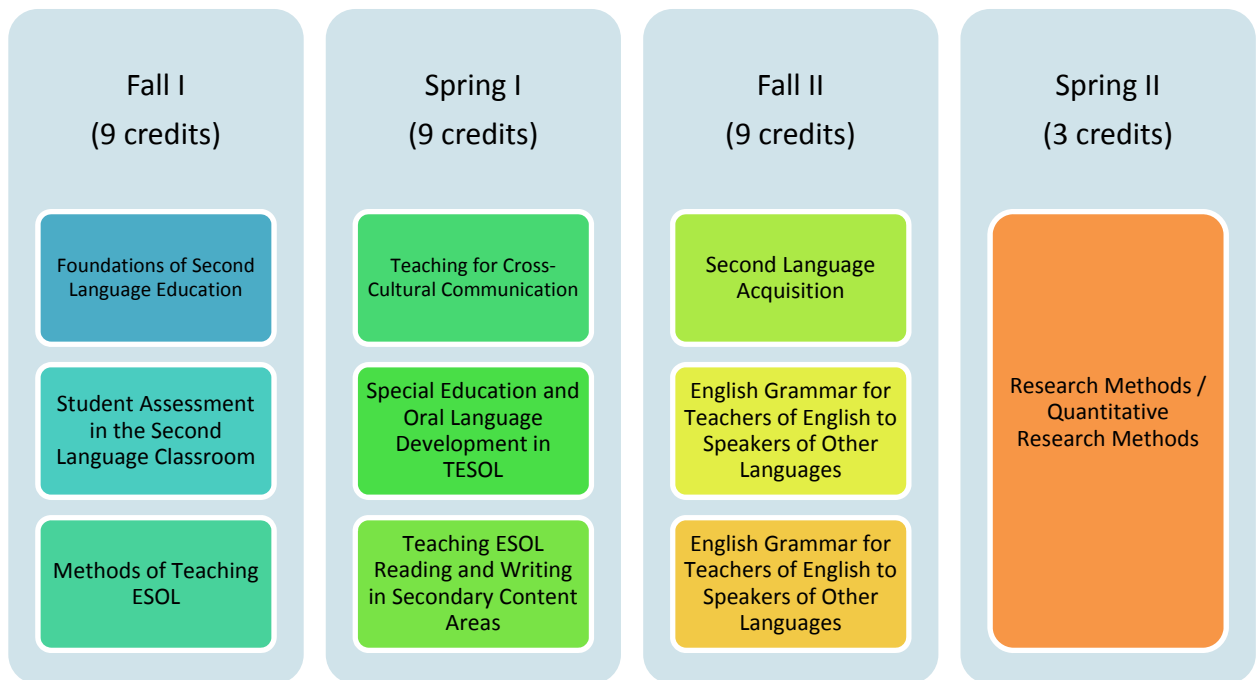


Figure 15. NonCert program sequence

As a program classified as a teacher leadership program, NonCert program participants must take one course in each of the 5 teacher leadership areas listed below to meet the 15-credit core requirements of the department. The areas include (1) Diversity in Schools, (2) Research Methods/Action Research, (3) Practices and Support for Teaching & Student Assessment, (4) Leadership/Teacher Mentoring, and (5) Portfolio or Seminar Paper Course. In addition to these requirements, teacher-learners are expected to complete 6-credits of Unit specialty courses (“*Second Language Acquisition*” and “*Methods of Teaching ESOL*”) and 9-credits of Unit electives.

4.3.2.4. *Internship*

Arguably, the practical experience required of students is the heart of these programs and varied for each program. While no institutionalized practical experience is

required for the NonCert program, ShortCert and LongCert programs require year-long internships, which are defined and structured differently, as discussed below.

After the summer semester, teacher-candidates in the ShortCert program begin their 12-credit year-long internships in mid-August at a Professional Development School (PDS) site located in one of the three partnering counties. The internship continues until the end of the K-12 school year, which is generally mid-June. Unlike other ShortCert programs, the TESOL ShortCert placement is a dual internship and provides two semester-long internships at elementary and secondary levels. Teacher-learners in this program have mentor teachers at each level placements, who work with them in their professional journeys on becoming effective ESOL teachers in a variety of settings, working with learners from diverse age, educational backgrounds, and proficiency levels. The support and guidance mechanism in the ShortCert internships are provided by school-based mentor, university-based supervisor and subject-based PDS coordinators. At the end of the internship period, teacher candidates are expected to take the capstone course, which gives the interns an opportunity to reflect upon their experiences as apprentice teachers as well as project on their first year as a full-time certified public school teachers. Teacher-learners in ShortCert program complete their seminar papers by the end of the spring semester, and complete their teaching portfolios by mid-June.

The internship experience for the LongCert program participants begins after the successful completion of seminar paper, and *Praxis II* test requirements. This internship is conceptualized at two stages: observation and student teaching. The first stage, observation, refers to the time period during the semester prior to student teaching (usually Fall semester of the second year) 20 full days of observation at elementary (10

days) and secondary (10 days) settings. Usually in the Spring semester, teacher-learners return to the educational settings in which they observed in the Fall semester, and complete 8-weeks of student teaching in each setting. During the course of their internship, teacher-learners enroll in *Practice and Theory in Teaching Second Language Learners*, in which they develop and complete their teaching portfolios and *Advanced Laboratory Practice*, a six-credit course to gain internship credits. Similarly, the support and guidance mechanism in the LongCert internships are provided by school-based mentor, university-based supervisor and subject-based PDS coordinators.

4.3.2.5. Exit Requirements

Exit requirements refer to other programmatic components which demonstrate the competencies of teacher-learners in addition to satisfactory completion of coursework and the internship. These requirements include preparing a teaching portfolio, successfully passing the comprehensive exam, writing an approved seminar paper, and passing the *Praxis II* test.

Teacher-learners in the two programs with an institutionalized student internship component (ShortCert and LongCert) create a **teaching portfolio** in lieu of the master's comprehensive examination. Because these programs lead to a certification for the State, it is mandated by the State Department of Education that the teacher-learners must produce a teaching portfolio presented at the end of each program. Typically, a teaching portfolio includes documents and artifacts, which collectively suggest the depth, breadth, and quality of a teacher's teaching performance, and some personal reflections on this evidence. Furthermore, the program demands that teacher-learners' portfolios should include authentic artifacts demonstrating their growth as ESOL teachers during their

programs. Teacher-learners' portfolios are assessed in accordance with a rubric comprised of two major categories: introduction and standards. The Introduction section is worth 20% of the entire grade, and includes the following components: (a) Introduction/Personal journey, (b) Personal information/résumé, credentials, achievements, (c) Teaching experience/knowledge and experience working with various populations, and (d) Philosophy of teaching and language learning. The Standards section, on the other hand, is worth 80% of the total grade, and includes the following components: (a) TESOL/NCATE Professional Standards (50%), (b) State Teacher Technology Standards (15%), and (c) College of Education's performance-based assessments (15%). The rubric indicates that the Portfolio total score must be 75% or higher to pass.

Serving like a condensed master's thesis, a **seminar paper** is generally a literature review or action research study written under the guidance, direction and supervision of a professor in the TESOL Unit. The seminar paper requirement varies in accordance with each program in the TESOL Unit. Students in all three programs write a seminar paper as part of their graduation requirements. While teacher-learners in the ShortCert program participate in a year-long action research inquiry project as a culminating seminar paper, LongCert and NonCert program participants create a critical review of the second language learning and teaching literature, or a policy analysis paper analyzing cultural, linguistic, socioeducational of a particular language education policy. The final submitted paper is expected to comply with the APA guidelines, and to be approximately 30 pages, and double-spaced, including references. There is a great

tendency among teacher-learners in these programs to utilize their culminating final course papers as a foundation for the seminar papers.

While teacher-learners in the programs that lead to teaching certification create teaching portfolios, the teacher-learners in NonCert program are required to take a **master's comprehensive examination**. As its name suggests, the examination offers teacher-learners the opportunity to display their comprehensive understanding of the knowledge they have learned throughout the program. Therefore, this culminating program requirement is fulfilled at or near the end of the coursework.

The scope of the exam is briefly outlined in the document provided to teacher-learners, which also includes sample subject areas such as instructional methods for a particular age/proficiency group with particular needs (including elementary and secondary), Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories, major trends and issues in language teaching/learning, reading strategy instruction, steps in the writing process, adapting an inadequate book or curriculum or course to meet students' needs, specific problems in grammar teaching and how to solve them, language assessment, language learning styles and strategies, differences between ESL and EFL, reflective teaching and action research, and cross-cultural communication. Responses of the examinees are evaluated by faculty members who are knowledgeable in the subject-area addressed in each question. The grading criteria include a rating from 0 to 5 in five categories: (a) completeness of answer, (b) validity of facts and perspectives, (c) higher-order thinking skills, (d) citations of relevant research or laws, and (e) quality of writing. Examinees with a mean score of 3 or above pass the exam.

Despite the fact that the **Praxis test** is beyond the scope of a definition of a programmatic component, it is still a valid point of discussion since it serves as an exit requirement for the two Certification programs due to State regulations for ESOL certification. Offered by the Educational Testing Service (ETS), The *Praxis Series*[™] tests measure knowledge and skills of the teacher candidates who are entering the teaching profession as part of the certification process required by many states and professional licensing organizations (ETS Website). There are two types of tests. *Praxis I*[®] - Pre-Professional Skills Tests (PPST[®]) is often used to qualify candidates for entry into a teacher education program by measuring their knowledge of basic skills in reading, writing and mathematics. *Praxis II*[®] - Subject Assessments, on the other hand, is used to qualify candidates for beginning teaching by measuring their specific content knowledge, as well as general and subject-specific teaching skills (ETS Website). As described in the *Entry Requirements* section in this chapter, the *Praxis I*[®] - Pre-Professional Skills Tests (PPST[®]) in reading, writing and mathematics areas is an admission requirement for both programs. In addition, teacher-candidates in both programs are required to submit their *Praxis II*[®] in English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) scores. The test is “designed to measure basic linguistic and pedagogical knowledge within the context of teaching ESOL in elementary and secondary schools” (ETS, n.d.). The test is comprised of four major content areas: (1) Foundations of Linguistics and Language Learning (40%); (2) Planning, Implementing, and Managing Instruction (30%); (3) Assessment (15%); and (4) Cultural and Professional Aspects of the Job (15%).

4.3.2.6. Summary

The discussion of organizational and programmatic components of the master’s in TESOL programs offered by the TESOL Unit, as summarized in the Table 6 below, reveals a number of overarching characteristics of these programs. These characteristics include degree, certification, program duration, the internship component (duration and format), seminar paper, teaching portfolio, comprehensive exam, and *Praxis* tests.

Table 6.
Programmatic Components by Program

	ShortCert	LongCert	NonCert
Degree	Master’s in Education	Master’s in Education	Master’s in Education
Certification	K-12 TESOL	K-12 TESOL	None
Duration	13 months	2 years	2 years
Total Credits	42 credits	42 credits	30 credits
Coursework	30 credits	36 credits	30 credits
Internship	Yes	Yes	No
Internship Credits	12 credits	6 credits	None
Internship Duration	1 year	1 year	N/A
Internship Format	Fall: Elementary Spring: Secondary	Fall: 20-day Observations in elementary and secondary Spring: 8-week elementary 8-week secondary	N/A
Seminar Paper	Yes (Action research class)	Yes	Yes
Teaching Portfolio	Yes	Yes	No
Comprehensive Exam	No	No	Yes
Praxis Tests	<i>Praxis I</i> [®] (Admission requirement) <i>Praxis II</i> [®] in ESOL (Graduation requirement)	<i>Praxis I</i> [®] (Admission requirement) <i>Praxis II</i> [®] in ESOL (Graduation requirement)	No

The programmatic components indicate the points of convergence and divergence across these programs in terms of their requirements. To be more specific, the ShortCert and LongCert programs, two closely aligned programs in terms of their ultimate aim, have considerable differences in specific programmatic components. While the NonCert program requires the completion of 36 credits of coursework and 6 credits of a yearlong internship experience within 2 years, the ShortCert program requires the completion of 30 credits of coursework and 12 credits of a yearlong internship experience within 13 months. On the other hand, both programs require the submission of a seminar paper, teaching portfolio, *Praxis II* scores, and neither of these programs have a comprehensive examination component.

Despite the fact that both programs have institutionalized internship and seminar paper components, they differ in the definition and enactment of these components. Teacher-learners in the ShortCert program have two semester-long internships in elementary or secondary settings, whereas LongCert program participants spend 20 hours in the first semester in observation and a semester-long internship split into elementary and secondary school settings. As for the seminar paper, ShortCert participants are required to enroll in a 3-credit course, which runs parallel to their internship experience throughout the year and conduct an action research whose results emerge in the form of a seminar paper. On the other hand, teacher-learners in the LongCert program usually write reviews of literature demonstrating their expertise in synthesizing academic literature and establishing connections with practice.

Adopting a distinct and more comprehensive aim, the NonCert program is organized quite different from the other two programs. This program requires the

completion of 30 credits of coursework within 2 years, but offers no institutionalized teaching experience or teaching portfolio experience. The implementation of the seminar paper requirement is closely aligned with that of the LongCert program as both program participants generally submit extended literature reviews. Unlike the other two programs, the NonCert program requires successful completion of a comprehensive examination as an exit requirement, and does not require the submission of a *Praxis II* test score, which is a requirement for State Certification.

4.3.3. The TESOL Unit Community: Faculty, Current and Graduated Teacher-Learners

The population of interest in this study is actually what comprises the core of the TESOL Unit community, and includes current and graduated teacher-learners, and instructional faculty members (tenured, tenure-track, adjunct professors, graduate assistants and the Unit administrator). Therefore, understanding community members of the TESOL Unit is actually an important step in understanding the TESOL Unit as a case and its three master's in TESOL teacher education programs. Departing from this point, the purpose of this section is to provide more in-depth information about the community members. Expectedly, this section is organized under three subjects, current teacher-learners, graduated teacher-learners, and instructional faculty.

4.3.3.1. Current Teacher-learners

The teacher-learners group that was enrolled at the time of this study was comprised of the master's level students who are enrolled in one of the master's in TESOL programs offered by the TESOL Unit at the time of data collection. By serving as a graduate teaching assistant in the Unit, I was able to maintain collegial relations with

other instructional faculty members, and teacher-learners in these programs. These relations afforded me a more direct and reliable communication bridge with the current teacher-learners in the study. The purpose of this section is to share educational background and demographic characteristics of the group of teacher-learners that were enrolled in the three master’s in TESOL programs offered by the TESOL Unit at the time of data collection for this study.

A total of 41 individuals qualified for the “current teacher-learners” category at the time of data collection. Although the figures are very close, the largest subgroup was LongCert program participants, composing nearly 40% of the population, followed by ShortCert participants accounting for 34%, and NonCert, about 27% of the population. Full-time enrollment was a more favored option since nearly three out of four participants are attending the program on a full-time basis. While the two master’s programs have part-time teacher-learners, the ShortCert program requires full-time enrollment. The workload intensity of the ShortCert program, full-time year-long internship coupled with classes with two nights a week and occasional Saturdays, leaves no room for a part-time enrollment or a distance learning option, and therefore accounts for 100% full-time enrollment type for this group.

Table 7.
Enrollment Types of Current Teacher Learners

	ShortCert	LongCert	NonCert	TOTAL
	14 (34.1%)	16 (39%)	11 (26.9%)	41 (100%)
Enrollment Type				
Full-time	13 (31.7%)	10 (24.3%)	8 (19.5%)	32 (78%)
Part-time	0	6 (14.6%)	3 (7.3%)	9 (21.9%)

Teacher-learners in all three programs come from a wide variety of ethnolinguistic and professional backgrounds. In terms of gender characteristics, the current teacher-learners group exhibits a trend similar to the TESOL profession, where females outnumber their male counterparts. The representation of more female participants is consistent across all programs, composing 80% of this group. The age characteristics of the participants, on the other hand, bring a different lens to the study about the profiles of the individuals. At a global level, one out of two participants is between the ages of 26 to 35. While the ShortCert program has a more balanced distribution of the individuals across age brackets, the NonCert group mainly attracted individuals under the age of 35.

Moreover, a little over 40% of the program participants reported that they were born in the United States. The program-specific distribution of this statistics indicates that while the ShortCert program is predominantly comprised of U.S.-born participants, the picture is more balanced in the other two programs. While half of the participants reported their first language as English, the other half indicated that their first language is other than English such as Korean, Chinese, Spanish, and Portuguese among others. Participants were also asked for their self-description in terms of another contested phenomenon: nativeness.

While 60% of the population described themselves as native speakers of English, the remaining 40% was equally divided between non-native speakers of English and bilingual speakers of English. Finally, when asked their highest degree earned prior to joining the Master's in TESOL program, a great majority of the current teacher-learners reported that they completed a bachelor's degree in a non-education major. Those

participants who completed a bachelor's degree in TESOL or in any other field in education composed nearly 30% of the population.

Table 8.
Demographics of current teacher-learners

	ShortCert	LongCert	NonCert	TOTAL
Gender				
Female	11 (26.8%)	14 (34.1%)	8 (19.5%)	33 (80.4%)
Male	3 (7.3%)	2 (4.8%)	3 (7.3%)	8 (19.5%)
Age				
18-25	4 (9.7%)	2 (4.8%)	5 (12.1%)	9 (21.9%)
26-35	5 (12.1%)	10 (24.3%)	6 (14.6%)	21 (51.2%)
36-45	1 (2.4%)	3 (7.3%)	0	4 (9.7%)
46-55	3 (7.3%)	0	0	3 (7.3%)
Birthplace				
U.S.	7 (17%)	6 (14.6%)	4 (9.7%)	17 (41.4%)
Non-U.S.	1 (2.4%)	6 (14.6%)	7 (17%)	14 (34.1%)
Not Answered	6 (14.6%)	4 (9.7%)	0	10 (24.3%)
L1s				
English	9 (21.9%)	7 (17%)	4 (9.7%)	21 (51.2%)
Other	5 (12.1%)	9 (21.9%)	7 (17%)	20 (48.7%)
Highest Degree Attained				
Bachelor's in TESOL (or related/equivalent)	0	0	2 (4.8%)	2 (4.8%)
Bachelor's in any other field in education	2 (4.8%)	3 (7.3%)	5 (12.1%)	10 (24.3%)
Bachelor's in a non-education major	12 (29.2%)	6 (14.6%)	10 (24.3%)	28 (68.2%)
Master's in TESOL (or related/equivalent)	1 (2.4%)	0	0	1 (2.4%)
Self-description				
Native speaker of English	8 (19.5%)	11 (26.8%)	5 (12.1%)	24 (58.5%)
Non-native speaker of English	3 (7.3%)	1 (2.4%)	4 (9.7%)	8 (19.5%)
Bilingual speaker of English	1 (2.4%)	3 (7.3%)	5 (12.1%)	9 (21.9%)

4.3.3.2. Graduated Teacher-learners

The graduated teacher-learners group is comprised of the individuals who graduated from one of the master's in TESOL programs offered by the TESOL Unit since 2006. The inherent challenges of data collection from the graduated teacher-learners included accessing the contact information of the individuals, validity of the information, geographical dispersion of participants, and electronic follow-ups to increase response rates. This section presents the educational background and demographic characteristics of the graduated teacher-learners group.

A total of 35 individuals who qualified for the graduated teacher-learner group agreed to participate in the study. Although the figures are fairly close to each other between LongCert and NonCert groups, composing 37% and 48% of the population respectively, the ShortCert sub-group is significantly smaller, accounting for only about 15% of the population. The short history of the ShortCert program is the primary reason for the smaller response rate. The very same reason manifests itself more clearly in the distribution of the participants according to their years since graduation. While year 2009 and 2010 have ShortCert graduates, the time period between 2006-2008 has no ShortCert participants, because the ShortCert program did not begin until 2008. More than half of the participants in the graduated teacher-learners group finished their respective programs in 2009 and 2010.

Full-time enrollment among the graduated participants again stood out as a more favored option, but this time with only a slight margin. While ShortCert figures do not show any part-time option, the increase in part-time enrollment in the past can be

attributed to cohorts of teacher-learners who were brought into these programs as part of the partnership initiatives with the County Public School Systems.

Table 9.
Enrollment Types of Graduated Teacher Learners

	ShortCert	LongCert	NonCert	TOTAL
Graduated Program	5 (14.2%)	13 (37.1%)	17 (48.5%)	35 (100%)
Graduated Year				
2010	3 (8.5%)	2 (5.7%)	5 (14.2%)	10 (28.5%)
2009	2 (5.7%)	3 (8.5%)	7 (20%)	12 (34.2%)
2008	0	2 (5.7%)	2 (5.7%)	4 (11.4%)
2007	0	3 (8.5%)	2 (5.7%)	5 (14.2%)
2006	0	4 (11.4%)	1 (2.8%)	5 (14.2%)
Enrollment Type				
Full-time	5 (14.2%)	4 (11.4%)	9 (25.7%)	18 (51.4%)
Part-time	0	9 (25.7%)	8 (22.8%)	17 (48.5%)

Similarly, graduated teacher-learners who participated in this study also come from a wide variety of ethnolinguistic and professional backgrounds. From a gender point of view, the dominance of the female participants is evident in this group, as female participants account for nearly 90% of the total participant group. The age characteristics of the graduated teacher-learners indicate that almost two thirds of the participants are under 35 years old. One important point in this picture is the figure representing those from the master's program between the ages of 26 to 35, which account for more than half of this figure. Furthermore, 57% of the participants reported their first language as English, the rest of the population speaks a first language other than English such as Spanish, Chinese, and Korean among others. Unlike the other two programs, which have more native English speakers, a great majority of LongCert graduates speak a language other than English as a mother tongue.

Table 10.
Enrollment Types of Graduated Teacher Learners

	ShortCert	LongCert	NonCert	TOTAL
Gender				
Female	3 (8.5%)	11 (31.4%)	17 (48.5%)	31 (88.5%)
Male	2 (5.7%)	2 (5.7%)	0	4 (11.4%)
Age				
18-25	1 (2.8%)	0	1 (2.8%)	2 (5.7%)
26-35	2 (5.7%)	6 (17.1%)	12 (34.2%)	20 (57.1%)
36-45	1 (2.8%)	2 (5.7%)	2 (5.7%)	5 (14.2%)
46-55	0	4 (11.4%)	1 (2.8%)	5 (14.2%)
55+	1 (2.8%)	1 (2.8%)	1 (2.8%)	3 (8.5%)
L1s				
English	4 (11.4%)	9 (25.7%)	7 (20%)	20 (57.1%)
Other	1 (2.8%)	4 (11.4%)	10 (28.5%)	15 (42.8%)
Self-description				
Native speaker of English	3 (8.5%)	11 (31.4%)	8 (22.8%)	22 (62.8%)
Non-native speaker of English	2 (5.7%)	1 (2.8%)	1 (2.8%)	4 (11.4%)
Bilingual speaker of English	0	1 (2.8%)	8 (22.8%)	9 (25.7%)

When graduated teacher-learners were asked their self-descriptions, 62% used the term native speaker of English. While 25.7% of participants described themselves as bilingual speaker of English, those who described themselves as non-native speaker of English account for only 11% of the population.

4.3.3.3. Instructional Faculty

In the present study, the term instructional faculty refers to individuals whose instructional assignment covers teaching a course, which is either offered in one of the master's in TESOL programs in the Unit or includes teacher-learners who are enrolled in these programs. This definition of the instructional faculty, therefore, includes a wide

range of individuals including professors (tenured, tenure-track, and adjunct), instructors (full-time, and part-time), and graduate assistants (serving as teaching assistants, and instructors of record).

As of Fall 2011, the TESOL Unit had 1 tenured professor, 1 tenured adjunct professor, 2 tenure-track professors, 2 lecturers who also serve as coordinators for TESOL and Foreign Language Education programs, 2 adjunct lecturers and 12 graduate assistants. The instructional faculty, administrators, and graduate assistants of the Unit is represented in the Table 11 by rank and tenure status.

Table 11.
Instructional Faculty in the TESOL Unit by Rank

Academic Rank	Number of Tenured Faculty	Number of Non-Tenured Faculty	
		On Tenure-Track	Not on tenure-track
	Fall 2011	Fall 2011	Fall 2011
Professors	1	0	0
Associate Professors	1	0	0
Assistant Professors	2	2	0
Lecturers	4	0	4
Graduate Assistants	12		
Administrators	2		

The departure of two tenured professors from the Unit between 2008 and 2010 generated a considerable need for supporting the Unit’s instructional activities, student advising and academic leadership. Often referred to as the worst financial situation since the Great Depression of the 1930s, the global economic recession of 2008 brought about implementation of budget cuts, furlough days, and hiring freezes at the University, and thereby significantly impeded the Unit’s response to replace the senior professors. As a

result of a search process, the Unit recruited one tenured and one tenure-track professor as of Spring 2012 semester. Since these two professors were not involved in the Unit's activities during the scope of time that this research is primarily interested in, their voices are not included in this study.

Of the twenty-two people, the instructional faculty members who participated in this study included 3 professors (1 tenured and 2 tenure-track professors), 3 lecturers (one of whom also has a dual role of a lecturer and the program coordinator), and 4 graduate assistants (including myself). Since data collection from this participant group mainly involved interviews, a discussion of participant demographics and characteristics rely on these interviews and personal relations with the participants. Instructional faculty group in the study composed of 70% female and 30% are male participants who are a mix of domestic and international individuals. While professors have doctoral degrees, the other participants have other degrees and qualifications.

4.4. Looking at the TESOL Unit from an Activity Theory Lens

The second half of this chapter presents a discussion of the TESOL Unit from an Activity Theory lens, which was described in the second chapter, and briefly adapted to the research context in the previous chapter. More specifically, the discussion in this section utilizes Activity Theory as an analytical organizing framework to examine the complex interrelations between the participants, identify existing institutionalized tensions and contradictions, and thus provide a theoretical basis for a multifaceted discussion about these programs' overall aim of preparing ethnolinguistically diverse teacher population for diverse teaching settings. Therefore, the discussion of the Unit in this section builds upon a theoretical discussion in order to capture the complexity of this

teacher-learning context, and insights into the personal, pedagogical, and institutional affordances and constraints embedded in the activity system.

4.4.1. Current Teacher-learners

Employing Activity Theory “as a lens, map, or orienting device to structure the analysis of complex sociocultural learning and performance context” (Barab, Evans & Baek, 2004, p. 207) necessitates the adoption of a unit of analysis for investigation. Engeström (2001) defines the primary unit of analysis of the Activity Theory as “a collective, artifact-mediated and object-oriented activity system, seen in its network relations to other activity systems” (p. 136). Therefore, one of the overarching benefits of the Activity Theory, as captured by Engeström, Miettinen, and Punamäki (1999), is the ability to delineate the phenomenon under investigation, which is also known as the unit of analysis. Engeström and Miettinen (1999) analyze this relation between the analyst and the activity system as follows:

The analyst constructs the activity system as if looking at it from above. At the same time, the analyst must select a subject, a member (or better yet, multiple different members) of the local activity, through whose eyes and interpretations the activity is constructed. This dialectic between the systemic and subjective-partisan views brings the researcher into a dialogical relationship with the local activity under investigation. (p. 10)

This understanding inspired Russell (2002) to argue that “the activity is a flexible unit of analysis (theoretical lens), which allows us to train our gaze in different directions and with different levels of ‘magnification’ to help us answer the questions that puzzle us” (p. 67). In order to tether and contextualize this argument, I will now briefly discuss the dynamic activity within the scope of the present study.

How does the notion of activity as a flexible unit of analysis manifest itself in the present research context? In order to answer this question one needs to define the primary focus of the activity system analysis of the TESOL Unit, which actually depends on who is seen as the *subject* in the analysis. Therefore, as a precursor to data analysis, it is important to define the activity at macro, micro and individual levels.

The TESOL Unit is the macro unit of analysis of the activity system and the case study, which makes it possible to embrace the collective, artifact-mediated, and object-oriented qualities of the TESOL Unit. The collective nature of the Unit refers to the dialogic relationship between teacher-learners and other stakeholders such as instructional faculty, supervisors, administrators within the context of one of the master's of education in TESOL programs. Obviously, this relationship is mediated by major programmatic artifacts such coursework (readings, assignments, class discussions), practicum (observing, teaching, school visits, conferences, ELLs in the schools), and other program components such as teaching portfolio, seminar paper and comprehensive exam as represented in Table 12 below. This mediation is regulated by the academic rules, program requirements, certification, accreditation and program standards provided by bodies such as NCATE and State Department of Education.

The global understanding of the Unit shown in Figure 8 is certainly a very useful starting point in defining the phenomenon that is being researched at a macro level. However, it is also exhibiting a point where this level of magnification or zoom out is not sufficient to capture the inner complexities of the programs. To be more specific, this visual representation may not be applicable for every subject of the Activity.

Table 12.

Cross-tabulation of Programs Offered by the TESOL Unit from Using Activity System Components

	ShortCert	LongCert	NonCert
Subject	An individual with 3.0 (or B) GPA (Undergraduate/Graduate) 3 letters of recommendation TOEFL 100/IELTS 7 For international students A personal statement of goals and interests Praxis I (Reading 177, Math 177, Writing 173) Resume Relevant experience (No formal teaching) Admission interviews	An individual with 3.0 (or B) GPA (Undergraduate/ Graduate) 3 letters of recommendation TOEFL 100/IELTS 7 For international students A personal statement of goals and interests Composite score of 527 for Praxis I, passing scores on reading/writing	An individual with 3.0 (or B) GPA (Undergraduate/ Graduate) 3 letters of recommendation TOEFL 100/IELTS 7 For international students A personal statement of goals and interests
Object	Learning to teach ESOL M.Ed. degree K-12 Teaching Certification	Learning to teach ESOL M.Ed. degree K-12 Teaching Certification	Learning to teach ESOL M.Ed. degree
Outcome	A level of preparedness to effectively teach in K-12 in the State/US	A level of preparedness to effectively teach in K-12 in the State/US	A level of preparedness to effectively teach in K-12 in the State/US Post-secondary US International contexts
Mediational Tools	30 credits coursework 1 year internship Seminar paper Teaching portfolio	36 credits coursework 20-day observations 1 semester internship Seminar paper Teaching portfolio	30 credits coursework Seminar paper
Rules	Academic rules Program requirements Program standards State Certification NCATE/TESOL Accreditation	Academic rules Program requirements Program standards State Certification NCATE/TESOL Accreditation	Academic rules Program requirements Certification Accreditation
Division of Labor	Teacher-learners Teacher educators Mentors and supervisors	Teacher-learners Teacher educators Mentors and supervisors	Teacher-learners Teacher educators
Community	Instructional faculty Teacher-learners Administrators ELLs in practicum sites Mentor teachers	Instructional faculty Teacher-learners Administrators ELLs in practicum sites Mentor teachers	Instructional faculty Teacher-learners Administrators

Therefore, a further magnified portrait of the case depicting cross-tabulation of the programs within the TESOL Unit using the Activity Theory components is presented in the Table 12 below. This side-by-side juxtaposition casts a closer look upon the Unit by further detailing each Activity Theory component in the central activity system. This level of magnification is important in discussing the levels of each activity and points of contradiction embedded in each case of program or individual teacher-learner. For example, the “subject” category concerns the teacher-learners who go through a respective program and thereby undergo an intellectual and professional transformation through participating in the programmatic activities and utilization of various mediational tools for the purposes of a reaching the object of the program.

On the other hand, the definition of subjects in the activity of the TESOL Unit becomes more complex because the current teacher-learners group includes participants enrolled in one of the three different programs, each of which provides both a unique and a shared set of activities, mediational tools and programmatic components so as to accomplish different program objectives. Therefore, this situation necessitates the adoption of an individualized look at the whole activity. The examination of the activity perceived from the point of view of the individual enables us to capture and examine the relationship between multiple motives of an individual, his or her relationship with the object of the activity, and the distribution of multiple motives represented by different subjects in the same activity system and their relationship with the object of the activity. This view is also very important in the context of the TESOL Unit where there is a considerable distribution of the components across multiple programs such as shared

courses (readings, assignments, discussions) led by a shared group of instructional faculty.

4.4.2. Instructional Faculty

A common thread so far in this section has been the emphasis on current teacher-learners as the primary subjects, from whose point of view the activity system is constructed and data analysis is done. They are the primary agents in the activity of the Unit, which has an overarching aim of preparing teachers for the U.S. and international settings. Depending on the level of analysis, they can be considered as a unified group (e.g. current teacher-learners), in respect to their programs (current teacher-learners in the ShortCert program), or as an individual who might have a certain (or multiple) *object(ive)s* (e.g. a current teacher-learner in the ShortCert program who is envisioning to become an ESOL teacher in the State). Then, the question becomes, what is the role of instructional faculty and graduated teacher-learners in understanding the efforts to prepare teachers for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts?

The third generation activity theory, as represented in Figure 16 below, provides tools and representation that enable us to conceptualize and explore multiple viewpoints, and “networks of interacting activity systems” (Daniels 2001, p. 91), where contradictions are highlighted by emerging contested activity system objects. To be more specific, each of the two intersecting activity systems have an identifiable object (denoted as Object₁ and Object₂), which, as they work collaboratively, becomes a transformed object. The outcome of this is the result of intersecting activity systems denoted as Object₃.

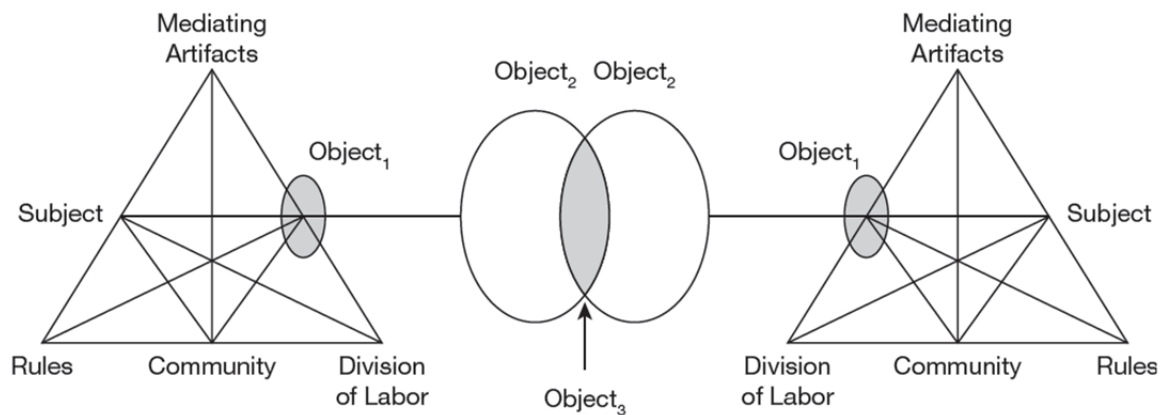


Figure 16. Third generation activity theory by Engeström (1999)

In this conceptualization, Object₁ refers to the aim(s) of the Subjects “learning to teach English—developing values, skills, and competencies to plan, teach and assess various language skills” Object₂ refers to “developing teachers—preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings within the TESOL Unit from the perspectives of current teacher-learners and instructional faculty”. The Activity Theory analysis creates a dialog on negotiation and re-construction of the “third space” (Gutiérrez & Stone, 2000) in multiple activity systems (e.g. current-teachers and instructional faculty) within one physical context (e.g. shared classes offered in the TESOL Unit). This multi-voicedness in the research contexts provides a multifaceted reconceptualization of the views, practices and actions, as expressed by current teacher-learners and instructional faculty of these activity systems.

There may be a multitude of objects present in any given Activity System because the system is comprised of a number of individuals, and situated within organizational or broader social structures. Therefore, it is always the case that Activity Systems have this

notion of multiplicity of objects and the present research study is no exception. Individual teacher-learners might have their personal objects which are in constant negotiation with institutional objects of the programs that they enroll in. Therefore, any investigative endeavor examining the Activity System necessitates an in-depth understanding of objects represented in the System. The identification of objects in an Activity System in the present study might be further complicated at two different levels: (1) by the possible presence of multiple objects in a given space such as in particular courses, and (2) by recognizing the dynamic nature of objective which evolves and transforms through time.

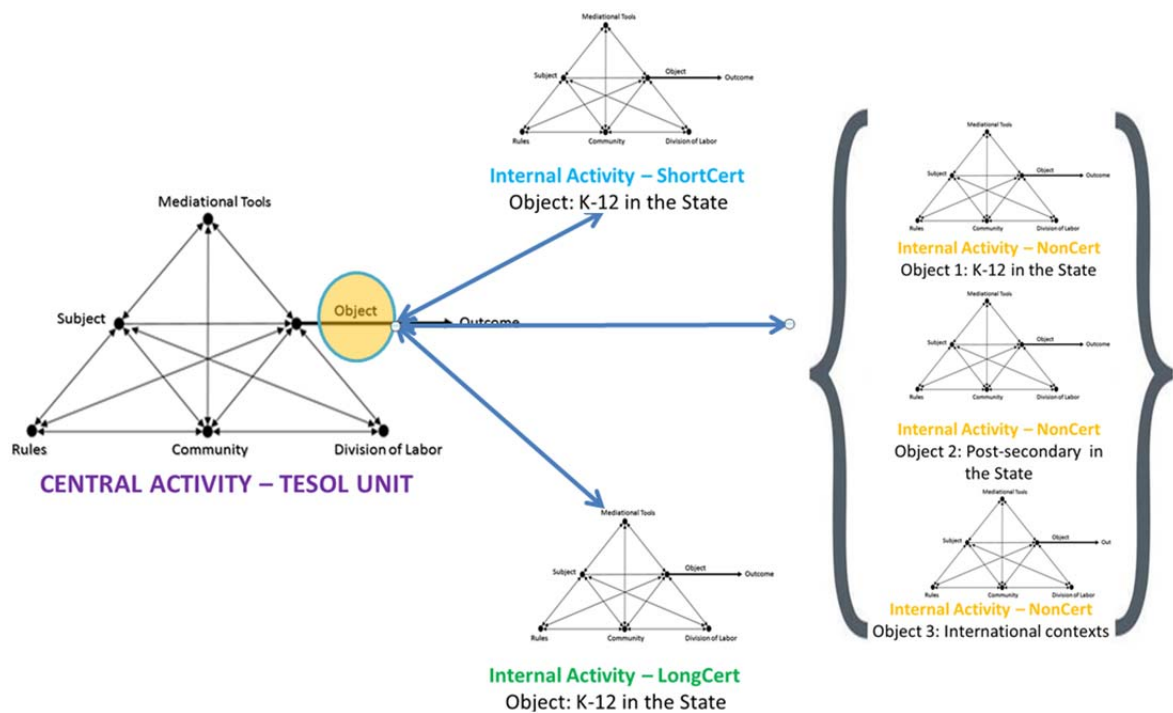


Figure 17. Multiplicity of institutionalized objects in the activity system

Figure 17 above demonstrates the multiplicity of institutionalized objectives embedded in the central activity operationalized by the TESOL Unit and its related activities in ShortCert, Long Cert, and NonCert programs. This figure is a more complex and comprehensive representation of the institutionalized object manifested differently in each of the programs offered by the TESOL Unit. It should also be added that the image represents the institutional formulation of the notion of object, which is in constant interaction with *objects* that individuals (subjects) in each related activity bring to the teacher education context.

4.4.3. Graduated Teacher-learners

This section includes the examination of the role and importance of the graduated teacher-learners in understanding the efforts to prepare teachers for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts. An important point of discussion here is the understanding of the diachronic and omnitemporal perspectives to the activity of preparing ethnolinguistically diverse teachers for diverse teaching settings. To better explicate this matter and discuss its implications in this research project, I will first turn to an inherent quality of the Activity Theory called “historicity” (Engeström, 2001). From a nomenclature point of view, the theory, widely referred to as “Activity Theory” is Cultural-Historical Activity Theory (Cole & Engeström, 1993; Engeström & Miettinen, 1999) due to the emphasis it places on cultural situatedness and historical development of the activity. The historicity principle of Activity Theory accentuates the historical development and treats activity systems as constructs that are formed, evolve, and get transformed over periods of time. Therefore, Engeström (2001) argues that understanding the potential problems of an activity necessitates capturing “local history of the activity

and its objects, and history of the theoretical ideas and tools that have shaped the activity” (p.136-137). On a global level, this means understanding the evolution of the knowledge base of second language teacher education. On a local level, this also means historical development of the TESOL Unit, and its programs. On an individual level, this means acknowledging the activity participants’ previous dispositions about teaching and learning that they bring into the activity context (Lortie, 1975).

This idea of historicity combined with the importance assigned to the history of participants and the omnitemporal nature of second language teacher education urges us to embrace the past, present and future activities within the present activity system. In a nutshell, Encylco Online Encyclopedia defines the word omnitemporal as “relating to all times” or “existing now, and having a past, present, and future”. Using this definition, I argue that synchronic and diachronic perspectives presented in the Activity Theory (emphasis on the past and present) need to be complemented by an examination of the extent to which aspirations for or imagination of future activities influence the operation of the present activity system. In the case of teacher education programs, in general, and of the TESOL Unit, more specifically, the *raison d’être* of the present activity is to equip teacher-learners with skills, competencies, predispositions, resources, and networks necessary to survive, effectively function and further grow in their future activity systems as teachers upon completing the present activity. Therefore, a pre-service teacher education program is serving as an intermediary developmental stage between participants’ previous predispositions, knowledge and histories and their future teaching contexts and needs to have each foot in both. This omnitemporality is the essence of

second language teacher education and teacher development, and therefore must be taken into consideration in the application of activity theory in the TESOL Unit.

It is the same notion of omnitemporality (this time, from present to past direction) that spurred my interest in including graduated teacher-learners as an extra source of feedback, and embedding their critical reflections into activity system analysis of the existing activity of the TESOL Unit. The graduated teacher-learners are active participants in their respective activities located in a wide range of contexts. During interviews, they were asked to share two important points: (1) reflecting on their experiences and personal histories in the activity system under investigation, (2) using their present understanding of their own systems as a source of feedback for evaluation of the activity system under investigation.

4.5. Conclusion

The overall purpose of the current chapter was two-fold. First, it aimed to present the reader with an in-depth understanding of the structural and programmatic components of the programs housed within the TESOL Unit. More specifically, the first section of this chapter discussed these components (e.g., entry requirements, duration and credit distributions, coursework, internship, exit requirements) as well as driving forces (e.g., accreditation, certification, and conceptualization) shaping the activity of the Unit. A thorough representation of these programs helps the reader to embrace the commonalities and particularities of the case, which will ultimately make a positive contribution to the transferability of the research results to other qualified contexts. Second, it utilized a theoretical discussion of the Activity Theory as a dynamic lens through which I examine the orientations towards the activity system under investigation and a range of roles that

participants and other components of the activity play for the purposes of achieving the overall goal of the activity.

Drawing from a dialectic representation of these individuals, the present study is a heuristic attempt to define and analyze contradictions, which is referred to as the essence of Activity Theory and broadly defined as “the chief sources of movement and change in activity systems” (Engeström, 1999, p. 3). Contradictions are “fundamental tensions and misalignments in the structure that typically manifest themselves as problems, ruptures, and breakdowns in the functioning of the activity system” (Virkkunen and Kuutti, 2000, p 302). Thus, an Activity Theory analysis views contradictions as “indications of both discordance and, more positively, potential opportunities for intervention and improvement. Paradoxically, contradictions should not be mistaken as dysfunctions, but as functions of a growing and expanding activity system” (Barab, Evans & Baek, 2004, p. 207). As will be detailed in the next chapter, identifying contradictions within and between constituent components as well as across entire activity systems has significant importance in activity system analysis.

CHAPTER 5 – ISSUES IN TEACHER EDUCATION FOR DIVERSE TEACHING SETTINGS: MULTIPLE PERSPECTIVES, MULTIPLE DIRECTIONS

All I am saying is simply this, that all life is interrelated, that somehow we are caught in an inescapable network of mutuality tied in a single garment of destiny. Whatever affects one directly affects all indirectly. For some strange reason, I can never be what I ought to be until you are what you ought to be. You can never be what you ought to be until I am what I ought to be. This is the interrelated structure of reality.

— Dr. Martin Luther King Jr.

5.1. Introduction

This chapter is the second of three chapters that will present, discuss and extend the research results gleaned from multiple sources and types of data collected for the current study. More specifically, this chapter aims to depict a multifaceted picture of the efforts in preparing teacher-learners for diverse teaching settings through three master's in TESOL programs housed within the TESOL Unit. Thematic analysis of efforts to prepare teachers for diverse teaching settings from multiple points of view by using the example of a TESOL teacher education unit and its three master's programs reveals a number of issues embedded in the research context at micro level) and provides a window onto the future of English language teaching and teacher education at macro level.

The present chapter opens with a review of a diversity of orientations that teacher-learners bring to their respective academic programs, followed by a discussion of their post-program aims. The discussion then proceeds to perceived preparedness of teacher-learners in diverse teaching settings. The last part of the present chapter is devoted to an in-depth analysis of programmatic components and efforts in preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts. Interactions within and

among systemic components, and contradictions in the Activity System will be scrutinized in this section. The chapter will conclude with an overview of the whole discussion. The thematic analysis through the theoretical lens afforded by the Activity Theory was derived from a combination of multiple data sources including questionnaires, interviews, classroom observations and document analyses gathered from multiple participants including current and graduated teacher-learners, and teacher educators in the TESOL Unit.

5.2. Diversity of Orientations when Entering into the Program

Gleaned from questionnaires for current and graduated teacher-learners, the plethora of different orientations among the teacher-learners entering into the three master's in TESOL programs examined here was a testament to the complexity embedded in the aims of teacher education. Within the scope of this study, this multitude of perspectives, derived from questionnaires and interviews with current and graduated teacher-learners, were categorized under five major themes: (1) job prospects in diverse teaching settings, (2) institutional factors, (3) professional context-driven factors, (4) interest in personal and professional development, and (5) working with ESOL population.

5.2.1. Job Prospects in Diverse Teaching Settings

The first category emerged from the analysis of respondents' orientations when entering into their programs. More specifically, this category reflects the voices of those teacher-learners who expressed their interest in entering their respective programs for the purposes of obtaining better job opportunities in diverse teaching settings. This category

consists of three sub-categories, namely teaching in the United States, teaching in international contexts, and teaching as a border-crossing activity.

5.2.1.1. Teaching in the United States

Housed in a TESOL teacher unit at a public university in the context of the United States, the programs offered by the TESOL Unit expectedly welcome teacher-learners, who are interested in joining the teacher workforce primarily in the nearby districts in which the University is situated, and then in the State or neighboring states and the rest of the United States. Along these lines, a group of teacher-learners expressed their reasons for entering this program as obtaining teaching credentials to teach ESOL in the U.S. context.

Several participants expressed their interest in teaching specifically in the U.S. upon graduation by stating “I want to learn about the English language teaching in the United States context,” or “I want to be able to teach ESL in public schools in the United States.” Some participants were cognizant of the exponential expansion of the ELL population in U.S. K-12 schools, and associated this phenomenon with increased job opportunities. For example, while a current teacher-learner acknowledged the “emergence of the [TESOL] field as the fastest growing,” and a graduated teacher-learner indicated her desire to “have more teaching opportunities and be more marketable in a field that was exploding due to the influx of immigrants to the U.S, and felt that it was the perfect Master's.”

Another pattern emerged specifically from interview data with current and graduated participants in respect to the U.S. context was the perception of ESOL

certification and public school teaching as a way to secure a stable job in the K-12 public school settings. For instance, Kenny joined the U.S.-oriented ShortCert program with an intention to work in international contexts upon graduation. He recognized the value of his choice by viewing working in the U.S. as “something I could support myself on long term; something I could support a family on,” “option to do in the future when I wanted to settle down,” or “have a well-paying career that I could live off of”.

Another participant recognized the possibility of working in the public school system as a sense of security afforded by the certification option in her program, or something that she can “fall back on.” She rationalized her decision to choose the certification program and teaching in the U.S. as something a way to “get the experience in the public schools and I wanted to have something to fall back on.” Finally, another participant, who was, interested in teaching in international contexts, characterized her decision as “a back-up plan” and embraced the “job security” aspect of getting a master’s degree as opposed to other options such as short-term certification programs. She decided to do the Master’s program as opposed to 1-month TEFL certification program since she believed “that way I might have job security when I come home...and also have a back-up plan for when I came home.”

The unprecedented changes in the demographics of the ELL population in the U.S. public schools (Valdés & Castellon, 2011), coupled with the growing needs for English language proficiency for adult immigrants (Skinner et al., 2010), has created a widespread need for ESOL teachers at all levels across the United States. Many teacher-learners embraced the need for qualified and competent professionals to work with ELLs. It was also interesting to acknowledge cases where teacher-learners embodied complex

set of orientations such as entering into a U.S.-oriented program with an intention to teach in international context while considering the possibility to teach in the U.S. as a long-term option.

5.2.1.2. Teaching in International Contexts

Many respondents also shared that their intentions of entering into their respective programs included teaching in international contexts. When defining their interest in teaching in contexts outside of the U.S., some participants used more generic and global terms like “abroad,” or “overseas,” as in “I want to teach English abroad,” or “I entered into this program in order to teach overseas.” On the other hand, others went a step further and expressed the target teaching context upon graduation such as “I want to become an EFL teacher in China,” or “more prepared ESOL teachers are needed in Dominican Republic.”

The orientation towards teaching in international contexts embodied various perspectives. To be more specific, while a participant expressed his intention to “have a wider knowledge base/foundation for teaching overseas,” several other participants approached this issue from a more pragmatic perspective and viewed their U.S.-based education as a tool to “improve [their] eligibility for teaching positions overseas” because teaching credentials are granted by a “major university that would be respected overseas.” These statements were also important in terms of providing a lens into participants’ conception of the educational value of their experience in the United States. In conclusion, the intragroup diversification suggests that there were different layers of the term international contexts constructed from different perspectives.

5.2.1.3. Teaching as a Professional Border-crossing Activity

In today's globalized world, which is linguistically ever flattened by the ubiquitous presence of English, the notion of professional border crossing in both physical and intellectual means is an expected professional quality of English language teachers in the multilingual and multicultural landscape of the TESOL profession. Members of the TESOL Unit, both instructional faculty and teacher-learners alike, can be considered as border-crossers in various senses and degrees since they come from a wide spectrum of ethnic, linguistic, religious, and cultural backgrounds.

Teacher-learners conceptualized their TESOL teacher education as a more encompassing tool, or a passport to shuttle between back and forth in different contexts. Such views were unpacked in participants' statements such as "I want to have a broad spectrum of opportunities available upon completion," and "it [the degree] enables me to have a broad and flexible job market in various parts of the world." Other participants also prioritized the U.S. as their primary future teaching context but also kept their options open, making statements such as "I want to be able to work at K-12 schools in the U.S. and potentially abroad," or "I want to be able to teach ESL in public schools in the US or abroad." Finally, as introduced earlier, several other participants indicated their interest in obtaining a certification from the perspective of border-crossing in a reverse direction, reflected in statements as in "I wanted to have certification for when I return to teach in the US."

In conclusion, the formal teacher education experience served as mediational means for several participants who envisioned going through a process of potential professional transformation through entering into one of these programs offered by the

TESOL Unit. They acknowledged that their programs would not only provide them with credentials to cross borders and boundaries (serving as a visa), but also a knowledge base that transcended these contexts (serving as their baggage).

5.2.2. Institutional Factors

The second category under which teacher-learners' orientations when entering into their programs are examined is the institutional factors. More specifically, as its name suggests, this category refers to institutional and structural features of the program and the institution, and includes sub-categories such as "convenience and practicality," "familiarity," "institutional reputation," "programmatic reputation & academic rigor," "the practicum experience," "program duration," "cost of attendance," "credentials," and "other programmatic features of the program/university."

5.2.3. Interest in Personal and Professional Development

The third category under which teacher-learners' orientations when entering into their programs are examined is the interest in personal and professional development. More specifically, the interest in personal and professional development refers to individual-driven factors that influence their decision for choosing their programs and includes sub-categories such as interest in languages, opportunity for cultural/linguistic growth, relating to past and present teaching experience, professional growth desire for learning to teach, and career advancement.

5.2.4. Professional Context-driven Factors

Professional context-driven factors emerged as another category under which teacher-learners' orientations when entering into their programs are examined. More

specifically, this category refers to factors related to participants' professional contexts that served as points of influence in their decisions for choosing their programs and includes two sub-categories, namely the need for ESOL training, and partnerships with county public school systems.

5.2.4.1. The Need for ESOL Training

The growing influx of students from culturally and linguistics backgrounds, many of whom speak no or limited English in elementary and secondary schools (Genesee & Harper, 2010), as well as adult language learners in need of English language instruction for the purposes of increasing their ability to communicate and function in English for survival, employment, and educational purposes is a present-day reality in the United States. The growing need for high-quality ESOL services for ELLs with varying ages, proficiencies, and purposes, undoubtedly necessitate high-quality ESOL teachers. This climate gets even more complicated with the a heightened understanding that the placement of ELLs in mainstream classes at the K-12 level has become more common in recent years, which translates into a growing realization of mainstream teachers as important agents in their ELLs' development (Harklau, 1994).

Departing from this realization, teacher-learners recognized the role and importance of ESOL training for their professional practices and viewed it as a compelling reason for enrolling a master's in TESOL program in the TESOL Unit, whose programs examined in the present study. For example, a Spanish-speaking mainstream teacher in the program became more cognizant of the needs of ESOL students in her classes. Her translation services were frequently required in meetings with parents, phone calls IEP (Individualized Educational Program) meetings. As a result, she decided to

“learn more about their needs and how to teach them [as] becoming an ESOL teacher seemed like a logical step in my career.” Several other participants were in line with this teacher-learner and recognized “the high ESOL population in [their] classrooms” as a major impetus behind their enrollment decisions. Another participant, who was a classroom teacher, indicated that “[she] wanted to learn about ways to help [her] ESOL students.” Finally, another participant reflected upon her teaching experience in adult ESOL education and stated that “I felt as if there were many things I didn’t know about teaching English that –if I had– would help me be a more knowledgeable and better teacher for my adult immigrant students”. In conclusion, this sub-category suggested the need for ESOL training, which usually stemmed from local teaching experiences, needs and contexts of participants, served as an influential lens guiding their decisions to enroll in a teacher education program offered by the TESOL Unit.

5.2.4.2. Partnerships with County Public School Systems

The unprecedented need for a highly-qualified ESOL teacher workforce created partnership opportunities between the TESOL Unit and the public school systems in the neighboring school districts. As a result of these partnerships, employees of the local public school systems were given the opportunity for further professional development through attending master’s programs offered by the TESOL Unit in order to increase their skills to meet the local needs of the students. Therefore, several participants indicated that these partnership programs with the TESOL Unit served as a reason for choosing their programs. Tuition reimbursement and studying in a cohort of employees served as important facets of professional context-driven factors for teacher-learners.

5.2.5. Working with ESOL Populations

Finally, the idea of working with ESOL populations emerged as another theme of specific concern to teacher-learners when entering into their programs. More specifically, this theme refers to factors related to participants' prioritization of working with ESOL populations as points of influence in their decisions for choosing their programs, and includes two sub-categories, namely ESOL students becoming ESOL teachers, and interest in serving ESOL populations.

5.2.5.1. *ESOL Students Becoming ESOL Teachers*

An interesting finding of working with ESOL populations was the orientation of several teacher-learners who once used to receive ESOL services as ELLs. Those teacher-learners who went through ESOL services in public schools developed a heightened sense of being an ELL, and viewed their past experience and histories as ESOL students as reasons for enrolling a master's in TESOL program offered by the TESOL Unit. For example, a participant recognized the value of being an ELL and stated her desire "to share my experience and knowledge as an ELL with my future students." Another participant recognized the value of working as an ESOL teacher by stating that "I was once an ESOL student, and felt compelled to teach as an ESOL teacher instead of working in a less interesting field." Finally, experiences as ESOL students were recognized by another participant who expressed her gratitude to her ESOL teachers in the past by indicating, "I wanted to be an effective ESOL teacher like some of the teachers who helped me when I was an ESOL student." In conclusion, the background of several participants as ESOL students and their interaction with their ESOL teachers

throughout their developmental processes as language learners influenced their desire to enroll in a Master's in TESOL program offered by the TESOL Unit.

5.2.5.2. Interest in Serving ESOL Populations

While several participants reflected on their past language development histories for their future orientations as ESOL teachers, others expressed their genuine interest in serving ESOL populations as an important reason for choosing their academic programs. Participants' interest in serving ESOL populations was categorized under two types of orientations, a general teaching orientation, and a social justice and diversity orientation.

The first level is what I call general teaching orientation, and refers to participants' general interest in working with ELLs. Examples of this type of orientation includes positive attitudes towards ESOL students (as in "I like interacting with ELLs," "ESOL students are my favorite students to work with") and the interest in training to work with ESOL students (as in "I wanted to learn how to accommodate my ESOL students in the general education setting," and "I want to have professional development to better serve my ELLs").

The second level of orientation is what I call social justice and diversity orientation, and refers to participants' interest in working with ELLs as a deliberate act of celebrating and promoting social justice and diversity. For instance, a participant mentioned the idea of "work[ing] with minority students to help them achieve their goals through social advancement" as a rationale for pursuing his master's in TESOL degree. Another participant considered ESOL teaching as a bi-directional teaching-learning mechanism between teachers and learners, and expressed her intention to "interact with

and learn from diverse ESOL populations.” The ideas of empowerment and social justice for at-risk populations were salient among these individuals. For instance, a participant indicated that her impetus for enrollment was “to become an agent for ELLs and facilitate their potential empowerment through acquiring ESL.” In the same vein, another teacher-learner shared her “interest in working with vulnerable populations.” Another participant viewed this issue from a broader social justice perspective and shared her “interest in working towards greater social justice in American education.” A common denominator among these individuals was voiced by a teacher-learner as “personal curiosity and investment in diversity.” For participants coming from this orientation, social justice and diversity not only served as core values for ESOL teachers working with ELLs, but also as important driving forces influencing their enrollment decisions.

5.2.6. Putting Together a Diversity of Orientations

The plethora of orientations shared by the teacher-learners in this study indicated the diversity of aims, perspectives, intentions, and conceptualizations that teacher-learners bring to their academic programs. This wide spectrum of orientations served as nodes of influence in teacher-learners’ reasoning when entering into these programs, and more importantly provided a ripe field for debate and discussion under three important areas.

First, the multiplicity of orientations suggested the multiplicity of factors and reasons behind teacher-learners’ reasoning for enrollment. Although academic programs offered by the TESOL Unit have their formal aims and objectives, the expectations of teacher-learners seemed to go well beyond these descriptions. For instance, a teacher-learner listed practicality, necessity, tuition, time, certification, symbolic and material

value of the degree, institutional reputation and having public school certification as a stable job option as a combination of factors contributed her enrollment decision.

Second, the profusion of perspectives might have an important implication for SLTE from an Activity Theory perspective. Since Activity Theory views human cognition and behavior from an object-oriented, artifact-mediated, and collectively-organized perspectives, a constant dialog, (re-)construction and (re-)negotiation of the *object* within the activity system(s) serves as the essence of transformation. More specifically, a balance between individual and institutional *object(ive)s* must be obtained for the purposes of continuous operation, which might be achieved through re-distribution and re-interpretation of tasks, roles and tools. As a person who had an intention to teach in international contexts or apply for a PhD program, Grace joined the ShortCert program, which leads to a statewide ESOL certification, and institutionally aims to prepare teachers for the K-12 setting in the State. Although she never had the idea to “come to the U.S. and teach” but she, nevertheless, wanted to “get the experience and see what was going on here [in the U.S.]” with an intention to acquire “things I can learn to take it back [to her future teaching setting outside of the U.S.]” and perhaps use it as a springboard for a PhD program in TESOL. Similarly, Kenny, who had experience teaching English in various parts of the world prior to joining the program, did not enter into the certification program with “the thought of becoming a U.S. school-teacher in the public schools here [in the U.S.],” as he said “it was actually not my priority.” This complex relationship between individual and institutional *object(ive)s* highlights that the multitude of perspectives that teacher-learners bring actually coincide with, overlap,

extend and transform the organizational and institutional definition of the *object(ive)*, which is a level of preparedness in future teaching contexts.

Finally, another important reason to embrace the diversity of teacher-learner orientations lies with the idea of shedding light on idiosyncratic but surprisingly recondite components, and even different layers of components, constituting teacher-learners' reasons for choosing their programs. A powerful example illustrating this argument was the notion of working with ESOL populations. While it is evident that the overarching aim of any TESOL teacher education program is to prepare teachers to work with ELLs, a closer look at participants' orientations revealed that the interest in serving ESOL populations can be traced to different paths. As described in the previous section, while some participants entered into these programs with an empathic rationale deriving from their past experiences as ELLs, others adopted a more democratic perspective by conceptualizing ESOL teaching as an act of promoting social justice and diversity, and ESOL teachers as agents of transformation and empowerment.

5.3. Post-program Aims of Teacher-learners

Another line of inquiry in the study of examining programmatic efforts dedicated to preparing teachers for diverse teacher settings has been the notion of post-program aims, which are defined as professional goals that teacher-learners wish to accomplish after they complete their respective programs. Understanding participants' aims after completing their programs has a twofold importance: First, it serves as a prelude to a multifaceted analysis of the programmatic efforts for teacher preparation for diverse teaching settings. Second, it creates a room for discussion between the institutionalized

aims for the three Master's in TESOL programs examined here, and the working aims of the program participants.

5.3.1. Contextual Post-program Aims of the Current Teacher-learners

The contextual post-program aims of the current teacher-learners, summarized in Figure 1 in Appendix I, indicate that 34.1% of current teacher-learners entered into their programs with an aspiration of joining the teaching force either in the U.S. or international contexts. This group was followed by teacher-learners who were specifically interested in working in the U.S. context (31.7%), and international contexts (21.9%). Finally, 11.1% of the participants shared that they fell into the category “undecided” at the time of entering the program.

A closer look at the contextual post-program aims of current teacher-learners revealed a change throughout their academic programs in all categories. For instance, while 11 out of 12 teacher-learners in the *U.S. context* category maintained their post-program aims, the other participant eventually joined the *both contexts* category. Similarly, the number of teacher-learners who were interested in teaching in international contexts decreased from 9 to 5, whereas the number of *undecided* category significantly decreased from 5 to 2.

Furthermore, when current teacher-learners who were determined to teach in the *U.S. context* at the time of data collection were asked their if they were planning to work abroad at some point in their careers, a great majority of them (11 out of 16 accounting for 68.7% of this group) indicated “maybe,” one teacher-learner said “likely,” and three participants said “very likely.” Only one participant indicated that it is “very unlikely” that she will work outside of the United States. Similarly, when five teacher-learners in

the *international contexts* category were asked if they were planning to work in the U.S. at some point in their careers, two of them viewed this “likely,” and the other three said “maybe.”

In order to get a clearer picture of the current teacher-learners’ orientations, they were asked to further specify their contextual post-program aims and preferences in terms of three major aspects: (a) setting in which they would like to work (PreK-12, college level, self-employed, and community/non-profit), (b) proficiency level (beginner, intermediate, and advanced), and (c) age level (young learners, adolescents, and adults) of their prospective ELLs. As summarized in Tables 1, 2, and 3 in Appendix I, the post-program preferences of teacher-learners in terms of setting indicate that one out of two current teacher-learners indicated PreK-12 as their primary work setting preference, followed by teacher-learners who were interested in working in more than one educational setting. The figures focusing the post-program preferences of teacher-learners in terms of proficiency level of their prospective ELLs, as summarized in Table 2 in the Appendix section, indicated a great tendency of teacher-learners (68.2%) to work with ELLs from multiple levels of English language proficiencies. Finally, current teacher-learners’ post-program aims from the perspective of the age group of their prospective ELLs indicated that more than half of the current teacher-learners aimed to work with ELLs who came from various age groups. This figure was followed by *young learners* and *adults* categories, which had six participants, accounting for 14.6% of this group.

5.3.2. Contextual Post-program Aims of Graduated Teacher-learners

The contextual post-program aims of graduated teacher-learners, summarized in Figure 2 in Appendix I, indicate that 18 graduated teacher-learners (51.4%) entered into

their programs with an intention to work in the U.S. context. This figure was followed by eight teacher-learners in *international contexts* (22.8%), and *both contexts* (22.8%) categories. Finally, only one participant (2.8%) was undecided at the time of entering the program.

A closer look at the increase in the number of teacher-learners who were interested in teaching in the U.S. context upon graduation revealed that 17 out of 18 participants maintained their post-program aims throughout their program. Similarly, the number of teacher-learners who were interested in teaching in international contexts and both teaching contexts decreased from eight to seven. Six participants both in the *international contexts* and *both teaching contexts* categories maintained their post-program aims throughout their programs. In the same way, two teacher-learners who entered their programs with the intention of teaching in both U.S. and international contexts, ended up with interests in teaching in the U.S. context.

Furthermore, 20 graduated teacher-learners who expressed their interest to teach in the U.S. context upon completing their programs were asked if they were planning to work abroad at some point in their careers. While two participants described the likelihood of their working in international contexts as “likely,” or “very likely,” and for other eight participants, it was “maybe.” One participant in this group was reportedly undecided. Similarly, seven graduated teacher-learners who expressed their primary interest to teach in international contexts comprised of three participants who “maybe” teaching in the U.S. context. Besides, while one participant viewed the teaching in the U.S. as “unlikely,” another three participants were undecided.

Only one out of every three graduate teacher-learners started working full-time in their first jobs upon completing their programs. The primary activity of graduated teacher-learners in their first jobs included teaching (n=27, 77.1%), research (n=2, 5.7%), teaching and research (n=1, 2.8%), administration/management (n=3, 8.5%), and further study/training (n=2, 5.7%). The responses to the question examining employment path of teacher-learners upon graduation revealed different avenues. More specifically, 7 participants (20%) continued their current position in the U.S., 18 participants (51.4%) returned to their previous employers in the U.S., 2 participants (5.7%) returned to previous employer outside of the U.S., 5 participants (14.2%) found new jobs in the U.S. and 3 participants (8.5%) found new positions outside of the United States. Looking at these results from a contextual perspective, the composite scores indicate that 30 participants (85.7%) joined the teaching force in the U.S. whereas the remaining 5 participants (14.2%) began or continued their careers outside of the U.S. after completing their programs.

5.3.3. A Synoptic Look at the Contextual Post-program Aims of Teacher-learners

A synoptic look at the contextual post-program aims of teacher-learners in this section may cast new light on analyzing the programmatic efforts in preparing ethnolinguistically diverse teachers for diverse teaching settings. Three important themes emerge from the discussion regarding the contextual aims of teacher-learners presented in this segment: (a) the diversity of orientations in terms of post-program aims, (b) emphasis on dynamism of change, and (c) the correspondence between individual and organizational objectives.

Research results with respect to both current and graduated teacher-learners clearly pointed to a **vertical and horizontal diversity** in terms of post-program aims of the participants. To be more specific, participants' responses indicated their interests in working in a range of educational contexts (in the United States and beyond – horizontal diversity) and settings (at different levels, and with individuals with varying age and proficiency levels – vertical diversity). When horizontal and vertical diversity of post-programmatic aims, accounting for future-oriented activities, are seen in tandem with teacher-learners' diverse personal and professional histories (academic background, teaching experience) and their predispositions about teaching and learning, the attention on teacher education programs becomes more relevant, interesting and complex than ever. This intermediary (between their past and future) and omnitemporal (embodying past, present and future in an activity of teacher education program) nature of teacher education raises the question of the extent to which teacher education practices address these vertical and horizontal diversities, and the present study aims to shed light on it.

Another important and thought-provoking dimension gleaned from the ideas presented in this section is **the emphasis on the dynamism of change**. This dimension indicates several attributes of the notion of change and its dynamic nature. First and foremost, change happens. Research results presented in this section attested to a change in the contextual post-program aims of teacher-learners at the time of beginning their programs and at certain points in their programs (for the current teacher-learners group) and at the time of exiting (for the graduated teacher-learners group). Second, change happens in a non-linear fashion and defies any cursory attempt to define this change in post-program aims. More precisely, while the increase or decrease in the total number of

participants in a particular category may indicate a change in the total number, a closer look reveals the variation for each category. Thus, change happens both within the group, and across different categories. For example, overall figures suggest that while *international contexts*, and *undecided* categories consistently shrank over time, *teaching in the U.S.* and *both contexts* categories expanded. Variation figures, on the other hand, suggested that almost no change occurred in the *international context* category, whereas the other categories demonstrated bi-directional relations.

In conclusion, this dimension suggests a dynamic observation of both the magnitude and direction of change embedded within the activity system of teacher education, since this was directly relevant to programmatic and individual level efforts, initiatives and practices from the perspectives of teacher-learners and instructional faculty. For example, Kenny, who entered into the certification program with an intention to continue his teaching experience outside of the United States, underwent a change in his post-program aims in terms of context.

I honestly did not expect to become a teacher in the schools here [the U.S.] and probably if you had asked me at the start of the program what my goal was, I would have said to continue teaching abroad in some context. As the program went on, which in my opinion is clearly geared toward teaching English as a second language in the public schools here in the US, my goals almost shifted along with the program.

Kenny attributes the major determinant of the transformation of his post-program aims to the overall emphasis of the program, which he defined as “teaching English as a second language in the public schools here in the US.” This finding suggests a heightened scrutiny of programmatic efforts and its implications on participants’ post-program aims.

Finally, the last point of discussion is around **the correspondence between individual and organizational objectives**. As reviewed earlier, the institutional aim of

the NonCert program is to prepare teacher-learners for post-secondary settings in the U.S., international contexts, and to provide ESOL training to teachers who are already certified in their content areas. On the other hand, the ShortCert and LongCert programs aim to prepare teacher-learners who wish to work in the K-12 setting in the U.S., and provide them with ESOL teaching certification in the State. Research results indicated that 12 out of 30 current-teacher-learners (40%) and 12 out of 19 graduated teacher-learners (63.1%) who were enrolled in the programs that have an institutional objective of preparing teachers for the U.S. context actually had the intention to work only in the U.S. context. The remaining teacher-learners entered into these two programs with intentions to work solely in international settings, or in both international and U.S. contexts. This finding suggests that teacher-learners' contextual post-program aims actually transcended the organizational parameters set by the programs in which they enrolled.

5.4. Perceived Preparedness to Teach in Diverse Teaching Settings

The discussion presented heretofore explored teacher-learners' interests when entering into and after graduating from their respective teacher education programs because the current study aims to, first, capture the diversity of orientations of teacher-learners and, then, examine their perceived preparedness to teach in these diverse contexts. Therefore, it seems appropriate to introduce yet another angle to the overarching discussion: perceived preparedness of teacher-learners to teach in diverse teaching settings. The discussion is organized under two major sub-sections: (1) teaching settings and learner characteristics, and (2) teaching skills and competencies that teacher-learners need in order to plan, teach and assess various language skills in diverse teaching settings. In conclusion, a deeper understanding of teacher-learners' perceived

preparedness with respect to external variables such as teaching settings and learner characteristics, and to internal variables, such as their personal skills and competencies, will offer insights into their perceived preparedness in diverse teaching settings.

5.4.1. Teaching Settings and Learner Characteristics

The discussion on teaching settings and learner characteristics includes three segments: (1) teaching settings (PreK-12, post-secondary settings, teaching English for general, academic, or special purposes, and self-employed settings) and learner characteristics such as (2) proficiency levels of ELLs, and (3) age levels of ELLs both in the U.S. and international contexts. The results were calculated, displayed and interpreted by taking a closer look at descriptive statistics (mean, median, mode, and cumulative and within group percentages), and comparing the variability of participants' scores in respect to teaching contexts (U.S. versus international contexts). Because the same participants' scores were evaluated in respect to these two different contexts, non-parametric one-sample Wilcoxon signed-rank tests were used to compare the differences between participants' responses in the U.S. and international settings, based on the assumption that the data were not normally distributed and obtained from measurements on an ordinal scale (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000).

5.4.1.1. Teaching Settings

Both groups of teacher-learners (current and graduated teacher-learners) were asked the extent to which they felt confident to teach English in various teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts upon graduation. Current teacher-learners' responses, as summarized in Table 4 in Appendix I, showed greater mean scores for perceived confidence in PreK-12 and college-level English language teaching settings in

the U.S. context ($M=4.02$, and $M=3.83$), and language school and self-employed settings in international contexts ($M=3.80$, and $M=4.07$). As summarized in Table 5 in Appendix 5, graduated teacher-learners reported greater mean scores for perceived confidence in self-employed ($M=3.21$), language schools ($M=3.18$), and preK-12 ($M=3.15$) settings in the U.S. context and self-employed ($M=3.06$), language schools ($M=3.03$), preK-12 ($M=3.00$) and college-level ($M=3.00$) settings in international contexts.

The Likert scale items were also analyzed to explore the difference between the current teacher-learners' perceived confidence levels when working with ELLs in various teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts. The test results, summarized in Figure 3 in Appendix I, indicated that while current teacher-learners' perceived confidence levels were found to be higher in PreK-12 ($Z= -1.294$, $P=0.196$) and college ($Z= -0.235$, $P=0.814$) levels in the U.S. context, their perceived confidence levels were greater in language school/contractual positions ($Z= -1.732$, $P=0.083$) and self-employed ($Z= -0.243$, $P=0.808$) settings in international contexts. Moreover, these greater differences in perceived effectiveness of current teacher-learners both in the U.S. (preK-12 and college-level settings) and international (language schools and self-employed settings) contexts were not statistically significant. Graduated teacher-learners' perceived confidence levels, as summarized in Figure 4 in Appendix 4, were found to be consistently higher in PreK-12 ($Z= -0.959$, $P=0.337$), college ($Z= -0.390$, $P=0.696$), language school ($Z= -0.696$, $P=0.260$), and self-employed ($Z= -1.072$, $P=0.284$) settings levels in the U.S. context, while the differences in perceived effectiveness of graduated teacher-learners in the U.S. context were not statistically significant.

5.4.1.2. Proficiency Levels of ELLs

Current and graduated teacher-learners were also asked the question specifically addressing the extent to which they felt confident to teach English to ELLs in both U.S. and international contexts upon graduation. The ELL proficiency levels asked about included beginner, intermediate and advanced learners. Responses of current teacher-learners, summarized in the Table 6 in the Appendix I, showed consistently greater mean scores for perceived confidence when working with beginner, intermediate and advanced ELLs in the U.S context (M=4.27, M=4.29, and M=4.00) when compared to their perceived confidence for teaching ELLs in international contexts (M=4.07, M=4.10, and M=3.93). The test results, summarized in the Figure 5 in Appendix I, revealed that current teacher-learners' perceived confidence levels were consistently found to be higher for beginner ($Z = -1.706$, $P=0.088$), intermediate ($Z = -1.789$, $P=0.074$), and advanced ($Z = -0.074$, $P=0.597$) levels of ELLs in the U.S. context, while these differences were not statistically significant.

As summarized in Table 7 in Appendix I, when proficiency levels of ELLs whom graduated teacher-learners felt most confident to work with examined, participants' responses showed consistently greater mean scores for perceived confidence when working with beginner, intermediate and advanced ELLs in the U.S context (M=3.50, M=3.26, and M=3.03) when compared to their counterparts in international contexts (M=3.24, M=3.12, and M=2.88). Moreover, the difference between perceived confidence levels when working with ELLs from proficiency levels in the in U.S. and international contexts were compared using Wilcoxon's one sample signed-rank tests. The results, as summarized in Figure 6 in Appendix I, indicated that while participants' perceived

confidence levels were consistently found to be higher for beginner ($Z = -1.889$, $P = 0.059$), intermediate ($Z = -1.000$, $P = 0.317$), and advanced ($Z = -0.943$, $P = 0.346$) levels of ELLs in the U.S. context, these differences were not statistically significant.

5.4.1.3. Age Levels of ELLs

Participants were also asked to share their perceived level of confidence in terms of teaching English to ELLs coming from various age groups in the U.S. and international contexts upon graduation. These age groups included young learners, adolescents, and adults. Responses of current teacher-learners, summarized in the Table 8 in the Appendix I, included (1) young learners ($M = 4.00$), (2) adolescents ($M = 3.85$), and (3) adults ($M = 3.54$) learners in the U.S. context, and intermediate ($M = 3.95$), (2) adolescents ($M = 3.83$), and (3) adults ($M = 3.66$) learners.

The Likert scale items were also analyzed to explore any difference between the current teacher-learners' perceived confidence levels when working with ELLs from various age levels in the U.S. and international contexts using Wilcoxon's one sample signed-rank tests. The test results, summarized in Figure 7 in Appendix I, indicated that while participants' perceived confidence levels were found to be higher when working with young ($Z = -0.577$, $P = 0.564$), and adolescent learners ($Z = -0.258$, $P = 0.796$) in the U.S. context, their perceived confidence levels were greater when working with adult learners in international settings ($Z = -1.091$, $P = 0.275$). These differences in perceived effectiveness of current teacher-learners both in the U.S. (with young and adolescent learners) and international contexts (with adult learners) were not statistically significant.

In addition, responses of graduated teacher-learners, summarized in Table 9 in the Appendix I, included (1) young learners ($M = 3.21$), (2) adult learners ($M = 3.06$), and (3)

adolescent ($M=2.88$) learners in the U.S. context, and (1) young learners ($M=3.15$), (2) adult ($M=3.00$), and (3) adolescent ($M=2.88$) learners in international contexts. The test results, summarized in Figure 8 in the Appendix I, compared participants' perceived confidence levels which were found to be higher when working with young ($Z= -0.361$, $P=0.718$), and adult learners ($Z= -0.577$, $P=0.564$) in the U.S. context, and equal when working with adult learners both in the U.S. and in international contexts ($Z= -0.577$, $P=0.564$). Moreover, these greater differences in perceived effectiveness of graduated teacher-learners both in the U.S. (with young and adult learners) were not statistically significant.

5.4.2. Teaching Skills and Competencies

The second sub-section of the questionnaires under perceived preparedness to teach in diverse teaching settings examines the perspectives of skills and competencies that teacher-learners need in order to plan, teach and assess various language skills in diverse teaching settings. This section was built upon the overall mission stated by the TESOL Unit, which aimed to prepare teacher-learners to utilize methods, materials, and curricula in teaching a variety of culturally and linguistically diverse settings in the United States and abroad, and included major domains set forth by the TESOL/NCATE (2010) standards. A total of 19 items, derived from the Unit's mission and TESOL/NCATE (2010) standards were conceptually categorized under four major sections: (1) teaching language skills and cultural aspects (teaching reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar, and cultural aspects; and competence in the structure of language), (2) planning, implementing and managing instruction (differentiation of instruction, culturally responsive and inclusive teaching, instructional planning,

instructional delivery, classroom management, creating a safe learning environment, and culturally responsive/inclusive teaching), (3) assessment (formal and informal assessment), and (4) professionalism (professional collaboration and personal reflection). In conclusion, it is hoped that putting together teacher-learners' perceived preparedness in terms of teaching settings and learner characteristics, and teaching skills and competencies will provide a more complete insight into teacher-learners' perceived preparedness in diverse teaching settings.

The overall mean score of the 19 items in this section gathered from questionnaire responses of current teacher-learners for the U.S. context was $M=2.96$, and for international contexts was $M=2.72$, both indicating a slight self-preparedness on a scale of 0 to 4, in general. The mean scores for each section included in this section for current-teacher learners in the U.S. context (a) $M=2.76$ for teaching language skills and cultural aspects, (b) $M=2.70$ for planning, implementing and managing instruction, (c) $M=2.77$ for assessment, and (d) $M=2.67$ for professionalism. Similarly, the mean scores for each section for international contexts (a) $M=2.76$ for teaching language skills and cultural aspects, (b) $M=2.76$ for planning, implementing and managing instruction, (c) $M=2.67$ for assessment, and (d) $M=2.77$ for professionalism.

5.4.2.1. Teaching Language Skills and Cultural Aspects

The sub-section of the questionnaire as well as the discussion exploring participants' perceived preparedness to teach in diverse teaching settings included seven items (teaching reading, listening, writing, speaking, grammar, and cultural aspects, and competence in the structure of English).

Current teacher-learners' responses in terms of teaching language skills and cultural aspects in the U.S. and international contexts were analyzed and revealed they felt most prepared to teach (1) cultural aspects ($M=3.20$), (2) speaking ($M=3.00$), (3) reading ($M=2.98$), (4) writing ($M=2.90$), (5) listening ($M=2.88$), (6) competence in the structure of English ($M=2.85$), and (7) grammar ($M=2.83$) in the U.S. context. Similarly, they felt most prepared to teach (1) cultural aspects ($M=2.95$), (2) speaking ($M=3.00$), (3) listening ($M=2.76$), (4) writing ($M=2.71$), (5) reading ($M=2.68$), (6) competence in the structure of English ($M=2.68$), and (7) grammar ($M=2.56$) in international contexts. Participants' responses, as summarized in Table 10 in Appendix I, showed consistently showed greater mean scores for perceived preparedness in all areas of the teaching language skills and cultural aspects group when teaching in the U.S. context when compared to international contexts.

Furthermore, these results were further analyzed, and as summarized in Figure 9 in Appendix I, demonstrated consistently greater perceived preparedness levels in the U.S. context when teaching language skills and cultural aspects. Moreover, these greater differences in perceived preparedness of current teacher-learners in the U.S. context were statistically significant when teaching reading ($Z= -2.364$, $P=0.018$), and grammar ($Z= -2.495$, $P=0.013$), and close to statistically significant results in teaching cultural aspects ($Z= -1.842$, $P=0.066$) and writing ($Z= -1.795$, $P=0.073$); and having competence in structure of English ($Z= -1.841$, $P=0.066$).

Graduated teacher-learners were also inquired in terms of their perceived preparedness in teaching language skills and cultural aspects in the U.S. and international contexts. Their responses, as summarized in Table 11 in the Appendix I, included

reported preparedness in (1) competence in structure of English (M=3.58), teaching (2) cultural aspects (M=3.45), (3) writing (M=3.15), (4) listening (M=3.12), (5) reading (M=3.03), (6) speaking (M=2.94), and (7) grammar (M=2.82) in the U.S. context. The order of skills in which graduated teacher-learners felt most prepared to teach in international contexts included teaching (1) cultural aspects (M=2.91), (2) reading (M=2.70), (3) competence in the structure of English (M=2.70), (4) writing (M=2.64), (5) grammar (M=2.61), (6) listening (M=2.55), and (7) speaking (M=2.55). These results meant consistently greater mean scores for perceived preparedness in all areas of the teaching language skills and cultural aspects group when teaching in the U.S. context as compared to international contexts.

Participants' responses were also analyzed to explore the difference between the perceived preparedness levels when teaching various language skills and cultural aspects in the U.S. and in international contexts. The test results, summarized in Figure 10 in Appendix I, indicated that participants' perceived preparedness levels were found to be consistently higher when teaching language skills and cultural aspects in the U.S. context. Moreover, these greater differences in perceived preparedness of current teacher-learners in the U.S. context when teaching were statistically significant when teaching reading ($Z = -2.000, P = 0.046$), teaching listening ($Z = -2.884, P = 0.004$), teaching writing ($Z = -2.570, P = 0.010$), teaching speaking ($Z = -2.236, P = 0.025$), teaching cultural aspects ($Z = -2.683, P = 0.007$), and competence in English structure ($Z = -3.531, P = 0.000$).

5.4.2.2. Planning, Implementing and Managing Instruction

The sub-section exploring participants' perceived preparedness to plan, implement and manage instruction in diverse teaching settings includes eight items

(differentiating instruction, using technology in language teaching, material selection and development, competence in instructional planning, competence in instructional delivery, competence in classroom management, creating a safe learning environment, and culturally responsive/inclusive teaching).

Current teacher-learners' responses in terms of planning, implementing and managing instruction in the U.S. and international contexts were analyzed. The analysis, summarized in Table 12 in the Appendix I, revealed they felt most prepared in (1) culturally responsive teaching (M=3.22), (2) creating a safe learning environment (M=3.10), (3) instructional planning (M=3.00), (4) instructional delivery (M=2.95), (5) using technology in language teaching (M=2.93), (6) differentiating instruction (M=2.85), (7) material selection and development (M=2.83), and (8) classroom management (M=2.68) in the U.S. context. Their reported preparedness included (1) culturally responsive teaching (M=2.88), (2) creating a safe learning environment (M=2.88), (3) instructional delivery (M=2.76), (4) instructional planning (M=2.71), (5) differentiating instruction (M=2.71), (6) using technology in language teaching (M=2.63), (7) material selection and development (M=2.51), and (8) classroom management (M=2.51). These results mean consistently greater mean scores for perceived preparedness in all areas of planning, implementing and managing instruction areas in the U.S. context as compared to international contexts.

Furthermore, as summarized in Figure 11 in Appendix I, these results were further analyzed, and they demonstrated consistently greater perceived preparedness levels in all areas of planning, implementing and managing instruction in the U.S. context. Moreover, the results indicated statistically significant differences in using technology in language

learning ($Z = -2.652$, $P = 0.008$), material selection and development ($Z = -2.829$, $P = 0.005$), instructional planning ($Z = -2.321$, $P = 0.020$), and culturally responsive/inclusive teaching ($Z = -2.000$, $P = 0.046$), and near statistically significant results in instructional delivery ($Z = -1.814$, $P = 0.070$), and creating a safe learning environment ($Z = -1.811$, $P = 0.070$).

In addition, graduated teacher-learners were asked to share the extent to which they felt prepared to plan, implement and manage instruction in the U.S. and international contexts. Their responses, as summarized in Table 13 in Appendix I, included reported preparedness in (1) culturally responsive teaching ($M = 3.58$), (2) creating a safe learning environment ($M = 3.48$), (3) instructional delivery ($M = 3.45$), (4) differentiating instruction ($M = 3.27$), (5) instructional planning ($M = 3.27$), (6) classroom management ($M = 3.12$), (7) using technology in language teaching ($M = 3.06$), and (8) material selection and development ($M = 2.97$) in the U.S. context. The order of skills in which graduated teacher-learners felt most prepared to teach in international contexts included (1) culturally responsive teaching ($M = 2.94$), (2) creating a safe learning environment ($M = 2.91$), (3) differentiating instruction ($M = 3.27$), (4) instructional planning ($M = 2.76$), (5) using technology in language teaching ($M = 2.63$), (6) instructional delivery ($M = 2.67$), (7) classroom management ($M = 2.67$), and (8) material selection and development ($M = 2.64$). These results meant consistently greater mean scores for perceived preparedness in all areas of the teaching language skills and cultural aspects group when teaching in the U.S. context as compared to international contexts.

When the differences between their perceived preparedness levels in areas of planning, implementing and managing instruction in the in the U.S. and international contexts were compared, results, as summarized in Figure 12 in Appedix I, indicated

statistically significant differences in all measures, including differentiating instruction ($Z = -2.754, P = 0.006$), using technology in language learning ($Z = -2.504, P = 0.012$), materials selection and development ($Z = -2.054, P = 0.040$), competence in instructional planning ($Z = -2.754, P = 0.006$), competence in instructional delivery ($Z = -3.797, P = 0.000$), classroom management ($Z = -2.158, P = 0.031$), creating a safe learning environment ($Z = -2.832, P = 0.005$), and culturally responsive/inclusive teaching ($Z = -2.754, P = 0.006$).

5.4.2.3. Assessment

The sub-section investigating participants' perceived preparedness to engage in assessment in diverse teaching settings includes two items (formal and informal assessment). These items were presented to both groups of teacher-learners in a 4-point Likert scale format, which includes possible responses ranging from "very underprepared," "underprepared," "prepared," to "very prepared."

Current teacher-learners' responses in terms of using different types of assessment in the U.S. and international contexts were analyzed. The analysis, summarized in Table 14 in Appendix I, indicated that current teacher-learners felt more confident to utilize informal assessment ($M = 3.07$ in the U.S. context, $M = 2.78$ in international contexts) over formal assessment ($M = 2.85$ in the U.S. context and $M = 2.78$ in international contexts). As summarized in Figure 13 in Appendix I, their self-reported preparedness levels in terms of these assessment techniques were found to be greater in the U.S. context when compared to international contexts. In addition, statistically significant differences were observed in using formal assessment ($Z = -2.586, P = 0.010$), and informal assessment ($Z = -2.814, P = 0.005$) in the U.S. context.

Furthermore, graduated teacher-learners were asked to share the extent to which they felt prepared to use different assessment techniques in the U.S. and international contexts. The results, shown in Table 15 in Appendix I, included similar results to current teacher-learner group. Graduated teacher-learners felt more confident to utilize informal assessment (M=3.30 in the U.S. context, M=2.82 in international contexts) over formal assessment (M=3.21 in the U.S. context and M=2.70 in international contexts). As summarized in Figure 14 in Appendix I, participants' responses showed consistently showed greater mean scores for perceived preparedness in both types of assessment techniques in the U.S. context when compared to their levels of preparedness in international contexts. When the differences between graduated teacher-learners' perceived preparedness levels in terms of using various assessment techniques in the U.S. and international contexts were further analyzed, statistically significant differences in using formal assessment ($Z = -2.859$, $P = 0.004$), and informal assessment ($Z = -2.388$, $P = 0.017$) in the U.S. context.

5.4.2.4. Professionalism

The last sub-section investigating participants' perceived preparedness to sustain and grow as ESOL professionals in diverse teaching settings included two items: professional collaboration and personal reflection. These items were presented to both groups of teacher-learners in a 4-point Likert scale format, which includes possible responses ranging from "very underprepared," "underprepared," "prepared," "very prepared."

As summarized in Table 16 in Appendix I, current teacher-learners' responses in terms of self-reported preparedness to sustain and grow as ESOL professionals in the

U.S. and international contexts revealed (1) personal reflection (M=3.24 in the U.S. context, M=3.10 in international contexts), and (2) professional collaboration (M=2.90 in the U.S. context, M=2.41 in international contexts). Participants' responses showed consistently showed greater mean scores for perceived preparedness in both aspects of professionalism in the U.S. context when compared to international contexts. Furthermore, the differences in terms of participants' responses were analyzed in terms of these aspects of professionalism in diverse teaching contexts. The results, as shown in Figure 15 in Appendix I, indicated statistically significant difference in engaging professional collaborations ($Z = -3.137$, $P = 0.002$), and almost statistically significant difference in engaging personal reflection ($Z = -1.890$, $P = 0.059$) in the U.S. context.

Furthermore, graduated teacher-learners were asked to share the extent of their preparedness to sustain and grow as ESOL professionals in in the U.S. and international contexts. The results, shown in Table 17 in Appendix I, included similar results to current teacher-learner group. Graduated teacher-learners felt more confident to engage in personal collaborations (M=3.52 in the U.S. context, M=2.94 in international contexts) over professional collaborations (M=3.21 in the U.S. context and M=2.79 in international contexts). Participants' responses showed consistently showed greater mean scores for perceived preparedness in both types of assessment techniques in the U.S. context when compared to their levels of preparedness in international contexts. When the differences between graduated teacher-learners' perceived preparedness levels in engaging professional collaboration and personal reflection in the U.S. context when compared to their levels of preparedness in international contexts. When analyzed more closely, these differences, as indicated in Figure 16 in Appendix I, demonstrated statistically significant

differences in engaging in professional collaborations ($Z = -2.815, P = 0.005$), and almost statistically significant difference in engaging personal reflection ($Z = -2.709, P = 0.007$) in the U.S. context.

5.4.3. Understanding Perceived Confidence and Preparedness of Teacher-learners

This section discusses the importance and significance of the research results and provides a conceptual synthesis that informs the sense-making in this section as well as constructing the overall picture in this study. More specifically, it investigates teacher-learners' perceived confidence and preparedness levels for instructional tasks in teaching diverse teaching settings. The analysis has been examined from two different perspectives:

(1) Teaching settings and learner characteristics, which included three sub-segments, namely (a) teaching settings (PreK-12, post-secondary settings, teaching English for general, academic, or special purposes, and self-employed settings), (b) proficiency levels of ELLs they work with (beginner, intermediate and advanced), and (c) age levels of ELLs (young learners, adolescents and adults).

(2) teaching skills and competencies, which included four sub-segments, namely (a) teaching language skills and competencies (teaching reading, listening, writing, speaking, grammar, and cultural aspects, and competence in the structure of English), (b) planning, implementing and managing instruction (differentiating instruction, using technology in language teaching, material selection and development, competence in instructional planning, competence in instructional

delivery, competence in classroom management, creating a safe learning environment, and culturally responsive/inclusive teaching), (c) assessment (formal and informal assessment), and (d) professionalism (professional collaboration and personal reflection).

The perceived confidence and preparedness levels of teacher-learners' responses in terms of teaching settings and learner characteristics, and teaching skills and competencies have been analyzed both in the U.S. and international contexts. The analysis showed that teacher-learners have consistently reported greater perceived preparedness and confidence levels when working with ELLs from a range of teaching settings, proficiency levels and age levels in in the U.S. context versus in international contexts. In most of the cases, the differences between perceived preparedness and confidence levels between U.S. and international contexts were found to be statistically significant. These results necessitated an in-depth examination of the programmatic efforts and mediational tools that might have led to a greater preparedness and confidence levels for the U.S. context.

5.5. Programmatic Components and Efforts in Preparing Teacher-learners for Diverse Teaching Settings

Having presented the diverse orientations of the teacher-learners when entering to their programs, as well as diversity of post-program aims upon graduation, the last section in this chapter discusses programmatic components and efforts in preparing teacher-learners for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts. This section will specifically utilize Activity Theory analysis to organize and discuss the research results under two major headings: interactions within and among systemic

components, and contradictions in the activity system. The discussion will be followed by a comprehensive outline of efforts and suggestions to resolve contradictions in the activity system in the next chapter.

5.5.1. Interactions Within and Among Systemic Components

As introduced in the second and contextualized in the previous chapters, the activity system is an *object*-oriented construct operationalized by incessant systemic co-construction and re-negotiation of interaction among components forming the activity. Therefore, it is imperative to understand the interactions within and among systemic components of the activity system in understanding the operation of the activity. Within the scope of the present study, the activity system under investigation, three Master's in TESOL programs offered by the TESOL Unit, encapsulates systemic components for the purposes preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts.

5.5.1.1. Diversity of Subjects

One of the distinguishing characteristics of the programs in the TESOL Unit was the diversity of student body and profile. As reviewed earlier, the wide array of diversity in terms of age, professional background, academic preparation, teaching experience and post-program aims of teaching in a variety of teaching settings and contexts upon graduation was a manifestation of the diversity within the *subject* component of the activity system. This was recognized in a participant's comments that "It [the program] had a diverse group of students, both in terms of backgrounds knowledge and origins and the contexts in which they teach, leading to many perspectives of language teaching." This notion of "many perspectives of language teaching" was also realized by a U.S.-

born participant interested in teaching in international contexts upon graduation. He embraced this kind of diversity and argued that the “voices of the international students when they are talking about different cultural and educational contexts” served as an important gateway to different educational contexts. Another US-born participant embraced the unique importance of having international students in her classes by stating that “the international students and faculty have a wealth of information beyond the textbook that can really inform teaching and research and, who knows, maybe even policy someday.” Similarly, international students in the programs acknowledged the role of pedagogical informant that their classmates played in the class. For example, Wendy, an international student in the program, relied on the emic perspective of her colleagues, saying: “It is nice to have American friends who have first-hand experience or knowledge about many things and issues we read and discuss in the class.” She repeatedly mentioned utilizing her colleagues as pedagogical informants, who shared their personal ideas, views, interpretations of various issues embedded in their local teaching contexts.

This is especially important since teachers’ interpretative frameworks that they bring to the teacher education programs emerge within their contextualized meanings and history (Lortie, 1975). This contextualized meanings and history serve as an important lens for developing their personal and professional decisions and actions for the purposes of better serving the diverse needs of diverse populations in diverse teaching settings. The notion of exposure to different cultural and educational both within and beyond a particular context was an important point to expand the scope of the knowledge base.

Obviously, the concept of diversity of subjects in the present activity was not limited to international or domestic students. For instance, a career changer participant in

the NonCert program valued the importance of having classmates from the program who had immediate access to the teaching context. She indicated that “some classes were combined with ShortCert folks, which allowed non-ShortCert/non-certification teachers the opportunity to hear from student teachers and reduced the "vacuum effect" of learning/reading without context. As a career changer, I need to hear about real-time teaching experiences.” Having access to experiences in an adjacent activity system (i.e. public school teaching) was considered to be an important pedagogical lens and certainly seen as an important step towards contextualizing discussions and enhancing knowledge-building by attaching abstract knowledge into an educational reality.

The concept of diversity of subjects in the activity also carried itself beyond the boundaries of the activity under scrutiny in this work. For example, another US-born participant who accepted a teaching position in China contacted one of her Chinese classmates in order to gather extra information about the school, location that helped her in finalizing her decision.

Teacher educators also embraced the notion of diversity of subjects and their orientations in their comments. Sally, a faculty member also teaching at another University in the State, acknowledged that "the mix of international and U.S.-born native English-speaking domestic students” contributed to a diversity of subjects as an asset and was an important reason for her to continue teaching in both programs.

As a teacher educator who also engaged in advising graduate students, Sally also embraced the notion of diversity as a dynamic component. She highlighted that not only did the programs offered by the TESOL Unit welcome a wide range of teacher-learners from diverse backgrounds and diverse post-program aims, but teacher-learners also

advance at different rates throughout their programs. Although the ShortCert program is more predictable in terms of its sequence due to requiring only full-time enrollment for a 13-month period that begins in mid-Summer, the other two programs accommodate teacher-learners with diverse orientations. She acknowledged that of the six students she was advising, three of them would graduate in Spring (completing the two-year program in two years, as designed), and two of them were working (one was a full-time teacher; one had a full time job on campus). These teacher-learners had no choice but to take one course a semester, which meant finishing their programs in three to five years.

As these examples illustrate, and as I will discuss more extensively later in this section, relationships among subjects who have different orientations regarding their programs served as an important support tool in contextualizing their professional knowledge, and enhanced the participants' professional growth and decision-making both within and beyond the program.

5.5.1.2. Subjects' Perception of Instructional Faculty

Teacher-learners, or *subjects* using the activity theory framework, were in constant interaction with instructional faculty in the program who were considered to be major stakeholders responsible for enacting and providing the institutional *object* of the programs offered by the TESOL Unit. Teacher-learners characterized instructional faculty as very dedicated and flexible professionals who brought a wealth of field experience and technical knowledge. Both qualitative questions in the questionnaires and interviews demonstrated these traits. For example, Andy expressed his perception of a combination of experience and technical knowledge by recognizing faculty members who bring “30 or 40 years of background experience and a wealth of background knowledge

and field experience” with those who bring technical knowledge to the teaching-learning environment: “You have someone who has a wealth of technical knowledge, like [a professor], who really knows what she is talking about. She’s [a respected university] Ph.D.” The balance between experiential and technical knowledge by the professors were embraced by many other current and graduated teacher-learners who used the keywords including “good professors,” “sincerity and excellent quality of most of the teaching staff,” “experienced professors,” “well-qualified professors,” “great professors who are knowledgeable about the field,” “knowledge and experience of professors were wonderful,” “some teachers were exceptionally skilled,” and “high quality instructors.” This balance was also recognized by a teacher-educator in the program who positively highlighted the presence of “a range of faculty with a range of background and experience.”

In addition to the balance between experiential and technical knowledge, instructional faculty of the TESOL Unit were characterized as “dedicated” individuals who were responsive to the needs of the teacher-learners, or *subjects*. For instance, Andy shared his thoughts by saying “All of my teachers have been fantastic people; they have been very dedicated people. I have found that all of the professors have been fairly flexible and helpful in terms of needing more time, *et cetera*.” This sentiment was shared by many other current and graduated teacher learners who used expressions such as “dedicated [instructional] staff,” “teachers are very understanding,” “passionate teachers in the graduate courses,” “professors are flexible in meeting the student needs,” “good and flexible professors,” “fabulous, friendly and helping professors,” “responsiveness of instructors” to describe the instructional faculty in the program.

The last angle through which instructional faculty were perceived by *subjects* was the mastery of or exposure to the diverse teaching settings through technical knowledge and professional experience. For example, a participant embraced the importance of exposure to vertical diversity by indicating “some of the professors had personal experiences in the field, which made it easier and more effective to ask questions about practical application.”

The ethnolinguistic identity of instructional faculty, their investment and potential were also mentioned by other participants who argued that “instructors from diverse backgrounds may actually give diverse perspectives [since] many have had experience learning English as a second language.” Along the same lines, another participant suggested also recognized the value and importance of collaboration especially when professors’ engagement in a particular context is limited. She said “attaching non-native English-speaking or culturally-diverse TAs with US-born teachers might give access to both contexts.” In addition to vertical diversity of teacher-educators (teaching experience in the U.S. and different parts of the world), the horizontal diversity (teaching experience at different levels, settings, and language learners with different ages, language backgrounds, and proficiency levels) stood out as an important characteristic of the instructional faculty in the TESOL Unit. A great majority of teacher educators had diverse teaching experiences at vertical scale, which was perceived by them and by the teacher-learners they worked with to be a great asset.

The interaction between teacher-learners and instructional faculty or subjects’ perception of the qualities, and roles of instructional faculty (or *division of labor* from Activity Theory lens) emerged a discussion regarding what constitutes the knowledge

base of second language teacher educators. I acknowledge that defining the width and depth of the knowledge base necessitates a longitudinal and a more comprehensive investment, and therefore is beyond the scope of this project. However, it is important to note that the present study exemplifies the necessity of future investigations as the multiplicity of objects and abundance of activity systems found in the vertical and horizontal diversity of contexts across the world will pose a challenge for teacher educators who are working to meet diverse professional needs of ethnolinguistically diverse teacher-learners. The question will remain valid as long as teacher educators are expected to work with teacher-learners with various orientations, contextualize their knowledge base, establish links between theory and practice for the purposes of providing effective teaching practices for ELLs in diverse teaching settings.

5.5.1.3. Subjects' Interaction with Coursework as a Mediation Tool

Coursework is as an important programmatic component that serves as a *mediational tool* for the purposes of achieving the *object* of the activity system. The present research project created a dialogic opportunity for both teacher-learners and teacher educators to describe, reflect upon and critically evaluate their dialogue with *mediational tools* in the program. Therefore, the perception of coursework makes important insights in terms of (a) how, as an institutional requirement, courses enact the institutional *object* of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings, (b) how teacher-educators in the program approach the construct the role and importance of, and (c) how teacher-learners interact with coursework as a mediational tool when it comes to achieving the *object* of the activity system.

Teacher-learners' views on the coursework included several pillars such as the interaction between theory and practice, emphasis on social justice and multilingualism, creating opportunities to connect to their future activities and enriching the knowledge base by providing a wide range of skills. Teacher-learners believed that the coursework provided a strong foundation of issues, theories and concepts necessary for their future tasks. To exemplify this point, Kenny, a graduated teacher-learner, admitted that he "learned so much in every one of my classes" and developed "a very strong foundation of theories of not only language learning, but also theories of education as well." Kenny's sentiments were shared by others such as Lisa, who believed that the courses "provided a strong theoretical background." Grace, who argued "of course some classes might have helped a little more than others, but I feel like it provided a theoretical teaching background," and Dave who believed that "coursework has generally been excellent." Tracy, an international student, approached the issue from a different perspective and shared her positive feelings about being in graduate-level "classes with individuals from various backgrounds who bring various perspectives and experiences for discussion."

An important dimension of the coursework for teacher-learners was the idea of strong emphasis on social justice and multiculturalism. For Kenny, "the social issues surrounding multi-cultural education and language learning; the role of culture in language learning; the issues of social justice that accompany language teaching and learning, especially with minority students in this country" has been the most important thing that he gained from the program. Having acknowledged that English language classrooms are ethnolinguistically more homogenous in her country, Wendy mentioned that the emphasis on diversity, social justice and multicultural education has been an eye-

opening experience for her. This perceived emphasis is a direct reflection of instructional faculty's orientation to second language learning, teaching and teacher education. As an instructional faculty member, Karen made these comments on program's approach to coursework:

I think that as a program, we had an emphasis on social justice, cultural responsiveness... maintaining students' first language, ... sociocultural approaches and understandings that relate pretty much to being culturally responsive as well recognizing the students [in the program and in the schools] have resources they already come with, they are not coming with the blank slate and we are not trying to fill them. (Karen)

Kenny, a graduated teacher-learner had completed a TEFL certificate before joining the program and at the time of data collection taught at the K-12 level in another state. He also used such programmatic efforts to reflect upon his previous experience. Since many of these TEFL/TESL certificate programs are primarily practice-oriented, he acknowledged that he was "clueless about the social issues surrounding language teaching." Along these lines, Grace, had a similar approach by utilizing her teacher education experience in the program to revisit her past teaching and teacher education experience. She had the opportunity to "learn new things, revisit some of my own beliefs about teaching and learning...question some of my own ideas and my own paradigms and then make some adjustments to that and reflect about that."

Similarly, the organization of the courses (selecting materials, weekly readings, assignments, and assessment tools) was found beneficial as long as the courses and instructional faculty helped teacher-learners "discuss in class and understand," "provide right reading and getting [them] discuss it the right way," "create connections to teaching," "lead to practical applications," as indicated in the questionnaire responses.

The opportunities coursework provided for teacher-learners to “think, reflect, discuss and debate,” as raised by a teacher-learner, were actually found important by many participants. Such in-class discussions and course assignments were found helpful especially when they establish connections to teaching contexts. Such discussions also help teacher-learners to develop some of the practical skills, more specifically in the public school system in the United States. Along these lines, Grace echoed the reflections of many others by recognizing the efforts they had to put into “lesson planning, getting a lesson that meets the standards and lesson that incorporates four language skills” together with “strategies and techniques to work in the public school system” as a major strength of the program. Similarly, Lisa gave an example of classroom observations requirements that helped teacher-learners to get into the classroom before they are actually in the classroom. Looking back her experience, she acknowledged that they were “really valuable” and provided her and her classmates with opportunities to connect in-class discussions with teaching practices. Similarly, Grace and Wendy gave the examples of professional standards and believed that the coursework provided a good foundation on the scope of these standards, how and why they are used.

Finally, both current and graduated teacher-learners in both certification and non-certification programs acknowledged that the primary emphasis of the coursework has been on the U.S. (and more specifically at K-12 levels) and but this emphasis might serve applicable or transferable points for different settings in international contexts. To exemplify this point, Grace acknowledged that while “there were lots of things that were definitely specific to the U.S. context, but that there were other classes that really gave us some broadened things to think about that I think are applicable to a wider range of

contexts.” The idea of transferability of knowledge into different teaching contexts and teacher development efforts will be discussed extensively in the subsequent sections throughout this chapter.

5.5.1.4. Dialogue and Collaboration among Instructional Faculty

Traditionally, instructional faculty is seen as the primary agents responsible for ensuring a well-designed organizational structure and operation which promotes teacher-learner development and attainment of the program’s mission. Therefore, dialogue and collaboration among instructional faculty members have tremendous importance for the overall operation of the current activity, and provision of effective developmental practices and opportunities for teacher-learners. Bearing this importance in mind, instructional faculty in the TESOL Unit hold regular staff meetings throughout the year to coordinate their efforts and ensure the most optimal operation and organizational structure of the Unit’s programs. As mentioned by a teacher educator, instructional faculty members actively work on “how courses match TESOL/NCATE standards and make sure that they [instructors] are covering them in various classes,” “identify the textbooks that they [instructors] are using to make sure they are not overlapping,” “identify the main assignments,” “how course assignments match up with what the certification students will need to create in their portfolio,” and ultimately “identify overlapping areas or gaps” in these program.

Teacher educators explicitly acknowledged the importance of having teacher-learners’ input in the process of evaluating the Unit’s efforts and affords the administration and teacher educators with an “emic” perspective to the programmatic efforts and organizational structure. While the University’s summative course evaluation

mechanism, teacher educators' personal interactions, and self-created evaluation tools serve as tools to achieve course-specific information, the Unit, in its present structure, does not have a formal feedback mechanism to obtain a more comprehensive feedback about its programmatic efforts. Having recognized this, a teacher educator admitted the difficulty of knowing the organizational functionality of the activity as somebody who teaches in the program, and recognized the critical importance of "having a different perspective." This would be important in terms of familiarizing the Unit with "first-hand experience of somebody taking all the course and knowing really what it is from being in the classroom what it is each course covers, what their readings, what their assignments are."

5.5.1.5. Construction of Programmatic Efforts by Instructional Faculty

There are multiple sources of academic, organizational and programmatic tools, considerations and realities that make a significant influence in the construction of the programmatic efforts in any given teacher education program. In materializing the programmatic efforts, teacher educators have a dual role and importance. First, they are the ones who are traditionally conceptualized as the primary stakeholder of teacher development and responsible for the provision of programmatic efforts. In a way, they serve as mediators or representatives of such institutionalized *rules*, ideals and efforts. Second, they are human beings with past histories, training, areas of expertise, experiences, and personal and professional dispositions regarding the nature of language learning, teaching and teacher education. This holistic account of teacher educators afford us with a more comprehensive view in the process of understanding their interactions

with institutional *rules*, expectations and efforts and their actualization of such efforts in the classroom in a co-constructed manner with teacher-learners in their classes.

The influence of teacher educators in the process of shaping coursework, assignments, in-class discussions and other programmatic efforts has been acknowledged by several instructional faculty members in the TESOL Unit, who believed that programmatic efforts are “influenced some degree by the context that they [teacher-learners] will be teaching in, but probably to a larger degree by the context in which the program exists and the expertise that faculty members who teach in the program bring to it,” as described in one of the interviews with a teacher educator. Karen, another teacher educator, shared a similar viewpoint in her following words:

Do we think about the context of the students will be teaching in? Yes, absolutely; but I think that the context the program exists within and then the expertise the faculty bring in it have greater influence on how the program ends up getting shaped just because I do not think that is an unusual or unique to our program. That is just how university programs work for the most part.

Karen’s perspective was also embraced by another faculty member who argued that her “thinking and experience is domestic [United States],” but she tries to “include the discussion of whether or not whatever we are discussing is applicable in other settings.” Along the same lines, a teacher-learner recognized that her international TAs extensively relied on discussions regarding the EFL contexts since their professional training and experience mostly cover contexts outside of the United States.

The ideas such as expertise, experience, personal/professional interest, comfort level all seem to be driving forces in helping teacher educators to shape the *mediational tools* and (re-)shape programmatic efforts, within the parameters set by the external

forces such as NCATE/TESOL accreditation or State-mandated standards. For example, a teacher educator confirmed the need for alignment between class objectives and NCATE/TESOL (2010) standards for classes while acknowledging, “how you get there” (meaning meeting the Standards), is an individual endeavor, and therefore subject to variability among professors. When commenting on the syllabus of the very same course, which he previously taught, he acknowledged that his colleague neither had the same syllabus, nor used the same textbook. He added, “I looked at what she [another professor] used and I said that I did not want to use this, but I know why she does; because that is what she is comfortable with.”

5.5.1.6. Rules Influencing Mediational Tools, Organizational Structure and Community

In an Activity Theory framework, *rules* are organizational parameters that define and mediate interactions of *subjects*, *division of labor*, and socially situated contextual practices in which members of the community collaboratively work towards the attainment of the object. This conceptualizations lead to understanding rules that promote or constrain the way activities are carried out. The rules of the present activity system is dictated by a combination of academic rules of the university, program requirements determined in negotiation with the College administration and graduate schools, requirements mandated by the State for those programs leading to State-wide certifications and for programs to be approved by the State Department of Education, and finally, accreditation requirements such as NCATE/TESOL Pre-K12 ESOL Program Standards (2010). These multiple sources informing and shaping the *rules* of the programs offered by the TESOL Unit are also captured by teacher educators who are

primarily responsible for fulfilling these requirements through shaping the *mediational tools*. Having recognized that “one of the primary missions of a public institution is helping to advance whatever it is the State requires of teachers,” Karen argued that program-drive efforts are primarily in line with the State’s requirements for teacher certification. She, then, gave the example of State-driven certification requirements for reading instruction or special education courses, and concluded that “that [State’s influence] certainly dictates a lot of the way that the configuration and the content of coursework looks like in the program.”

Commenting on the Unit’s lack of more conscious emphasis for preparation towards international contexts Andy believed that the State plays a driving force for the organizational efforts provided by the Unit. He indicated that programmatic efforts focusing on teacher preparation for the U.S. K-12 context are largely based upon the fact that the Unit is housed in a State-run institution, which is run by State grants. He also acknowledged that “the State’s primary interest in the College of this University is to prepare teachers for the State public schools,” which translates into the prioritization of K-12-level public school teacher development for the State.

Similarly, Karen acknowledged that teacher-educators find themselves trying to meet the needs of a diverse body of students who are “interested in teaching in a variety of settings,” but “typically, the state certification is often what forms the infrastructure, or the main kind of driving force behind the types of courses and content of courses you put together.” This influence also dictated the organizational structure of the practicum, which was “definitely driven by the certification requirements and the number of hours, and days and weeks that interns have to be in the classroom in order to get certification

from the State,” as Karen acknowledged. Teacher educators understandably pointed out the importance of the amount of time, person power involved in putting together practicum programs for individuals who are interested in getting practicum in settings other than K-12 in the public schools. The State’s influence in terms of organizational structure, allocation of resources and prioritization of activities were reflected in the Unit’s efforts towards and emphasis on providing K-12 practicum for the public school settings. Having acknowledged this situation, Karen admitted that this is not unique to the TESOL Unit, and in fact “a pretty common issue that a lot of programs face.”

Finally, an interesting interaction between the *rules* of the adjacent activity systems (e.g. academic calendar in public school systems) and the *mediational tools* (e.g. courses and course requirements) was highlighted by several teacher educators. They recognized that classes offered in the summer cannot embed classroom observations as mediational tools for teacher-learners both in the certification and non-certification programs. This realization is important. First, it is important in terms of highlighting the critical importance of partnerships with the public school systems, since a practicum is perceived to be constructed within the framework of public schools. In other words, practicum experience for the program exists as long as it is provided by the public school systems. This may create overreliance on the public school activity system. Second, it highlights the importance of developing different modes, mechanisms, formats, contexts for practicum for teacher-learners who might be exposed to a different variety of teaching experiences. Ultimately, this would create a lesser degree of susceptibility to any changes in the rules or organizational and procedural changes or interruptions in the activity system in public school settings.

5.5.2. Contradictions in the Activity System

The underlying motivation of any study utilizing Activity Theory is to unravel the contradictions of the activity system under investigation since “the process of expansive learning should be understood as construction and resolution of successively evolving contradictions in the activity system” (Engeström, 1987, p. 8). This potential to grow is manifested in cyclical forms of internalization (i.e. learning) and externalization (i.e. problem-solving, re-orchestrating of components) within and among the systemic components of an individual activity system, and between adjacent activity systems. From this perspective, a constant identification-and-resolution loop is necessary to prevent any activity from stagnation and interruption, and thereby to maintain and sustain continuous operation, development and growth. As Engeström (1999) argues, only this helix of change could lead to breakthroughs and expansion of the cycle of growth. Departing from this conceptualization, this section will present with a multifaceted construction of several contradictions affecting the individuals within the activity system and the activity system at large. It should always be kept in mind that explicating dissonances and contradictions in the present study embodies the deeper motivation of eliminating these disturbances for the purposes of achieving a more comprehensive and effective operation of the activity. After identification of these contradictions, the next chapter will present a discussion focusing on efforts and suggestions to resolve these contradictions and further contribute to the overall effectiveness of the activity system under scrutiny in this study.

5.5.2.1. The Dissonance between Individual and Institutional Object(ive)s

The heterogeneity of the current and graduated teacher-learners with a range of identities, orientations (both at the time of entering, during, and after graduating from their respective programs), and post-program aims were apparent results gleaned from various formal (observations, questionnaires, and interviews), and informal (personal communication) data sources.

A synoptic look at the contextual post-program aims of teacher-learners in the previous section revealed the diversity of orientations of teacher-learners in terms of post-program aims, and an emphasis on dynamism of change during the course of the three teacher-education programs studied here. As reviewed in the previous sections, teacher-learners enroll in their teacher education programs for very diverse reasons, with very diverse aims upon graduation. In addition, these aims are subject to change throughout their programs. s studied here (is this what you mean? This needs some elaboration, such as this, so that it is clear). More importantly, a closer look at teacher-learners' orientations revealed important insights into the correspondence between individual and organizational objectives. Research results indicated that 12 out of 30 current-teacher-learners (40%) and 12 out of 19 graduated teacher-learners (63.1%) who were enrolled in the programs that have an institutional object of preparing teachers for the U.S. context actually had the intention to work only in the U.S. context. The remaining teacher-learners entered into these two programs with intentions to work solely in international settings, or with interest in both international and U.S. contexts. These results account for a divergence between contextual post-program aims of individuals and the organizational parameters set by the programs in which teacher-learners matriculate. In other words, the

post-programmatic aims of teacher-learners enrolled in programs that primarily aim to prepare them for the U.S. context are arguably more diverse than the institutional parameters.

5.5.2.2. The Dissonance within Institutional Object(ive)s

The mission statement of the TESOL Unit places an important emphasis on providing teacher-learners with various components of second language education for the purposes of adapting methods, materials, and curricula for a variety of culturally and linguistically diverse settings in the U.S. and abroad. The statement, formulating the overarching mission of the Unit's efforts, has a prominence in terms of serving as a context for discussion with study participants. Building upon this idea, I asked teacher-learners and instructional faculty to comment on the mission statement from the perspective of preparing teachers for diverse teaching contexts.

The comments on the Unit's mission statements and its emphasis on preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings can be categorized under three groups of arguments. The first group of comments included those views, which viewed the programs offered by the Unit having geared towards the U.S. context and do not adequately address issues beyond the U.S. context. Kenny was surprised by the emphasis on "both in the U.S. and internationally," in the mission statement, as he believed that his program "clearly had a US focus." Similarly, Grace was startled to hear about the emphasis on "culturally and linguistically diverse settings in the United States and abroad" as she believed this was not adequately transferred into reality. She disagreed with the emphasis on developing expertise in teaching English in "both" the U.S. and international contexts, as well as the representation of culturally and linguistically diverse settings in the U.S. and international

contexts. Having acknowledged that “the focus of our program is the United States,” she argued that teaching abroad was not something talked about in the program. Cindy was in line with others in terms of the programs’ primary focus in the U.S. K-12 context. She argued the U.S. emphasis was limited to K-12 levels as she said “I do not remember having any activities or discussion on teaching adult ESL courses in the United States, let alone the international context.”

As a current teacher-learner who was primarily interested in teaching in international contexts upon graduation, Andy seemed to be quite discontent with the formulation of the mission statement by the TESOL Unit. He made the following remarks:

I would say that they basically have taken a mission statement about domestic teaching and basically copied and pasted in a couple of words about international contexts. That is what it feels like to me...It is disingenuous to say that you are really preparing us for diverse settings because they are not, they are not preparing us for diverse settings. They are preparing us for a domestic setting and giving us a couple of things like, “Oh, just in case...” and they throw us old life vests for the internationally-oriented people. It is not accurate at all. (Andy)

Wendy, an international teacher-learner in the program, found the mission statement appealing but not well materialized in action. She acknowledged learning “a great deal usually contextualized in K-12 level in the U.S. context” throughout the program, but not having a “targeted instruction” for international teaching contexts.

In addition to participants’ comments in the interviews, several current and graduated teacher-learners believed that their programs were “more relevant to the U.S. context,” “very focused on K-12 setting,” and therefore did not “create many practice or training opportunities in teaching English abroad.” Others acknowledged the difficulty of

establishing organic relations between their professional knowledge accrued and developed through their programs and their future teaching settings in international contexts (a future activity, which was distant in terms of time and space) since only some teacher-learners came to the program with experience teaching outside the United States.

On the other hand, other comments included that the program's primary focus is the United States and it does make varying degrees of emphases on skills and competencies that can be transferable across contexts. Lisa mentioned that her program was successful in terms of providing her with different ways to adapt methods, materials and curricula for students in different contexts. Similarly, Kenny felt capable of "tweaking and twisting the material and making it work in a broad context of my own" and "the program has enabled me to adapt anything that is put in front of me." Along the same lines, Grace acknowledged that her program included "transferrable" aspects and knowledge that could be utilized in international contexts.

Grace and others acknowledged the fact that while the program provided the students with "transferable skills" that they could use in international settings, it neither made explicit connections of how these skills actually operationalize in international contexts, nor provided them with specific training so that they could adapt methods, materials and curricula to a variety of different settings in international contexts. Moreover, several other participants responding to the questionnaire highlighted that "much of the information will probably be transferred to the contexts abroad as well," and were "hoping that most of [their] teaching methods and coursework and knowledge will be applicable in a variety settings." The similarities in terms of language learning

processes, “good understanding of the effective teaching strategies in teaching English” will give them “a good foundation where to begin.”

Finally, the last group of comments centered around the limited scope of programmatic efforts which were unable to encompass the culturally, ethnically and linguistically diverse populations and contexts in non-public school settings in the State. For example, Grace believed that the idea of a *variety* of culturally and linguistically diverse settings did not hold true even in the U.S. context because according to her, the program did not provide any exposure to “bilingual or immersion settings, which in fact exists in the State or in the Metropolitan area, or, for example, maybe people wanting to work at, let us say, in a charter school or in pre-schools.” Later, she said “It [The Unit] let international students in, but this program is clearly for students to work in the public school system, not even the private, the public, I think that’s the mission of the program. Clearly!” Along the same lines, Andy adopted a wider perspective and critiqued the program for preparing teachers predominantly for the State by making emphasis on policy issues or teaching standards that are necessary for the certification in the State. He suggested that “even though it would be twice the work, we should have to do national and State teaching standards.”

As a person who acknowledged the program’s emphasis on the U.S. K-12 setting, Grace mentioned the issue of working with speakers of World Englishes in public schools in the U.S. context was missing in the programmatic efforts. She made the following remarks:

We talked about linguistically and culturally diverse populations but we never talked much about students who are in ESL classes but come from English-speaking countries, which is very different than a kid coming from a country who speaks a language other than English. What are the needs of those kids versus the typical ESL kid and why are they even in those classes and what are we doing?... They might need the cultural part of the ESOL, but they are in that ESOL class like anyone else and they are getting English grammar or English whatever like anybody else. So, are we really meeting their specific needs?

It is a sad reality that “in many ESOL classrooms in the United States, diverse Englishes are neither accepted nor understood ...[and] special needs [of World Englishes speakers] are often not adequately addressed either in programs of special support or in the mainstream classroom” (Crandall, 2003, p. 2). Despite the fact that there is a growing understanding in the field of TESOL that teachers, both in the mainstream and ESOL classes, are likely to work with students who are using a different variety of English from them, only few ESOL or mainstream teachers are provided with opportunities to develop (a) an understanding about the status and nature of Englishes around the world, and (b) skills and strategies to work with World Englishes speakers, as part of their teacher preparation programs (Brown, 2002; Crandall, 2003). Although World Englishes speakers are legitimate speakers of the language, their particular varieties of English may not be readily intelligible for teachers and students who are familiar with “standard” models of English. Ultimately, this might lead to a frustration on the part of the students, and impede student learning. Therefore, it necessitates that teachers “handle this delicate situation in a sensitive manner to avoid increasing students’ anxiety levels, thus impeding learning” (Ariza, Morales-Jones, Yahya, & Zainuddin, 2002, p. 130).

Teacher educators had somewhat different perspectives when it came to commenting on the mission statement of the Unit. Contrary to a general sentiment of

most teacher-learners, some of the teacher educators had more positive attitudes towards the efforts to fulfill the institutional goal of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings. One teacher educator argued that “I think we are doing it. I really do. I am not aware of students feeling whether they are getting whichever is their goal to be teaching in the US or to be teaching internationally; but I think we are doing it.” Others also recognized the difficulty of not being able to easily tell if the program really met the organizational objectives it laid out. In interviews, teacher educators also recognized and acknowledged that the present organizational structure (*rules* influencing the activity system, *mediational tools* co-constructed for the *objective* of the activity system, *division of labor* of major stakeholders) and resources (teaching staff, availability of diverse programmatic tools) (un)available to the Unit inadvertently prioritized the emphasis placed on K-12 setting in the U.S. context. Again, while some teacher educators believed that this was an inevitable consequence of being a TESOL program supported by the State, others acknowledged the need for establishing a more balanced and encompassing scope and diversification of mediational tools and contextual preparation efforts.

5.5.2.3. Preparing Teachers for Diverse Teaching Contexts

The discussion up to this point has identified contradictions and dissonances between teacher-learners’ contextual aims upon graduation and the institutionalized objectives of their programs including the acknowledgment of individual aims being more diverse than the institutional parameters. The discussion has also included tensions within the institutionalized objectives. It included (a) contested perspectives towards the Unit’s emphasis on preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings, and (b) limited scope of the representations of and preparation towards the culturally, ethnically, and

linguistically diverse populations and contexts including not placing enough emphases on settings other than K-12 public schools, and working with World Englishes speakers.

After identifying these contradictions and dissonances, it is essential to review participants' perceptions of programmatic efforts for diverse teaching settings.

5.5.2.3.1. The Balance between U.S. and International Contexts

Teacher-learners were asked to identify the context(s) for which the program that they were enrolled in or graduated from was geared towards preparing them. Nearly 14.5% of current and 14.7% graduated teacher-learners indicated both “U.S. and international contexts,” and an overwhelming majority of both current and graduated teacher-learners (85.5% and 82.3%, respectively) indicated the program that they were enrolled in or graduated from was geared towards the U.S. context. No current teacher-learner indicated “international contexts” as the primary contextual education goal of their programs, and only one graduated teacher-learner viewed international contexts as the primary contextual target of her program. Combined with individuals' personal post-program aims, this underlines an important perceived contradiction between individual aims and programmatic objectives and efforts. The consequences of the overemphasis on the U.S. context will be discussed in greater depth in the subsequent sections.

Teacher educators believed that the primary orientation of the Unit's efforts was to prepare teachers for the U.S. context as captured by a teacher educator who believed that “there is no question that a lot of what we are doing is geared to certification in the U.S.” As will be reviewed in the subsequent sections, this did not necessarily mean abandoning working with teacher-learners interested in settings beyond the K-12 public

schools in the State, but it certainly meant prioritization of programmatic resources and efforts towards this setting.

Despite the fact that the current structure of the Unit's programmatic efforts were clearly geared towards the K-12 setting in the State, teacher educators still believed that maintaining a balance in terms of vertical (refers to educational settings such as K-12, post-secondary levels) and horizontal (educational contexts such as U.S. and abroad) diversities was important aspect of the Unit's efforts. To recap, while horizontal diversity refers to a range of educational contexts in which teacher-learners work (such as U.S. and international contexts), vertical diversity refers to a range of settings and characteristics of language learners in these contexts (such as (a) different levels including PreK-12, post-secondary, adult education settings, (b) individuals with varying age levels including young learners, adolescents, adults, and (c) individuals with varying proficiency levels, including beginner, intermediate and advanced learners). In this vein, teacher educators made the following comments:

[If we focus exclusively on one setting], then we limit the students who would come in and we would limit the experiences we provide the students who even are going to teach in the US context. I think it is logical that people sort of focus on what their focus is...I think they gain a lot by knowing people with broader ranges of experiences, whether they are international or domestic; whether they just want to work in the US or internationally. (Harry)

It is important for a well-rounded teacher to have a good understanding of a variety of methods. It is good for any ESOL professional to know about methods and domains relevant for English language teaching...You never know when you find yourself teaching in somewhere other than you started and it is good to have something to start with. (Allison)

Teacher educators recognized that the social, educational and academic context in the U.S. served as a context for the Unit's efforts. Moreover, it served as a viable departure

point for teacher-learners who were interested in teaching contexts and settings other than those prioritized by the Unit's efforts. This picture was further reinforced by the State's influence in terms of State-wide certification and the Unit's efforts and NCATE certification requirements for the K-12 level, and the absence of neither a set of guidelines for international teaching standards, nor any sort of an accountability mechanism for teaching in international contexts. When teacher-educators' primary areas of interest, expertise, and experience were added into this picture, the combined picture would reflect programmatic efforts primarily geared towards the U.S. context, and, more specifically, in the K-12 setting.

5.5.2.3.2. The Balance between Elementary and Secondary Settings

From an organizational point of view, both the ShortCert and LongCert programs led to a K-12 teaching certification for the State and therefore provided teacher-learners with activities that spanned over the traditional division of the K-12 settings: elementary and secondary levels. Efforts to encompass both settings manifested itself in methods classes for each setting (Content Area Literacy for Elementary Grades and Content Area Literacy for Secondary Grades), a split internship (Fall semester in elementary and Spring semester in secondary for the ShortCert program, and 20 days of observations in elementary and secondary settings in the Fall, and a Spring semester internship split between elementary and secondary settings for the LongCert program), and actual course requirements such as lesson plans or assessment projects aimed at each setting. Nevertheless, several participants expressed an imbalance in programmatic efforts between elementary and secondary settings. Two major examples of these imbalances, according to teacher-learners, were organizational structure within the programs and

coursework. To be more specific, Grace made felt that the organizational focus of the program has been “more on secondary than elementary” since ShortCert participants were always paired with secondary education program participants in their action research course.

She also mentioned how she felt sorry not knowing any elementary program participant in the graduation ceremony since the organizational structure did not allow them to take classes with elementary students. She also added that “we were always with secondary even all the things that we have to go in, assigned in, everything was like ‘just put secondary, secondary,’ and I was like ‘oh my, we are always with secondary folks.’” In this state, in which the present study was conducted, the MATESOL degree was considered by the state to have a secondary focus (based on the number of credit hours required for certification), even though the certification was for K-12. This was recognized by Grace and many other ShortCert-ers who reported that while there was an adolescent development course specifically aiming for secondary levels, there was no elementary level equivalent of this course. Grace saw this as a problem: “what do you do with children younger than adolescents, which I think is a big problem because our certification is K-12...I think it is just a different ball game with young children.”

Teacher-learners perceived that working as an ESOL teacher at primary and secondary levels in the State were distinct experiences, which required a specific set of skills and therefore required different teacher education practices. Furthermore, they stated that the Unit’s programmatic efforts and organizational structure placed a greater emphasis on secondary levels.

5.5.2.3.3. What do We Mean by Context, Anyway?

The conversations with current and graduated teacher-learners involved a series of semi-structured interviews about what their teaching contexts entailed, and how programmatic efforts promoted preparation for these contexts. Understanding participants' conceptualizations of the context helped me in my efforts to understand how the notion of context relates to teacher development practices and the transferability of pedagogical knowledge into different contexts. In addition, it also gave me insights into TESOL programs' organizational conceptualization of teacher learners' intended/future teaching contexts, which was operationalized as K-12 in the State for the ShortCert and LongCert programs, and K-12 in the State, post-secondary in the State, and international contexts for the NonCert program, as stated in the program handbooks and on the program website.

As a graduate of the ShortCert program who was teaching at K-12 level in another state in the United States at the time data were collected, Kenny, believed that the ShortCert program prepared him much better for the State or in the Metropolitan area than it did elsewhere in the country, since the *mediational tools* and processes of the program such as coursework and the teaching practicum had a clear focus on the local public school systems in the State. Intrigued by this finding, I asked him how it translated into his perceived preparedness to teach as an ESOL teacher in another state. He responded to me saying "I still feel very prepared to work in [the new State], but... I feel better prepared to work in [the State], and more specifically in [a County in the State] and [another County in the State]." Later on, Kenny revisited his remarks on the relationship

between teaching preparedness and programmatic efforts, and recognized the importance of contextualized training in these words:

I still feel prepared to work in [the new State], but I would have felt even more prepared in [the State where I completed my degree] because **where you do your training is where you get knowledge**. Schools purchase programs for their entire school and some of the resources are different here in [the new State] than they were in [the State]. **That comes from doing my internship in [the State]**. I feel more prepared in the State, **especially in [a County in the State] and [another County in the State] Counties, because that is where I interned.** (emphases are mine)

Grace seemed to be on the same page with Kenny about the specific emphasis on several counties within the State, and made the argument that her program clearly “prepares teachers who are going to be into the public school system and specifically the State public school system, and more specifically in [a County in the State], [a County in the State], and [a County in the State].”

Two significant conclusions that emerged from Kenny’s statement were the transferability of knowledge into new teaching contexts and that the perceived scope of context in the ShortCert program were the neighboring counties, which the program had partnerships with in student placements for teaching internships. For Kenny, his training in the State was transferable to states with similar demographics and student profiles as he argued that he felt more prepared to teach in a very diverse school with a large population of ELLs in another state. His student teaching placement in a school with a large population of ELLs created a professional urgency to work in an ethnolinguistically diverse school setting.

5.5.2.3.4. Emphasis on the U.S. Context Creating Change in Personal Object(ive)s

Teacher-learners, both current and graduated alike, predominantly believed that a great majority of the programmatic efforts for all three MATESOL programs, ShortCert, LongCert and NonCert, were geared towards preparing teacher-learners for the U.S. context. This emphasis on a particular context influenced several teacher-learners’

contextual aims upon graduation. For example, Kenny expressed the interplay between his goals and programmatic emphases as follows:

I honestly did not expect to become a teacher in the schools [in the U.S.] and probably if you had asked me at the start of the program what my goal was, I would have said to continue teaching abroad in some context. As the program went on, which in my opinion is clearly geared toward teaching English as a second language in the public schools here in the U.S., my goals almost shifted along with the program...I remember asking myself at one point, "I almost feel like I have to teach in the U.S. because this is what I have been prepared to teach." (Kenny)

Kenny's remarks were particularly important in terms of exemplifying two important points: First, it indicated how post-program aims of teacher-learners are, in fact, very dynamic constructs; and second, it suggested how programmatic efforts influenced convergence of individual post-program aims. When he was asked to further elaborate on the change of his post--program aims as spearheaded by the programmatic efforts centered around the U.S. context, he stated that he reached this decision to avail the utmost gain from his program. He reported that he "gained so much knowledge and expertise about what makes a good teacher in the public schools in the U.S." and believed that the U.S. context would be the ideal context to "put that knowledge and expertise to good use" upon completing his program.

The excerpts from Kenny above illustrate an interesting example of the interplay between programmatic efforts and personal objectives, which resulted in a change in his post-program objectives. In addition, this scenario raises the importance of a critical examination of the cases where programmatic efforts are not closely aligned with post-program aims of teacher-learners. This contradiction between individual objectives and programmatic efforts will be recursively revisited throughout the data analysis process.

As an international student, Cindy approached this from a different perspective and pointed out that some international students also wanted to stay in the U.S. at least for some time upon graduation, or perhaps for longer times in pursuit of the American dream. She said due to a combination of the program's emphasis on the teaching context in the U.S. and students' excitement about the American dream, she observed a gradual change in post-program aims of teacher-learners who are international students. Several other teacher-learners also recognized that having a graduate degree from, and work experience in the U.S. could strengthen their employment prospects in international contexts.

The idea of "staying in the U.S. upon graduation for a while" for international students has also been recognized by the U.S. Government and regulated by the United States Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS) in the form of Optional Practical Training (commonly referred to as OPT), which affords work eligibility for one year after graduation (without needing to acquire a work visa) for undergraduate and graduate students with F-1 visa status who completed their academic degrees in a U.S. institute of higher education.

5.5.2.3.5. Teacher Preparation for International Contexts

The dissonance within institutional *objective*s in terms of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings in the United States and international contexts, combined with participants' perceived feelings about major programmatic efforts that were predominantly geared towards preparing teachers for the U.S. context created individual and programmatic contradictions for preparing teachers for international contexts. On the surface, the programmatic aim of preparing teachers for international contexts was

bounded by the NonCert program, as it was the only program that explicitly encompasses preparation for international contexts. However, a closer look at the organizational structure, teacher-learners' profiles and distributed efforts of the program reveal that the situation is far more complicated and interesting than that.

Beginning with organizational structure, as discussed earlier, the overall mission statement of the program encompasses teacher-learners with skills, knowledge, and practices that will equip them with a solid knowledge base that they could employ in their planning, adapting, teaching, and assessing endeavors in diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts. In addition, an examination of the diverse profile of teacher-learners and their post-program aims revealed that there is no one-to-one correspondence between teacher-learners' aims and the programs in which they choose to enroll. In other words, both questionnaire results and interview excerpts identified teacher-learners who expressed their interest in teaching in a wide range of contexts, or contexts beyond the scope of their programs. Finally, the existing resources of the TESOL Unit (at the time of data collection), particularly in terms of staffing, created extra pressure and challenges on distributed programmatic efforts, such as classes in which teacher-learners from different programs (both TESOL and Foreign Language Education) with distinct programmatic aims were together in the same course. This creates further challenges for teacher educators to cater the needs of a wide range of teacher-learners, and for teacher-learners to take the necessary steps to contribute to their own development besides and beyond their programs. Andy was critical of the program's efforts regarding teacher preparation for international contexts and believed that his program was not specific enough in terms of informing and preparing him for the context

he would be a part of upon graduation. He argued that he benefitted from “side comments from the teacher that were directed at non-certification people,” and tried to make use of “decontextualized technical stuff from the literature...directed at the weird ones who are not getting certification.”

As a person who had teaching experience in international contexts and entered into the ShortCert program since he wanted to maintain public school certification credentials as a professional life vest, but with an initial intention to teach in international settings which later transformed into teaching in the U.S. context, Kenny believed that the program’s efforts to discuss teaching in international contexts were not enough. He wished “spending more time discussing issues pertinent to international teaching contexts” and “maybe papers or projects focusing on international contexts so [he] would be more aware of the issues.”

Another example of such an interesting orientation comes from Lisa, who entered into LongCert program with an intention to work in international settings but was still interested in maintaining State-wide public school certification credentials. Having recognized the program’s primary emphasis on the U.S. context, she gave the example of the Foundations course, which introduced issues like “the history of No Child Left Behind, the history of Prop 8, and how teaching English has evolved within the U.S. public school systems... [which] are definitely geared towards teaching in the U.S.”

She recognized that this information had not necessarily been directly relevant in her teaching journey in different parts of the world. However, she thinks of that “as information to keep in the back of [her] mind for whenever it is that she returns to the

States, and should she continue teaching.” Coming from “a program at the University with the “No Child Left Behind” and benchmarks and all these set in stone ideas to go to,” Lisa experienced what she called a “shock” when she realized that the school she was working in at the time did not have a set curriculum for ELLs and actually “borrowed a lot from a lot of different curricula.” She overcame the issue of disjointed curriculum and differing expectations on the parts of teachers and students through collaboration with other kindergarten, 1st and 2nd grade teachers. Her collaboration with other school teachers ensured that curriculum adopted in her school was on track for the ELL first graders. She eventually called this “a good learning experience.”

5.5.2.3.6. When the Teacher is the Minority in the Classroom

On one hand, a major strength of the coursework in the three master’s programs studied here has been recognized as the emphasis it places on multicultural education, issues of social justice, and efforts to promote cultural and linguistic development of ELLs who were considered to be a marginalized population. On the other hand, the coursework offered to teacher-learners has been acknowledged to be “clearly geared toward English as a second language and very rarely dabbles in issues specific to English as a foreign language, specifically issues abroad,” or “lacking sufficient focus on issues that are specific to teaching English as a foreign language in a context abroad,” as shared in questionnaires and interviews. Having embraced both perspectives, U.S.-born native English-speaking teacher-learners raised a very interesting question: what happens when the teacher is minority in the classroom? In his specific case, this idea of “being a minority in the classroom” refers to U.S.-born native English-speaking teachers teaching in international contexts. Kenny commented on this phenomenon:

If you go abroad and you are teaching English as a foreign language, you are not necessarily working with a multicultural classroom. Your classroom is likely more homogenous. Therefore, you do not have those issues of marginalized students in your classroom. But you do have a whole other set of issues being that the teacher is essentially the one who is the marginalized population—the minority. So, we did not get into those kind of issues. (Kenny)

Having acknowledged that he felt prepared to “handle the challenges of the multicultural US public schools” and also “apply a lot of what I learned in the program and on my own twist or tweak it for a foreign language context,” he, nevertheless, needed “a more focus on foreign language context through the coursework [needed] at the University.”

Along the same lines, Andy had a very similar realization when his professor in the Cross-cultural Communication course asked the class to research a target culture of where future ESOL teachers would have students coming from. As a U.S.-born native English-speaking person, who was interested in teaching in an Asian country upon graduation, he said “but in this case [when he begins teaching in an Asian country], it would be me going to the students.” While his assignment focused on researching the cultural backgrounds of immigrants coming to the U.S. educational context, Andy had a reverse orientation to his assignment and acknowledged that in his specific case, it would be him, as the teacher, who would go to the students. This was an important realization, which consequently paved the way to re-orchestrating the assignment by reversing his orientation to the assignment. Instead of researching the potential characteristics of immigrant students coming to the U.S. from the Asian country in which he wanted to teach upon graduation, he re-structured his assignment to study the educational background, history, characteristics and potential challenges that a teacher might face upon arrival in this country.

The contradiction between programmatic efforts and the variability of conceptualization of culturally and linguistically diverse contexts and populations in the U.S. and international contexts is further unpacked below for closer inspection via observations from teacher-learners. Kenny commented on this very interesting phenomenon using first language use as a viable tool for instruction in international contexts. He acknowledged that since his program is “almost completely, geared toward teaching diverse populations—teaching multicultural classrooms, teaching marginalized students, teaching in one classroom with a variety of first languages” it did not cover, cases such as “teaching in a classroom that has the same first language.” Having considered the use of first language as an effective tool in second language learning, he mentioned the lack of discussions on “how you can use first language in a context with the whole classroom that speaks that same first language.”

This lack of emphasis on “working with a homogenous population” had interesting implications for Kenny, who described this situation as “kind of funny” since he said “you would think that teaching in a multicultural classroom would be more challenging, yet I feel better prepared to do it than to teach a classroom that has all the same first language and home culture.” Commenting on his desire to work in ethnolinguistically diverse contexts, he argued “I probably would not have taken this job out here in [the new State] if I had not seen the demographics of the school and I knew how multicultural it was. I would have stayed in [a County in the State] or [a County in the State] or somewhere in [a neighboring State].”

I also asked Cindy to comment on her current teaching situation in which, as a person coming from an international context, she did not speak the language of her

students in her multilingual adult ESOL classroom. Her remarks corroborated Kenny's views but from a different angle. She acknowledged "teaching in multilingual and multicultural classrooms is a phenomenon I was acquainted with during my Master's program," since she came from an educational context where the teacher and learners in a typical classroom share the same first language and culture. Now "teaching students from all over the world who speak different languages," she felt compelled to think differently as a teacher in "a culturally and linguistically diverse classroom."

A teacher educator in the program, Allison, acknowledged this situation from the perspective of domestic students going to international contexts and international students staying in the U.S.:

A teacher who grew up in the US is going to have a cultural adjustment period, if he or she goes to, say, Korea to teach English. There is going to be a period when they are having to integrate themselves into the life of their community, learn about schools and schooling expectations. You can definitely study that ahead of time but nevertheless you will have some cultural adjustment. On the flipside, if you have an international teacher who comes and does the master's program here and decides to stay and get a job here, one of the challenges would be understanding the schooling systems, students, the expectations of the environment you are in. Even if you share the ethnic or linguistic background of the students you are working with, there are still other challenges, especially in the U.S., socioeconomic challenges that come in. You may be working with people coming from different socioeconomic backgrounds, different expectations, different challenges in their lives. Getting to know the students and the culture well enough to match your instruction and make your instruction appropriate is going to be a challenge.

Allison's comments placed considerable emphasis on the professional and cultural adjustment of teachers, their socialization and emergence as professionals who develop a thorough understanding of the schools, and the schooling system and educational context.

Her comments also underscored the need for context-specific teacher education practices that are aligned with teacher-learners' post-program aims.

Both teacher-learners and teacher educators acknowledged the existence of cases when institutionalized definitions did not adequately address individual objectives, and commonsensical treatment of “domestic” and “international” student categories (where domestic students are destined to stay in the U.S., and international students to go back to their home countries upon graduation) were insufficient to capture the complex orientations of teacher-learners in these programs. The institutionalized formulation of “culturally and linguistically diverse populations” which translate into a greater emphasis on preparation for teaching in the U.S. context contradicts the institutionalized objective of teacher preparation for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts. Furthermore, it provides a limited representation of the teaching settings by narrowing the focus down to the U.S. K-12 context.

5.5.2.3.7. Contradictions Breeding New Contradictions

A lack of sufficient programmatic efforts on equipping teacher-learners with skills and competencies to work in international settings have serious and unforeseen consequences or contradictions, such as inefficient utilization of resources, inadequate utilization of various perspectives, marginalization of non-US contexts spearheading professional and cultural divide, and inability to cater the needs of international students.

The first of these contradictions is between the utilization of previous experiences of teacher-learners in the present programmatic efforts that prepare them for the future activity systems in international contexts. A lack of sync between programmatic efforts

and historicity of teacher-learners' previous teaching and learning experiences generates a tension. As described earlier, the primary role of any second language teacher education program is to prepare teachers who can effectively serve the ethnolinguistically diverse needs of ELLs in their respective teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts. This conceptualization, thus, highlights the omnitemporal characteristic of teacher education programs where present programmatic efforts not only build upon teacher-learners' existing knowledge and predispositions about teaching, but also simulate their future activity systems in their efforts. That is, the perceived effectiveness of programmatic efforts is measured against the level of mediation between subjects and their future activity systems. More specifically, division of labor among stakeholders within the present activity system should be built upon co-construction of mediational tools and artifacts promoting teacher-learning for future activity systems.

To better elucidate this point, let us now take a look at examples, which suggest that past language teaching and learning experiences of teacher-learners were not sufficiently embraced and utilized in the programmatic efforts. Kenny believed that international students were not sufficiently utilized as resources. He made the following remarks:

I think at times we tapped into that resource in our classroom discussion, but not to the extent that I would have liked...I feel like that is a great resource that we should have used better. When international students come to the classroom, they bring great resources. They bring knowledge of being a second language learner themselves. They bring knowledge of the schools in their own countries, being products of those schools. They might have some understanding of teaching English as a foreign language because maybe they were university students, so that's an excellent resource. Those of us who grew up in the United States might not have any of that knowledge or expertise. The majority of us did not learn English as a second language. (Kenny)

Along the same lines, Lisa believed that when those experiences came up she, and many others in the class actually benefited from those types of conversations, which she felt enriched their classes and provided them with a better understanding “in terms of learning how to approach any international students [she] would have in [her] classes.” As a flipside, Cindy embraced the additive value of collaborating with U.S.-born classmates in group projects and in-class discussions, but wished her experience would have been more structured, transcend beyond the class, and contribute to her linguistic and professional development. She added “I would have been interested in sharing my views about teaching and learning English in my country and learning from my peers about their experiences in the United States.”

The second of these contradictions was between the current practices and the future activity systems of teacher-learners who are going to be teaching in international contexts. A lack of sync between programmatic efforts and teacher-learners’ post-programmatic activities generated a tension for teacher-learners. In such a complex scenario, when teacher-learners constantly shuttled back and forth between programmatic *mediational tools* and efforts such as coursework, class discussions, and assignments and their future activities, any incongruity in this relationship emerged as contradictions for them. For example, Andy talked about the discrepancy between programmatic efforts and his future teaching context as follows:

There's stuff that I'm learning for the sake of getting through the class and passing comps and then after that it is no longer relevant to me because I am going abroad. I am learning a lot of the domestic stuff about NCLB, which is painful to sit through. It is painful to sit through that where I know I am not going to use it. It is very much like the feeling that I had when I was in high school, where I would be sitting in a class and I would think to myself, "I am never going to use this." I would still do okay in the class, but it would take 20 times more effort to get a B in that class than it would to get an A in a class that I actually enjoyed. (Andy)

He stated that he perceived an overemphasis on the U.S. context in his coursework, and believed that some of the class discussions created a contextual framework that could be extended and applied to his teaching context, yet it certainly required him to take necessary extra steps to establish the connection. He made the following remarks:

When I take the [certain classes in the program], it's like 60-70% of the material is just talking about domestic issues and histories of institutional racism in America, which I am sure that by like two or three logical leaps I could extend to my teaching context, but it should not take up an entire semester's worth of coursework for me to do something that's never going to apply. (Andy)

In contrast, Cindy, an international student, commented that while some of her classes were not specifically geared towards her professional realities as an ESOL teacher. Nevertheless she enjoyed and learned some general principles (such as creating a lesson plan, using standards in planning) from these classes and tried to establish indirect links to her target teaching context.

Both arguments raised by Andy and Cindy suggest an inefficient use of symbolic and materials resources and mediational tools to serve the diverse needs of teacher-learners in the same classroom. Similar to their standpoint, Kenny brought up the idea of representation of contextual dynamics in the programmatic efforts by using the example of special education and culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms. He argued that

teachers in international contexts could face a set of issues different than the ones in a culturally and linguistically diverse U.S. classrooms. He also argued that the models for special education might not be the same and these aspects may not have been pertinent to those who were interested in teaching in international contexts.

Coming from a similar perspective, Cindy acknowledged the unique challenges associated with ESL and EFL contexts and argued that it takes special efforts to transfer knowledge from one setting to another. She made these remarks:

Both teaching English in the United States and in foreign language contexts have their own issues. In the United States, being an ESOL student is generally also being a minority, in other words, being from a disadvantaged population compared to mainstream students. Therefore, I think the problem or challenge is not only to teach English to those but also to help them involve in the community. On the other hand, the challenge of teaching English in international context is mostly about finding authentic materials and setting to practice the language and motivating students to learn. Since students in an EFL setting generally learn English as a subject, like Math and Science, motivating them to learn and creating meaningful activities to engage them in the learning process is not easy. On the other hand, you do not generally have a language barrier or multi-cultural classrooms in EFL context. Therefore, I think both ESL and EFL have unique challenges and advantages and studying only one setting does not mean that you will easily understand the other. (Cindy)

As individuals with teaching experience in international contexts, Kenny and Cindy brought interesting perspectives to the interplay between programmatic efforts and characteristics of future activity systems. Kenny also added that “as a result, I noticed a lot of times that the international students might be considered less vocal in the classroom.” This idea was also recognized by Lisa who said “I wish [international students] had shared more of [their past experiences]”.

The idea of international students considered to be less vocal in the classroom due to a perceived mismatch between institutional object and mediational tools illustrated another contradiction regarding marginalized representation of teacher preparation efforts for teaching contexts beyond the United States. For instance, Andy was very critical about this issue and shared his discontent using the word “disenfranchised” as presented in the following excerpt:

I think that anything that is international is mentioned as a side note, it’s mentioned as a little footnote like “In case of this, see footnote 13 on page 48” like on some really long, lengthy research article where you just refer to Table B. It is basically what it feels like for the international students. We are just the Table B. We feel really disenfranchised. (Andy)

For Andy, there seemed to be a serious contradiction between the *rules* imposed by the State and teacher preparation efforts for international settings. He believed that in its current form, the rules that contributed to the definition of the organizational structure and programmatic efforts did not recognize and forthrightly respond to the needs of teacher-learners who were interested in teaching in international contexts. Lisa, on the other hand, highlighted the challenge of catering to the diverse needs of individuals in the same class, and recognized that this might pose serious issues for teacher educators who are supposed to cover certain topics in a semester. She viewed the Unit’s primary responsibility as the U.S. context and wished that they “had time to cover all this other stuff too.”

The perceived secondary role of international contexts and international students were criticized by several teacher-learners. Kenny drew a parallel between international students in the program and ELLs in mainstream classrooms. He mentioned that similar to ELLs, international students might have experienced issues such as difficulty due to

their language proficiency or background knowledge (lack of observation of knowledge and experience as students or teachers), and uneven distribution of power relations (with their peers coming from the dominant culture), which ultimately transferred into a lack of voice and space in the classes.

The perceived marginalization of teacher preparation efforts aimed at international contexts and international students generated an unforeseen “cultural divide” between teacher-learners. Andy talked about this perceived cultural divide by sharing that “I feel like there is a really serious perceived divide almost culturally between [certification and non-certification] people...” For him, the idea of cultural divide leading to treatment of non-certification students as “second-class citizens” stemmed from the inaccessibility to a practicum or teaching context as an important *mediational tool*, which provided affordances to legitimize their ideas by attaching them to a concrete teaching setting.

... since we are not in-practice teachers, we tend to focus very much on the academics and tend to get involved in a lot of debate, as opposed to just relating this back to what we are experiencing. We tend to raise this question and that question and say, “What about this” and “What about that,” whereas the certification people do not seem to be so concerned with that. They seem to be like, “OK, how can I apply this to the classroom I am going to be teaching in next week?”... They are usually there because they need to be able to apply this immediately to what they are going to be doing. (Andy)

The availability of an institutionalized practicum as a *mediational tool* that encapsulated processes and opportunities that made significant contributions to the socialization and growth of teacher-learners was a dividing point between teacher-learners in certification and non-certification programs. More specifically, while teacher-learners in certification programs had direct physical access to the kind of classroom context that they would

belong to upon graduation, teacher-learners in non-certification programs did not have this opportunity. In other words, while the former was able to establish concrete connections between the primary activity (teacher education programs), and adjacent activities (English language teaching in various settings such as public schools, or post-secondary settings), the latter faced the challenge of extending the present activity system to the other activities, which were distant in terms of time and space. Thus, from an omnitemporality aspect, this situation enhanced the intertwined nature of (formal) teacher education and language teaching practices for certification students and underlined the need for establishing such a link for teacher-learners aiming to teach in international contexts. This complex picture was captured in Kenny's following words:

There were multiple times throughout the course of the program that someone who was not a ShortCarter would still be in our classes, for example, students who were international students and students who had objectives of teaching as a foreign language. Very often throughout the course of the program, I felt like they were being overlooked or left out of a lot of our discussions, because inevitably we wanted to talk about our internships. There is so much going on we just cannot wait to get through class and talk about all the challenges we are facing and see which challenges are similar to those in our classmates' internships. Then you have the students in the classes who are not in the internships who are not from this country (international students) and who do not necessarily have the same goals—students who want to teach back in their own countries. I felt that it was kind of unfair to them sometimes how much we dominated the conversation and made it about the schools in the US. Not just us students talking about our internships, but also how so much of the coursework was focused on teaching in the U.S. school, that I felt these students were somewhat neglected. (Kenny)

Andy reflected on similar instances in the following words:

A lot of the classmates, particularly sometimes the certification track classmates, the second you bring up non-domestic issues, get this look on their face like they are mad at you for ruining their party or something. At least that's the perception that I have got, because I do bring this up a lot in class. (Andy)

Another indirect contributing factor of this perceived divide came from the organizational structures that promoted a sense of community among participants. To be more specific, the structured nature of the ShortCert program necessitated grouping of teacher-learners in cohorts throughout their program; therefore, teacher-learners in the ShortCert program always take their classes together, and even led Kenny to say that he felt like he spent more time with his cohort than his own family over the course of the year. On the other hand, LongCert and NonCert programs welcomed a wider range of participants including both part-time, and full-time students, who enrolled in Fall or Spring semesters. This structured nature of ShortCert, in contrast to the accommodating nature of other programs created a group identity, especially when teacher-learners from different programs were in the same class. Defining his cohort using keywords such as “having such a tight bond,” “tight-knit group,” “so close and spending so much time together,” and “knowing each other really well,” Kenny said shared realities such as “doing these internships together and encountering similar things” made a huge difference. He said “then you throw in a student who is coming from abroad, of course they are going to feel like they are an outsider; and of course it is going to be more of a challenge to participate.”

This complex set of interrelated and intertwined contradictions led to the question of the extent to which the needs of international students and those interested in teaching in international contexts were catered to in the program. This question was raised by several teacher-learners (both current and graduated, both those who described themselves as domestic and international students, and native and non-native speakers of English). Formulation of the issues (language, background knowledge and issues of

power and legitimacy) that might have served as contributing factors to causing international students to be quiet at times and to seem to be less active in terms of group discussions was very interesting and found to be “unfair to this population” by many teacher-learners. Several teacher-learners who recognized the intragroup variability among international students and acknowledged that this perceived negligence which caused seemingly less participation, directly affected those teacher-learners, whose goals included going back to their home countries to teach English as a foreign language.

Finally, it should be noted that the discussion structured around the perceived negligence of international students or preparing teacher-learners for international settings was not observed by everybody in the program. For example, Lisa said “I do remember the very heavy focus on American public schools and what the American school curriculum is. However, I do not remember specifically experiences [focusing on international contexts] being debunked.” Similarly, Wendy mentioned that she “wouldn’t put [efforts towards international and US contexts] on the same level, but the international context was certainly brought forth and was definitely studied; it’s not just to the same extent as the U.S. context.” For Grace, discussions pertaining to non-U.S. contexts was generally welcomed, “except a few times when other students have thought “okay, what does that have to do with anything?” She added that instructors had generally had positive attitudes towards such issues. Thus, for some teacher-learners, their program experience seemed to be one that allowed for discussion of teaching ELLs in contexts other than U.S. K-12 schools., but did not actively capitalize on it a systematic fashion.

5.5.2.3.8. Examining Teacher Preparation for Diverse Teaching Settings from the Perspective of Instructional Faculty

Analyzing the phenomenon of teacher preparation for diverse teaching settings afforded through the multifaceted, interconnected and complex lens(es) of Activity Theory necessitates examination of the phenomenon from the perspective of teacher educators who are considered to be major stakeholders in this process. So far, this analysis revealed that teacher educators allocated considerable time and energy into preparing teachers for the U.S. context and more specifically for the K-12 setting in the U.S. since that was argued to be a major driving force behind programmatic efforts and context in which these efforts are operationalized (e.g. practicum experience). Teacher educators also acknowledged the importance of diversification of experience and programmatic efforts, and argued this could be only realized if enough time, labor force, and symbolic and material resources were integrated into the program's structure.

Nevertheless, the diversity of teacher-learners and orientations was a reality of the program. Therefore, working with teacher-learners with diverse orientations, and establishing a balance in terms of catering to the needs of diverse teacher-learners in the same classroom remained an unresolved challenge. As put by a teacher educator who embraced the difficulty of working with different teacher-learners in the same class, "I think I am getting better at it from the experience; I am sure that the first time I had the mix I did not as carefully or consciously address the various objectives and backgrounds of people."

Being able to work with a diverse group of ELLs in a language classroom is a challenging task. Being able to prepare teachers who are going to be working with a

diverse group of ELLs in a language classroom is also a challenging task. Classroom observations and interviews with instructional faculty in the TESOL Unit revealed a number of strategies that teacher educators engaged in for the purposes of accommodating the needs of diverse teacher-learners with different orientations in the same class. These strategies included creating options for weekly course readings, developing different assignments for different teacher-learners, and creating a common objective for classes that might be manifested similarly or differently in various teaching settings.

As argued by teacher educators, there were certain conditions that needed to be put in place, steps that needed to be taken both by teacher educators and teacher-learners, and efforts to be made to further enhance and expand the issue of teacher preparation for diverse teaching settings. In addition to the re-orchestration of specific aspects of the coursework, such as modifications regarding course readings and assignments, teacher educators also make efforts towards embracing various contexts through actual verbal signaling in their classes. A teacher educator comments on her efforts in the following words:

I know that I consciously now try to at least say, “Tracy, would this fit in a foreign language setting? How would you apply it?” and “Jason, you have got the adults in your institution?” Many others are in elementary and secondary schools now...So, their experiences are very different but it is looking for sometimes the common—can this be applied in all of these setting? So, we are looking at a common objective or theory and then how would it play out in each setting. Sometimes we are finding similarities and sometimes we are finding differences.

Classroom observations also revealed similar instances where teacher educators used purposeful signaling. This purposeful signaling included careful ways of attracting

the attention of those teacher-learners who had particular aims, such as U.S. contexts, or specific settings in international contexts, as well as framing the discussion from the perspective of teaching settings and educational context. Teacher educators used signaling for the U.S. context such as “for those who are interested in teaching in the public schools in the State,” “when you step into an ESOL class in [a County in the State]...,” “Some aspects of American culture and society in your classes...” and for international contexts such as “if you are like Brian, who is interested in teaching in Japan...,” “so, Shannon is going to China and if she...,” “if you are in EFL context...,” or “as an EFL teacher, how can you...?”. Although purposeful signaling may not be self-sufficient in appropriation of knowledge and sense-making for the particular contexts, it is certainly an important and deliberate step taken towards this goal. Using such linguistic cues might serve as conscious attempts to draw teacher-learners’ attention and aimed to establish a link between teaching context and the material under scrutiny.

Second, it is important to have teacher educators with experience in diverse settings in the U.S. and international contexts. Both teacher-learners and teacher educators acknowledged the importance of having a faculty body with a range of experience, and believed that the diverse experience of teacher-learners would lead to fruitful opportunities for teacher-learners and more socio-educationally and contextually relevant teacher education practices for their target teaching settings. The interaction between experience/expertise and mediational tools were highlighted by a teacher educator who argued that the classes she was teaching would “definitely lean more towards the domestic side” because of her “experience, expertise, and examples.”

However, she also believed that it should be balanced by other courses and professors so that the program is “giving them [teacher-learners] a good mix.”

More importantly, faculty with diversity of experience could serve as a foundation for collaborative practices among teacher educators and thereby maximize their educational practices. This experience was recognized by Cindy who argued that such collaborative practices turn out successful examples for teacher-learners:

When I took a course, which was co-taught by a professor and a TA and I remember that it was a good example for how to balance the U.S. and international contexts. The professor had teaching experience in different levels and settings in the United States and the TA had international teaching background. That way, they could integrate both contexts in the course activities and both contexts were valued. Therefore, I believe that the cooperation among professors and TAs (who are generally international students) help the program better serve all students’ goals. (Cindy)

The absence of such experience does not (and probably should not) prevent teacher educators from informing themselves about teaching in diverse teaching settings. A teacher educator made the following comments regarding “going an extra mile” in terms of informing themselves about the diverse teaching settings:

I certainly do not have [diverse] experiences to share in that regard that are personal. I have more in terms of information that I have gotten from other students, or things I have read. I try to make sure that I will do readings and go to sessions I might not normally have gone to. I know I am teaching students who are going to do that...I need to make sure that I get myself enough education and not just go to the areas I would naturally gravitate to.

Similarly, a teacher-learner who was interested in teaching in international contexts upon graduation also recognized that connecting with her teacher educator, who was also an international student, afforded her with a space in the current structure. She argued that

certain courses did not allow the voices of teacher-learners who wanted to teach in international contexts to be heard, as she mentioned in the following words:

When we get to the Issues class, the curriculum does not even allow time for [different discussions] half the time. It feels like the curriculum, not even the teachers, it is the sheer weight of everything that we are reading is about domestic policy, so anything we want to say, we do not even have a conversation there. It is not that we do not have a voice, we just do not have a conversation. There is no conversation for us... The overwhelming amount of material silences us because there is nothing for us to talk about; we cannot talk.

She stated that when her teacher educator with a background in international contexts offered this class, this would promote her engagement in this class. More importantly, “as someone who is an international student, [the teacher educator] understands the importance of [establishing parallelisms and connections]” and she can always “talk with him about such issues” as a point of resource and reference.

The primary sources of information for teacher educators to increase their understanding and awareness regarding teaching and teacher preparation for diverse teaching settings included three major streams: (a) direct communication with practitioners and teacher-learners (in classes, and through personal and professional interactions), (b) professional activities (such as training, workshops, research studies, co-presentations and co-authoring), and (c) professional reading and conferences (journals, articles, websites, local, national and international conferences). As a teacher-educator in the program, Allison also highlighted the importance of *mediational tools*, such as conversations with teacher-learners during the seminar paper writing process towards the end of the program, and through the academic advising throughout the program, served as vehicles to better inform herself about the diverse contexts of students.

Third, teacher educators highlighted the importance of shared accountability and the promotion of agency on the part of the teacher-learners. Interviews with teacher educators suggested that many of them viewed teacher education as a co-constructed enterprise, during which teacher educators and teacher-learners have certain roles in terms of shaping and extending the coursework. For them, teacher-learners should play a more active role in the construction of knowledge, skills and expertise necessary for their contexts. A teacher educator who had teacher-learners from other content areas in her class explained that she assumed that “they can project and say “Well, as a content teacher, I’m still going to have to understand this about their developmental patterns or the learning styles, so I need to do some adapting.”

Considering the fact that it is impossible for teacher educators to have extensive information, experience and training about all teaching settings and contexts, teacher-learners were expected to be more cognizant of their post-programmatic goals. Teacher-learners’ goals combined with their existing knowledge or expertise could be translated into concrete instructional practices, as mentioned by Karen, who tried to “draw that in or let them use that for assignments,...because we will never have knowledge of all the different contexts that our students come to us from.”

For teacher educators, the idea of promotion of agency was particularly important for teacher-learners who were planning to return to the particular teaching settings that they came from, such as U.S. K-12 public school teachers or some international settings. What lay at heart of this understanding was that these teacher-learners were considered to be “experts” on their teaching context, and equipped with a thorough information regarding the dynamics, challenges, and directions of their socio-educational contexts.

According to teacher educators, teacher-learners were supposed to establish closer ties with teacher educators in terms of shaping the curriculum and programmatic efforts. For example, another teacher educator specifically asked his teacher-learners to “tweak the lesson plan so it’s useful for you, if you are going to do your teaching in another setting.” He added that “some of that is going to be the student’s own initiative of either asking questions or asking if they can adapt the assignment.” This educator also commented on the relationship between such initiatives to customize the course and its impact on his instruction by saying “if the student would ask how would this play out in such and such a context, then I could hopefully be able to adapt my instruction to explain that.”

In contrast, Andy, a current teacher-learner in the program, approached the issue of agency from a cross-cultural point of view and argued that the idea of increased agency and participation might not be culturally appropriate. More specifically, he argued that it could be culturally challenging or inappropriate for teacher-learners coming from certain cultural backgrounds to take the initiative to establish a dialogue with teacher educators for the purposes of changing the content or format of the assignments, readings or certain aspects of the class. He made these remarks:

If it is not relevant to us, what do we do? Stand up in the class and say, “Excuse me, teacher. None of this curriculum is relevant. I want a relevant curriculum now, please.” We cannot do that and the Chinese students certainly are not going to do that, from the culture they come from. That would be absurd. They are not going to say that to teachers. They will say it to me and they will say it among their peers, but they would never say that to the administration or the teachers directly... They cannot do that. So they are silenced by the curriculum and their culture, because they cannot, in a large power distance culture like that, you cannot confront a teacher or an administrator.

According to Andy, this expectation that teacher-learners actively take the initiative to re-negotiate the programmatic efforts may not be a culturally-responsive way of approaching the distributive nature of agency (*division of labor* among members of the *community* in the activity system) and unfortunately leads to a “silencing by the curriculum and teacher-learners’ culture” due to the cultural manifestations of the roles or *division of labor* embedded in or brought to the current activity system. Coming from cultures in which there were highly asymmetrical power relationships between the teacher and the student, several teacher-learners agreed with Andy’s sentiments. They viewed the teacher education curriculum in their programs as “unalterable,” “fixed” and “non-negotiable,” their roles as “more static,” and their teacher educators as individuals who were “responsible for creating curriculum and delivering courses.” Coming from an educational context in her home country that was characterized by such asymmetrical power relationships, Cindy reported that was “not encouraged in [her] previous schooling experience,” and actually “appreciated [teacher educators’] efforts to give options.” Although she found it difficult at the beginning, she tried to “take advantage of the options” at her disposal since having an option “actually helped [her] think more consciously about [her] future teaching setting.”

Finally, teacher educators underscored the need to have enough information, time and resources to adjust their plans ahead of time in order to accomplish more customized practices for their teacher-learners in their classes. As acknowledged by a teacher educator “the need to find out ahead of time who is in the class, what they are doing and what their programs and goals are and then remember that in modifying your content” is an integral part of specifically tailoring the course content and programmatic efforts for

teacher-learners. What are some sources available to instructors that help them fine-tune their efforts?

The University's electronic student profile system that is available to instructors provides some basic information about the teacher-learners such as name, college, major, gender, and GPA. However, the system does not include any information regarding students' reason for taking each class, how it fits into their program, students' aims at the end of the semester, and their plans upon graduation.

Supplementing this generic and insufficient artifact with extra course- and program-specific information for the purposes of more dynamic and customized teacher education practices necessitates extra efforts on the part of the instructors. While some teacher educators believed that teacher-learners should be "aware of the course that they are signing up for," others believed "making some adjustments," and "tweak[ing] some components" would be a more beneficial approach to their classes. For this purpose, several teacher educators said they spent the first day of their class to "get to know [their] teacher-learners better" and to better acquaint themselves with their "goals, expectations and aims" both in their classes and upon graduation. Although teacher educators acknowledged the importance and benefit of having such a generic artifact to increase their understanding of the students provided by the University, they also recognized that it would not give them enough time to think about the way they structured their course syllabus. Therefore, the construction of mediational tools that adequately address the needs and aims of teacher-learners who intend to work in diverse teaching settings upon graduation actually necessitates a considerable amount of time for teacher educators to collect and analyze information about, and respond to the needs of, teacher-learners.

5.5.2.4. Other Concerns and Contradictions about the Coursework as a Mediational Tool

After presenting a discussion regarding contradictions embedded in programmatic efforts of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts in the previous section, this section will extend and enrich the ongoing discussion contradictions about the coursework as a mediational tool by adding new layers and points of conversations such as the need for background knowledge, practicality of knowledge, classroom management, and repetition and overlaps.

5.5.2.4.1. The need for background knowledge

In very broad terms, the idea of background or prior knowledge refers to knowledge and understanding of the world that surrounds us. Narrowing this definition to the teacher education realm, it could be argued that teachers' background knowledge and understanding of the nature of schools and schooling, or their professional and social contexts (Freeman & Johnson, 1998), has a tremendous importance and potential in the process of developing their knowledge-base.

As a person coming from an international context, Cindy highlighted the challenges of adapting to the new academic and professional environment due to lack of “apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie, 1975), and acknowledged the importance of a practicum process for teacher development. Having acknowledged the difficulty of internalizing issues pertinent to the U.S. educational context, she argued that “adapting to [the U.S. educational environment] is not an easy task for international students,” as compared to her American counterparts. She argued that while domestic students “have the advantage of going through their education in the U.S., and gaining background

knowledge as students, international students just started to learn about it.” She suggested utilizing school-based experiences to develop a better understanding about the American educational system.

Contrary to Cindy’s belief, it was not only international students who were in need of a wider understanding of the issues pertinent to local teaching settings in the United States. For example, as a U.S.-born and U.S.-educated teacher-learner, Lisa, had difficulty in adapting to the field of education. She used the example of No Child Left Behind Act as something she “heard of but did not really know much about it” and therefore characterized her experience as “starting from scratch.”

These examples point to important differences in the academic and professional background knowledge of teacher-learners who studied in the program. Therefore, remembering the tremendous differences in orientation in terms of teacher-learners’ backgrounds and their diverse post-programmatic aims, it is imperative for the TESOL Unit to acknowledge various starting points for various teacher-learners who have various end goals.

The need for background knowledge stood out as an important theme for teacher-learners who might be unfamiliar with what Freeman & Johnson (1998) call “the social context,” which, in this case, entails K-12 US schools and schooling as the primary domains. Therefore, this perception led Sally, a teacher educator, to conclude that “there are the students that will come to a class that I teach and then still have lots of theory but no sense of the reality of the classroom and we have discussed it certainly in staff meetings.” Obviously, this challenge was doubled for many international students whose

experience or apprenticeship of observation for the U.S. schools was either very limited or non-existent. Teacher educators believed that “international students who come and then decide that they are going to get certification need to see an American classroom before they go in and teach in an American classroom.” It should also be noted that this idea of “being in a classroom before they go in and teach” was even more difficult for domestic students who were interested in teaching in diverse settings in international contexts, since not only were their understanding of and the experience in international contexts limited or nonexistent, but also their activity systems existed at a distance in terms of time and space.

5.5.2.4.2. Practicality of Knowledge

Phrases such as “practical,” “hands-on,” “connecting theory and practice,” “translating into practice,” “developing classroom tips, methods and strategies” that are ubiquitously found in any TESOL program booklet must be interpreted in light of the importance attributed to the practicality of knowledge by teacher-learners. This idea of transferability of knowledge into practice (or the blended characteristic of knowledge and practice) might serve as a point of contradiction for subjects at times when they are unable to establish a solid connection on how their knowledge transforms into actual teaching skills and behaviors.

Therefore, many teacher-learners used phrases such as “lack of real-life applications,” “lack of opportunities of translating knowledge into practice,” “I wish we could get more practical training,” “transferability of skills needed” to describe their experiences in their coursework. Grace elaborated on her standpoint using graphic organizers, multiple intelligences and differentiation of instruction and argued that the

considerable emphasis placed on the theoretical discussion of these tools and concepts should be complemented by how they were implemented in practice.

Similarly, another participant approached this issue of practicality from the perspective of impositions caused by high stakes testing as follows:

We heard often that it was good to learn theory because it would make us better teachers, but we are not judged by our morals or opinions in a real working situation. We are judged based on whether our kids help the schools make AYP (Adequate Yearly Progress). So, focusing on the practical is actually more useful.

Others argued that “grammar class has theory but does not explain how to teach and explain English grammar to students,” and that the course “only included advanced English structure practices and no emphasis on how you actually teach it.” Similarly, it was the same issue of the practicality and relevance of the coursework that led Lisa and several others to question the existence of a statistics course in the curriculum. She admitted that graduate students always have to take statistics a course, but wondered how her SPSS skills would serve her practical needs and concerns when teaching English to pre-kindergarteners. She admitted that she had never used statistical analysis in her teaching. In the same vein, another graduated teacher-learner indicated that the “statistics course was very difficult, caused me a lot of stress and I have never used any of the information as an ESOL teacher.” Similar sentiments led a graduated teacher-learner to argue that “having to take quantitative analysis was not effective and I was not be able to substitute that with an alternative course, since the program has little room to take interesting courses for elective credit that might be very appropriate for the direction we wish to pursue.”

5.5.2.4.3. Classroom Management

Traditionally referred to “the ways in which student behavior, movement, and interaction during a lesson are organized and controlled by the teacher to enable teaching to take place most effectively” (Richards, 2001b, p. 170), classroom management has an influential role and potential in shaping the learning environment (Farrell, 2008). Since classroom management takes different forms for different teachers under different teaching settings, it poses a dilemma for teacher educators who are stuck between the importance and the danger of reducing classroom management techniques into a set of discrete components and imparting them to teachers in a relatively short teacher education program (Richards, 2001b). Lisa acknowledged this dilemma in the following words: “I wish they had taught more classroom management even though that is kind of a double-edged sword. How can you really teach classroom management when you are going to have completely different kids every year?”

Although Lisa recognized this dilemma and acknowledged that classroom management training spans over the academic program and actual teaching practice, she, and many others, believed that classroom management, especially for younger grades, needed to be prioritized in the program. In the scarcity of discussions and specific training in terms of classroom management, Lisa overcame this contradiction by creatively navigating and using her classmates as mediational resources. She indicated that “there were some kindergarten teachers in the program who provided a lot of good insight.” While acknowledging classroom management as “one of those on-the-job learning experiences,” Lisa believed that it should still have been part of the coursework.

She believed educational psychology and more importantly, ESOL methods courses could be perfect venues for such discussions.

Grace, on the other hand, approached the aspect of classroom management from a macro sociopolitical perspective and established a standpoint in which classroom management needed to be understood with respect to the issues that shape the lives and realities of the students in the classroom. She made the following remarks:

I think about some of the older kids in high school and some of the issues about what makes their acquisition and learning of English difficult—the fact that they do not want to be there, the fact that they were forced and did not have a choice—some of those things we do not really talk about and how those things influence their second language learning, which is definitely an issue. We do not necessarily talk about some of the issues around discrimination and racism that happens in terms of policy and the fact that they are moving kids out of the schools or why is [the High School] the way it is? What is that about?

Finally, Cindy brought a cross-cultural perspective to the idea of classroom management and argued that programmatic efforts such as mediational tools like coursework did not adequately place an emphasis on such issues. Although she had specific training in terms of classroom management as part of her undergraduate degree, she acknowledged that these management strategies are mostly bounded by the culture of the classroom as well as individuals (both teacher and students) that comprise a classroom. Therefore, she was able to “rely on basic principles” from her previous training but wanted to see “how such strategies would be similar or different in the U.S. context and both in predominantly homogenous and diverse classroom settings.”

5.5.2.4.4. Repetition and Overlaps

Repetition and overlaps are indispensable characteristics of our lives and part of human communication. Although the idea of repetition regarding tasks (Hawkes, 2011; Lynch & MacLean, 2000), and communication strategies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997) has attracted some attention in the TESOL literature, the prime emphasis within the scope of this project is at a curricular level across various classes in the programs examined here. The analysis of data sources indicated that teacher-learners felt there was considerable overlap and repetition among the courses in the programs and with participants' background knowledge.

Characterized by keywords such as “overlap a lot of coursework,” “too much repetition,” teacher-learners shared their views of repetition across different courses. Grace used the example of graphic organizers to discuss the repetitions and said: “I think the program is very good with things like graphic organizers, graphic organizers, and graphic organizers (laughing).” Other teacher-learners added that certain popular books (such as H. D. Brown's), and discussions (such as Krashen's theories of language acquisition) were repeated at different points in their programs. This actually held true for those participants who went through both an undergraduate minor, and a graduate degree in TESOL offered by the TESOL Unit. In addition, “redundancy” or “repetition” were seen positive when previously reviewed material was supported by extra discussions. Grace argued that the program included many things that she had “talked about and knew about and there were things that I was able to reflect on again and then there were things that were new or different spins, which was good.” While teacher-learners' generally had

positive attitudes towards overlaps with their past teaching and learning experiences, repetitions and overlaps within the program were critiqued.

Teacher educators utilized their regular faculty meetings as an opportunity to discuss course content in an effort to minimize unnecessary repetition and overlaps across the program. They believed that there is a minimal overlap between courses and requirements in the program and, as Karen shared, the Unit “definitely made an effort over the last two or three years to look at the course requirements and establish connections between the courses to create complementary assignments rather than overlapping assignments, complementary readings rather than overlapping readings.” As part of synchronizing programmatic efforts across various courses, teacher educators discussed all major readings for each class to minimize unnecessary overlapping. They also recognized the difficulty of course sequencing especially since only ShortCert participants go through their programs as cohorts *per se*.

Having shared the program’s efforts “from the perspective of a person who teaches in the program,” Karen also acknowledged that having “the perspective of somebody who goes through the program” is equally important. She added that this would give “a first-hand experience of taking all the courses and knowing really what it is from being in the classroom what it is each course covers, what their readings are, what their assignments are.” The acknowledgment of “student perspective” suggests that it is important to involve teachers in the organizational process of distributive programmatic efforts and to maintain an internal dialogue mechanism that serves as a source of immediate feedback and a reality check.

5.5.2.5. The Practicum Experience

Referred to as practice teaching, field experience, internship, apprenticeship, and practical experience, the practicum experience constitutes an integral aspect of the efforts generated by teacher education programs that aim to prepare professionals who are responsible for meeting the challenges of the 21st century classrooms in today's globalized world. To this end, the vitality of the practicum experience in teacher development, and therefore in any teacher education program, has been widely embraced, and the field of second language teacher education is no exception (Bailey, 2006; Crookes, 2003; Gebhard, 2009; Richards, & Crookes, 1988). Therefore, it is imperative to equip teacher-learners with skills, knowledge, dispositions and competencies to work effectively with their ELLs and to ensure a smooth transition from their teacher education programs to the realities of English language teaching in their future teaching contexts as emergent ESOL professionals. The widely quoted idea of establishing a balance between theory and practice has been a primary challenge in teacher development, although separating theory from practice and treating them as separate entities creates a false dichotomy since the act of teaching consists of embedded and inseparable pillars of theory and practice (Schön, 2003).

The importance of practicum experience was also clearly evident to teacher learners who participated in this research study. In addition, Kenny brought a very interesting conceptualization to the teaching internship experience, which he believed gave teacher-learners “almost like a first year teaching experience with support.” Many participants recognized this importance by making very positive remarks. To exemplify this sentiment, Kenny and Grace made the following remarks:

The practicum was challenging and it was long, but honestly, it was so crucial to my development as a teacher and I learned so much from it. You learn things that you do not get through your coursework. You learn things like how to build real relationships with students, how to manage classroom behavior, how to do all that paperwork that comes with teaching that you do not get taught in your classes. And not only that, you have the opportunity to apply what you learn in your classes and try out all these methods and to address issues of social justice. You get the chance to assess actual student development in language proficiency. Managing the behavior of the classes, doing all the paperwork, the grading that comes along with the public schools, managing co-teaching relationships, all these things, are really tough. All that stuff, I do not feel like I got through my ShortCert classes. All that stuff I got through my internship. (Kenny)

I think that it is almost impossible to give a teacher all the tools that he or she needs. I think that part of teaching is the experience. (Grace)

As a person who completed the LongCert program, Lisa recognized the benefit of extended teaching practice opportunity that ShortCert program offers by saying “at times, there have been brief moments when I wished I had done the ShortCert program just to have more of the in-service training.” Along the same lines, Kenny recognized that a lot of other programs either had no practicum options or their practicums were not as long as theirs.

5.5.2.5.1. The Absence of Practicum

The importance of a practicum experience, acknowledged by researchers in the field and by teacher educators, and teacher-learners in the present study, raises the question of the effect of the absence of a practicum in the non-certification program studied here. As described earlier, the programs offered by the TESOL Unit provided a wide range of opportunities in terms of teaching practica. While the ShortCert program offered a year-long internship split into elementary and secondary settings in the Fall and Spring semesters, the LongCert program offered a more condensed package including 20

hours of classroom observation in the Fall semester, and a semester-long internship split into elementary and secondary settings in the Spring semester. While these two programs, which led to a State-wide teaching certification in ESOL at the K-12 level, offered an institutionalized teaching practicum in varying lengths and forms, the NonCert did not offer a teaching practicum opportunity. The absence of a teaching practicum created a contradiction within practicum as a mediational tool, and consequently impeded subjects' attainment of the individual and institutional object(ive)s in the activity system.

As a graduate of the ShortCert program who had gone through a year-long internship as part of his teacher education program, Kenny put himself into the shoes of those who did not necessarily have the same experience. He acknowledged that his practicum experience, which was longer than in many other programs, prepared him in ways the classes could not.

The absence of a teaching practicum emerged as a contradiction in the present activity system through my informal interactions with program participants and our discussions focusing on the presence (with participants in the ShortCert and LongCert programs) or absence (with participants in the NonCert program) of practicum and its relationship to participants' experiences in the programs. Teacher-learners consistently viewed the absence of practicum as a contradiction and teacher-learners in the NonCert program believed that a teaching practicum was an indispensable part of their emergence and development as teachers. Many of them commented that the absence of practicum meant absence of important experience in their professional development and therefore felt that it needed to be addressed by the Unit as soon as possible.

It was acknowledged by both teacher-learners and instructional faculty in the TESOL Unit that constant access to a classroom context has a tremendous additive value in in terms of field-driven teacher development and socialization. Sally, a teacher educator, made the following comment:

I have always tried to make them think about what is happening in the classroom. With the ShortCert class that is much easier. In my class right now, of the ten students, eight of them are ShortCert, one is teaching French in a high school, and one teaching in an intensive English program. They are all teaching, so it was very easy to make assignments that connect to the classroom that they can picture. (Sally)

The absence of immediate access to a teaching context brought about instructional difficulties for Sally a few years ago. Having teacher-learners who had no access to an immediate classroom environment, and a number of newly arrived international students in her class, she had tough times since teacher-learners in her class “could not figure out what you would assess.” Sally also reported an incident when one of her former students contacted her, and said “you know, when I took your assessment class several years ago, I did not get it. But now that I teach, I get it.”

The absence of a practicum for non-certification program participants was perceived as a “certification requirement,” and therefore organizationally unnecessary, for Harry, another teacher educator in the Unit, who believed that some program participants might not need a certification since they might be interested in “teaching overseas,” “moving on for a PhD,” “working in an area that is somewhat related,” or “teaching in private schools.” He supported the idea of offering a Master’s program without certification since he believed that not everybody wants that. He added that “if you do not want it, you do not belong in the classroom. I think that option of having that

[a NonCert program] is good.” For Karen, on the other hand, it was “definitely a missing aspect in the program” and there was an immediate need for some course “that really incorporates some practical experience” since she argued that “no matter what setting you are teaching in, having that additional classroom experience is very valuable.” Along the same lines, Allison, another teacher educator in the program, recognized the almost impossibility of providing “the opportunity to go back into these classrooms over there or wherever [teacher-learners] wanted to go back to, and observe and teach” due to the fact that teacher-learners come from so many different places. Nevertheless, she acknowledged the need for integrating a teaching practicum component and argued that “if [international students] go back [to an international contexts] with a master's in TESOL, never having taught or having done it very little, that would mean missing out a great deal, and they are not as prepared to teach English as they could be.” Allison and many other teacher educators believed that “graduating competent and prepared teachers” necessitated the provision of a well-designed and implemented practicum experience for all teacher-learners regardless of their background and post-program aims.

5.5.2.5.2. Action Research

Second language teacher education programs, like teacher education programs in all content areas, have been going through a reform and modernization process. This process suggests departing from a model of linear transmission of issues in applied linguistics imparted to teacher-learners by heavily drawing from the traditional disciplinary sources, and shifting to a more innovative, dynamic and inquiry-driven co-construction of the knowledge base. In this process, the reflective teaching movement (Burton, 2009; Zeichner & Liston, 1996) such as collaboration, teacher-driven research

(Burns, 1999; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999) and action research (Burns, 2009; Edge 2001) have served as important innovative and sustaining tools. This reform is particularly important in expanding the knowledge base for second language teacher education since it “helped to legitimize practitioner knowledge by highlighting the importance of reflection on and inquiry into teachers' experiences as mechanisms for change in classroom practices” (Johnson, 2009a, p.23).

An important example of this trend is action research, which combines “action” and “research,” where the former “is located within the ongoing social processes of particular societal contexts and typically involves developments and interventions into those processes to bring about improvement and change,” whereas the latter “is located within the systematic observation and analysis of the developments and changes that eventuate in order to identify the underlying rationale for the action and to make further changes as required based on findings and outcomes” (Burns, 2009, p. 290). Looking at the importance of action research from a second language teacher education point of view, researchers have concluded that action research reconciles the chasm that separated researchers from teachers (Edge, 2001; Rainey, 2000), invigorates teachers to adopt a participatory inquiry stance toward their classroom practices (Gebhard, 2005), promotes the role of teachers “as knower and as agent of change” (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999, p.274) for the purposes of engaging in research that is “close to the customer” (Day, 1997, p.49).

Recognizing the vitality of action research in teacher-development, the TESOL Unit enacted an Action Research course in the ShortCert curriculum with an intention to promote teacher development by creating a meaningful opportunity for inquiry-based,

field-driven efforts that bridged coursework and the teaching practicum. While the NonCert program had neither a practicum nor an action research course, the LongCert program did not have an action research component despite having a practicum component. This stemmed from the contradiction spearheaded by *rules* defining the duration of their practicum and not allowing action research to be integrated into their program as a *mediational tool* for LongCert students. In other words, the internship process for the LongCert participants, which involved 20 days of classroom observation in the Fall semester and a semester-long school-based experience split into elementary and secondary settings, did not leave any room for the integration of action research as a *mediational tool*. In general, teacher-learners in programs other than ShortCert expressed that they had heard about the term action research and its significance but were not involved in any action research attempt on their own.

The ShortCert program participants were predominantly exasperated by the structural design of the Action Research component and shared their views using phrases such as “impractical and inconsistent action research demands,” “poorly implemented in the TESOL program,” “not carefully addressed to ShortCert,” “inefficient structure of the action research component,” “unfair given our program limitations” and many others. In a nutshell, teacher-learners in any ShortCert program, including TESOL program, undertake a year-long action research inquiry project and develop a culminating graduate seminar paper in lieu of a master’s thesis. Teacher-learners in the ShortCert program combine their year-long internship experience with a year-long course entitled Conducting Research on Teaching in which they were usually grouped with Secondary ShortCert students and assigned to one of the several sections of the class that met on

several Saturdays in each semester. However, the organizational structure of the year-long Action Research requirement contradicts with the organization structure of the ShortCert program and the public school systems.

The first contradiction stemmed from the split internship requirement of the ShortCert program due to K-12 ESOL certification, which mandated that teacher-learners complete their internship experiences in both elementary and secondary settings. Those teacher-learners who were placed in the elementary schools in the Fall semester moved into secondary schools in the Spring semester and vice versa. This idea of a split internship as an institutional orchestration to meet the State-mandated requirements created serious problems for teacher-learners who spent their Fall semester familiarizing themselves with their teaching setting, contextualizing their research, generating research questions, and conceptualizing their research tools, and then beginning the Spring semester in a new teaching setting. The change in teaching setting basically nullified their semester-long efforts which belonged to a completely different teaching setting with its own idiosyncratic needs, issues, aims, dynamics, and parameters. Therefore, for Dave, a teacher-learner in ShortCert, it was impossible to conceptualize a research project since hypothesizing a topic required a prolonged engagement in the specific educational context. Switching internships in the Spring semester caused a “logistical problem,” and “a source of complaint” for ShortCerters since they were “planning in the Fall for something that we did not even know if we would be able to implement in the Spring.”

Another related organizational mismatch was the way Action Research classes were handled, which “created serious equity issues,” according to many teacher-learners. The first point of discomfort was the fact that all sections of this class were taught by

non-TESOL faculty, who might be neither thoroughly informed about the trends and issues pertinent to the field of TESOL, nor about the organizational challenges that the TESOL cohort faces, such as the split internship. Obviously, the limited staffing resources of the TESOL Unit prioritized other courses in the program and therefore left no room for the 1-credit Action Research course. The other point of discomfort regarding Action Research course was in terms of action research expectations for course participants who have different internship experiences. To be more specific, while TESOL ShortCert cohort suffers from the aforementioned consequences of the split internship, they are still held accountable to the same standards in terms of action research expectations compared to other course participants such as secondary education. This was worrisome for many since while other ShortCert programs “have only one placement through the entire year” during which “they were able to get to know their students, . . . [and] be more part of the school’s culture,” TESOL participants needed to complete the whole process within a semester. The problem with the implementation/organization of the Action Research course had negative implications on Dave who characterized the whole process as a “debacle”:

To me, it is a debacle because it has turned me off to action research and my product, they will be the best I can be is nowhere near as good as what would be if I had the same chance as the person sitting next to me. She is a Science Ed and in [a County in the State] school, where they practically splitting the atom and she has been in the same teaching practice the whole year and she came up with this groovy topic in November, she has been able to research it and implement it. She ran her pilot and collected her data and she is gonna show something that you get a Nobel prize for and I am sitting next to him and paying the same money and produce an inferior product and feel bad about myself, hopefully not get graded down and be turned off forever doing action research. I consider that as a debacle and how much of that is my fault? Zero! (Dave)

Teacher-learners believed that the challenges inherent to the TESOL program should be taken into account for the final culminating paper requirements and expectations, which were the same for everybody. The time-frame challenge caused by the split internship for the TESOL cohort, coupled with a lack of standardization in assignment length among Action Research instructors, created a perceived equity issue among some cohort members.

The other level of contradiction for the TESOL cohort was triggered by the Action Research course and *rules* defining the organizational structure and processes of the public schools. The importance and important consequences of high stakes testing on schools, teacher accountability, and student development have been examined from multiple angles in the literature. High stakes testing at public schools created a logistical problem for ShortCert TESOL cohort since preparations for and the implementation of these tests interfered with teacher-learners' action research efforts. Due to the nature of the split internship, teacher-learners spent the Fall semester gaining an understanding of the underpinnings and importance of action research within the context of their initial placements and therefore usually constructed and conducted their action research in the Spring semester in the context of their second placements. However, the challenge of conducting an action research project in a limited time doubles with the school-wide allocation of time, resources and energy to the high-stakes standardized testing.

The chain of contradictions for teacher-learners significantly impeded their internalization of action research as a viable teacher-development practice. Far worse than these contradictions pertinent to the Action Research that greatly hindered the effectiveness of this experience was the long-lasting unfavorable impressions of action

research on teacher-learners. Both current and graduated teacher-learners acknowledged the importance of action research in terms of giving teachers a voice, and creating teacher-researchers but characterized the experience as an “ineffective component,” “a burden to be overcome and forgotten,” “a bad taste in the mouth and bad memory.” Ultimately, ineffective implementation paved the way for “not embracing it professionally,” “not [being] an advocate for it [although] I can be a believer,... and I will not be motivated to do it.”

5.5.2.5.3. The Mentoring Process in the Practicum Experience

Mentoring is defined as “process of one-to-one, workplace-based, contingent and personally appropriate support for the person during their professional acclimatization (or integration), learning, growth, and development” (Malderez, 2009, p. 260). This situated field-driven experience offers numerous transformative professional experiences and opportunities supporting their emergence as professionals, and therefore has an integral role in teacher-learner socialization and development (Bailey, 2009; Malderez, 2009).

Before going further into deconstructing various aspects of the mentoring process, it is imperative to respond to Bailey’s (2006) call for operationalizing the definitions of the stakeholders involved in this process. Mentor teachers, hereafter referred to as mentors, are school-based personnel who are responsible for teacher-learners’ day-to-day socialization and development throughout their field placements in the school.

Supervisors, or university supervisors, are affiliated with the teacher education program and serve as liaisons between the teacher education programs and school-based practices, ensuring the quality of mentoring and teacher-learning through observations (Malderez, 2009). Lastly, the role of teacher educators in the teacher education programs is twofold.

First, they are responsible for coordinating logistical details pertaining to field placements and solving any problems that may emerge during this process. Second, they are responsible for supporting teacher-learner development through seminars and reflective opportunities.

As Malderez (2009) insightfully acknowledges, “if its potential is to be realized, and its additional benefits accrued, attention must be paid to ensuring that the conditions in which mentoring occurs are as fully supportive as possible” (p.264). Before discussing these conditions, it should be noted that these experiences only encompass teacher-learners in the ShortCert and LongCert programs. The contradiction of the absence of a practicum also breeds other contradictions, which deprives teacher-learners in the non-certification program of any kind of on-site teacher-learning experience, field-driven development of skills, understanding, thinking and socialization of various kinds. Having acknowledged this contradiction, I will now respond to Malderez’s call and turn to an in-depth account of teacher-learners’ experiences from the perspectives of perceived qualities of mentors and the mentoring process.

It should be noted up front that experiences vary widely among teacher-learners depending on the cultural, professional, and personal characteristics of their local settings. More specifically, the discussion and challenges presented in this section may not necessarily be applicable to every single teacher-learner in the program. Nevertheless, the overarching motivation is to glean an in-depth understanding of teacher-learners’ mentoring and practicum experiences with an intention to eliminate existing contradictions, with the hope that this program and programs like it, can use these

findings to eliminate existing contradictions in the future. From this perspective, I am interested in both commonalities and particularities across participants' experiences.

The TESOL Unit's sphere of control and influence on the school-based practicum experience is rather limited since teacher education programs by the TESOL Unit and public school services by County public schools are organized and maintained as two partnering but distinct activities whose systemic components such as *rules, division of labor, object, subject, community* and *mediational tools* are defined by local dynamics in collaboration with higher level governing bodies such as the University, State Department of Education and Accreditation agencies or the Unit and Educational bodies at County, State and Federal level for public schools. In this complex web of interactions influencing the programmatic efforts of the TESOL program, practicum, and distributed *object* of developing a solid knowledge base for program participants, teacher-learners held the Unit administration accountable for providing an effective practicum experience and resolving any contradiction emerging in their practicum experience. They specified a number of responsibilities for the Administration including a more robust mentor selection and training process, defining the roles of the mentors, and establishing a more effective communication channel between the university and the schools.

5.5.2.5.3.1. Mentor selection and training

Acknowledging and embracing the critical importance of mentors in the mentoring process necessitates sustaining a very robust process of mentor selection and training for the purposes of supporting the learning to teach process to be "less like 'hazing' and more like professional development" (Johnson, 1996, p. 48). This conceptualization brings an increased responsibility and accountability towards teacher-

learners within the scope of the present activity as well as to other stakeholders such as ELLs and colleagues in teacher-learners' future activities. Both current and graduated teacher-learners held school-based mentors accountable for the success or failure of the practicum process, while acknowledging the responsibility of the TESOL Unit in organizing the operation of the school-based practicum and mentoring processes.

Keywords such as “selection of inefficient mentor teachers,” “review mentors and appropriateness for program,” “training and screening of mentors,” “the need for mentor screening and orientations both semesters,” “more background information and more training for mentors that is consistent with supervisors,” “feel like mentors are not informed about the expectations for us,” “training and holding accountable mentors,” “training support for mentors needed,” “poor mentor training” came from questionnaire data reported by both current and graduate teacher-learners in the programs. Looking back to her poor mentorship experience, Stacy underlined the contradiction between her *object* and mentoring as a *mediational tool* and *process* by admitting the unfortunate consequences of what she felt were weak mentoring experiences on her preparedness to teach at preK-5 level in the State. She made the following comments:

I had absolutely horrible mentor teachers. At the time, I thought it was fine because I was able to relax and did not really have to do much work for them. Later, I came to really regret how little I learned from them. One sat in his chair 90% of the time and really did not care what the class did so long as they stayed quiet. The other put on a happy face for the kids but only cared about how much she was getting paid. Neither ever planned any lessons and therefore never sat me down to show me how to do that. I just saw makeshift, last-minute lessons. Therefore, I do not feel I was prepared to deal with the difficulties specific to PreK-5 ESOL in public schools, which require floating ESOL teachers. (Stacy)

Along the same lines, several other teacher-learners shared unfortunate practicum experiences which, according to Dave, were due to “inappropriately chosen and inappropriately guided” mentors, who were characterized as “rogue mentors who were abusively negative.”

Unfortunate experiences shared by several teacher-learners led Grace to question the qualities and characteristics of a mentor teacher who works with teacher-learners in school-based practicum settings and contributes to teacher processes of learning to teach. She made these remarks:

It [the TESOL Unit] needs to figure out what is that they look for in a mentor. What does it mean to be a mentor? Besides having a master’s degree, and besides being a good teacher. What other characteristics do you need to become a mentor in general, whether in business, in medicine, in education? What makes a good mentor? I think that is something that the Unit needs to look at, ...having people who are going to mentor and mentor you correctly. What kind of training do they give somebody to be a mentor? (Grace)

For Dave, a teacher-learner in the ShortCert program, a lack of mentor training, thereby a perceived lack of accountability, transformed into a contradiction between his *object* and mentoring experience as a *mediational tool*. He believed that the contradiction stemmed from the lack of his program’s influence on defining mentor’s role (*division of labor*) and establishing the foundations of a standardized mentoring practice (*rule*). He characterized his mentoring experience as “unsuccessful,” stemming from the fact that “neither of my mentors were given any kind of clue what they are supposed to do with me.” He added that both of his mentors’ conceptualizations’ of “how to handle an intern was entirely constructed from how they were handled when they were interns by their mentors.” As a result, “their mentoring of me derives from something totally outside of the program’s

locus of control.” Sally brought a faculty perspective to the importance of mentor selection and training, and argued that the success of the internship program heavily depended on the quality of mentors.

Sally continued her comments regarding mentor selection, and made a point that the Unit’s role is somewhat limited in the process and placed an emphasis on the school systems’ role in mentoring. She made these remarks:

We are stuck with the people who volunteer; the people who the school systems say “here are the mentors; here are the placements.” You want to collect enough information to say you are not going to use this person again and we are going to use these people as much as we can.” You get wonderful and you get awful mentors. I feel really bad for the interns who get the awful mentors, but it seems to happen every semester to somebody. I am glad I do not place them... Every semester I hear from some student or another how great the person is and from somebody else, how awful the situation is. You make your list of people you are not going to use again and keep having names to add to it. (Sally)

In conclusion, the need and importance of opportunities for mentor development and training have been recognized both in the present study and in the second language teacher education literature (Malderez, 2009, Maynard, 2000). It is imperative to provide mentors with a clear understanding of their roles and expectations, with respect to institutional and individual *object(ive)s*, as well as to offer them a range of opportunities and adequate support to develop knowledge, skills, and competencies for their important tasks.

5.5.2.5.3.2. *Subjects’ definition of division of labor in the practicum/mentoring process*

As described in the previous section, subjects primarily held the TESOL Unit administration and faculty responsible and accountable for resolving any contradictions

that emerged in the practicum and mentoring context. According to teacher-learners, mentor teachers were responsible for monitoring and ensuring on-site development, supervisors were to act like intermediary bridges between the University-based programs and school-based experiences, and the TESOL Unit and faculty were responsible for overall smooth operation of this bi-directional experience by ensuring well-selected placement sites and high quality and experienced mentors who were regularly trained and monitored through the practicum process. Under such a framework of *division of labor*, the teacher-learners who participated in this study placed a lot of emphasis on the expectations of the TESOL Unit and its instructional faculty.

First and foremost, teacher-learners placed the greatest emphasis on the idea of selecting high quality mentors, providing in-service training for them and sustaining the effectiveness of the mentoring and practicum process through constant monitoring. In addition, it goes without saying that high-quality practicum and mentoring processes could only be realized with high-quality mentors, and I will delve more into qualities of mentor teachers in the subsequent sections.

For teacher-learners, the dialogue between two cornerstones of this interactive process could only be possible through establishing a solid communication channel between the program and mentors. This is the only way to complement each other's efforts and build on each other's strengths. An important implication of this type of communication is a strong accountability and investment on the part of the mentor teachers. In the absence of such a communication bridge, a graduated teacher-learner complained that her mentors had very limited contact with the University, which means "no accountability, no training or workshop."

The importance of bidirectional communication between these activity systems: the field-based practicum and mentoring activity, and the University-based teacher education program activity, has two-fold importance: developing an inner inspection mechanism that ensures smooth operation of the practicum process, and developing a feedback mechanism ensuring the learning to teach processes of teacher-learners in the practicum activity. In addition to existing communication channels, performance-based assessment (PBA) tools are another group of artifacts used by the mentors, supervisors, and mentees to reflect upon the whole process. These tools evaluate aspects of teacher learning such as planning instruction, delivery of instruction, assessment of student learning, classroom management and organization, knowledge of content, interpersonal skills/attitudes, and professionalism on a scale of 0 to 4. However, several teacher-learners criticized the depth and validity of such artifacts for not being a true representation of in-depth processes of teacher-learning in terms of four numbers and contradicting promotion of alternative assessment techniques. As Dave, a teacher-learner in the ShortCert program, stated

...If you guys really want me to embrace going to do portfolios and alternative performance assessments and all these other ways except the paper and pencil test, then do not do my PBA, because PBA feels like a constructed selected response, pencil and paper test on a computer. It is just ludicrous. My mentor should be compelled twice to write 3-4 pages of prose what she sees me, my strengths and weaknesses and potentials. She should be able to narrate what she has seen in my journey and what she thinks I need more....

In addition, teacher-learners believed that a more encompassing investment was required by the Unit, including both administration and faculty members. One teacher-learner argued that “the Unit needs to re-think completely what they are doing for practicum and invest more,” which will ultimately contribute their efforts to “put some

structure into it.” Several other teacher-learners believed that a lack of resources was holding back the Unit from realizing the full potential of practicum and mentoring processes. The Unit was believed to be understaffed at both instructional faculty and administrative levels by teacher-educators and teacher-learners, which consequently increased the workload of teacher educators and administration and diminished the depth of institutionalized efforts being put in its programs. This atmosphere, coupled with various course-loads on the part of the professors, and the reliance on graduate teaching assistants to do teaching and supervision led teacher-learners to demand “more professors in this Unit who take interest in the quality of the program” and lessen the workload on the shoulders of the Unit coordinator, who, in Dave’s estimation, had “a thankless job.” Another teacher-learner described the Coordinator as having “a lot of plates spinning; and it is hard to keep them all spinning.” In conclusion, the overall importance attributed to the Unit stemmed from the fact that teacher-learners held the Unit accountable for their practicum experience.

Finally, supervisors were expected by teacher-learners to “play a more active role” much more than “coming to observe you” and “have a greater enhanced formative feedback role” in teacher-learners’ learning to teach processes. The teacher-learners’ focus on the TESOL Unit administration obscures the shared responsibility and accountability between the Unit and supervisors, although supervisors are representatives of the Unit who visited practicum sites to observe teacher-learners in their classrooms, provide feedback, serve as a liaison between the school site and the university. Under the current circumstances and structure, supervisors’ perceived sphere of influence did not encompass problem-solving and assisting the administration in resolving contradictions

emerging in the practicum and mentoring process. Therefore, the general sentiment among teacher-learners was that “you can talk to your supervisor, but the supervisor is really not there to make the internship work for you.”

In conclusion, teacher-learners believed that in order for the practicum experience to work as a well-developed professional development structure, a true partnership structure between the school system and the university staff needed to be in place. Teacher-learners believed that communication, training and operational aspects needed to come together as “parts of a well-oiled machine,” as described by a teacher-learner, to achieve a sustainable practicum experience for teacher-learners.

5.5.2.5.3.3. A lack of shared vision between mentors and mentees

Another contradiction in the mentoring process stemmed from lack of shared vision between mentors and mentees, a critical construct for mentoring to function as a strategy of school reform, according to Feiman-Nemser (1996). I will present two different instances of such disharmony, specifically focusing on differences in language learning and teaching, what mentoring is, and who mentees are. Teacher-learners and mentors might have different approaches and orientations to teaching and learning that they bring to the teaching-learning environment and the mentoring process. The existence of such differences in perspective creates contradiction of various intensities or magnitudes for different teacher-learners. For instance, Dave who had a “very strong mentor teacher who wants everything done exactly her way” was significantly affected by this situation since such a disharmony influenced his development by doing an “extended period of observing but no teaching.” When Dave finally got the chance to teach, the disharmony deteriorated: “she was very critical because she had a very narrow

view of exactly what she wants me to do.” To better explain this, he gave an example of their differences in terms of providing instructions:

She stopped me once and said “you cannot tell them that it is time to draw lines. You have to tell them they are going to draw pictures, because they need the noun. You have to oversaturate your instructional delivery to them.” So, I became hyper-focused in modulating my wording to them, not just like a good old ESOL teacher should do monitoring so that it is comprehensible, but mine had passed that level in talking to her. So, I was very self-conscious, and felt that she was not just critical of me, but we had this thing going that she thought that an ESOL teacher had to do exactly like this, but she did not have the time to teach me to do that. (Dave)

Similarly, Lisa had some differences of opinion with her mentor in her secondary level placement. She observed that her mentor extensively relied on translation methods in the class relying on his knowledge of Spanish and French with Spanish-, and French-speaking students, although the class had a “wider linguistic representation than that.” This situation puzzled Lisa and led her to wonder about other children who spoke other languages such as Urdu or Chinese. She raised the question of different ways to help students with translation “beyond telling them ‘go, get a dictionary’.” She believed “that does not have to be the only method of helping them. I wish he might have allowed for the wider linguistic range instead of just French and Spanish.

Finally, it was the opposite of such experiences that led Kenny and Grace to have such great and thriving mentoring processes. Kenny made the following remarks:

[My mentors] did not hand me lessons they wanted me to do. They did not tell me the way they wanted things to be done. They let me try things and, equally important, was the fact that they would sit down with me afterwards to reflect about it. That is where I learned and grew the most. (Kenny)

Similarly, Grace mentioned that she had “two very good mentors and both of my mentors have had very similar ideas to mine and what we think about teaching and learning, and I think they were willing to let me try out things.”

The second level of contradiction regarding a lack of shared vision between mentors and mentees manifested itself in the conceptualization of the mentoring process, and the division of labor. Dave’s discussion of his practicum and mentoring experiences revealed the treatment of the mentee as “an established professional” or “a finished product,” which stemmed from differences in perspective regarding what mentoring entails.

But she did not act as a mentor, who, like really, focused on in my development. She actually blessed me **like an established professional** who she needs to give some space, too. So, it was almost like a stand-off...She basically **treated me like a finished product**. I do not think that she ever critiqued any aspects of my lessons or teaching. She just kind of left me alone. (Dave) (emphases are mine)

In order to better illustrate his discontent with being treated like “an established professional” or “a finished product,” Dave presented a hot house metaphor and explicated his conceptualization of the coursework-practicum nexus and the critical importance of practicum experience in teacher development process:

The internship placement is just because they have to have hours in the classroom or is it really the lab, the hot house where the plants start to grow? You can think of coursework as putting nutrients into the soil, planting the seeds and doing the watering, but the plant ain’t gonna grow until you get in front of your kids.

As an emergent professional who acknowledged the critical importance and complementary nature of field-driven experiences to the academic program, Dave longed for a more active mentoring process, which meant closer interaction with and feedback from his mentor teacher regarding his teaching activities, such as planning, managing,

and delivering instruction. In other words, he wanted to be treated like an apprentice, and provided with scaffolded opportunities to try out new approaches, receive constructive feedback from his mentor teacher, and reflect upon the whole experience.

Dave's discomfort with being viewed as a finished product creates a contradiction in terms of a collaborative approach to learning from Vygotskian notions of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) and mediation (Vygotsky, 1978). In other words, while Dave conceptualized the process of learning to teach as an apprenticeship encapsulating mediational processes such as a collaborative practicum and mentoring practices with his mentor teachers within the context of the ZPD, his mentors had completely different orientations to this process, which had significant consequences in his professional development. Thus, the differences in terms of the definition of practicum and mentoring processes, and roles of mentors and mentees in these processes inhibited a shared understanding of teacher-learning defined in terms of "cognitive development [as] a socially mediated activity" (Johnson & Golombek, 2003, p. 730). Dave further elaborated on the variability among his mentors' treatment of him, which he attributed to a lack of sync in terms of perceived scope of the mentoring process between the Unit and his mentors. He explained this in the following words:

Mentor teachers have to be carefully chosen, trained, and then their role has to be defined for them. I believe that Liz⁹ felt her role just was to give me a place to show what I can do. I believe Mary¹⁰, on the other hand, conceived her role more as evaluative as if she was supposed to look at a finished product whether or not I have made the grade based upon what I have been told to do... So, mentors need to be trained and they have to be held accountable.

⁹ A pseudonym was used to protect the mentor's identity.

¹⁰ A pseudonym was used to protect the mentor's identity.

5.5.2.5.3.4. *High-stakes standardized testing contradicting with the mentoring process*

The influences of high-stakes standardized testing on the practicum experiences of teacher-learners in this study were reviewed earlier with respect to the action research requirement for teacher-learners in the ShortCert program. However, these influences were not limited to the action research requirement. The supremacy of high-stakes standardized testing for the schools dominated the *rules* and *division of labor* organizing the practicum process, by re-defining mentor teachers' involvement with their mentees, and mentees' processes of learning to teach. To exemplify this influence, Dave made the following comments on the restrictive nature of "teaching towards the test":

I walked in and she says "it is the textbook and it's the same textbook that they use upstairs in the mainstream class and we are not allowed deviate, and they are going to be forced to take the same County-wide test and this is also the High School Test¹¹, so they have to take the State test. Basically, we have to teach exactly what is in this book. You will do the questions at the end of the chapter". And I am thinking "this is the exact opposite of everything I learned". "We will use these worksheets and you will actually use the quizzes that we bought from the publisher and then once you function within those guidelines, do whatever the heck you please, add anything or make it more fun" and then she kind of stepped back and let me teach. That was my relationship with her.

In the context of a field placement at elementary level, the presence of high-stakes standardized testing acted like a barrier between Dave and his students. His mentor teachers seemed to be skeptical of his presence, therefore "they put down the message "watch what I do, because you cannot screw this up for me because these kids are taking the tests, [to measure] the AYP (Adequate Yearly Progress).

¹¹ This is the test that measures school's and individual student's progress toward the State-approved goals in subject areas such as English, Government, Algebra, and Biology.

5.5.2.5.3.5. *Perceived qualities of mentors*

A common thread in the discussions regarding the mentoring process so far has been the importance of high-quality mentors. Mentors can in fact play a crucial scaffolding role in helping teacher-learners in their first year teaching, and in helping teacher-learners to make the transition from the University-based program (primary activity) to the teaching settings (future activity) (Burns & Richards, 2009). Conceptualizing mentoring as a professional scaffolding activity, and mentors as agents of scaffolding who are “knowledgeable others,” in Vygotskian (1978) terms, necessitates a closer look at the qualities of mentors and the mentoring process.

The mentoring and practicum processes included certain challenges and contradictions, as described in this section. It should be noted that these challenges and contradictions were not the only defining elements of these processes. Therefore, the primary motivation behind presenting an in-depth account of teacher-learners’ experiences is to underline and reinforce positive aspects, and to reveal and resolve these contradictions, which are seen as points of growth and improvement. Therefore, a discussion of the qualities of the mentor teachers for the teacher-learners who participated in this study will include both positive and negative experiences.

The notion of mentor teacher qualifications was greatly embraced by current and graduated teacher-learners alike, who believed that mentor teachers should be high quality teachers with extra skills. Grace, who called mentoring “a different ball game,” argued that being an excellent teacher does not necessarily make one an excellent mentor, as it requires special skills and experience. She also recognized the importance of having

a sound praxis as a professional foundation that would serve as a source of guidance in the mentoring process.

I think that you need to be a good teacher, an excellent teacher, and not necessarily that you do everything perfect. To me, it is not about that; it is about that you need to have a good handle on theory and I think that needs to show, that your practice needs to be informed from your theory and vice versa, you and as you practice you need to question, like “hmm”. But I also think that you need to be able to observe and identify things and be able to explain that to the student in positive ways. (Grace)

The absence of strong credentials and skills may pose a challenge for teacher-learners, as in the example of Dave, whose mentor left the school during the course of his internship:

I was actually in a room with a young lady who just took the long term sub position for my mentor that left, and she was not a TESOL person, she was an elementary education degree, fresh out of college, did not find a job last round and she was trying to fill in the gap and she knew nothing about the best practices for what we do. (Dave)

The ideas of credentials and investment, together with retention, may have important consequences in teacher-learners’ continuation of their practicum process.

When Dave’s mentor teacher left to take another job, he had to “meet a whole new group of students, have a new mentor teacher, switched classes,” which meant nullification of his symbolic and material investment in that particular classroom setting. Furthermore, the mentor teacher’s leave created a domino effect in his studies since as a ShortCarter his action research assignment and practicum experience went hand in hand. This put him into a situation where he had to meet a new group of students with a new mentor teacher and start all over again amidst the standardized testing schedule. That also meant trying to embark upon on-site data collection before knowing the names of the children

involved. Although the mentor's decision was beyond the control of school administration and the TESOL Unit, it certainly had unforeseen and unpleasant influences on Dave's academic studies and processes of learning to teach.

When asked about these specific skills that mentors need to have, Grace shared a long list of important skills that a mentor teacher should possess, including being bilingual, extensive teaching experience both at local and international contexts, cultural sensitivity, and a good grasp of the students:

They were **seasoned teachers** and both of them had been **teaching**, one had been **teaching for over twenty years** and another **one in the public school system**, she has been **teaching 14 years**. One had **been in the Peace Corps and she had taught English abroad** and the other was **bilingual** and they were very much **culturally-sensitive** and **knew their students**. (Grace) (emphases are mine)

As reviewed in the previous section, the idea of professional synchronization, or having a shared understanding of mentoring and the teaching-learning process, was seen as important for teacher-learners. For instance, Grace's mentors "have had very similar ideas to mine and what we think about teaching and learning" and one of Lisa's mentors "had been through the Unit's program, so she knew the theoretical background I would have" and shared her personal insights into "how she was adapting her program background to work for the context she was in."

Teacher-learners also commented on the importance of establishing a professional atmosphere where professional scaffolding was given utmost importance, freedom of exploration was encouraged, and mentor teachers were significantly invested in their mentees and the mentoring process.

I had two wonderful mentors and perhaps the best thing about my mentors in my opinion was **the amount of freedom that they gave me**. They **gave me the space to try things and to succeed or fail on my own, which is important**. I need to learn. They were **not very controlling**. They **did not hand me lessons they wanted me to do**. They **did not tell me the way they wanted things to be done**. (Kenny) (emphases are mine)

This idea of exercising professional freedom was very important in the process of developing a personalized view and approach to teaching, as teaching is a highly individualized enterprise. As Grace mentioned, “it [mentoring] is not about that I want to clone you who I am...[it is to be] able to recognize the student may not do in it in a way you would necessarily do it.”

Kenny revisited his comment on the amount of freedom in developing a teacher persona by engaging in teaching practices, and argued that “being a good mentor is the ability to let go but at the same time, to let go, but still be there. Let go of control, but still be there to support and reflect.” Kenny and many others realized that when coupled with critical reflection, the idea of freedom of exploration is an essential building block in teacher development:

They contributed, most importantly, in the planning stages **before I taught a lesson and then in the reflecting stages after I taught a lesson**. They would **help me out with ideas if I ever needed them**. They would **sit with me and reflect about what went well, what did not go well, and what I could improve upon afterwards**. **That support was incredible**. When I say they let go, I do not want it to sound like they did nothing. They were still incredibly supportive while at the same time **giving me freedom to try things**. My mentors were both wonderful in those two aspects—they gave me freedom to try things and they would sit and reflect with me afterwards. They **always made time to sit around and talk with me**. I have heard of other students who had less fortunate experiences where mentors were maybe **more controlling**, but for me, I feel very lucky. (Wendy) (emphases are mine)

Teacher educators also made their contribution to this discussion by discussing their perspectives regarding perceived qualities of mentor teachers. For example, Sally described “perfect,” “good” and “not ideal” mentors as follows:

I had a teacher who always wanted to mentor an intern because her sense was she had not been in the [university] classroom in how many ever years it was (and it increased every year). She wanted people who were hearing the newest research and had the fresh ideas because she felt like she always learned. So, she was a wonderful teacher and, so, the ideal mentor. “I want to show you what I know and I want to learn from you.” **Perfect**. You also get the mentors who do not say they want to learn everything that is new, but they are **good**. They are the right people. Then you get the mentors who say, “Oh good. I get to do less work,” instead of realizing it’s more work. And you get the mentors who do not communicate well and so, end up saying to students. “Okay, you have got to get what you can from this, even if what you are learning is what you hope you will never do as a teacher.” That is **not ideal**. (Sally) (emphases are mine)

In conclusion, a common thread across different positive and negative perspectives regarding the qualities of mentor teachers is the fact that being a mentor teacher is not an easy task. Challenges that surfaced in this study included constructing an educational atmosphere and working conditions that are supportive of mentoring, such as providing sufficient time to mentor, and grow as mentors (Lee & Feng, 2007), and supportive school staff (McNally et al., 1997). It certainly requires a unique combination of skills, knowledge, and beliefs that are critically and judiciously orchestrated for the purposes of collaborating with and scaffolding an emergent professional with great enthusiasm and investment, and contributing to his/her learning to teach and professional socialization processes.

5.5.2.5.4. Diversity of Settings Necessitating Diversification of Practicum Experience

The diversity of settings and activity systems that teacher-learners join upon graduation necessitates diversification of activities embedded in the practicum experience. Therefore, it is expected that the practicum experience provides meaningful opportunities for teacher-learners to develop a rich repertoire of skills and competencies in their knowledge base. These skills range from classroom observations to working with individual students, and from co-teaching to individualized whole class teaching. Along these lines, teacher-learners identified the areas that their internship experiences did not fully encompass such as push-in/plug-in models, co-teaching, collaborations with mainstream teachers, and working with adult ESOL students.

Briefly defined as “two or more people sharing responsibility for teaching some or all of the students assigned to a classroom involve[ing] the distribution of responsibility among people for planning, instruction, and evaluation for a classroom of students” (Villa, Thousand, & Nevin, 2009, p.3), co-teaching is neither a new phenomenon in the field of TESOL, nor practiced in only a certain prescribed way. Co-teaching configurations as collaborative approaches to language education are widely embraced in both ESL and EFL settings as viable gateways to more culturally and linguistically responsive instruction to language learners (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2012; Martin-Beltrán, Percy, & Selvi, 2012). Departing from these conceptualizations, teacher-learners recognized the importance and absence of such practices in international contexts with language learners or intercultural level, and in the U.S. context with mainstream teachers. Grace raised a series of questions including “How do you work

with a mainstream teacher? What are some of the struggles of working with a mainstream teacher? How do you choose a person to team up with? What is your role in that situation?” On the other hand, Kenny raised the issue of co-teaching “with someone who is maybe a language learner or from a different home culture than you.” Wendy added that collaboration between the ESOL teachers and the mainstream teachers was missing in her internship experience.

This growing need and importance of collaboration has also been acknowledged by teacher educators who believe that ESOL teachers are now working closer than ever with mainstream teachers, particularly in public school settings. In conclusion, these reported aspects are important skills that need to be carefully woven into the knowledge base of second language teachers in their practicum experience, as they are important facets of teachers’ endeavors in providing effective and collaborative instruction for ELLs in diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts.

5.5.2.5.5. Contradictions Breeding Learning Opportunities

Contradictions in a given activity system generally spearhead or breed newer contradictions as a result of a domino effect. Examples of such contradictions regarding coursework and practicum and in relation to *subjects*’ overall attainment of their *object(ive)s* were presented in the previous sections. Despite the negative connotations attached to the word “contradictions,” they are seen as internal driving mechanisms of breakthrough in an activity system. Another interesting facet of contradictions emerged in the research as contradictions regarding practicum experiences of several learners paved the way to new learning opportunities that they might otherwise not have had, such as increased responsibilities, chances to observe local realities, and engaging in advocacy

practices. Although these opportunities are rather unforeseen and unstructured, they nevertheless served as points of growth for teacher-learners in the study.

5.5.2.5.5.1. Leading to more responsibilities

The practicum experience of teacher-learners sometimes created opportunities in which they had to assume more responsibilities beyond the *rules* governing and organizing the practicum process and *division of labor* expected from them. For example, inundated with professional tasks and administrative duties on top of classroom teaching and mentee advising, Grace's mentor in her secondary placement broke the *rules* and afforded Grace with extra teaching opportunities. Grace's, first mentor was a department chair who had a lot of administrative duties, therefore she took over her ESOL 1 class from the very beginning. She acknowledged that "you are not supposed to do really, but because she had so many things, she had me do." For Grace, this was a win-win situation in this local setting because it afforded Grace with extra teaching opportunities and her mentor. While her mentor had extra time and energy to do a lot of the things she would not have been able to do, it provided Grace with extra hours of teaching experience that she would not normally obtain in a typical practicum experience.

5.5.2.5.5.2. A chance to observe local realities

The opportunities created by contradictions in the practicum experience are not limited to extra responsibilities in terms of instructional support. The practicum-driven contradictions provide teacher-learners with a window of opportunity through which they critically observe realities of the local teaching context. When Dave had troubles in completing his action research project, which was delayed first due to the split-internship

structure in the program, and then due to his mentor's unforeseen departure, he touched based with other teachers and sought their assistance in completing his project.

I have actually had a friction in the building where I am now, just trying to do data collection because I have no advocate for me. So, I am apologizing to these teachers for 10 minutes of their time to run the survey. "Oh, I'm sorry! You do remember who I am?" because in our building, TESOL is not a specially respected specialty. My TESOL department, three administrators of the school, do not know and understand ESOL and treat it as Tier 2, intervention like RTI model and they believe any phonics-type of intervention, any decoding, word study intervention is as good as any other. So, if ESOL teachers have died, so well, we have other interventionists going and do this reading passage with the kids and nothing will happen. Honestly, that is the impression I get and as my mentors say "that's the way it is"...

In addition to observing local realities as in Dave's example, such contradiction-driven opportunities led Grace to develop a critical lens of evaluating her local context. As reviewed in the previous section, her mentor teacher served as Department chair and therefore was heavily invested and involved in advocacy issues. Therefore, Grace shadowed her mentor teacher beyond the classroom and developed a heightened understanding and critical observation of the local context:

There were just a lot of issues with especially with the Latino population with them basically [expelling students from the school] and kind of no consideration by the administration of the school in terms of why are the kids [not attending classes]... **One of the things that struck me was that there is no consideration of the issues like critical pedagogy, culturally-sensitive instruction.** The administration just does not have any clue, "let's get to the root of why the kids are skipping and what can we do about that to feel them more comfortable in the school?". She had to do a lot of advocacy and I, **because I speak Spanish fluently, I did a lot, a lot, more so than anybody else in my cohort, interpreting, which was good and bad. It was good because it gave me the opportunities to see what went on behind closed doors in terms of administrative stuff, and how the administration sees things and what they look for and "ESOL kids are not necessarily the best for AYP"...** (Grace) (emphases are mine)

These ideas of lower status of the ESOL department in Dave's school and administration's approach to ESOL students in Grace's school were contradiction-driven tools that afforded a view beyond the boundaries of the practicum experience. As Grace acknowledged, an overall contribution was that they were able to "learn a lot about the system through those experiences."

5.5.2.5.5.3. *Engaging in advocacy practices*

In addition to leading to more responsibilities and affording unique chances to observe local realities, contradiction-driven opportunities emerging from the practicum experience included engaging in advocacy practices. These opportunities went one step beyond the observation level and engaged teacher-learners in actual advocacy practices in their local teaching contexts. Despite the fact that Grace's mentor teacher in her high school placement spoke some Spanish, she utilized Grace's linguistic abilities in interpreting.

I think that probably more so than any other student, I think [another teacher-learner] also did some interpreting, but for example, at the high school where I was I did a whole heck of a lot of interpreting. Probably if the folks at the University knew how much I was doing it would have been... (laughing) It did not necessarily take away from my student teaching, but I did a lot. (Grace)

These interpreting tasks eventually came to point where it transformed into advocacy practices at local levels exemplified in a specific case when a Spanish-speaking student was expelled from the school improperly.

There is one incident where they kicked out a student and they did it illegally and **we got him back in school.** [The administration] was like “no!” and the pupil personnel worker basically told the administration that “in fact you did not go through the right channels, you had better put him back him.” There was this big thing and my mentor called me back in to interpret. In the public school system, I take off my hat to my colleagues. I think it is just not about going and teaching there in your class. There is a lot of other stuff especially at the high school level that goes on, in terms of understanding, being able to motivate your students and being able to understand your kids. (Grace)

The collaboration with a mentor teacher for the purposes of advocating for a local student was certainly beyond the scope of aims and *object(ive)s* of the practicum process and *division of labor* of teacher-learners and mentor teachers. According to Grace and several other teacher-learners, advocacy practices are integral components of an ESOL teacher identity, particularly in the U.S. context, where a great majority of the ELL population are regarded as an “at-risk population” (Thompson, 2000).

5.6. Conclusion

The current chapter presented a multifaceted and in-depth discussion of the findings of the present study gleaned from multiple sources and types of data collected in three Master’s in TESOL programs offered by a TESOL Unit, which adopted an institutionalized aim of prepare teachers for diverse teaching settings. This study brought together multiple points of view by focusing on current- and graduated teacher-learners as well as instructional faculty teaching in these programs. The analysis constructed by multiple sources and types of data, and theoretically informed by Activity Theory, instantiated a number of issues and themes embedded in the present research context, and provided a window into the future of English language teaching and teacher education.

The plethora of orientations of teacher-learners pointed out a diversity of aims, perspectives, intentions, and conceptualizations that teacher-learners bring to their academic programs. This is important to understand the multiplicity of factors and reasons behind teacher-learners' rationale for enrolling in their respective programs. The research results indicated that the programs offered by the TESOL Unit admit very diverse groups of teacher-learners who have very diverse reasons for enrollment. Such factors and reasons included some expected set of rationales such as (1) job prospects in diverse teaching settings (teaching in the U.S. or international contexts and teaching as a professional border-crossing activity), (2) institutional factors (convenience and practicality, familiarity, institutional reputation, programmatic reputation and academic rigor, the practicum experience, program duration, cost of attendance, degrees and credentials, and other factors), (3) interest in personal and professional development (interest in languages, opportunity for cultural and linguistic development, relating to past and present teaching experience, desire for learning to teach, and career advancement), (4) professional context-driven factors (the need for ESOL training for mainstream teachers and partnerships with County public schools in the area). The diversity of teacher-learners' orientations when entering into the programs also included some unexpected underpinnings related to working with ESOL populations. While I anticipated that teacher-learners would have a strong interest in working with ESOL populations, I was surprised to discover that, for several teacher-learners who participated in this study, their interest also had a social justice and diversity orientation. These teacher-learners recognized the importance of working with ethnolinguistically diverse language learners, and towards greater social justice in education. More interestingly, teacher-learners had a

unique set of combinations, which makes manifest the notion of a diversity of teacher-learner orientations when entering into their programs.

From the perspective of Activity Theory, the multiplicity of orientations of teacher learners has tremendous importance for sustainable operation of the current activity system under the purview of the present study. An Activity System lens conceptualizes human cognition, behavior, and development in an activity system, which is characterized as an object-oriented, artifact-mediated, and collectively organized structure. This conceptualization necessitates understanding *object(s)* that *subjects* bring to the activity system. It also necessitates understanding *subjects'* dialogic relationship with institutional *objects* throughout their program. Finally, it necessitates understanding of *subjects* and the processes of (re-)construction and (re-)negotiation of *mediational tools* with respect to the dialogic relationship between their personal and institutional objects. To be more specific, understanding teacher-learners' points of departure has a tremendous importance and influence on the re-distribution and re-interpretation of *division of labor* and *mediational tools* that shape programmatic efforts. Therefore, first and foremost, understanding and embracing the diversity of teacher-learner orientations serves as a reference tool for understanding the profile of teacher-learners choosing these programs. More importantly, such an understanding will inform diversification of programmatic efforts that would further enhance teacher-learning in and beyond these programs.

The research results presented in this chapter also focused on the post-program aims of current and graduated teacher-learners in the present study. The discussion regarding the contextual aims of teacher-learners revealed three important themes

including (a) the diversity of orientations in terms of post-program aims, (b) emphasis on dynamism of change, and (c) the correspondence between individual and organizational objectives. Understanding post-program aims of teacher-learners poses a remarkable importance in terms of reshaping programmatic efforts.

Research results indicated vertical and horizontal diversity in terms of post-program aims of the teacher-learners in the programs offered by the TESOL Unit. More specifically, both current and graduated teacher-learners indicated their interest in joining the educational workforces in a range of educational contexts in the United States and beyond (i.e. horizontal diversity). Teacher-learners also expressed their interest in working at different levels and with individuals with varying age and proficiency levels (i.e. vertical diversity). Seen together with personal and professional histories of teacher-learners, the horizontal and vertical diversities serve as important points of reflection in evaluating programmatic efforts provided by the TESOL Unit.

The interesting picture of participants' post-program interests in working in horizontally and vertically diverse teaching settings became even more interesting through the realization of the dynamic change happening in teacher-learners' aims. The changes in terms of contextual post-program aims of teacher-learners at the beginning of their programs, and at certain points in their programs (for the current teacher-learners group) and at the time of exiting (for the graduated teacher-learners group) have been reported. When examined more closely, it was found out that the change happened both within and across different categories. Overall figures indicated that while teacher-learners belonging to *international contexts* and *undecided* categories shrank over time, *teaching in the U.S.* and *both contexts* categories expanded. Observing the variation in

terms of post-program aims was very interesting as they were directly relevant to programmatic- and individual-level efforts, initiatives and practices from the perspectives of teacher-learners and instructional faculty.

The discussion focusing on the post-program aims of teacher-learners also included the notion of the correspondence between individual and organizational objectives. The research results indicated that only 40% of current teacher-learners and 63% of graduated teacher-learners who were enrolled in the programs that had an institutional objective of preparing teachers for the U.S. context actually had the intention to work only in the U.S. context. The remainder of the teacher-learners entered into these two programs with intentions to work solely in international settings, or both in international and U.S. contexts. This was an important finding in terms of suggesting that post-program aims of teacher-learners actually transcended the organizational parameters set by the programs in which they enrolled.

From the perspective of Activity Theory, the realization of both diversity of post-program aims and their dynamism have important implications with respect to agency and investment both at individual and organizational levels. At the individual level, it is important to focus on teacher-learners' interactions and negotiations with mediational tools and other personal-driven efforts to achieve the overall object(ive)s. At the organizational level, this afforded a lens to compare and contrast institutional object(ive)s of the programs offered by the Unit with teacher-learners' individual objectives. More interestingly, in-depth interviews with teacher-learners also revealed cases where programmatic efforts spearheaded the change of the individual object(ive)s of teacher-learners.

Having presented the plethora of orientations that teacher-learners had when entering into their respective programs as well as the vertical and horizontal diversity of post-program aims that are dynamically changing, the findings shared here also included teacher-learners' perceived confidence and preparedness levels in their teaching tasks in diverse teaching settings. The data analysis showed that teacher-learners consistently reported greater perceived preparedness and confidence levels when working with ELLs from a range of teaching settings, proficiency levels, and age groups in the U.S. context. Therefore, it needs to be acknowledged that the institutional aims of the programs offered by the TESOL Unit are currently met more successfully for K-12 U.S. preparation, from the lens of current and graduated teacher-learners in the program.

The last section in this chapter discussed programmatic components and efforts in preparing teacher-learners for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts. Adopting Activity Theory analysis as a theoretical lens to analyze the interactions within and among systemic components, and contradictions in the activity system, the discussion provided an in-depth appreciation of the complex inter-relationships among stakeholders, and demonstrated that efforts originate from and transcend beyond the scope of the current activity in terms of time and space. The omnitemporal quality of teacher education creates a space where present programmatic efforts are not only built upon teacher-learners' existing knowledge, past experiences and predispositions about teaching, learning, and schooling, but also establishes connections to future activity systems.

A closer look at interactions within and among systemic components in the activity system under scrutiny afforded a deeper understanding of the activity system and

its operation in preparing teacher-learners for diverse teaching settings. Diversity has been recognized as a distinguishing characteristic of teacher-learner population in the programs offered by the TESOL Unit. The student body and profile are diverse in terms of ethnolinguistic background, age, past professional background, enrollment types, level of academic preparation, and years of teaching experience. Diversity was present as well in their target teaching contexts and settings upon graduation, such as academic, non-credit, community-based programs in the U.S. and international contexts, which highlights the importance of individualization and diversification of programmatic efforts. Teacher-learners, or subjects in the activity system, are in constant interaction and dialogue with instructional faculty in the program, who are characterized as a group of very dedicated and flexible professionals who bring a wealth of field experience and technical knowledge.

Teacher-learners viewed the coursework as a mediational tool serving an array of functions, such as mediating between theory and practice, emphasizing social justice and multilingualism, creating opportunities to connect to their future activities, and enriching the knowledge base through the affordance of various teaching skills and competencies. Teacher-learners constructed coursework as a mediational tool as a package that includes various aspects, such as readings, assignments, in-class discussions, in- and out-of-class interactions, and developing a community of practice.

Instructional faculty members have a great importance in the present activity system, as they are characterized as important stakeholders who are often primarily responsible for the successful operation of the organizational structure, and fostering the attainment of the program's mission of ensuring, teacher-learner development for diverse

teaching settings. While the construction of programmatic efforts in SLTE programs derive from a range of academic, organizational, and programmatic sources, the instructional faculty are primarily responsible for enacting the programmatic efforts. They were not only seen as mediators or representatives of programmatic *object(ives)*, ideals, and efforts, but also as professionals with past histories, training, areas of expertise, experiences, and personal and professional dispositions regarding the nature of language learning, teaching, and teacher education. Therefore, interview results suggested that their construction of *mediational tools* were affected by these aspects: their “expertise,” “experience,” “personal/professional interest,” and “comfort level (with the subject matter)” as well as their teacher-learners in their classes.

In an Activity Theory framework, *rules* define, mediate, and organize the instructions among systemic components, *subjects*, and members of the community, and regulate the *division of labor*, which ultimately affects the attainment of the overarching *object(ive)* of the activity. Therefore, the activity can take the shape of promoting or constraining forces. The *rules* in the current activity are shaped by the academic rules of the university, program requirements determined in negotiation with the College administration and graduate schools, requirements mandated by the State for those programs leading to State-wide certifications and for programs to be approved by the State Department of Education, and finally, accreditation requirements such as NCATE/TESOL Pre-K12 ESOL program standards. Several teacher-learners indicated that *rules* governing the present shape of the programmatic efforts do not fully acknowledge the notion of diverse teaching settings, and therefore constrain the scope of the programmatic efforts provided by the TESOL Unit.

Since one of the underlying motivations of the present study was to identify the contradictions embedded in the activity system under investigation, and contradictions are regarded as primary driving forces ensuring expansion, development, and growth in a given activity system, a considerable effort has been devoted to reveal contradictions within and among the systemic components of an individual activity system, and between adjacent activity systems.

As mentioned earlier, only 40% of current teacher-learners and 63% of graduated teacher-learners who were enrolled in the programs that had an institutional objective of preparing teachers for the U.S. context actually had the intention to work only in the U.S. context. The remaining teacher-learners entered into these two programs with intentions to work solely in international settings, or both in international and U.S. contexts. This indicates a dissonance between individual and institutional *object(ive)s* and reveals that post-programmatic aims of teacher-learners in U.S. context-oriented programs are more diverse than the institutional parameters.

Moreover, the mission statement of the TESOL Unit placed a considerable emphasis on providing teacher-learners with skills and competencies of second language education so that they could successfully adapt methods, materials and curricula to a variety of culturally and linguistically diverse settings in the U.S. and abroad. In addition to serving as a formulation of the program's efforts, it also serves as a point of discussion regarding the extent to which programmatic efforts of the Unit are aligned with this formulation.

Teacher-learners' views on the Unit's mission statements and its emphasis on preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings were viewed in three different categories.

In general, teacher-learners believed that the programs offered by the Unit were geared towards the U.S. context and did not adequately address issues beyond the U.S. context, but programmatic efforts did place varying degrees of emphasis on skills and competencies that could be transferable across contexts. When current and graduated teacher-learners were asked to identify the context(s) that the program that they were enrolled in or graduated from were geared to preparing them for, an overwhelming majority of teacher-learners indicated the U.S. context.

Therefore, current and graduated teacher-learners argued that the programs' strengths at the time the study was conducted lay within the U.S. K-12 level preparation. Having recognized this strength, teacher-learners also acknowledged the programmatic efforts, which needed further attention such as working with speakers of World Englishes in the public schools, push-in/plug-in models, co-teaching, and collaborations with mainstream teachers. When seen in tandem with participants' diverse post-program aims, this result underlined an important perceived contradiction between individual aims and programmatic objectives and efforts. Teacher-learners also highlighted the limited scope of programmatic efforts, and, more specifically, a discussion of the concepts such as working with culturally, ethnically and linguistically diverse populations and contexts in non-public school settings in the State. Their discussions were primarily limited to K-12 settings in the U.S. context, which narrowed the possible scope of teacher-learners' knowledge-base.

Several participants in the ShortCert program also pointed out an imbalance between elementary and secondary settings in terms of programmatic efforts, and felt that/perceived/argued that programmatic efforts placed greater emphasis on secondary

settings, as manifested in the organizational structure within the programs and coursework. More specifically, ShortCert program participants stated that there was a lack of elementary development courses specifically addressing elementary levels, and cited the structural reason that they were paired up with secondary ShortCert students in social events and gatherings, and courses such as action research.

The emphasis on the U.S. context recognized by both current and graduated teacher-learners influenced a few teacher-learners to change their contextual aims upon graduation. This notion of a change in teacher-learners' goals spearheaded by programmatic efforts is particularly important in terms of understanding the dynamic relationship between individual objectives and programmatic efforts. It challenges our conception of post-program aims and leads us to think them as a dynamic construct. Another implication of the emphasis on the U.S. context, and the dissonance within institutional *object(ive)s* in terms of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings in the United States and international contexts, is the idea of inadequate preparation of teacher-learners for international contexts. When combined with the emphasis on preparation for the U.S. context through prioritization by means of certification and accreditation requirements, the challenge to meet the needs of diverse teacher-learners in the class, and existing challenges in terms of resources and staffing, teacher preparation for international contexts became more difficult than ever. Despite the fact that teacher-learners felt prepared to handle the challenges of multicultural US public schools, and also implement and adapt their knowledge for foreign language contexts, they recognized the importance of a more conscious and concrete focus and emphasis on teacher preparation and programmatic efforts for international contexts.

As a result, a lack of sufficient resources and inefficient utilization of existing resources were partly responsible for programmatic efforts that equipped teacher-learners with skills and competencies to work in primarily U.S. K-12 teaching settings. Consequently, this picture may have been interpreted by teacher-learners as marginalization of non-US contexts, and contributed to the perception of some teacher-learners that there was professional and cultural divide in the program.

An integral aspect of programmatic efforts fell into the category of practicum experience, which primarily aimed to contribute to the development of skills, knowledge, predispositions and competencies to work effectively with their ELLs, and served as an intermediary activity between teacher-learners' primary activity (i.e. SLTE programs) and future activity (i.e. teaching in a public school setting in the State). This was particularly crucial in making a significant contribution to participants' emergence and socialization processes as ESOL professionals.

While the ShortCert program and LongCert programs offered K-12 level teaching practicum experiences for teacher-learners in varying lengths and forms, the NonCert program students lacked this opportunity. Therefore, the absence of a teaching practicum meant the absence of an important set of experiences in the knowledge base of teacher educators in the non-certification program. More specifically, this created an inability to access to and benefit from the practicum as a *mediational tool*, and consequently hindered subjects' attainment of the individual and institutional *object(ive)s* in the activity system. More significantly, it created a "domino effect" primarily for non-certification students who were deprived of this experience and any other type of first-

hand experience or mediational tools (e.g. action research, mentoring, observation, teaching) associated with the process.

While the absence of a practicum *per se* created a contradiction in terms of attaining the *object(ive)s* of the activity system, the presence of a practicum did not necessarily mean contradiction-free operation for ShortCert students. Even though the ShortCert program participants had both a practicum component and action research attached to their experience, there was a widely reported tension between the organizational structure of the program and the design of the action research experience. The split internship requirement due to K-12 ESOL certification for the ShortCert program participants placed teacher-learners in elementary and secondary settings throughout the year. However, by the time teacher-learners familiarized themselves with their local teaching setting, developed their research questions, and formulated their research tools and plans, they moved on to another setting where they encountered a whole new set of issues and dynamics. In addition, according to many teacher-learners, the Action Research courses were taught by non-TESOL faculty who might be neither thoroughly informed about the trends and issues pertinent to ESOL education, nor about the organizational challenges that the TESOL cohort faced, such as the split internship. Despite their challenges with action research and the split internship, TESOL ShortCert program participants were held accountable to the same assessment standards and expectations as compared to their counterparts in other content-area programs such as elementary or secondary education. Finally, the rules of the adjacent activity (i.e. the public school system) inhibited the successful operation of the Action Research courses. Preparations for and the implementation of high stakes testing at local public schools

interfered with teacher-learners' action research efforts, which reached their momentum in the Spring semester. However, on top of the aforementioned challenges, teacher-learners found themselves working against school-wide allocation of time, resources, and energy geared towards the high-stakes standardized testing.

Paradoxical as it may seem, while the practicum was an integral component of the programmatic efforts, the TESOL Unit's control of, influence and involvement in the school-based practicum experience was somewhat restricted. This picture is not unique to the TESOL Unit, since the implementation of the practicum was run by County public schools, whose systemic components such as *rules*, *division of labor*, *object*, *subject*, *community* and *mediational tools* were defined by its local dynamics. In this complex picture, teacher-learners held the Unit administration accountable for providing an effective practicum experience and resolving any contradictions emerging in their practicum experience. Teacher-learners indicated a series of issues attached to the mentoring process, including a more robust mentor selection and training process, defining the roles of the mentors, the need for a shared vision between mentors and mentees, the influence of high-stakes testing influencing the mentoring process, and the importance of establishing a communication channel between the University and the Schools.

In addition, the diversity of participants in terms of background, reason for enrollment and aims upon graduation highlighted the necessity of diversification of programmatic efforts for the diverse activity systems that teacher-learners planned to join. Building upon this premise, teacher-learners identified the areas that their internship experiences did not fully encompass, such as push-in/plug-in models, co-teaching,

collaborations with mainstream teachers, and working with adult ESOL students. These aspects, including many others, need to be carefully integrated into the knowledge base of second language teachers in their practicum and other programmatic experiences. That being said, I acknowledge the practical difficulty of diversifying the experiences of teacher-learners by integrating these aspects. I also acknowledge that the diversification of experience necessitates a greater allocation of time, energy, and resources. However, I argue that a broad range of post-programmatic aims of teacher-learners and a diverse set of skills and competencies required for ESOL teachers in diverse teaching settings attest to the need for diversification of teacher education efforts in MATESOL programs.

As demonstrated before, contradictions in the present activity system breed new contradictions, resulting in a domino effect. However, a closer examination of the contradictions revealed cases and contexts when contradictions actually created new learning opportunities for teacher-learners. The learning opportunities that teacher-learners gained that they might otherwise not have had in the present activity system included increased responsibilities, chances to observe local realities, and engaging in advocacy practices. Despite the fact that these opportunities were unforeseen and unstructured, they nevertheless served as points of growth for teacher-learners in the study.

In conclusion, the present chapter shed an important and multifaceted light on the present state of the research context, discussed developmental forces and influences over time, and explicated interactions within and among systemic components and contradictions in the activity system. The next chapter will recommend solutions for the

contradictions in the activity system, and suggest future directions both at micro (within the scope of the TESOL Unit) and macro levels (in SLTE programs).

CHAPTER 6 – CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The TESOL discipline likewise needs to be re-visioned and reshaped to fit an increasingly globalized world... Our disciplinary goal should be the more urgent task of finding situated, dialogic ways of teaching and learning English for relatively constraint-free understanding and communication among people coming from very different locations (both geographical and social) and with very different sociocultural experiences...expand[ing] its traditional technicalized goals to include equally important concerns about how to value linguistic and cultural diversity and promote social justice as English spreads (often as the dominant language) to different parts of the world.

— Lin *et al.* (2004, p. 501)

6.1. Introduction

This chapter presents conclusions, suggestions, and future directions regarding the preparation of teacher-learners for diverse teaching settings in three master's in TESOL programs housed within the TESOL Unit studied here. The current chapter opens with a brief overview of efforts and suggestions to resolve contradictions in the Activity System of the three master's in TESOL programs under scrutiny in the present study. The discussion is then followed by theoretical and methodological reflections on Activity Theory analysis, and concludes with a presentation of future directions at the intersection of policy and research levels, as well as presenting a brief conclusion of the entire study.

6.2. Efforts and Suggestions to Resolve Contradictions in the Activity System

The contradictions that exist within individuals' minds and intentions, as well as in organizational and cultural structures, serve as *sine qua non* transformative driving forces of change and development in any activity system. This unique quality of the Activity System distinguishes itself from a deficit view of the Activity by bringing a positive spin to the negative notion of contradiction, and spearheads transformative solutions to the contradictions in the activity. This view underscores the importance of

the activity system as a “complex formation in which equilibrium is an exception and tensions, disturbances, and local innovations are the rule and the engine of change” (Cole & Engeström, 1993, p. 8). Therefore, a deeper investigation of any activity system has the internal motive of examining the reciprocal and dynamic relations among systemic components, unearthing contradictions at individual and systemic levels, and generating efforts to resolve contradictions through a non-linear process of participation that emerges from both within and outside of the activity system and more importantly “for” the activity system. Ultimately, this dynamic process leads to a transformation of the activity system through collective reconceptualization and reconstruction of socially mediated practices, tools, rules, and underlying ecological dynamics that will promote more personal and systemic efforts in attaining the objective of the activity system.

The discussion up to this point has been confined to delineating the complex and dynamic relations among systemic components, and tracing individual and systemic contradictions within and beyond the activity system. Therefore, the present section will take this discussion further by presenting a multi-voiced and multifaceted discussion with an ultimate intention to resolve discrepancies that emerge from the activity system. Along the philosophical lines of Kramsch’s (1993) “contact zone” and Gutiérrez, Rymes and Larson’s (1995) “third space,” this multiplicity of perspectives phenomenon was highly valued by Engeström (1991) who argued that “the re-orchestration of the multiple voices is dramatically facilitated when the different voices are seen against their historical background, as layers in a pool of complementary competencies within the activity system” (p. 14-15). This idea of “re-orchestration of the multiple voices” will be the

essence of the discussion in this section, and forms the basis of a number of suggestions that emerge from the present research.

The analysis in previous chapters describes teacher preparation for diverse teaching settings in three master's programs offered by a TESOL Unit and brings together three categories: (1) diversification and dynamic re-orchestration of programmatic efforts, (2) reimagining distributed agency, and (3) an increased need for developing practicum alternatives. The activity system analysis used here has shown the interrelated nature of the relationship among these threads, and their various manifestations in accordance with individual perspectives and organizational structures. Notwithstanding their linear presentation, these aspects are highly interdependent, and they should not be viewed as mutually exclusive categories.

6.1.1. Diversification and Dynamic Re-orchestration of Programmatic Efforts

One of the important highlights of the present study is a wider recognition of the heterogeneity of the current and graduated teacher-learners who bring a range of identities, orientations (both at the time of entering, during, and after graduating from their respective programs), and post-program aims. Recognizing such a plethora of orientations was important for several reasons: First, it is absolutely important to acknowledge and embrace the complex and multifaceted image of the MATESOL student. It is accepted that behind any pedagogical decision is an image of prototypical students, also known as imagined audience, which embodies a set of assumptions regarding the profile of students, such as their background, their (lack of) knowledge, their needs and their ultimate aim upon graduation (Matsuda, 2006). This study was

important in terms of demonstrating that MATESOL students are not monolithic, and neither are their (sometimes conflicting) perspectives on how teacher education for diverse teaching settings should look. Second, it is also important in terms of understanding the multiplicity of factors and reasons behind teacher-learners' rationale for enrolling in their respective programs, as well as what they would like to attain from their programs. When seen in tandem, the multifaceted picture of MATESOL students, their diverse orientations for enrolling in their programs, and their professional aims upon graduation, necessitate diversification and dynamic re-orchestration of programmatic efforts.

From an Activity Theory standpoint, the multiplicity of orientations for enrollment and the dialogic relationship between multitudes of individual and institutional objectives have a critical importance in the sustainable operation of the current activity system. Therefore, in an object-oriented, artifact-mediated and collectively organized structure, understanding *objects* that individuals bring to the activity system of their teacher education programs, and the subsequent processes of (re-)constructing and (re-)negotiating such *objects* with respect to institutional *objects* serve as the essence of continuous operation of the activity for teacher-learners and transformation and re-definition of the notion of *object*. This process of transformation or dynamic treatment of institutional *objects* has a prominence in terms of influencing the re-distribution and re-interpretation of tasks, roles and mediational tools that shape programmatic efforts.

The realization of multiple individual and institutionalized objectives in the present Activity System translates into two main possibilities for the TESOL Unit or any

other teacher education program with similar concerns, characteristics and issues: streamlining and diversifying. The former (streamlining) refers to re-construction and re-designing the Activity System by moving towards a paradigm of specialization through a limited set of objects. On the other hand, the latter (diversification) acknowledges a multiplicity of objects in the System and broadens programmatic efforts by providing more customized options for teacher-learners (such as preparation for EFL contexts, teaching adults at post-secondary levels, working with World Englishes speakers, and teaching young learners at pre-K levels). Considering the presence of a wide range of objects in the present Activity, it is my own preference and contention that a path towards diversification stands out as a more challenging yet rewarding path for the TESOL Unit. Borrowing Robert Frost's famous lines, the diversification option is probably "the road less traveled," but it will "make all the difference" as it embraces a multitude of objects and utilizes this understanding to reshape, reorganize, and re-orchestrate programmatic efforts. More specifically, teacher-learners in the present study highlighted the limited scope of programmatic efforts, in particular the program's narrow definition of the concepts such as working with culturally, ethnically and linguistically diverse populations, and contexts in non-public school settings in the State. Therefore, the diversification of programmatic efforts would need to address these issues and place considerable emphasis on foundational courses in linguistics, formal grammar, and the organization of educational contexts with specific reference to English as a second or foreign language teaching, as well as more practical domains such as the use of literature in language teaching, classroom management practices, and the utilization of instructional technologies in and outside of the classroom. An overarching

recommendation is that the program strive to develop teacher-learners' and teacher educators' background knowledge, provide meaningful opportunities that foster practicality of knowledge, and minimize unnecessary repetition and overlaps.

In addition, it is imperative that the practicum experience provide meaningful opportunities for teacher-learners to develop a richer repertoire of skills and competencies in their knowledge base. Thus, as will be discussed in greater depth later in the present chapter, the absence of a practicum for teacher-learners in the NonCert program stands out as a major gap in the knowledge base by depriving teacher-learners of significant experience focusing on learning to teach, teacher socialization, and establishment of organic and complementary ties between the university-based academic program and the school-based practicum experience. In light of the perspective of many teacher-learners and teacher educators that a practicum experience would benefit teacher-learners, and the exponentially increasing emphasis placed on the vitality of field experience in teacher development (Crookes, 2003; Gebhard, 2009; Richards & Farrell, 2005, 2011) and clinical preparation (NCATE, 2010), it is essential for the Unit to develop a practicum experience for teacher-learners in the non-certification program.

While the absence of a practicum experience poses a contradiction for non-certification students, the presence of practicum experience does not necessarily mean contradiction-free operation for certification students. The multiple perspective analysis used in this project revealed (a) the need for a more robust mentoring process and mentor accountability, (2) the necessity to re-examine the current practicum structure to maximize continuity in the practicum experience, and (3) the need to re-shape the practicum experience so as to diversify the knowledge base by providing teacher-learners

opportunities to develop skills and experience such as push-in/plug-in models, co-teaching, collaborations with mainstream teachers, and working with adult ESOL students. Practical implications and opportunities for maximizing the practicum experience in all three Master's in TESOL programs examined here may take diverse forms, generate diverse rewards, and pose diverse challenges.

Teacher development for teacher-learners in the certification programs means developing a knowledge base through coalescing the university-based academic program and field-based teaching experience. Therefore, teacher-learners need tremendous support, guidance and mentoring in this inter-activity development. Results of the present study identified the need for a more robust mentoring process and greater mentor accountability to support teacher-learners. An important step towards a more robust mentoring process is a rigorous selection and training process. Because the Unit's sphere of influence is somewhat limited in the adjacent activity (county public school systems), the reliance on cooperation and collaborations with officials in these systems become utmost importance. Qualities, qualifications, roles, and responsibilities of mentor teachers in the mentoring process should be clearly identified and available to all stakeholders in the activity systems. Establishing closer ties with practicum partners could ensure a more robust, dynamic, and collaborative mentoring process for teacher-learners, where accountability for teacher-development is shared between the University-based academic program and the school-based practicum component.

The perspective of conceptualizing, operationalizing and promoting teacher-learning at the nexus of the practicum and the academic program creates opportunities to learn "about teaching while teaching" (Grudnoff & Tuck, 2003, p.33), and for

praxization, defined as “fostering and sustaining an ongoing dialogical relationship between theory and practice” (Sharkey, 2009, p.125). This perspective is also echoed by Johnson and Golombek (2003) who conceptualized teacher-learning as a construct that “emerges from a process of reshaping existing knowledge, beliefs, and practices” (p.2). This constant reshaping occurs through “the cognitive space between external knowledge (received knowledge and declarative knowledge), the teaching context (local and situated knowledge), and the individual (personal, practical and usable knowledge” (Mann, 2005, p.107). Therefore, some practical implementation of this perspective could include increased communication, interaction, integration, and collaboration among members of the academic program and practicum through meetings, conferences, observations, (online and in-person) discussions, feedback and critical reflection (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Establishment of critical friend groups, defined by Costa and Kallick (1993) as “a trusted person who asks provocative questions, provides data to be examined through another lens, and offers critique of a person’s work as a friend” (p.50), might be another practical alternative fostering closer ties. Learning from each other’s critical perspective and expertise is an efficient and complementary use of expertise for the future of teacher development, as it affords teacher educators with context-specific, practice-oriented perspectives; while simultaneously affording mentor teachers with research-based approaches and in-service development.

Teacher development activities¹² (Richards & Farrell, 2005) at an individual level (self-monitoring, journal writing, critical incidents, teaching portfolios, action research), a one-to-one level (peer coaching, peer observation, critical friendships, action research,

¹² These activities are to be adapted in respect to idiosyncratic needs and dynamics of the local teaching context and individual needs, and could be implemented in varying degrees of forms and capacities.

critical incidents, team teaching), a group-based level (case studies, action research, journal writing, teacher support groups), and at an institutional level (workshops, action research, teacher support groups) could serve as viable developmental practices for not only for teacher-learners but also for mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher educators. Ultimately, teacher-learners working with a cohesive, well-functioning, and collaborative professional development team comprised of University-based and school-based professionals will have wider access to a range of conceptions of teaching and expertise in teaching, developed in their contexts of work (Tsui, 2003).

I surmise that any type of collaboration between academic programs and school-based practica would mean strategic and effective utilization of expertise in a professional learning community (Timperley, 2008), which translates into more informed and conscious professional development practices for teacher-learners. Greater interaction and collaboration in the form of workshops, meetings, and even in teaching (of academic classes) and in mentoring (in field placements) in varying degrees and capacities would provide ample opportunities for the entire professional learning community “where meanings of new knowledge and the implications for practice [are] negotiated with providers and colleagues” (Timperley et al., 2007, p. xlv). This is an important step towards establishing “a professional community that support[s] the new ideas and practice at the same time as it challenge[s] existing ones and focuse[s] on teaching-learning links” (p. xlvi), as well as presenting opportunities for iterative learning for those involved. I argue that finding rigorous, viable, and practical solutions to merge the gap between theory and practice in the service of teacher development is the greatest challenge at the nexus of academic programs and practicum sites. This challenge

can only be resolved by re-conceptualizing the role and involvement of all members in this collaborative partnership as an integral part of the whole, because all parties are accountable for teacher-development and agents of socialization, change, and development in teacher-learners' professional knowledge-base.

As Villers and Mackisack (2011) argue, traditional observation and assessment of teacher-learners by a supervisor from a University-based program, who might have dearth of knowledge about the individual and local teaching-learning context, have a limited effectiveness on teacher development. Similarly, mentor teachers need to recognize their mentees' teaching and learning histories and have extensive knowledge about the academic program, which both academic program and the learning histories do extensively shape attitudinal, dispositional academic skills and understanding that teacher-learners bring to the practicum. This bi-directional informed understanding between academic programs and practicum sites could serve as a foundation to best address teacher-learners' professional socialization and teacher-development needs by creating a more customized and complementary field experience. This perspective of organizing mentoring activities and the practicum process (a) establishes organic ties with the academic program and extends and expands teacher-learning; (b) acknowledges and builds upon teacher-learners' prior teaching, learning, and professional development experiences; (c) creates domains that can be addressed both in the academic program and in practicum sites; and (d) serves as a meaningful context for praxization of knowledge for teacher-learners. This line of thinking and organization is historically aligned with the emphasis placed on life experiences by Aristotle and Socrates (any citations?), and more recently in the educational realm by Dewey (1938), who argued that "the beginning of

instruction shall be made with the experience learners already have...this experience and the capacities that have been developed during its course provide the starting point for all further learning” (p. 74).

Another interesting and large-scale alternative to establish a professional development, experimentation, and an educational research ground for teacher-learners, mentors, supervisors, and teacher educators is the idea of laboratory schools (also referred to as demonstration schools, campus schools, or model schools). Inspired by John Dewey’s laboratory school at the University of Chicago established in 1896 (Hirsch, 2009), laboratory schools are “commonly affiliated with an institution of higher learning in order to gain access to university-wide resources” (Rachmajanti & McClure, 2011, p.12), and serve as a teaching-learning site grounded in progressive and experiential education, and collaborative and reflexive emphasis orientation to teacher development and educational research for various fields of education. Today, laboratory schools are found in many institutions of higher education in the U.S. (University of Chicago, Columbia University, University of Pittsburgh, Syracuse University, Carnegie Mellon University, Florida State University, and several others), in Canada (University of Toronto, University of Western Ontario, and others) and in different parts of the world (Labourschule Bielefeld in Bielefeld, Germany, and Jordanhill School in Glasgow, Scotland and several others). Despite the fact that it takes considerable financial and material resources, once it is established, a lab school could afford unique relationships with University-based programs, complement the academic program by field experience, and maintains a professional ground for teacher development, pedagogical experimentation and educational research. That being said, lab schools have diminished

popularity due to their financial burden on the universities, the difficulty of collaboration, and other liability issues such as lack of certified teachers, standardized testing, and curriculum. Therefore, many teacher education programs are moving towards a PDS (Professional Development Schools) model.

Under current circumstances in the present study, more symbiotic operation of the primary (teacher education program) and adjacent (practicum) activity systems needs to be established since they share an overarching aim of teacher development. Closer connections would afford a bi-directional communication channel, through which the academic programs and practicum establish an organic relationship that will secure the most optimal condition of mentoring operations for teacher-learners. Ultimately, collaborative practices will serve as the foundation on which a clear understanding of the division of labor among stakeholders, more rigorous mentor selection and training, and a shared vision between mentees and mentors are built. This bi-directionality could take different forms such as developing awareness and insights into efforts and practices in respective activity systems through meetings, exchange of artifacts, visits, workshops, and collaborating on teacher development activities (Richards & Farrell, 2005) reviewed earlier, and by taking more active roles in teacher-learner development in the academic program and in field-experiences through team-teaching, visits, observations, conferences. An informed understanding about the activity systems (teacher development in University-based programs and school-based experience) could serve as important feedback to align the instruction, complement teacher development efforts, and provide a more cohesive set of experiences for teacher-learners.

Challenges facing mentor teachers in the schools need to be carefully identified and minimized. School administrations should play a more active role in sharing the cost of mentoring, and lessening the workload of mentors. In the era of increased workloads and budget cutting, it is imperative to develop creative ways to enhance mentoring and practicum experiences. University-based academic programs could initiate research and professional development partnerships with school administrations and personnel to better understand local challenges and collectively develop practical solutions that respond to the existing challenges. While some of these creative approaches are bottom-up, these efforts should be complemented by top-down efforts. More specifically, education policy makers and administrators need to acknowledge the vitality of teacher quality and effectiveness as the single most important variable determining the success of any student (Sanders, 1998; Rice, 2003). Therefore, recognizing the complexity of the issue and adopting policies associated with enhanced mentoring and practicum processes should be given extra emphasis to develop, prepare and retain high quality teachers to better cater to the needs of ELLs.

When mentoring means an extra burden on the shoulders of mentors, it becomes a no-win situation in which mentors may neither fulfill their teaching duties properly, nor their mentoring and administrative responsibilities adequately. In other words, before expecting a heightened sense of investment on the part of mentor teachers, conditions for effective mentoring such as establishment of supportive environment, availability of resources to mentor teachers and mentees, positive recognition of mentoring for mentees and mentors' professional careers, and continuous support, training and communication between academic programs and mentor teachers. More importantly, challenges and

contradictions inherent in the practicum sites, including high stakes testing contradicting the mentoring process and the excruciating workload of mentors could be collectively resolved through creative maneuvering and generation of local solutions.

The necessity to re-examine the current practicum structure to maximize the continuity of the practicum experience has stood out more specifically in respect to action research, which, as a mediational tool, clashes with the organizational structure of the practicum for LongCert and ShortCert programs at various capacities. A total of 8-week internships at elementary and secondary levels in the Spring semesters do not necessarily allow enough time to conceptualize, construct, implement, and reflect on an action research project for teacher-learners in the LongCert program. On the other hand, teacher-learners in the ShortCert program do not necessarily benefit from the idea of practicing evidence-based decision-making and improvement of educational practice through critical implementation, examination and interpretation of field-driven research. By the time teacher-learners familiarize themselves with their teaching setting, contextualize their research, generate research questions, and conceptualize their research tools, they move into a new teaching setting, which basically nullifies their semester-long efforts which belong to a completely different teaching setting with its own idiosyncratic needs, issues, aims, dynamics, and parameters. In order to overcome these challenges, comprehensive and multi-level changes need to be implemented. Most importantly, the present structure of the action research described above and expectations from TESOL cohort need to be revised in collaboration with the TESOL Unit, ShortCert office, mentor teachers, and teacher-learners. It is obvious that the action research in the year-long split internship model does not work in the most effective manner possible. Since action

research is conceptually a “local, action-oriented approaches of investigation and applying small-scale theorizing to specific problems in particular situations” (Berg, 2004, p. 196), teacher-learners might engage in smaller-scale projects in each placement, namely elementary or secondary levels. Although this might inevitably mean less time devoted to investigation and implementation of personal theorization to local issues, this potential problem might be overcome with more active involvement, guidance and scaffolding by mentor teachers, who are extensively familiar with the local teaching context. While, on one hand, more collaboration between teacher-learners and mentor teachers promotes dialogue, intensifies collective action, and exchanges expertise, on the other hand, it might promote agency and ensure greater shared accountability on the part of mentor teachers. In addition, considering their comprehensive grasp of the TESOL field as well as understanding of the organizational challenges associated with the present structure of the action research course, teacher educators in the TESOL Unit might offer a specific section to only TESOL ShortCert program participants, which takes into account the challenges of the split internship. Finally, these suggested changes in the action research course structure, spearheaded by the aforementioned organizational challenges, should be reflected in the action research course and assessment expectations and guidelines for TESOL cohort.

Under current circumstances, a dynamic re-orchestration of programmatic efforts is required to eradicate contradictions that do not provide opportunities for field-driven teacher-learning, socialization, and professional development for teacher-learners in the non-certification program, as well as those contradictions that result in less efficiently functioning program components for teacher-learners in the LongCert and ShortCert

programs. The TESOL Unit administration needs to develop an active feedback mechanism through which they can develop an emic perspective of issues embedded in its programs. Furthermore, the TESOL Unit administration also needs to work closely with practicum partners (mentor teachers, school principals, and other officials) and *rules* (of the adjacent activity – public school system) that organize the operation of the school-based teacher development site. A clear understanding of challenges and contradictions in teacher development reviewed in the present study is an essential prerequisite to a change towards a more sustained teacher education for diverse teaching settings, which can only be realized through stakeholders' (teacher educators, supervisors, mentor teachers, school administration and teacher-learners) active collaborative investment in each activity.

6.2.2. Reimagining Distributed Agency

Another layer of diversification and dynamic re-orchestration of mediational tools stems from negotiation of mediational tools and dialogue between teacher-learners and teacher educators, which can only be attained through reimagined agency distributed through time, space and stakeholders constituting the Activity of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings. From a conventional and linear conceptualization of teacher education, the roles of both teacher-learners and teacher educators are rather fixed: Teacher educators are traditionally conceptualized as the ultimate sources and transmitters of the knowledge in a linear fashion. Therefore, they are primarily responsible for organizational structure, and creation and operation of the programmatic efforts aligned with the institutionalized *object(ive)s*. On the other hand, teacher-learners are usually considered to be the receivers and clients of the knowledge transmitted by teacher educators through linearly conceptualized mediational tools. Therefore, they are

not seen responsible for organizational structure, nor creation and operation of the programmatic efforts, and they usually hold teacher educators and academic program responsible for their preparation as teachers.

What is suggested here is a re-imagination of the roles of the stakeholders in the diversification in terms of co-construction and implementation of the programmatic efforts. Negotiation of mediational tools and dialogue primarily between teacher-learners and teacher educators lies at the heart of this notion of re-imagination. Developing collective suggestions to achieve these goals (developing a mechanism to understand teacher-learners' post-program goals, using these goals in shaping curriculum and specific courses, developing new elective courses addressing teacher-learners' needs and interests, such as more focused methods class, a course on educational settings in the U.S. and international contexts, courses that specifically target teaching at certain levels and in certain contexts, equipping teacher-learners with a stronger background in more technical aspects such as linguistics, and practicum options, holding workshops or webinars spread throughout the academic year that informally address various pedagogical and professional issues ranging from classroom management techniques to utilization of technology in language classrooms, more participatory advising practices in academic programs and practicum sites (between mentor teachers and teacher-learners, as well as between supervisors and teacher educators and teacher educators and teacher-learners) encouraging teacher-learners to be more responsible for their professional development) should take different forms since the programs offered by the TESOL Unit have their own unique dimensions such as exit requirements, pace, and duration.

Redistribution of accountability (increased investment by teacher educators, supervisors, mentor teachers, administrators and teacher-learners)and co-construction of curricula, mediational tools and programmatic efforts (diversifying efforts by conceptualizing teacher-learning as much more than a series of academic courses through various elective classes, workshops, and webinars; understanding, recognizing and developing diverse teaching settings through various options for course readings, assignments and projects; prioritizing field experience through formal and informal teaching experiences available in all three programs) among all stakeholders (teacher-learners, teacher educators, administrators, supervisors, and mentor teachers) has utmost importance. As we reconceptualize the roles of the stakeholders, we move towards a paradigm of shared accountability and distributed agency. In this scenario, teacher educators are expected to develop more consistent and frequent sources of communication with their teacher-learners so as to better understand their idiosyncratic needs and aims. Teacher educators should work collaboratively with teacher-learners in terms of co-construction of their class readings, workshops, and assignments before the first day of class and throughout the semester, using means such as face-to-face or online meetings, and online survey tools. Similarly, this view of shared construction of *mediational tools* brings a fresh look at the roles of and expectations for teacher-learners , which would now include being an active agent in the whole process of their self-development as emergent professionals, and an expectation that they would contribute to the organizational structure of their classes and program at large through collaboratively working with instructional faculty and program administration.

It should be noted that reimagining distributed agency is a daunting task for everybody, since reconceptualization of the roles that stakeholders play in the context of a second language teacher education program may actually mean problematizing and interrogating deeply ingrained values and conceptualizations that individuals hold in respect to themselves, other stakeholders, and their expectations of academic programs and how teacher education should look. In addition, time associated with preparing and implementing efforts related to promoting distributed agency and incorporating these efforts into sustainable contributions to teacher development practices may stand out as a challenge that need to be carefully addressed and resolved. From this perspective, it is a collectively challenging task that has tremendous potential to diversify programmatic efforts, and increase individual and collective agency towards preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings. Achieving this task necessitates establishment of a secure learning community, where members of the learning community find opportunities for intellectually-stimulating practices in a non-threatening atmosphere.

As teacher-learners take the initiative to change the content of their weekly readings, and the format of their assignments, and thereby make them more relevant for their professional development, they might confront cultural norms such as challenging academic knowledge or authority. The same might hold true when teacher educators receive such requests of modifications from their teacher-learners and might perceive their academic authority to be challenged or problematized. Therefore, such tasks might be viewed as cultural and professional border-crossing for many individuals and need to be done in a context of dialogue and harmony where both teacher-learners and teacher

educators are seen important stakeholders in attainment of a balance between personal and institutional *object(ive)s*.

Having acknowledged the prominence of heightened teacher-learner engagement in construction of programmatic efforts, I recognize the tremendous challenge in translating more comprehensive teacher education perspectives into practical skills for diverse teaching settings. To begin with, teacher-learners may not necessarily have an understanding or experience that would guide them in taking initiatives to work with teacher-educators or mentor teachers to further customize their teacher-learning experiences. Therefore, the ultimate step is to acknowledge that teacher-learners have an agency, which is to be followed by a complementary step, which is creating a context in which they can exercise embrace, exercise and develop their agency. In some cases, even if teacher-learners have the motivation to engage in such customization practices, our personal experiences and anecdotal accounts indicate that they may not know enough about the existing resources and possible directions they might take. I propose a set of possible solutions to overcome this challenge through re-imagining programmatic content and instruction. While teacher educators and teacher-learners have been traditionally positioned in asymmetrical power relations, and subject to the influence of traditionally conceptualized definitions of their roles (in a linear transmission of the teacher education model), this proposed collaboration actually positions them to generate more powerful discourses in which they are defined as situated agents of teacher development. Aligned with the sociocultural-constructivist idea of learning as a guided participation in the sociocultural activity, conceptualizing expertise and agency as situated in a context views learning through active participation and pedagogy as “a task of articulating learning

goals and identifying the forms of doing that promote development toward those goals” (Moscolo, 2009, p.3).

This set of proposed solutions, which should be contextualized with respect to the dynamics of the local context of teacher education programs, include, but are not limited to, (a) creating opportunities where teacher educators and teacher-learners could work collaboratively to co-construct course content (materials, assignments, and instructional practices); (b) as experts in the field, teacher educators should play a more active role in terms of locating supplementary materials and assignments that might promote teacher-learning conducive to teacher-learners’ individualized post-programmatic goals; (c) in cases in which teacher-learners are familiar with the target teaching context, they need to work with teacher educators and inform them about the issues and challenges of their context; (d) encouraging teacher-learners towards co-constructing their appropriated theories and practices (Atkinson, 2010) and developing the pedagogical connections between espoused theories (Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993) and post-programmatic aims; and (e) diversifying teaching and learning experiences available to teacher-learners in their teacher education programs. Ultimately, it is hoped that this model could serve as a viable framework including notions of agency, autonomous learning, critical reflective practices, and empowerment that teacher-learners embed into their professional identities to be used throughout their professional lives as English language teachers.

Next, I will describe examples coming from current and graduated teacher-learners and teacher educators regarding the importance of developing support mechanisms and tools “in” (for graduated teacher-learners) and “for” (for current teacher-learners) teaching contexts that will further extend and expand their knowledge, inform

their decision-making processes, and contribute to their development as ESOL teachers. The discussion will include a presentation of a number of support mechanisms or tools that teacher-learners rely on, including their past teaching experience, colleagues within the activity system, personal networks such as friends and significant others, and professional literature and other resources.

6.2.2.1. Past teaching experience

Past teaching experience as a support mechanism or tool refers to teacher-learners' enactment of their past teaching experience for the purposes of making their existing knowledge more relevant for their desired contextual teaching aims. To be more specific, they created a dialectical relationship between the present (i.e. their ongoing and dynamic knowledge) and the past (i.e. past teaching experience) for the purposes of reaching future (i.e. their professional goals) objectives. This utilization is an embodiment of the omnitemporal quality of teacher education that I discussed earlier. Kenny, a graduated teacher-learner who had previous teaching experience in various parts of the world, and is now teaching in the United States, expressed the importance of his past teaching experience as follows:

It is a little different for me considering that I had a lot of English as a foreign language teaching experience before I started the program. That prepared me in some ways that ShortCert did not. Just being abroad...I mean I taught in [lists the countries], so I know some of the challenges that occur abroad.

Another teacher-learner, Grace, was asked how she recognized the importance of her past teaching experience, she expressed feelings as follows:

I think, too, that my background gave me an edge in some things to be able to talk about certain things, knowing certain things, already having the experience of working with ELLs, even at the college level. I had worked with younger students who were in more in private classes. But I think that experience of having worked with ELLs, the struggle of what it means to teach another language I think was good.

Another time, Grace compared her past experience with that of her classmates and said her previous experience in fact put her in a more advantageous position because the majority of her classmates had no teaching experience.

When I got to elementary school, my background that I had before helped me but I think it is just a different ball game with young children... but I think for secondary I feel very comfortable in elementary but in the lower elementary grades, because I am used to teaching in [in a Latin American Country]. I did 3rd and 4th grade classes and for me, those were very different from kindergarten and very different from than a kid who is 17 or 16. I could think of ideas and think what I could do in the kindergarten. But 3rd and 4th graders, I struggled a bit there and it was in terms of getting to know what is their curriculum, for 3rd and 4th grades, because again we do a lot with English language curriculum and standards but not a lot with what is the curriculum for other grades.

Similarly, Andy who had previous teaching experience in Asia and was interested in teaching in an Asian context upon graduation expressed his feelings as follows:

Researcher: How would you feel if you have not had the experience in [an Asian country]?

Andy: In [the Asian country]? If I had not had the experience there, I think I would be a lot more lost; I think I would be a lot more unprepared. I would also be really unprepared to deal with cultural aspects, because I also learned about indirect communication styles, which was something that I was very vaguely familiar with from my Asian friends whose parents were a little bit more polite and not as direct. I did not realize that there was a whole system of communication behind that. So I feel like that prepares me a lot to deal with the indirect culture, the big power-distance culture. Because in the States, we do not have that huge power distance...So, the whole power distance thing I am familiar with now. I am familiar with how to function in a high power distance culture, ...which is good because that is going to help me a lot. When you run into that

kind of thing again, even though it is always a little bit different, when you are familiar with that kind of culture, it is a lot easier to deal with.

Kenny, Grace, Andy and many other current and graduated teacher-learners viewed the importance of past teaching experience as enhancing their development as emergent teachers even though contexts of past teaching experience and the future activity system were not identical. . Therefore, the teaching experience served as an overarching facilitative tool transcending time and space. Given the importance of past teaching experience to these T-Ls, and the transcendence of teaching experience, I argue that a practicum experience could serve as a powerful development tool and experience for teacher-learners, even if their intended future teaching setting is different from the practicum setting.

6.2.2.2. Colleagues within the Activity System

Dialogue and collaboration with colleagues within the Activity as a support mechanism referred to teacher-learners' utilization of communication and learning channels with other *subjects* within the existing activity system for the purposes of making their existing knowledge more relevant for their desired objectives. This theme, which emerged primarily through conversations and dialogues with graduated teacher-learners, is important for teacher learning, induction and socialization, especially in new teaching contexts.

A graduated teacher-learner who is now teaching at K-12 level in a public school in another state in the United States, Kenny, recognized collaboration with colleagues as a valuable source of developing understanding in the new teaching context. Commenting

on the challenges which primarily stemmed from unfamiliarity with organizational structure of the new activity system, he made these remarks:

For example, if I were to continue teaching in the same school that I interned in, I do not think I would need all this. If I were continuing in the same high school or elementary school, I would not be relying on my co-workers as much. I maybe would not need to be in the co-teaching class I am in. That is the challenge of going to a new context, and I am trying to just better prepare myself for it the best that I can. It is not easy.

Similarly, Lisa, another graduated teacher-learner who finished the certification program and was working in an international context upon graduation, underlined the importance of collaboration and dialogue with other *subjects* who had lengthier engagement in and familiarity with the activity system.

Last year I worked a lot with one of the kindergarten teachers who had been there for a very long time, which helps because she knew the school culture of that particular school. We could meet in the middle of me just coming from a very theoretical background and her having been there for so long. My internship at the University was 1st and 3rd grade and then 9th grade, so pre-K was a little bit younger than I had direct experience in.

Both of these excerpts underscore the importance of “co-workers” or “colleagues” as important resources that help teacher-learners to contextualize their understanding in the new teaching environment, which is organized as a different activity system with its own idiosyncratic *rules, community, division of labor* and *objects*. Later in our discussion, Kenny went back to this issue and made the following remarks:

I have asked as many questions as I can of my co-workers at my new school. I’m constantly asking questions to my co-workers, for example, asking, “What does ABCD stand for?,” an acronym I have not seen before. I say, “Oh, okay, we have something similar in [the State], we just call it this.” I ask questions about the norms of the ESL program in the school, so I have really been using my co-workers in the department as resources.

The importance of this excerpt lies with Kenny's proactive utilization of his co-workers in the department as resources to make better sense of his current activity. In addition, and perhaps more importantly, Kenny's sense-making process built upon the previous activity system he had belonged to in his ShortCert study during which he had one foot in the University-based teacher-education program and the other in an actual professional development site. To be more specific, his utilization of his colleagues is an example of a non-linear learning, and more like what Engeström refers to as "expansive learning." Therefore, his ShortCert program and teaching internship experience served as pillars of his dynamic, growing, fluid and expansive body of knowledge, and acted as a framework defining and organizing the current activity system, where he brought his personal experience as an ESOL teacher to the activity and utilized his colleagues at work to develop and re-organize his working model of understanding.

Another interesting facet of establishing collaborative relationships with colleagues unfolded itself when Lisa creatively utilized such collegial relationships as an important tool to inform her understanding and extend her knowledge about activity systems that were distant to her in terms of time and space. More specifically, as a person who maintained an active relationship with her colleagues within the context of her activity systems at different points in time (her teacher education program, past teaching context, and the context at the time data were collected), it was again her colleagues both within and beyond her activity system that she relied on when an opportunity to teach in another context presented itself.

I asked around to people who had been to China, or people who had any teaching experience in China. I asked if there were anything different I should expect...I have been interacting with the people that I have met in various contexts. Here is what I learned from the [State] context; how can we make it work in [her previous context], with the teachers in that context. I might be “on my own” from the University, but it is not really on my own altogether because there are constantly other professionals to work with. (Lisa)

The profound description of Lisa’s emergence and development as an ESOL teacher in various teaching contexts demonstrated the transcending and transformative characteristic of knowledge and experience evolving through time and space, which further expanded thanks to “other professionals to work with”.

The support systems, mechanisms or tools may also take institutionalized forms as in the case of Kenny, who was going through a professional development and mentoring program as a newly appointed ESOL teacher in his new State. He described the scope and activities of his mentoring program as follows:

In my school district, there is a mentor program and I have a mentor who meets with me once a week to observe and provide feedback and to talk about any challenges I am facing. I have my co-workers and I have courses that are offered by the district. For example, this co-teaching course that I am in right now is offered by the district. I have been taking advantage of these professional opportunities in order to better prepare me for my current context.

This exemplified an organizational form of support for Kenny, who was not only going through a process of induction as a new teacher, but also through a professional acculturation process as a new teacher in a new district.

6.2.2.3. Personal Networks: Friends and Significant Others

The personal relationships of teacher-learners and their network of relationships which included their friends, classmates, and significant others emerged as a viable

complementary tool that paved the way towards a more sustainable object. Interestingly, friends and significant others provided indirect resources to teacher-learners and contributed to their ongoing development.

When she was asked what she had been doing besides and beyond the program to keep herself informed and updated about the teaching context she would like to be a part of upon graduation, Grace immediately mentioned her husband who provided her with access to professional artifacts and materials. Grace she used to live in South America with her husband before coming to the U.S. to join the ShortCert program and had an aspiration to go back to South America to teach or continue to PhD program in the United States. She added that she made an arrangement with her spouse who regularly sends her practitioner-oriented magazines to keep her informed and updated about the recent trends, issues and developments in the South American context where she was planning to return to teach. She also talked about establishing informal contacts with her friends, and commented on a recent visit of her friend from her intended future teaching context in South America to the U.S., and how her friend's visit actually afforded her insights into the recent student protests in this Latin American country:

Recently, a friend of mine from [the country] came for a week-long visit here. I was really able to get up on what's going on in [the country] and...[Grace talks about student protests in the country]. So it is a very interesting phenomenon that is happening [the country], which I have not kept up with on a regular basis, but, got updates from this friend of mine, colleague and friend, and then from my husband.

On a different level, Andy considered himself to be in a fortunate situation since he had teaching experience in Asia, and he had a girlfriend, also an English language teacher, who was born and raised in the teaching context he wanted to join upon graduation.

These factors afford him the opportunity to engage in professional discussions, such as conversations about the organizational structure of education in the country, and more second language teaching specific issues. This idiosyncratic situation put him in a unique situation in which he could build upon his previous teaching experience and future goals, and have discussions with his girlfriend acting as his “cultural/professional informant.”

6.2.2.4. Professional Literature and Other Resources

Professional literature and other resources emerged as other prominent tools that teacher-learners actively utilized to further enhance their knowledge along the process of attaining their object(ive) within their present activity systems, and inform themselves with a foundation of future activities. For instance, Grace regularly received magazines to “keep up a little bit more with what’s happening in the early childhood realm.” Along the same lines, Andy expressed his interest in reading targeted practitioner and research-oriented journal articles to keep him updated about his future context. Moreover, Lisa, who is now teaching at K-12 level in international context, combined her colleagues and instructional artifacts, and relied on “tricks and activities”(personal teaching strategies and instructional activities) that emerged from the actual teaching setting.

We actually have a lot of teaching resources. We are using the core knowledge books. I actually have a lot of really good colleagues this year and we can go to each other for advice on what works and what does not. Tricks and activities that they have used before are helpful.

This was a powerful way of combining individuals and artifacts as viable resources available and generated in the actual teaching setting. Furthermore, when she decided to leave her previous job to accept another one in a completely different part of the world, she relied on her colleagues, as reviewed in the previous section, but she also spent hours

on the Internet gathering extra information about the educational, social, cultural, and geographical characteristics of her then-new activity.

In conclusion, I call for a brand new understanding of the roles and level of engagement of the stakeholders in the Activity System where dynamic collaboration towards co-constructing curriculum, mediational tools, and processes is the ultimate norm. This can only be achieved through promotion of agency, investment, and collaboration, and sharing of accountability. Teacher-learners need to be viewed as legitimate participants in program development, which could be achieved by including their voices in the curricular reforms, and dynamic examination of the operation of the programs. Ultimately, it is hoped that teacher-learners become active agents of their professional development, both within and beyond the scope of their academic programs. Furthermore, the support mechanisms or tools that teacher-learners rely on (including their past teaching experience, colleagues within the activity system, personal networks such as friends and significant others, and professional literature and other resources) need to be activated through mediational tools and processes. This is highly important as these tools further extend and expand teacher-learners' knowledge, inform their decision-making processes, and contribute to their development as ESOL teachers.

6.2.3. Practicum Alternatives for the Non-certification Track

One of the salient contradictions in the current form of the Activity System has been the absence of a practicum for non-certification students. The absence of a practicum experience leads not only to a lack of important teacher-learning, mentoring, and socialization activities unique to the practicum context, but also breeds contradictions and impedes engaging in action research. Equally importantly, it deprives teacher-

learners of praxizing, since the practicum process serves as a teaching context for certification students where teacher-learners bring ideas “from” their academic programs and also generate ideas and reflections “in” their academic programs.

Having recognized the importance of the practicum experience in the development of teacher-learners, both teacher-learners and teacher-educators indicated the pressing need for developing alternatives to resolve the current contradiction of a lack of a practicum experience. The first set of alternatives serving as an alternative to the practicum generates through collaborations with non-profits. The University’s Intensive English program provides English language instruction and assessment opportunities at post-secondary levels for English language learners who wish to develop their English for academic, professional or personal reasons. The broad mission of the Intensive English Program encompasses courses targeted for pre-matriculated and matriculated students, international teaching assistants, and for members of the campus and local community in the form of custom-designed short courses and programs. The program also offers assessment practices such as evaluation of the English language proficiency of prospective and provisionally admitted students and oral communication skills of international teaching assistants. The wide range of opportunities offered by the Intensive English Program might serve as a viable and immediate alternative for non-certification students. This would also further strengthen collaborative practices on the campus. Alternatively, the Unit, with the help of teacher-learners in the program, could develop an initiative of an after-school or weekend English language teaching program for the community. Run collaboratively by teacher-learners and supervised by teacher educators in the program, this initiative would serve as an excellent example of a civic engagement

and service learning program that serves the community while providing meaningful teaching and teacher development opportunities for the teacher-learners in the program. In addition, considering the fact that the University is located in a profoundly culturally and linguistically diverse region of the country, it is expected that the TESOL Unit would establish closer ties with non-profit organizations in the area where non-certification students get teaching experience while serving the community.

Another line of opportunities responds to the need for practical teaching experience of those teacher-learners who are interested in teaching in international contexts. For those who are interested in teaching in international contexts, as well as those teacher-learners who wish to have teaching abroad experience even though they are interested in teaching in the U.S. context, study/teach abroad opportunities might serve as a viable option. Creating teaching opportunities where teacher-learners spend extensive periods of time in different parts of the world and have genuine teaching experiences would not only make overseas teaching experience an organic part of the curriculum, but also further sustain the collaboration and internationalization efforts of the University. In order to minimize logistical and procedural difficulties in this sort of study/teach abroad program, collaborations with already well-established and already-functioning teaching programs¹³ (English Language Fellow by the U.S. State Department, English Teaching Assistantship by the U.S. Fulbright Commission, TaLK – Teach and Learn in Korea, EPIK – English Program in Korea, JET – Japan Exchange and Teaching Program, English Opens Doors by Chilean Ministry of Education, English First Language Schools)

¹³ Some of these programs may have controversial aspects (e.g. citizenship or native speakerism as eligibility requirements) that prevent certain teacher-learners from applying. Nevertheless, they are listed here solely as examples of widely-known, well-established and already-functioning English language teaching programs in different parts of the world.

could be sought and this would serve as a win-win situation for teacher-learners and local educational systems. Furthermore, according to a recent report by American Council of Education (2009), nearly 100 U.S. institutions of higher education have about 200 international branch campuses in different parts of the world (for instance, Temple University and Columbia University Teachers College in Japan, Michigan State University in Dubai, New York University in Abu Dhabi), which might afford interesting partnership possibilities for teacher-learners, and further enrich and extend teacher development practices and opportunities in this age of globalization.

6.3. Theoretical and Methodological Reflections on Activity Theory

Considered to be “the most important legacy of Soviet philosophy and psychology” by Bakhurst (2009, p.197), “Vygotsky’s neglected legacy” by Roth and Lee (2007, p.186), and referred to as “the best kept secret of academia” by Engeström (1993, p. 64), cultural-historical activity theory (CHAT) offers the combination of possibility and flexibility of dialectical and collective conceptualization of the activity, manifested at individual and organizational levels. From this standpoint, it has attracted significant attention from researchers in various fields, and the field of TESOL and applied linguistics are no exceptions. Having utilized Activity Theory analysis as a theoretical framework and methodological interpretative tool, this conclusion chapter provides a space to share the deliberations regarding this perspective. Such deliberations have the intention to “talk back to theory” (Sharkey, 2009, p. 141) and serve as an opportunity for researchers, who have multiple identities in the research context, to “praxize” (Sharkey, 2009, p.126) at a different levels. This effort is also in line with the

notion of “critical self-reflection,” in which I seek and embrace my own reflexivity as a researcher (Creswell, 2002; Kleinsasser, 2000).

From a theoretical perspective, Activity Theory provided a useful interpretative framework within which the interconnected nature of relationships among community members (teacher-learners, teacher educators, mentors and the TESOL Unit) engage in an object-oriented and outcome-driven activity of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings. This dynamic and multifaceted analysis was carried out in light of *mediational tools* (coursework, and practicum), in the present context regulated by *rules* (of the primary and adjacent activities and institutional impositions such as the State’s role or accreditation and certification requirements) and *division of labor* (roles played by community members). Interestingly, the analysis revealed a constant negotiation, re-formulation, re-orchestration, and problematization of the way *subjects’* defined *object*, *division of labor*, and *mediational tools*. As mentioned in the previous chapters, this notion of interconnectedness allowed the analysis to be navigated through different levels and “zoom in” to understand individual learners as they interacted within the activity, and “zoom out” to see the activity (comprised of these individuals and other components) as the unit of analysis. From this standpoint, Activity Theory serves as a powerful descriptive and exploratory lens through which competing conceptualizations of various participants provided a multifaceted picture of the case under scrutiny.

Resting upon “a non-dualistic approach to understanding and transforming human life that takes dialectical human activity as its ontology” (Holzman, 2006, p.6), and conceptualizing knowledge in relation to human activity as linked to its sociocultural context and history (Engeström, 1999; Daniels, 2001; Vygotsky, 1978), Activity Theory

offers important possibilities for the sub-fields of English language teaching, teacher education, program evaluation, and applied linguistics by providing an alternative set of analytical tools. More specifically, Activity Theory provides the theoretical and practical possibility to overcome dichotomous and mutually exclusive dualisms influencing our collective understanding, examination, and construction of the world around us. Utilizing a holistic approach afforded by the notion of activity as the unit of analysis, researchers find themselves in a post-dualist framework where each thread is important and interconnected, especially towards a unity of integration at the activity level. Most importantly, the framework conceptualizes contradictions beyond a deficit framework and identifies them as viable opportunities for growing, thriving, transforming and expanding. Therefore, a constant, dynamic, and multifaceted reflection on the operation of the activity and the resolution and transformation of inner contradictions serve as its *raison d'être*.

6.4. Future Research Directions

The current dissertation research sheds important light on the widespread and pressing need for preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings by adopting a TESOL teacher education department as a research context, and by providing a multifaceted exploration of how program components provide affordances and constraints in developing a knowledge base for native and non-native English-speaking teacher candidates to work effectively with English language learners in diverse teaching contexts. The findings of the present study serve as a guide for diverse avenues of further research opportunities in the field of TESOL, second language teacher education, and program evaluation.

On a more local scale, results of the present study serve as an interventionist guideline for the TESOL Unit by inviting various perspectives of teacher-learners and teacher educators on the current operation of the master's programs towards the attainment of the *object(ive)* of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings. Contradictions and concerns about different aspects of these programs need to be carefully reviewed by teacher educators and administrators in the TESOL Unit, and hopefully will inform the basis of transformative practices and diversification efforts in the very near future of the Unit's programs.

Furthermore, each major thread presented earlier in this chapter (diversification and dynamic re-orchestration of programmatic efforts, reimagining distributed agency, and an increased need for developing practicum alternatives) might serve as interesting possibilities for developing a closer examination of various aspects that have tremendous potential for making a true difference in preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings.

Finally, a cross-case analysis of MATESOL programs housed in different Units , such as the naturalistic inquiry into the cultures of two divergent MATESOL programs by Ramanathan, Davies and Schleppegrell (2001; in this study, a Department of English, a Department of Linguistics, a Unit in a College of Education)), with a focus on the notion of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings as the overarching focus can lead to interesting directions for the future of MATESOL programs and teacher education practices. An investigation like this would lead to a closer understanding of divergent realities afforded by the respective local environments of these programs.

6.5. Future Policy Directions

The acrimonious discourse over teacher education, “at the crosshairs of educational reform and policy mandates,” (Wiseman, 2012, p.87) has created a monumental impetus for teacher education reform and teacher effectiveness, which is stuck in between student performance and issues of accountability. This picture dominates the present and future of the teacher education landscape in the United States. At a time characterized by “unprecedented responsibilities [and] unmet challenges” (NCATE, 2010) when it comes to working with increasingly ethnically, linguistically, economically, racially, and academically diverse student populations, a dramatic transformation of teacher preparation programs has been characterized as the ultimate panacea at the nexus of policy and educational reform.

Research results presented throughout this study have two-fold importance in shaping educational policy: first, they showed the consequences and implications of the overemphasis of these three programs on the U.S. teaching context, which stemmed from pressing top-down forces such as the State’s influence, the notion of accountability to NCATE/TESOL program standards, and accreditation requirements. It also emerged from bottom-up factors related to the availability of resources to the TESOL Unit, such as staffing, professional expertise, and experience of instructional faculty. The presence and influence of these multiple mechanisms translate into the need for more institutionalized acknowledgment of and preparation for contexts and settings beyond the K-12 public school setting in the United States. Second, building upon teacher-learners’ interest in preparation for diverse teaching settings, the present study highlighted the importance

and necessity of expanding and diversifying the scope of the programmatic efforts and development.

Significant improvements and developments at curricular and policy levels lie ahead of MATESOL programs for the purposes of transforming preparation practices for a teacher workforce who will strive to meet the culturally, linguistically and academically diverse needs of ELLs in diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts. These recommendations include (1) more rigorous accountability for preparing ESOL teachers for diverse teachings in the U.S. and international contexts, (2) diversification of programmatic efforts, (3) promotion of distributed agency and partnerships among stakeholders in these programs, (4) greater emphasis on field-based experiences interwoven with academic programs, and (5) community-based professional opportunities to expand the knowledge base of ESOL teachers to encompass effective practices in diverse teaching settings. When we consider the vitality of the TESOL profession, the at-risk status of ELLs in the U.S., and the greater emphasis attached to English language teaching at all levels of the academic curriculum on an international scale, the need to revamp and transform TESOL teacher preparation in light of these recommendations becomes a more pressing task than ever before.

6.6. Limitations

The current study utilizes case study methodology informed by Activity Theory as a theoretical and interpretative lens, as the basis of a multifaceted investigation of three MATESOL programs in preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings. While the results of the present study have their utmost importance and significance within the scope of the research context under investigation, a multifaceted investigation of teacher

preparation for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts would shed light on important issues and ideas that could inform investigative, decision-making, and program evaluation efforts in teacher education programs with similar characteristics, challenges, needs, and educational objectives.

The present study had the overarching aim of developing an in-depth understanding of the current operation of the three MATESOL programs offered by the TESOL Unit in preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and abroad, and therefore it is not intended to be an intervention mechanism. Nevertheless, it is my hope and belief that this study will serve as an important lens (or a multitude of lenses) in the process of re-examining programmatic efforts and further strengthening teacher development efforts for diverse teaching settings offered by the TESOL Unit examined here. Similarly, while the issues, perspectives, and contradictions are contextually situated in the local context of the present study, the study, considering the characteristics of the research problem, significance, participants, issues and solutions, has the potential to serve as a multifaceted investigation tool for MATESOL programs in the United States (and in various parts of the world), and as a springboard for development towards more effective teacher education practices for diverse teaching settings. It is hoped that the overall structure of the problem informing the present study; the comprehensive picture of the Unit depicted in Chapter 4; the in-depth examination of the issues, tensions, and contradictions presented in Chapter 5, coupled with findings and implications in the present chapter, will be treated as integral features in evaluating the ecological generalizability of the suggestions and implication beyond the immediate case. The characteristics of the TESOL Unit (e.g. programmatic aims, ethnolinguistically diverse

student body, organizational structure, curricular organization, issues and challenges), and this study's conceptually dense, in-depth, and multifaceted investigation contribute to generalizability and usefulness of research results and implications for other programs with similar characteristics, and inform the field at large. While preparation for diverse teaching settings in the United States and international contexts is one side of the coin, the other side is actual teaching practices in such diverse settings. Therefore, our quest to prepare teachers for diverse teaching settings needs to be complemented by investigating and theorizing actual teaching practices to inform teacher education practices. From this perspective, the exclusion of actual teaching practices through observations, debriefings, and reflections in the present study is considered both a limitation and a viable line of inquiry in the post-research agenda. Therefore, longitudinal efforts that focus on teacher-learners' engagement in diverse teaching settings, especially in their first years of teaching, are needed to find novel ways and perspectives to inform teacher education efforts.

Finally, the present study neither included the voices of mentor teachers who are seen as an important stakeholder in the process of learning to teach, nor did it include any accounts of observations of teacher-learners teaching in their practicum contexts. The discussions and reflections regarding the mentoring experience were primarily constructed through teacher-learners' perspectives, therefore perspectives about and experiences with mentor teachers were by and large unidimensional. It goes without saying that having a deeper understanding and appreciation of the practicum experiences of teacher-learners, their experiences with mentor teachers, and the dialogic relationship between their academic programs and practicum experiences would lead to very

interesting and fruitful results and paths to better understand the development of a knowledge base to work with ELLs.

6.7. Conclusion

As English continues to be an urgent reality on the educational agenda of both English-speaking and non-English-speaking countries, the need for a high quality, effective teacher force will be more relevant than ever. This unprecedented global need for English language teacher workforce has spearheaded a proliferation of the MATESOL programs in the United States, generated a diversity in terms of teacher-learner population welcomed in these programs, and the contexts that these programs prepare teachers for. A closer examination of these programs and their student population revealed very interesting cases and orientations, and showed that these programs welcome very ethnolinguistically diverse populations who have unique set of reasons for enrollment and a multitude of orientations in terms of target teaching settings and contexts. This complexity suggests the impossibility of making straightforward conclusions about teacher-learners, and underscores the importance of recognizing that the contextual aims of teacher-learners are dynamic and complex entities.

Teacher preparation for diverse teaching settings necessitates adoption and implementation of a complex set of efforts. To begin with, the complex orientations of teacher-learners upon graduation need to be acknowledged as the ultimate basis of programmatic efforts by teacher education programs. Having acknowledged the diversity of departure points and targets, teacher education programs should provide a range of activities that are geared towards the diversification of its efforts, and thereby diversification of the knowledge base of teacher-learners in the program. Thus, the core

of programmatic efforts should be the ongoing emphasis on diversification with an intention and motivation to extend and expand the knowledge base for English language teachers. . In order to achieve this goal, teacher education programs need to have abundance of resources such as competent teacher educators who have a variety of expertise and experiences, a dynamic and comprehensive curriculum, and a wide-range of practical opportunities. Thus, the whole experience of teacher development would mean much more than a series of academic courses: rather, it would also involve opportunities for cultural, linguistic, and pedagogical development of NS and NNS teacher-learners, who are seen as members of a community of practice.

Ultimately, this view of teacher development would result in reconceptualizing the experience of academic programs as an individual and professional transformational experience that involves much more than a survey of academic courses. Ideally such a transformational experience would include practical workshops, invitation of guest speakers on various topics, brown bag series, community service programs, and initiatives where teacher educators, teacher learners and other stakeholders collaboratively work towards an enriched teacher development processes. As a result, efforts towards the attainment of systemic object(ive) will not necessarily be limited to a series of coursework.

Another salient conclusion of the present study is that teacher education is seen as a distributed activity across different stakeholders (academic program, teacher-learners, teacher educators, students in practicum sites), spaces (academic programs, practicum sites) and mediational tools and efforts (coursework, practicum). In such an interconnected configuration, the agency for the ultimate *object(ive)* of preparing teachers

for diverse teaching settings needs to be co-constructed as a distributed entity in which different stakeholders have varying degrees of responsibilities and engagement. From this perspective, it is imperative to establish and sustain a community of practice as a program in which teacher-learners and teacher educators are seen as primary participants.

Moreover, teacher-learners need to play more active roles both in the co-construction of programmatic efforts through various feedback mechanisms, and in their own personal development through modifications and diversification of programmatic efforts, such as developing new elective courses; creating extended practicum options both in the U.S. and abroad; holding workshops, seminars, and webinars throughout the academic year; and developing a more participatory teacher education program experience in which teacher-learners embrace, practice and develop agency, and self-reflexivity. Extended “apprenticeship[s] of observation” (Lortie, 1975) in diverse contexts embedded in the past histories and present practicum experiences of teacher-learners and teacher educators in diverse teaching-learning settings might serve as important learning tools both for teacher-learners in the same class as well as expanding teacher-educators’ understanding of pedagogical issues and challenges in these contexts (when they otherwise might not necessarily be very knowledgeable about the teaching contexts their teacher-learners they come from). Thus, depending on the setting and context, teacher educators and teacher-learners could easily play the role of “knowledgeable other in ZPD” and further enhance the whole process of teacher-learner development.

The growing presence of teacher-learners with a range of orientations leads to a fundamental reconsideration of the dominant image of teacher-learners in MATESOL programs. The current research study pointed out the diversity of this image, and

therefore concludes with a proposition that the diversity of efforts in preparing teachers to effectively work with ELLs in diverse teaching settings in the U.S. and international contexts will serve as the foundation of programmatic efforts that are successfully geared towards these varied teacher-learners. To work effectively with a diverse student population in the 21st century, administrators, teacher educators and teacher-learners need to reimagine the whole experience of teacher development, where the diversification of programmatic efforts and distributed agencies are seen as integral qualities, and where the complex orientations of teacher-learners are seen as the norm.

The comprehensive scope of the present study is reflected in the first part of the title of this work, which acknowledges three important aspects. First, the present study recognizes the vitality of “preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings” as an idea and an ideal. In other words, this notion of diversity served both as the departure point for the present study, and will serve as the foundation of the future directions. Today, the task of English language teachers in the era of globalization is more relevant and important than ever, and will likely continue to be so in the future. The expansion of the global role and influence of the English language not only multiplies the contexts in which English is need for academic, survival, and professional skills, but also necessitates a more comprehensive knowledge base and a wider repertoire of professional skills and pedagogies conducive to the needs and realities of teacher-learners’ local teaching contexts upon graduation. The diversity of teaching settings, manifested in vertical (a range of settings and characteristics of language learners in these contexts such as PreK-12, post-secondary, adult education settings, or individuals with varying age and proficiency levels) and horizontal (various educational contexts such as United States and

international contexts) planes, should serve as the foundation of programmatic efforts and teacher development in an omnitemporal fashion (interweaving past teaching-learning experiences of teacher-learners with present programmatic efforts in order to prepare them for their future teaching tasks and contexts that might be distant in terms of time and space).

Second, the present study acknowledges the diversity of teacher-learners by embracing the vitality of preparing “all” teachers for diverse teaching settings. A closer examination of the literature on MATESOL programs as well as the programs reviewed in the current study revealed that MATESOL programs in the U.S. welcome teacher-learners who bring a range of diversities in terms of age, post-programmatic aims, past teaching and learning experiences, and academic backgrounds, ethnic, linguistic and racial orientations. While the complex body of teacher-learners suggests the need for enriched teacher-learning environments for teacher-learners and teacher educators, it also brought about the challenge of addressing their diverse past and present orientations within the present activity of teacher education programs. Therefore, the study acknowledges the critical need and importance of preparing “all” English language teachers.

The last cornerstone of the study reflected in the first part of the title is the conceptualization of preparing all teachers for diverse teaching settings as a “quest” due to the enormity and complexity of the task ahead of us, as stakeholders in teacher development (teacher-learners, supervisors, mentor teachers, administrators, and teacher educators). Despite the fact that the task ahead us may be characterized enormous, daunting, complex, challenging or overwhelming, it is “never as great as the power

behind us,” as insightfully argued by Ralph Waldo Emerson. Within the scope of the current study, “the power behind us” refers to the vitality of English in the lives of ELLs in the U.S. and international contexts, and the active collaborative investment and heightened sense of agency among stakeholders in the activity system. These driving forces will serve as an impetus in our quest to prepare all teachers for diverse teaching settings.

The second part of the title of the present study raises two important questions directed at the first half of the title. The first of these questions (“If not us, who?”) embraces us (teacher-learners, supervisors, mentor teachers, administrators, and teacher educators) as agents who are responsible for the successful operation of the present teacher education activity and empowers us as key actors for the future of ELLs. More specifically, it is stakeholders in teacher education activity systems (teacher-learners, supervisors, mentor teachers, administrators, and teacher educators) who will sustain cooperation, and collaboration that can foster more educationally, contextually, and socially appropriate English language learning and teacher education opportunities. The second of these questions (“If not now, when?”) draws our attention to the urgency of the phenomenon of preparing teachers for diverse teaching settings and timeliness of the need for action. There is probably no better time than right now to embrace the critical need, role and importance of English language teacher education, to re-examine the current efforts of our quest to prepare all teachers for diverse teaching settings, and to diversify teacher education practices and develop a shared accountability in teacher preparation for diverse teaching settings and contexts.

Appendix A
Current Teacher-learner Questionnaire (CTLQ)

Dear teacher candidate,

The following questionnaire has been designed to investigate the effectiveness of TESOL teacher education programs at the University, as seen through the eyes of native- and non-native English-speaking teacher candidates. Furthermore, I am interested in understanding the perceived preparedness of teacher candidates to teach in diverse teaching settings (i.e. United States and abroad), and the extent to which these program components have helped teacher candidates to gain teacher competencies. Since the results of this survey will contribute to the program you are currently enrolled in and the field of English language teaching, **it is absolutely critical that you express your views sincerely and accurately**. Your identity and responses will be kept confidential and the results of this survey will only be used anonymously for research dissemination purposes.

Thank you for your participation.

Ali Fuad Selvi
Second Language Education and Culture
Department of Curriculum and Instruction
College of Education
University of Maryland, College Park

By selecting the "YES" option below, you agree that you are at least 18 years of age, the research project has been explained to you and you freely and voluntarily choose to participate in this research project.

YES

NO

First & Last Name

Would you be willing to participate in a follow up interview which will last about 30-45 minutes and to be scheduled at a time and place convenient to your schedule?

YES

NO

If yes, please write down your e-mail address

@

PART I. DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS		
1.	Enrolled Program	<input type="checkbox"/> M.Ed. in TESOL without certification <input type="checkbox"/> M.Ed. in TESOL with K-12 certification <input type="checkbox"/> Master's Certification (MCERT) in TESOL <input type="checkbox"/> Other please specify _____
2.	Enrollment	<input type="checkbox"/> Full-time <input type="checkbox"/> Part-time
3.	Gender	<input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female
4.	Age	<input type="checkbox"/> 18-25 <input type="checkbox"/> 26-35 <input type="checkbox"/> 36-45 <input type="checkbox"/> 46-55 <input type="checkbox"/> 56>
5.	Place of Birth/Nationality	_____
6.	First Language(s)	<input type="checkbox"/> English <input type="checkbox"/> Other(s), please specify: _____
7.	What diploma(s) or degree(s) do you hold? (Check all that apply)	<input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor's in TESOL/Applied Linguistics <input type="checkbox"/> CELTA <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor's in any other field in education <input type="checkbox"/> DELTA <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor's in a non-education major <input type="checkbox"/> ICELT <input type="checkbox"/> Master's in TESOL/Applied Linguistics <input type="checkbox"/> TEFL/TESL Certificate <input type="checkbox"/> Master's in any other field in education <input type="checkbox"/> Other, please specify: _____ <input type="checkbox"/> Master's in a non-education major
8.	How do you describe yourself?	<input type="checkbox"/> Native speaker of English <input type="checkbox"/> Non-native speaker of English <input type="checkbox"/> Bi/multilingual speaker of English <input type="checkbox"/> Other, please specify _____
9.	Do you have experience teaching English language learners?	<input type="checkbox"/> No experience <input type="checkbox"/> <3 years <input type="checkbox"/> 4-6 years <input type="checkbox"/> 7-10 years <input type="checkbox"/> More than 10 years
10.	If you have had teaching experience , please specify the teaching context(s) (Check all that apply)	Abroad
		United States
11.	Are you currently teaching English language learners? (Check all that apply)	<input type="checkbox"/> PreK-12 (Public, private, charter schools) <input type="checkbox"/> College (Community College, 4-year colleges, Intensive English Programs) <input type="checkbox"/> Language school/contractual positions (English for general/academic/specific purposes) <input type="checkbox"/> Self-employed (Private tutoring) <input type="checkbox"/> Other, please specify: _____
12.	What were the three most important reasons for choosing your program?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • • •
13.	Your goals after graduation	Before starting the program
		Now
14.	If your aim after graduation is to teach in the US...	Are you planning to work abroad at some point in your career? <input type="checkbox"/> Very unlikely <input type="checkbox"/> Unlikely <input type="checkbox"/> Maybe <input type="checkbox"/> Likely <input type="checkbox"/> Very likely <input type="checkbox"/> Undecided
15.	If your aim after graduation is to teach abroad...	Are you planning to work in the US at some point in your career? <input type="checkbox"/> Very unlikely <input type="checkbox"/> Unlikely <input type="checkbox"/> Maybe <input type="checkbox"/> Likely <input type="checkbox"/> Very likely <input type="checkbox"/> Undecided

PART II. POST-PROGRAM AIMS (goals that you wish to accomplish after you graduate from your program) & PERCIEVED PREPAREDNESS										
Please check <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> all the boxes that best describe your response.										
CONTEXT	SETTING					PROFICIENCY LEVEL			AGE GROUP	
<input type="checkbox"/> US only <input type="checkbox"/> Either US or Abroad <input type="checkbox"/> Abroad only <input type="checkbox"/> Undecided	<input type="checkbox"/> PreK-12 (Public, private, charter schools) <input type="checkbox"/> College-level (Community College, 4-year colleges, Intensive English Programs) <input type="checkbox"/> Language school/contractual positions (English for general/academic/specific purposes) <input type="checkbox"/> Self-employed (Private tutoring) <input type="checkbox"/> Other, please specify _____ <input type="checkbox"/> Undecided					<input type="checkbox"/> Beginner <input type="checkbox"/> Intermediate <input type="checkbox"/> Advanced <input type="checkbox"/> Undecided			<input type="checkbox"/> Young learners (0-12) <input type="checkbox"/> Adolescents (13-20) <input type="checkbox"/> Adults (21+) <input type="checkbox"/> Undecided	
Do you feel confident to teach English in this <u>teaching setting</u> after graduation?	UNITED STATES					ABROAD				
	Not confident at all	Not Confident	Neither confident nor not confident	Confident	Very confident	Not confident at all	Not Confident	Neither confident nor not confident	Confident	Very confident
Pre-K-12 (Public, private, charter schools)										
College (Community college, 4-year colleges, Intensive English Programs)										
Language school/contractual positions (English for general/academic/specific purposes)										
Self-employed (Private tutoring)										
Other, please specify _____										

Do you feel confident to teach English to learners at this <u>proficiency level</u> after graduation?	UNITED STATES					ABROAD				
	Not confident at all	Not Confident	Neither confident nor unconfident	Confident	Very confident	Not confident at all	Not Confident	Neither confident nor unconfident	Confident	Very confident
Beginner										
Intermediate										
Advanced										
Do you feel confident to teach English to learners at this <u>age group</u> after graduation?	UNITED STATES					ABROAD				
	Not confident at all	Not Confident	Neither confident nor unconfident	Confident	Very confident	Not confident at all	Not Confident	Neither confident nor unconfident	Confident	Very confident
Young learners										
Adolescents										
Adults										

PART III. PERCEIVED PREPAREDNESS TO TEACH IN DIVERSE TEACHING SETTINGS

Based on your experiences in your teacher education program, how well prepared do you feel to plan, teach and assess various language skills in diverse teaching settings?

Please check the box that best describes your response.

	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared
Teaching reading				
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teaching listening				
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teaching writing				
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teaching speaking				
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teaching grammar				
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teaching cultural aspects				
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Formal assessment				
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Informal assessment				
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Differentiating instruction				
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Using technology in language teaching				
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Material selection and development				
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Competence in instructional planning				

In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Competence in instructional delivery	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Competence in classroom management	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Creating a safe learning environment	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Professional collaboration	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Personal reflection	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Competence in the structure of English	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Culturally responsive/inclusive teaching	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

THE PROGRAM THAT I AM CURRENTLY ENROLLED IN...

Please rate specific program feature and share your views in open-ended questions.

	PREPARING TEACHERS FOR		
	THE US CONTEXT	INTERNATIONAL CONTEXTS	BOTH CONTEXTS
The program is geared more towards preparing teachers to teach in... (put ✓)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
RATING (out of 5) 1=least successful, 5=most successful	THE US CONTEXT	INTERNATIONAL CONTEXTS	BOTH CONTEXTS
Adequacy of program duration for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Depth of coursework for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Discussion of teaching applications for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Balance between theory and practice for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Availability of practice teaching for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Depth of practice teaching for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤

Duration of practice teaching for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤		
Preparing for pedagogical challenges in	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤		
Preparing for educational situation in	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤		
Preparing for sociocultural/political situation in	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤		
Preparing to adapt the pedagogy for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤		
		--	-	+	++
By the end of this program, I will be adequately prepared to teach English in the US . Because...					
By the end of this program, I will be adequately prepared to teach English abroad . Because....					
By the end of this program, I will be adequately prepared to teach English either in the US or abroad . Because...					
I believe the program is aligned with my professional goals after graduation. My goals include....					
3 major factors that contributed to EFFECTIVENESS of this program	3 major factors that contributed to INEFFECTIVENESS of this program	3 SUGGESTIONS for the administrators of this program			

PART IV. EVALUATING THE IMPORTANCE AND EFFECTIVENESS OF THE MAJOR PROGRAM COMPONENTS

How do you rate the importance of the following program components and how do you rate their effectiveness? Please check each statement that applies to you.

PROGRAM COMPONENT	n/a	IMPORTANT TO DEVELOP MY TEACHER COMPETENCIES				CONTRIBUTED TO MY DEVELOPMENT TO TEACH							
		Not important at all		Very important		IN THE US				ABROAD			
		--	-	+	++	--	-	+	++	--	-	+	++
Coursework (overall)													
Teaching experience (overall)													
COURSEWORK	n/a	IMPORTANT TO DEVELOP MY TEACHER COMPETENCIES				CONTRIBUTED TO MY DEVELOPMENT TO TEACH							
		Not important at all		Very important		IN THE US				ABROAD			
		--	-	+	++	--	-	+	++	--	-	+	++
EDCI 633 – Teaching for Cross-cultural Communication													
EDCI 685 – Research Methods													
EDMS 645 – Quantitative Research Methods													
EDCI 631 – Student Assessment in SL Classroom													
EDCI 634 – Methods of Teaching in TESOL													
EDCI 635 – English Grammar for Teachers of ESOL													
EDCI 636 – Teaching ESOL Reading & Writing in Elementary Content Areas													
EDCI 638 – Teaching ESOL Reading & Writing in Secondary Content Areas													
EDCI 630 – Foundations of SL Education													
EDCI 732 – SL Acquisition													
EDCI 632 – Special Ed. and Oral Language Development in TESOL													
EDCI 730 – Theory and Research in SL Teaching & Learning													
EDCI 613 – Practice and Theory in Teaching English Language Learners													
EDHD 619 – Adv. Scientific Concepts in Human Dev.: Educational													

Psychology																			
EDCI 637/689C – Teaching Internship																			
EDCI 688 – Adolescent Learning and Development																			
EDCI 698 – Action Research																			
EDCI 690 - Teaching as a Profession																			
TEACHING EXPERIENCE	n/a	IMPORTANT TO DEVELOP MY TEACHER COMPETENCIES				CONTRIBUTED TO MY DEVELOPMENT TO TEACH													
		Not important at all		Very important		IN THE US		ABROAD											
		--	-	+	++	--	-	+	++										
Classroom observation																			
Individual student tutoring																			
Small group teaching																			
Teacher assistantship																			
Co-teaching																			
Supervised individual whole class teaching																			
Supervision																			
Support from the mentor teacher																			
Developing a teaching portfolio																			
Action research																			
Relations with Mentor Teacher																			
Relations with University Supervisor																			
Practicum course/seminar in program																			
Reflection on teaching																			
Planning																			
Evaluation																			
Communication with parents/guardians																			
Community/Parent involvement																			
Integrating technology into teaching																			
Support from the university supervisor																			

Appendix B

Graduated Teacher-learner Questionnaire (GTLQ)

Dear teacher candidate,

The following questionnaire has been designed to investigate the effectiveness of TESOL teacher education programs at the University, as seen through the eyes of native- and non-native English-speaking teacher candidates. Furthermore, I am interested in understanding the perceived preparedness of teacher candidates to teach in diverse teaching settings (i.e. United States and abroad), and the extent to which these program components have helped teacher candidates to gain teacher competencies. Since the results of this survey will contribute to the program you are currently enrolled in and the field of English language teaching, **it is absolutely critical that you express your views sincerely and accurately**. Your identity and responses will be kept confidential and the results of this survey will only be used anonymously for research dissemination purposes.

Thank you for your participation.

Ali Fuad Selvi

*Second Language Education and Culture
Department of Curriculum and Instruction
College of Education
University of Maryland, College Park*

By selecting the "YES" option below, you agree that you are at least 18 years of age, the research project has been explained to you and you freely and voluntarily choose to participate in this research project.

YES

NO

First & Last Name

Would you be willing to participate in a follow up interview which will last about 30-45 minutes and to be scheduled at a time and place convenient to your schedule?

YES

NO

If yes, please write down your e-mail address

@

PART I. DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS		
1.	Graduated program	<input type="checkbox"/> M.Ed. in TESOL without certification <input type="checkbox"/> M.Ed. in TESOL with K-12 certification <input type="checkbox"/> Master's Certification (MCERT) in TESOL <input type="checkbox"/> Other please specify _____
2.	Start and end date	Started in Fall/Spring _____ Graduated in Fall/Spring _____
3.	Enrollment	<input type="checkbox"/> Full-time <input type="checkbox"/> Part-time
4.	Gender	<input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female
5.	Age	<input type="checkbox"/> 18-25 <input type="checkbox"/> 26-35 <input type="checkbox"/> 36-45 <input type="checkbox"/> 46-55 <input type="checkbox"/> 56>
6.	Place of Birth/Nationality	_____
7.	Linguistic Background	First language(s) _____ Other language(s) _____
8.	Degree(s)/Diploma(s) you hold (Check all that apply)	<input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor's in TESOL/Applied Linguistics <input type="checkbox"/> CELTA <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor's in any other field in education <input type="checkbox"/> DELTA <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor's in a non-education major <input type="checkbox"/> ICELT <input type="checkbox"/> Master's in TESOL/Applied Linguistics <input type="checkbox"/> TEFL/TESL Certificate <input type="checkbox"/> Master's in any other field in education <input type="checkbox"/> Other, please specify: _____ <input type="checkbox"/> Master's in a non-education major
9.	How do you describe yourself?	<input type="checkbox"/> Native speaker of English <input type="checkbox"/> Non-native speaker of English <input type="checkbox"/> Bi/multilingual speaker of English <input type="checkbox"/> Other, please specify _____
10.	Have you had experience teaching English language learners prior to pursuing your master's degree?	<input type="checkbox"/> No experience <input type="checkbox"/> <3 years <input type="checkbox"/> 4-6 years <input type="checkbox"/> 7-10 years <input type="checkbox"/> More than 10 years
11.	<u>If you have had teaching experience prior to pursuing your master's degree, please specify the teaching context(s)</u>	<p>United States (please specify the State) _____</p> <input type="checkbox"/> No experience <input type="checkbox"/> PreK-12 (Public, private, charter schools) <input type="checkbox"/> College (Community College, 4-year colleges, Intensive English Programs) <input type="checkbox"/> Language school/contractual positions (English for general/academic/specific purposes) <input type="checkbox"/> Self-employed (Private tutoring) <input type="checkbox"/> Other, please specify: _____
		<p>Abroad (please specify the Country) _____</p> <input type="checkbox"/> No experience <input type="checkbox"/> PreK-12 (Public, private, charter schools) <input type="checkbox"/> College (Community College, 4-year colleges, Intensive English Programs) <input type="checkbox"/> Language school/contractual positions (English for general/academic/specific purposes) <input type="checkbox"/> Self-employed (Private tutoring) <input type="checkbox"/> Other, please specify: _____
12.	What were the three most important reasons for choosing your program?	1. 2. 3.

13.	When entering the program, what were your goals after graduation?	<input type="checkbox"/> Preparation to teach as an ESOL teacher <input type="checkbox"/> Preparation for further graduate study <input type="checkbox"/> Preparation for research roles <input type="checkbox"/> Preparation to take administrative or management roles	<input type="checkbox"/> Updating/improving professional skills <input type="checkbox"/> Qualifying for higher pay or job advancement <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify) _____
14.	If your primary goal after graduation was teaching, please specify the context.	<input type="checkbox"/> Teach in the US context <input type="checkbox"/> Both	<input type="checkbox"/> Teach in the international contexts <input type="checkbox"/> Undecided
15.	When exiting the program, what were your goals upon graduation from the program?	<input type="checkbox"/> Preparation to teach as an ESOL teacher <input type="checkbox"/> Preparation for further graduate study <input type="checkbox"/> Preparation for research roles <input type="checkbox"/> Preparation to take administrative or management roles	<input type="checkbox"/> Updating/improving professional skills <input type="checkbox"/> Qualifying for higher pay or job advancement <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify) _____
16.	If your primary goal after graduation was teaching, please specify the context.	<input type="checkbox"/> Teach in the US context <input type="checkbox"/> Both	<input type="checkbox"/> Teach in the international contexts <input type="checkbox"/> Undecided
17.	Overall, how well do you think the program your master's program satisfied your primary purpose for enrollment?	<input type="checkbox"/> Not very well <input type="checkbox"/> Fairly well <input type="checkbox"/> Extremely well	
PART II. PROFESSIONAL PATH AFTER GRADUATION – CURRENT EMPLOYMENT			
18.	What was your first primary employer after completing the program?	<input type="checkbox"/> K-12 school <input type="checkbox"/> Government bodies <input type="checkbox"/> Self-employed or private practice	<input type="checkbox"/> Continuing graduate education <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify) _____
19.	What was your status in your first job after completing the program?	<input type="checkbox"/> Full-time <input type="checkbox"/> Part-time	
20.	What was your primary activity in your first job after completing this master's program?	<input type="checkbox"/> Teaching <input type="checkbox"/> Research <input type="checkbox"/> Teaching and Research	<input type="checkbox"/> Administration/Management <input type="checkbox"/> Further study/training <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify) _____
21.	Which of the following best describes your employment path upon graduation?	<input type="checkbox"/> Continued current position in the US <input type="checkbox"/> Returned to previous employer in the US <input type="checkbox"/> Returned to previous employer outside the US	<input type="checkbox"/> New position in the US <input type="checkbox"/> New position outside the US <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify) _____

22.	Are you currently working in the field of TESOL?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No	
23.	If not, why did you decide to leave the profession?	_____	
24.	What is your current employer now?	<input type="checkbox"/> K-12 school <input type="checkbox"/> Government <input type="checkbox"/> Self-employed or private practice	<input type="checkbox"/> Continuing graduate education <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify) _____
25.	What is your current activity?	<input type="checkbox"/> Teaching <input type="checkbox"/> Research <input type="checkbox"/> Administration/Management	<input type="checkbox"/> Further study/training <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify) _____
26.	If you are currently teaching in the United States, are you planning to work in international contexts at some point in your career?	<input type="checkbox"/> Very unlikely <input type="checkbox"/> Unlikely <input type="checkbox"/> Maybe <input type="checkbox"/> Likely <input type="checkbox"/> Very likely <input type="checkbox"/> Undecided	
27.	If you are currently teaching in international contexts, are you planning to work in the United States at some point in your career?	<input type="checkbox"/> Very unlikely <input type="checkbox"/> Unlikely <input type="checkbox"/> Maybe <input type="checkbox"/> Likely <input type="checkbox"/> Very likely <input type="checkbox"/> Undecided	
28.	How do you consider yourself as an ESOL teacher for the US context?	<input type="checkbox"/> Underqualified <input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat qualified <input type="checkbox"/> Very qualified	
		Because...	
29.	How do you consider yourself as an ESOL teacher for international contexts?	<input type="checkbox"/> Underqualified <input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat qualified <input type="checkbox"/> Very qualified	
		Because...	

PART II. PERCEIVED PREPAREDNESS – Please check <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> all the boxes that best describe your response.										
How confident do you feel to teach English in these <u>teaching settings</u> ?	UNITED STATES					ABROAD				
	Not confident at all	Not Confident	Neither confident nor not confident	Confident	Very confident	Not confident at all	Not Confident	Neither confident nor not confident	Confident	Very confident
Pre-K-12 (Public, private, charter schools)										
College (Community college, 4-year colleges, Intensive English Programs)										
Language school/contractual positions (English for general/ academic/specific purposes)										
Self-employed (Private tutoring)										
Other, please specify _____										
Do you feel confident to teach English to learners at this <u>proficiency level</u> after graduation?	UNITED STATES					ABROAD				
	Not confident at all	Not Confident	Neither confident nor unconfident	Confident	Very confident	Not confident at all	Not Confident	Neither confident nor unconfident	Confident	Very confident
Beginner										
Intermediate										
Advanced										
Do you feel confident to teach English to learners at this <u>age group</u> after graduation?	UNITED STATES					ABROAD				
	Not confident at all	Not Confident	Neither confident nor unconfident	Confident	Very confident	Not confident at all	Not Confident	Neither confident nor unconfident	Confident	Very confident
Young learners										
Adolescents										
Adults										

PART III. PERCEIVED PREPAREDNESS TO TEACH IN DIVERSE TEACHING SETTINGS

Based on your experiences in your teacher education program, how well prepared do you feel to plan, teach and assess various language skills in diverse teaching settings?

Please check the box that best describes your response.

Teaching reading	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	Contribution of your program (out of 5) 1=least helpful, 5=most helpful
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Teaching listening	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Teaching writing	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Teaching speaking	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Teaching grammar	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Teaching cultural aspects	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Formal assessment	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Informal assessment	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Differentiating instruction	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Using technology in language teaching	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Material selection and	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	

development					
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Competence in instructional planning	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Competence in instructional delivery	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Competence in classroom management	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Creating/Maintaining a safe learning environment	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Professional collaboration	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Personal reflection and professional development	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Competence in the structure of English	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Culturally responsive/inclusive teaching	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Well-prepared	Very well-prepared	
In the US	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤
Abroad	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	① ② ③ ④ ⑤

PART IV. EVALUATING THE IMPORTANCE AND EFFECTIVENESS OF THE MAJOR PROGRAM COMPONENTS									
How do you rate the importance of the following program components and how do you rate their effectiveness? Please check each statement that applies to you.									
PROGRAM COMPONENT	n/a	IMPORTANT TO DEVELOP MY TEACHER COMPETENCIES				CONTRIBUTED TO MY DEVELOPMENT TO TEACH			
		Not important at all		Very important		IN THE US		ABROAD	
		--	-	+	++	--	-	+	++
Coursework (overall)									
Practice Teaching (overall)									
COURSEWORK	n/a	IMPORTANT TO DEVELOP MY TEACHER COMPETENCIES				CONTRIBUTED TO MY DEVELOPMENT TO TEACH			
		Not important at all		Very important		IN THE US		ABROAD	
		--	-	+	++	--	-	+	++
EDCI 633 – Teaching for Cross-cultural Communication									
EDCI 685 – Research Methods									
EDMS 645 – Quantitative Research Methods									
EDCI 631 – Student Assessment in SL Classroom									
EDCI 634 – Methods of Teaching in TESOL									
EDCI 635 – English Grammar for Teachers of ESOL									
EDCI 636 – Teaching ESOL Reading & Writing in Elementary Content Areas									
EDCI 638 – Teaching ESOL Reading & Writing in Secondary Content Areas									
EDCI 630 – Foundations of SL Education									
EDCI 732 – SL Acquisition									
EDCI 632 – Special Ed. and Oral Language Development in TESOL									
EDCI 730 – Theory and Research in SL Teaching & Learning									
EDCI 613 – Practice and Theory in Teaching English Language Learners									

EDHD 619 – Adv. Scientific Concepts in Human Dev.: Educational Psychology																			
EDCI 637/689C – Teaching Internship																			
EDCI 688 – Adolescent Learning and Development																			
EDCI 698 – Action Research																			
EDCI 690 - Teaching as a Profession																			
PRACTICE TEACHING	n/a	IMPORTANT TO DEVELOP MY TEACHER COMPETENCIES				CONTRIBUTED TO MY DEVELOPMENT TO TEACH													
		Not important at all		Very important		IN THE US				ABROAD									
		--	-	+	++	--	-	+	++	--	-	+	++						
Classroom observation																			
Individual student tutoring																			
Small group teaching																			
Teacher assistantship																			
Co-teaching																			
Supervised individual whole class teaching																			
Supervision																			
Support from the mentor teacher																			
Developing a teaching portfolio																			
Action research																			
Relations with Mentor Teacher																			
Relations with University Supervisor																			
Practicum course/seminar in program																			
Reflection on teaching																			
Planning																			
Evaluation																			
Communication with parents/guardians																			
Community/Parent involvement																			
Integrating technology into teaching																			
Support from the university supervisor																			

THE PROGRAM THAT I GRADUATED FROM...

Please rate specific program feature and share your views in open-ended questions.

	PREPARING TEACHERS FOR		
	THE US CONTEXT	INTERNATIONAL CONTEXTS	BOTH CONTE
The program was geared more towards preparing teachers to teach in... (put ✓)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
RATING (out of 5) 1=least successful, 5=most successful	THE US CONTEXT	INTERNATIONAL CONTEXTS	BOTH CONTE
Adequacy of program duration for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④
Depth of coursework for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④
Discussion of teaching applications for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④
Balance between theory and practice for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④
Availability of practice teaching for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④
Providing you with skills to diagnose and treat your students' learning difficulties	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④
Depth of practice teaching for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④
Duration of practice teaching for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④
Preparing for pedagogical challenges in	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④
Preparing for educational situation in	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④
Preparing for sociocultural/political situation in	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④
Preparing to adapt the pedagogy for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④
Sufficient preparation for	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④
Skills to continue my personal development as an ESOL professional in	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④ ⑤	① ② ③ ④

	--	-	+	=
At the end of this program, I was adequately prepared to teach English <u>in the US</u> . Because...				
At the end of this program, I was adequately prepared to teach English <u>abroad</u> . Because....				
At the end of this program, I will be adequately prepared to teach English <u>either in the US or abroad</u> . Because...				

Factors that contributed to <u>EFFECTIVENESS</u> of this program...	Factors that contributed to <u>INEFFECTIVENESS</u> of this program...
Comments/Recommendations/messages/suggestions for the <u>ADMINISTRATORS</u> of this program to	
Prepare Teachers <u>for the US Context</u>	Prepare teachers <u>for International Contexts</u>
Comments/Recommendations/messages/suggestions for the <u>FACULTY</u> of this program to	
Prepare Teachers <u>for the US Context</u>	Prepare teachers <u>for International Contexts</u>
Comments/Recommendations/messages/suggestions for the <u>STUDENTS</u> of this program	
who aim to teach <u>in the US Context</u>	who aim to teach <u>in International Contexts</u>

Appendix C

Sample Participant Consent Form (Current Teacher-learners)

Page 1 of 2

Initials _____ Date _____

CONSENT FORM

Project Title	<i>MATESOL Programs in the United States: A Quest to Prepare all Language Teachers to Teach in Diverse Teaching Settings</i>
Why is this research being done?	<i>This is a research project being conducted by Dr. Megan Peercy and Mr. Ali Fuad Selvi at the University. We are inviting you to participate in this research because you are a student in a master's in TESOL program in the University. The current study will investigate the current status of the MA in TESOL programs in the University by focusing on the perceived preparedness of teachers (e.g. both native and non-native English-speaking teachers) to plan, teach and assess various language skills in diverse teaching settings (i.e. US and non-US contexts).</i>
What will I be asked to do?	<i>You will be asked to participate in answering questions in a survey. The survey takes about 20-25 minute and will be online survey will be distributed in class and alternatively sent to you via email. Additionally, if you are willing to participate in a 30-45 minute audio-taped interview, the interview will occur on a mutually agreed date, time, and location. The interviewer(s) will ask you to discuss your experiences as teachers. Example interview question might be as follows: What were some of the reasons that affected your decision to choose the program in which you are enrolled? What are some strengths of the program you are enrolled in? What are some weaknesses of the program you are enrolled in? What do you think can be improved?</i>
What about confidentiality?	<p><i>We will do our best to keep your personal information confidential. This research project involves your responses to questions in a survey and making audiotapes of your interview. These audiotapes are being made for researchers to review during analyses. Data will be recorded using code numbers and a separate list matching names and numbers will be kept on the password protected computer until data collection is complete, then the matching list will be destroyed. To help protect your confidentiality, all data, including audiotapes, will be stored on a password protected computer in my own office, and only the researchers will have access to them. Your willingness to participate in interviews, and any information you share in interviews, will not be known to anyone except the researchers for this study. All study data will be destroyed within ten (10) years of the completion of this project.</i></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> <i>I agree to respond the questionnaire and be audiotaped during my participation in this study.</i></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> <i>I do not agree to respond the questionnaire and be audiotaped during my participation in this study.</i></p> <p><i>If we write a report or article about this research project your identity will be protected to the maximum extent possible. Your information may be shared with representatives of the University or governmental authorities if you or someone else is in danger or if we are required to do so by law.</i></p>

Project Title	<i>MATESOL Programs in the United States: A Quest to Prepare all Language Teachers to Teach in Diverse Teaching Settings</i>	
What are the risks of this research?	<p><i>The only foreseeable risks from participating in this research project may be anxiety about being audiotaped, although we will make sure to make the experience as enjoyable as possible. You will be asked to commit 20-25 minutes of your time for the survey, and 30-40 minutes of your time for the interview. Engagement in this study is <u>voluntary</u>, there will be no penalty if you refuse to answer questions or withdraw from the study.</i></p> <p><i>Note: All steps in the research process are voluntary. If these participants decide not to participate in this study or if they stop participating at any time, they <u>will not be penalized in any way</u>. Interviews and their involvement <u>will have no influence</u> on their occupational status in their respective institutions nor on researchers' treatment of them throughout the study.</i></p>	
What are the benefits of this research?	<p><i>We hope this study will contribute to (1) inform how teacher candidates view the knowledge base in L2 teacher education and the ways to develop the knowledge base that is required to work effectively with both EFL and ESL learners, (2) acknowledge that L2 teacher education programs prepare all teachers for diverse teaching settings, (3) illuminate our understanding regarding the program characteristics and their impact on the definition and the development of knowledge base, (4) establish a theoretical/empirical basis for developing benchmarks to measure the effectiveness of L2 teacher education programs.</i></p>	
Do I have to be in this research? Can I stop participating at any time?	<p><i>Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to take part at all. You may take part in the survey, and decide not to take part in an interview. You may refuse to answer any of the questions and withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. All steps in the research process are voluntary. If you decide not to participate in this research, you may stop participating at any time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify.</i></p> <p><i>You will receive a copy of this consent form for your records.</i></p>	
What if I have questions?	<p><i>This research is being conducted by Dr. Megan Madigan Peercy and Mr. Ali Fuad Selvi, from the Department of Teaching at the University. If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact Dr. Megan Madigan Peercy at: mpeercy@umd.edu or Mr. Ali Fuad Selvi at alifuad@umd.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a research subject or wish to report a research-related injury, please contact: Institutional Review Board Office, the University.</i></p> <p><i>This research has been reviewed according to the University IRB procedures for research involving human subjects.</i></p>	
Statement of Age of Subject and Consent	<p><i>Your signature indicates that:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>you are at least 18 years of age;</i> <i>the research has been explained to you;</i> <i>your questions have been answered; and</i> <i>you freely and voluntarily choose to participate in this research project.</i> 	
Signature and Date	NAME OF SUBJECT	
	SIGNATURE OF SUBJECT	
	DATE	

Appendix D
Participant Invitation E-mail

Dear teacher candidate,

We are conducting a research study to investigate the effectiveness of TESOL teacher education programs in Washington DC Metro area universities, as seen through the eyes of native- and non-native English-speaking teacher candidates. Furthermore, we are interested in understanding the perceived preparedness of teacher candidates to teach in diverse teaching settings in the United States and in international contexts, and the extent to which these program components have helped teacher candidates to gain teacher competencies. We would like to invite you to participate in this study since we believe that the results of this survey will contribute to the program you are currently enrolled in, and the field of English language teaching.

If you decide to participate, you will fill out a consent form and complete a survey, which is expected to take 20-25 minutes of your time, which can be completed during class hours or online. As the next step, we will conduct voluntary interviews (expected to take 30-40 minutes of your time) with participants who agreed to participate at a mutually agreed convenient location in the University campus. The interview aims to deepen the information gathered through the survey and will be primarily focused on your experiences in your respective programs.

Please make sure that participating in this research is completely voluntary, and not an institutional requirement. Also, if you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalized in any way. You can always ask the researcher questions throughout the duration of the study and may refuse to answer any of the questions and withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. Your responses during interviews and your involvement will neither have influence on your student status in your institutions nor on our treatment of you throughout the study. You will also receive a copy of the consent form for your records. Your identity and responses will be kept confidential and the results of this survey will only be used anonymously for research dissemination purposes.

Thank you for your participation.
Ali Fuad Selvi

Appendix E

Interview Protocol¹⁴ (Teacher-learners)

Let's start with some background questions.

- Can you please talk a little bit about yourself, about your educational, linguistic and professional background?
- Why TESOL? Why the University and the Unit?
- Why are you interested in teaching in the U.S./abroad (upon graduation)?

Let's discuss a little bit about our experiences. Starting with coursework:

- Can you tell me more about your experience in this program in terms of coursework?
- In what ways do coursework provide a foundation for your teaching?
- When you look through the lens of your teaching context, to what extent was the coursework relevant for you?
- What were some useful classes? What made them useful?
- Which classes could you have done without? Why?

Let's move on to your practicum experience¹⁵:

- What are some of your overall opinions of the practicum experience?
- Which aspects of the practicum component/experience worked well for your development as an ESOL teacher? What made them worthwhile?
- Which aspects of the practicum component/experience did not work well for your development as an ESOL teacher? What made them less relevant?
- In what ways was your practicum experience relevant to your teaching goals after graduation?

The program you are enrolled in did not have a practicum component¹⁶.

- Why do you think there is not an institutionalized practicum component in your program? What do you think about it?
- In what ways did the absence of practicum affect your professional development?

¹⁴ Note: The questions in this protocol were treated as guiding tools for semi-structured, one-on-one interviews with teacher-learners. Expectedly, I modified the questions in response to what I gleaned from the research context and participants during the data collection process. Therefore, I acknowledge that while this protocol is representative, it is certainly not all-inclusive of the questions raised during interviews.

¹⁵ This question was applicable only to ShortCert and LongCert program participants.

¹⁶ This question was applicable only to NonCert program participants.

Let's now focus a little bit on your future teaching context. What are some pedagogical challenges that an ESOL teacher might face in (U.S./international) contexts?

- To what extent did your program **inform** you about these challenges?
- To what extent did your program **prepare** you to overcome/tackle with these challenges?
- How confident do you consider yourself as an ESOL teacher for international context?
- In what ways do you familiarize yourself with the specific teaching context?
- What kind of support have you received in the program? What were the sources?

In conclusion, let's look at the big picture:

- The mission of our programs is summarized as follows... What do you think about this? In what ways does it reflect your experience?
- When thinking about the context you are teaching:
 - What are some of the things in the program that works really well? Why?
 - What are some of the things that you would like changed? Why?
- How do you envision the role and responsibility of an MATESOL program in preparing ESOL teachers for the US and international contexts OR in the context you are teaching now?
 - Faculty
 - Administration
 - Students
 - Other(s)
- Do you have any comments, recommendations, messages or suggestions for the administrators of this program in terms of preparing teachers for the US or international contexts (or in the context you are teaching now)?

Are there anything that we did not cover? Would you like to add anything else?

Appendix F

Interview Protocol¹⁷ (Instructional Faculty)

PERSONAL VIEWS AND PRACTICES

- In what ways the qualities of an effective ESOL teacher are similar for the US and international contexts?
- In what ways, if any, the qualities of an effective ESOL teacher are different for the US and international contexts?
- How do you inform about these skills and challenges? What you do develop yourself to better prepare ESOL teachers for the US context and international contexts?
- What are some key qualities of a teacher educator who works with ESOL teachers who would like to work in the US/international settings?
- In what ways, if any, your confidence differ when you consider yourself in preparing teachers **for the US and international contexts?**
- How do you measure teacher-learner learning in your classes, specifically for the teaching context? What counts as evidence of teacher-learner learning for the US context and international contexts?

VIEWS ABOUT THE PROGRAM

- What is your impression about the overall design of our teacher education programs?
(e.g. depth, duration, overlap, sequencing, components such as coursework, practicum, or exit requirements such as seminar paper, portfolio, praxis tests)
- What are some guiding principles shaping our program (e.g. coursework, structure, etc.)? What about your instructional practices?
- What do you think about the overall design and guiding principles when you look through the lens of “preparing teachers for the US and international contexts”?

¹⁷ Note: The questions in this protocol were treated as guiding tools for semi-structured, one-on-one interviews with instructional faculty members. Expectedly, I modified the questions in response to what I gleaned from the research context and participants during the data collection process. Therefore, I acknowledge that while this protocol is representative, it is certainly not all-inclusive of the questions raised during interviews.

- In what ways and to what extent do you believe that this program's overall design is influenced by contextual factors/challenges?
- When you think of our courses in the program? In what ways do they prepare teachers for US/international contexts?
- When you think of the student internship component of our programs, in what ways do they prepare teachers for the US and international contexts?
- How **connected or integrated** are coursework and practicum components?

PROGRAMMATIC PRACTICES

- To what extent, does our program prepare teacher-learners to become effective ESOL teachers for the US context? For international contexts?
- To what extent do our programs **inform** & **prepare** teacher-learners about the educational contexts that they will be a part of?
- What kind of a relationship do you have with other faculty members, supervisors and graduate assistants to coordinate your efforts?
- Here is the mission statement from our programs... How would you respond to this? How do you judge the success of our programs based on this institutional statement?

In this segment, I am interested in hearing more about your perspective on some issues that affect our current practices:

- In what ways do teacher skills and competencies differ or take different shape in relation to teaching context?
- What do you do in cases when teacher-learners do not have necessary knowledge about the issues and trends about a particular teaching context?
- In what ways, if any, does it help teacher-learners to get engaged in teacher development practices (read, discuss, observing, reflecting, teaching) in a context that is not directly related to their post-graduation aims?

CONCLUSION

- Do you have any recommendations, suggestions or messages **for the administrators of this program** in terms of preparing teachers for the US or international contexts?
- Do you have any recommendations, suggestions or messages **for other instructional faculty (professors and GAs) teaching in this program** in terms of preparing teachers for the US or international contexts?
- Do you have any recommendations, suggestions or messages **for students of this program** who aim to teach in the US or international contexts?

Is there anything that you would like to add or we did not cover?

Appendix G
Transcription Conventions

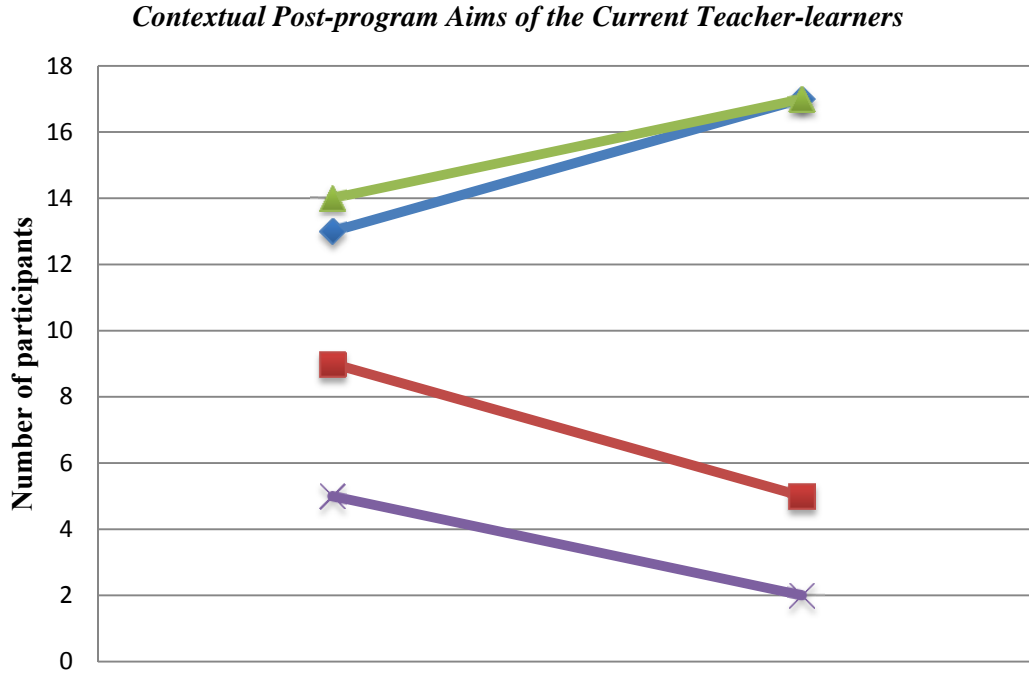
Definition	Transcription Convention
Inaudible words	XXX
Words that are not clearly audible	(in parenthesis)
Pauses that are normal than usual	...
Partially articulated words	-
Laughs, coughs, etc.	(laughs), (coughs), (in parenthesis)
Interviewer's speech	<i>Typed in italics</i>
Author's comment and/or clarification	[text in brackets]





Appendix H
Observation Protocol

OBSERVATION NOTES	
Date	
Observation No.	
Course	
Instructor	
Topic	
Participants	
Setting	
OBSERVATIONS	(PRELIMINARY) ANALYSIS
PRELIMINARY/EMERGING IDEAS AND QUESTIONS	

Appendix I
Results of Questionnaire Data

Figure 1.
Contextual Post-Program Aims of the Current Teacher-Learners



	At the time of starting the program	At the time of data collection	Variation *
 Teach in the US Context	13 (31.7%)	17 (41.4%)	+4 (30.7%)
 Teach in International Contexts	9 (21.9%)	5 (12.1%)	-4 (44.4%)
 Teach in both Contexts	14 (34.1%)	17 (41.4%)	+3 (21.4%)
 Undecided	5 (12.1%)	2 (4.8%)	-2 (60%)

*Variation indicates the change in the number of participants in a particular category from the time of starting the program to the time of data collection and similarly, the percentage of variation denotes this change.

Table 1.
 Post-Program Preferences of Current Teacher-Learners (Setting)

Post-program Preferences of Current Teacher-learners – Setting	
Work Setting	Number of Participants
PreK-12	21 (51.2%)
College level	5 (12.1%)
Self-employed	0
Community/Non-profit	1 (2.4%)
Undecided	0
More than 1 setting	13 (31.7%)
Missing value	1 (2.4%)
Total	41

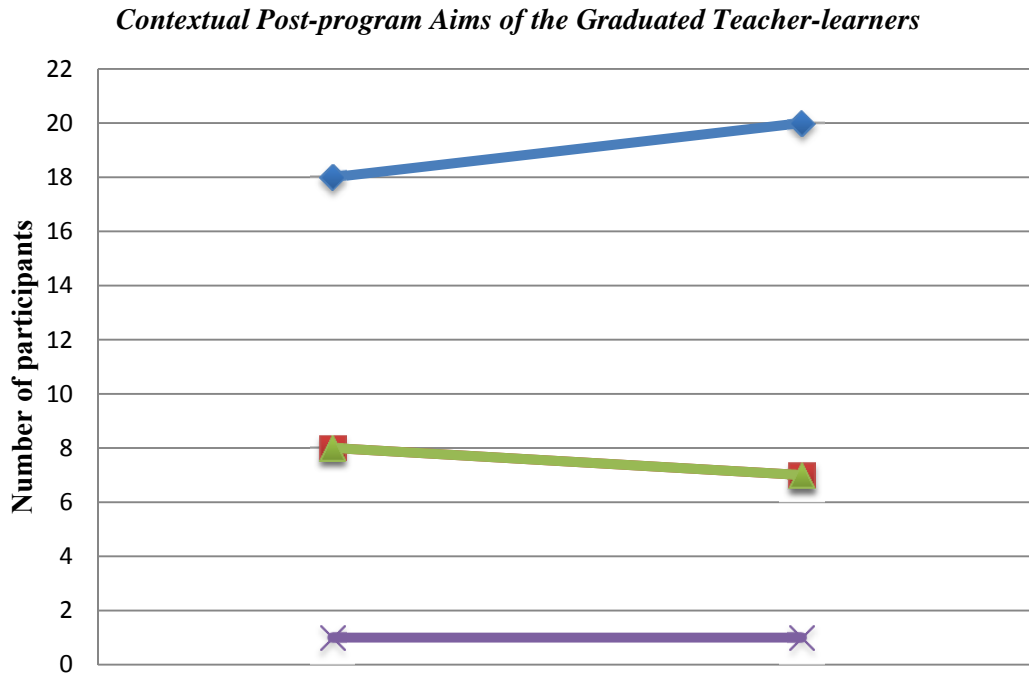
Table 2.
 Post-program Preferences of Current Teacher-Learners (Proficiency levels of ELLs)





Post-program Preferences of Current Teacher-learners – Proficiency Level of ELLs	
Proficiency Level of ELLs	Number of Participants
Beginner	2 (4.8%)
Intermediate	3 (7.3%)
Advanced	0
Undecided	7 (17%)
More than 1 level	28 (68.2%)
Missing value	1 (2.4%)
Total	41

Table 3.
 Post-program Preferences Of Current Teacher-Learners (Age levels of ELLs)

Post-program Preferences of Current Teacher-learners – Age Levels of ELLs	
Age Group of ELLs	Number of Participants
Young learners	6 (14.6%)
Adolescents	2 (4.8%)
Adults	6 (14.6%)
Undecided	2 (4.8%)
More than 1 group	24 (58.5%)
Missing value	1 (2.4%)
Total	41

Figure 2.
Contextual Post-Program Aims of the Graduated Teacher-Learners



	At the time of starting the program	At the time of data collection	Variation *
 Teach in the US Context	18 (51.4%)	20 (57.1%)	+2 (5.5%)
 Teach in International Contexts	8 (22.8%)	7 (20%)	-1 (12.5%)
 Teach in both Contexts	8 (22.8%)	7 (20%)	-1 (12.5%)
 Undecided	1 (2.8%)	1 (2.8%)	—

*Variation indicates the change in the number of participants in a particular category from the time of starting the program to the time of data collection and similarly, the percentage of variation denotes this change.

Table 4.

Current Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Diverse Teaching Settings

	How confident do you feel to teach English in these teaching settings after graduation?					Mean Median Mode
	Not confident at all	Not confident	Neither not confident nor confident	Confident	Very confident	
PreK-12 – US						
Count	1	2	4	22	12	4.02
% within group	2.4%	4.9%	9.8%	53.7%	29.3%	4.00
Cumulative %	2.4%	7.3%	17.1%	70.7%	100%	4
PreK-12 – INTL						
Count	0	5	5	23	8	3.83
% within group	0%	12.2%	12.2%	56.1%	19.5%	4.00
Cumulative %	0%	12.2%	24.4%	80.5%	100%	4
College-level – US						
Count	0	6	19	13	3	3.32
% within group	0%	14.6%	46.3%	31.7%	7.3%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	14.6%	61%	92.7%	100%	3
College-level – INTL						
Count	3	8	8	18	4	3.29
% within group	7.3%	19.5%	19.5%	43.9%	9.8%	4.00
Cumulative %	7.3%	26.8%	46.3%	90.2%	100%	4
Language school – US						
Count	0	2	15	19	5	3.66
% within group	0%	4.9%	36.6%	46.3%	12.2%	4.00
Cumulative %	0%	4.9%	41.5%	87.8%	100%	4
Language school – INTL						
Count	0	3	11	18	9	3.80
% within group	0%	7.3%	26.8%	43.9%	22%	4.00
Cumulative %	0%	7.3%	34.1%	78.0%	100%	4
Self-employed – US						
Count	0	0	6	27	8	4.05
% within group	0%	0%	14.6%	65.9%	19.5%	4.00
Cumulative %	0%	0%	14.6%	80.5%	100%	4
Self-employed – INTL						
Count	0	1	6	23	11	4.07
% within group	0%	2.4%	14.6%	56.1%	26.8%	4.00
Cumulative %	0%	2.4%	17.1%	73.2%	100%	4

Figure 3.
One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test Results for Current Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Diverse Teaching Settings

		Ranks		
		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
PreK12_US - PreK12_INTL	Negative Ranks	7 ^a	12.57	88.00
	Positive Ranks	15 ^b	11.00	165.00
	Ties	19 ^c		
	Total	41		
College_US - College_INTL	Negative Ranks	10 ^d	8.95	89.50
	Positive Ranks	9 ^e	11.17	100.50
	Ties	22 ^f		
	Total	41		
LangSch_US -LangSch_INTL	Negative Ranks	9 ^g	6.50	58.50
	Positive Ranks	3 ^h	6.50	19.50
	Ties	29 ⁱ		
	Total	41		
SelfEmploy_US - SelfEmploy_INTL	Negative Ranks	8 ^j	7.00	56.00
	Positive Ranks	6 ^k	8.17	49.00
	Ties	27 ^l		
	Total	41		

- a. PreK12_US < PreK12_INTL
 b. PreK12_US > PreK12_INTL
 c. PreK12_US = PreK12_INTL
 d. College_US < College_INTL
 e. College_US > College_INTL
 f. College_US = College_INTL

- g. LangSch_US < LangSch_INTL
 h. LangSch_US > LangSch_INTL
 i. LangSch_US = LangSch_INTL
 j. SelfEmploy_US < SelfEmploy_INTL
 k. SelfEmploy_US > SelfEmploy_INTL
 l. SelfEmploy_US = SelfEmploy_INTL

Test Statistics^c

	PreK12 US PreK12 INTL	College US College INTL	Language School US Language School INTL	Self-Employed US Self-Employed INTL
Z	-1.294 ^a	-.235 ^a	-1.732 ^b	-.243 ^b
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.196	.814	.083	.808

- a. Based on negative ranks.
 b. Based on positive ranks.

Ranks

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
PreK12_US - PreK12_INTL	Negative Ranks	7 ^a	12.57	88.00
	Positive Ranks	15 ^b	11.00	165.00
	Ties	19 ^c		
	Total	41		
College_US - College_INTL	Negative Ranks	10 ^d	8.95	89.50
	Positive Ranks	9 ^e	11.17	100.50
	Ties	22 ^f		
	Total	41		
LangSch_US -LangSch_INTL	Negative Ranks	9 ^g	6.50	58.50
	Positive Ranks	3 ^h	6.50	19.50
	Ties	29 ⁱ		
	Total	41		
SelfEmploy_US - SelfEmploy_INTL	Negative Ranks	8 ^j	7.00	56.00
	Positive Ranks	6 ^k	8.17	49.00
	Ties	27 ^l		
	Total	41		

- a. PreK12_US < PreK12_INTL
- b. PreK12_US > PreK12_INTL
- c. PreK12_US = PreK12_INTL
- d. College_US < College_INTL
- e. College_US > College_INTL
- f. College_US = College_INTL

- g. LangSch_US < LangSch_INTL
- h. LangSch_US > LangSch_INTL
- i. LangSch_US = LangSch_INTL
- j. SelfEmploy_US < SelfEmploy_INTL
- k. SelfEmploy_US > SelfEmploy_INTL
- l. SelfEmploy_US = SelfEmploy_INTL

Test Statistics^c

	PreK12 US PreK12 INTL	College US College INTL	Language School US Language School INTL	Self-Employed US Self-Employed INTL
Z	-1.294 ^a	-.235 ^a	-1.732 ^b	-.243 ^b
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.196	.814	.083	.808

- a. Based on negative ranks.
- b. Based on positive ranks.
- c. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Table 5.
Graduated Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Diverse Teaching Settings

	How confident do you feel to teach English in these teaching settings ?				Mean Median Mode	
	Not confident at all	Not confident	Confident	Very confident		
PreK-12 – US	Count % within group Cumulative %	1 2.9% 2.9%	5 14.7% 17.6%	16 47.1% 64.7%	12 35.3% 100%	3.15 3.00 3
PreK-12 – INTL	Count % within group Cumulative %	0 0% 0%	8 23.5% 23.5%	18 52.9% 76.5%	8 23.5% 100%	3.00 3.00 3
College-level – US	Count % within group Cumulative %	3 8.8% 8.8%	8 23.5% 32.4%	15 44.1% 76.5%	8 23.5% 100%	2.82 3.00 3
College-level – INTL	Count % within group Cumulative %	2 5.9% 5.9%	9 26.5% 32.4%	18 52.9% 85.3%	5 14.7% 100%	2.76 3.00 3
Language school – US	Count % within group Cumulative %	1 2.9% 2.9%	4 11.8% 14.7%	17 50% 64.7%	12 35.3% 100%	3.18 3.00 3
Language school – INTL	Count % within group Cumulative %	1 2.9% 2.9%	6 17.6% 20.6%	18 52.9% 73.5%	9 26.5% 100%	3.03 3.00 3
Self-employed – US	Count % within group Cumulative %	1 2.9% 2.9%	4 11.8% 14.7%	16 47.1% 61.8%	13 38.2% 100%	3.21 3.00 3
Self-employed – INTL	Count % within group Cumulative %	1 2.9% 2.9%	5 14.7% 17.6%	19 55.9% 73.5%	9 26.5% 100%	3.06 3.00 3

Figure 4.
One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test Results For Current Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Diverse Teaching Settings

		Ranks		
		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
PreK12_US - PreK12_INTL	Negative Ranks	7 ^a	9.29	65.00
	Positive Ranks	11 ^b	9.64	106.00
	Ties	16 ^c		
	Total	34		
College_US - College_INTL	Negative Ranks	9 ^d	9.56	86.00
	Positive Ranks	10 ^e	10.40	104.00
	Ties	15 ^f		
	Total	34		
LangSch_US - LangSch_INTL	Negative Ranks	4 ^g	7.63	30.50
	Positive Ranks	9 ^h	6.72	60.50
	Ties	21 ⁱ		
	Total	34		
SelfEmploy_US - SelfEmploy_INTL	Negative Ranks	4 ^j	6.50	26.00
	Positive Ranks	8 ^k	6.50	52.00
	Ties	22 ^l		
	Total	34		

- a. PreK12_US < PreK12_INTL
- b. PreK12_US > PreK12_INTL
- c. PreK12_US = PreK12_INTL
- d. College_US < College_INTL
- e. College_US > College_INTL
- f. College_US = College_INTL

- g. LangSch_US < LangSch_INTL
- h. LangSch_US > LangSch_INTL
- i. LangSch_US = LangSch_INTL
- j. SelfEmploy_US < SelfEmploy_INTL
- k. SelfEmploy_US > SelfEmploy_INTL
- l. SelfEmploy_US = SelfEmploy_INTL

Test Statistics ^b				
	PreK12_US PreK12_INTL	College_US College_INTL	LangSch_US LangSch_INTL	SelfEmploy_US SelfEmploy_INTL
Z	-.959 ^a	-.390 ^a	-1.127 ^a	-1.072 ^a
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.337	.696	.260	.284

- a. Based on negative ranks.
- b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Table 6.
Current Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Teaching ELLs from Diverse Proficiency Backgrounds

	How confident do you feel to teach English to learners at this proficiency level after graduation?					Mean Median Mode
	Not confident at all	Not confident	Neither not confident nor confident	Confident	Very confident	
Beginner – US						
Count	0	1	3	21	16	4.27
% within group	0%	2.4%	7.3%	51.2%	39%	4.00
Cumulative %	0%	2.4%	0%	0%	100%	4
Beginner – INTL						
Count	0	3	3	23	12	4.07
% within group	0%	7.3%	7.3%	56.1%	29.3%	4.00
Cumulative %	0%	7.3%	14.6%	70.7%	100%	4
Intermediate – US						
Count	0	0	4	21	16	4.29
% within group	0%	0%	9.8%	51.2%	39%	4.00
Cumulative %	0%	0%	9.8%	61%	100%	4
Intermediate – INTL						
Count	0	0	7	23	11	4.10
% within group	0%	0%	17.1%	56.1%	26.8%	4.00
Cumulative %	0%	0%	17.1%	73.2%	100%	4
Advanced – US						
Count	0	0	13	15	13	4.00
% within group	0%	0%	31.7%	36.6%	31.7%	4.00
Cumulative %	0%	0%	31.7%	68.3%	100%	4
Advanced – INTL						
Count	0	0	12	20	9	3.93
% within group	0%	0%	29.3%	48.8%	22%	4.00
Cumulative %	0%	0%	29.3%	78%	100%	4

Figure 5.
 One-sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test Results for Current Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Teaching ELLs from Diverse Proficiency Backgrounds

Ranks				
	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	
Beginner_INTL - Beginner_US	Negative Ranks	13 ^a	10.23	133.00
	Positive Ranks	6 ^b	9.50	57.00
	Ties	22 ^c		
	Total	41		
Intermed_INTL - Intermed_US	Negative Ranks	14 ^d	10.50	147.00
	Positive Ranks	6 ^e	10.50	63.00
	Ties	21 ^f		
	Total	41		
Adv_INTL - Adv_US	Negative Ranks	13 ^g	12.85	167.00
	Positive Ranks	11 ^h	12.09	133.00
	Ties	17 ⁱ		
	Total	41		

- a. Beginner_INTL < Beginner_US
- b. Beginner_INTL > Beginner_US
- c. Beginner_INTL = Beginner_US
- d. Intermed_INTL < Intermed_US
- e. Intermed_INTL > Intermed_US

- f. Intermed_INTL = Intermed_US
- g. Adv_INTL < Adv_US
- h. Adv_INTL > Adv_US
- i. Adv_INTL = Adv_US

Test Statistics^b			
	Beginner US Beginner INTL	Intermediate US Intermediate INTL	Advanced US Advanced INTL
Z	-1.706 ^a	-1.789 ^a	-.529 ^a
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.088	.074	.597

- a. Based on positive ranks.
- b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Table 7.
 Graduated Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Teaching ELLs from Diverse Proficiency Backgrounds

		How confident do you feel to teach English to learners at this proficiency level ?				
		Not confident at all	Not confident	Confident	Very confident	Mean Median Mode
Beginner – US	Count	1	1	12	20	3.50
	% within group	2.9%	2.9%	35.3%	58.8%	4.00
	Cumulative %	2.9%	5.9%	41.2%	100%	4
Beginner – INTL	Count	1	3	17	13	3.24
	% within group	2.9%	8.8%	50%	38.2%	3.00
	Cumulative %	2.9%	11.8%	61.8%	100%	3
Intermediate – US	Count	2	3	13	16	3.26
	% within group	5.9%	8.8%	38.2%	47.1%	3.00
	Cumulative %	5.9%	14.7%	52.9%	100%	4
Intermediate – INTL	Count	1	4	19	10	3.12
	% within group	2.9%	11.8%	55.9%	29.4%	3.00
	Cumulative %	2.9%	14.7%	70.6%	100%	3
Advanced – US	Count	3	7	10	14	3.03
	% within group	8.8%	20.6%	29.4%	41.2%	3.00
	Cumulative %	8.8%	29.4%	58.8%	100%	4
Advanced – INTL	Count	3	5	19	7	2.88
	% within group	8.8%	14.7%	55.9%	20.6%	3.00
	Cumulative %	8.8%	23.5%	79.4%	100%	3

Figure 6.
 One-sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test Results for Graduated Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Teaching ELLs from Diverse Proficiency Backgrounds

Ranks

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Beginner_US - Beginner_INTL	Negative Ranks	3 ^a	5.50	16.50
	Positive Ranks	9 ^b	6.83	61.50
	Ties	22 ^c		
	Total	34		
Intermed_US - Intermed_INTL	Negative Ranks	5 ^d	6.50	32.50
	Positive Ranks	8 ^e	7.31	58.50
	Ties	21 ^f		
	Total	34		
Adv_US - Adv_INTL	Negative Ranks	6 ^g	7.50	45.00
	Positive Ranks	9 ^h	8.33	75.00
	Ties	19 ⁱ		
	Total	34		

a. Beginner_US < Beginner_INTL

b. Beginner_US > Beginner_INTL

c. Beginner_US = Beginner_INTL

d. Intermed_US < Intermed_INTL

e. Intermed_US > Intermed_INTL

f. Intermed_US = Intermed_INTL

g. Adv_US < Adv_INTL

h. Adv_US > Adv_INTL

i. Adv_US = Adv_INTL

Test Statistics^b

	Beginner_US - Beginner_INTL	Intermed_US - Intermed_INTL	Adv_US - Adv_INTL
Z	-1.889 ^a	-1.000 ^a	-.943 ^a
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.059	.317	.346

a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Table 8.

Current Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Teaching ELLs from Diverse Age Groups

	How confident do you feel to to teach English to learners at this age group after graduation?					Mean Median Mode
	Not confident at all	Not confident	Neither not confident nor confident	Confident	Very confident	
Young Learners – US						
Count	2	1	5	20	13	4.00
% within group	4.9%	2.4%	12.2%	48.8%	31.7%	4.00
Cumulative %	4.9%	7.3%	19.5%	68.3%	100%	4
Young Learners – INTL						
Count	3	0	4	23	11	3.95
% within group	7.3%	0%	9.8%	56.1%	26.8%	4.00
Cumulative %	7.3%	7.3%	17.1%	73.2%	100%	4
Adolescents – US						
Count	0	3	6	26	6	3.85
% within group	0%	7.3%	14.6%	63.4%	14.6%	4.00
Cumulative %	0%	7.3%	22%	85.4%	100%	4
Adolescents – INTL						
Count	0	3	7	25	6	3.83
% within group	0%	7.3%	17.1%	61%	14.6%	4.00
Cumulative %	0%	7.3%	24.4%	85.4%	100%	4
Adults – US						
Count	1	3	18	11	8	3.54
% within group	2.4%	7.3%	43.9%	26.8%	19.5%	3.00
Cumulative %	2.4%	9.8%	53.7%	80.5%	100%	3
Adults – INTL						
Count	1	5	9	18	8	3.66
% within group	2.4%	12.2%	22%	43.9%	19.5%	4.00
Cumulative %	2.4%	14.6%	36.6%	80.5%	100%	4

Figure 7.
 One-sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test Results for Current Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Teaching ELLs from Diverse Age Groups

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
YoungL_US - YoungL_INTL	Negative Ranks	5 ^a	6.50	32.50
	Positive Ranks	7 ^b	6.50	45.50
	Ties	29 ^c		
	Total	41		
Adolescents_US - Adolescents_INTL	Negative Ranks	6 ^d	6.00	36.00
	Positive Ranks	6 ^e	7.00	42.00
	Ties	29 ^f		
	Total	41		
Adults_US - Adults_INTL	Negative Ranks	11 ^g	9.82	108.00
	Positive Ranks	7 ^h	9.00	63.00
	Ties	23 ⁱ		
	Total	41		

a. YoungL_US < YoungL_INTL

b. YoungL_US > YoungL_INTL

c. YoungL_US = YoungL_INTL

d. Adolescents_US < Adolescents_INTL

e. Adolescents_US > Adolescents_INTL

f. Adolescents_US = Adolescents_INTL

g. Adults_US < Adults_INTL

h. Adults_US > Adults_INTL

i. Adults_US = Adults_INTL

Test Statistics^c

	Young Learners US Young Learners INTL	Adolescents US Adolescents INTL	Adults US Adults_INTL
Z	-.577 ^a	-.258 ^a	-1.091 ^b
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.564	.796	.275

a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Based on positive ranks.

c. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Table 9.
 Graduated Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Teaching ELLs from Diverse Age Groups

		How confident do you feel to teach English to learners at this <u>age level</u> ?				
		Not confident at all	Not confident	Confident	Very confident	Mean Median Mode
Young Learners – US	Count	2	4	13	15	3.21
	% within group	5.9%	11.8%	38.2%	44.1%	3.00
	Cumulative %	5.9%	17.6%	55.9%	100%	4
Young Learners – INTL	Count	0	6	17	11	3.15
	% within group	0%	17.6%	50%	32.4%	3.00
	Cumulative %	0%	17.6%	67.6%	100%	3
Adolescents – US	Count	1	10	15	8	2.88
	% within group	2.9%	29.4%	44.1%	23.5%	3.00
	Cumulative %	2.9%	32.4%	76.5%	100%	3
Adolescents – INTL	Count	1	10	15	8	2.88
	% within group	2.9%	29.4%	44.1%	23.5%	3.00
	Cumulative %	2.9%	32.4%	76.5%	100%	3
Adults – US	Count	1	7	15	11	3.06
	% within group	2.9%	20.6%	44.1%	32.4%	3.00
	Cumulative %	2.9%	23.5%	67.6%	100%	3
Adults – INTL	Count	1	6	19	8	3.00
	% within group	2.9%	17.6%	55.9%	23.5%	3.00
	Cumulative %	2.9%	20.6%	76.5%	100%	3

Figure 8.

One-sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test Results for Graduated Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Teaching ELLs from Diverse Age Groups

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
YoungL_US - YoungL_INTL	Negative Ranks	6 ^a	7.83	47.00
	Positive Ranks	8 ^b	7.25	58.00
	Ties	20 ^c		
	Total	34		
Adolescents_US - Adolescents_INTL	Negative Ranks	6 ^d	6.50	39.00
	Positive Ranks	6 ^e	6.50	39.00
	Ties	22 ^f		
	Total	34		
Adults_US - Adults_INTL	Negative Ranks	5 ^g	6.50	32.50
	Positive Ranks	7 ^h	6.50	45.50
	Ties	22 ⁱ		
	Total	34		

- a. YoungL_US < YoungL_INTL
- b. YoungL_US > YoungL_INTL
- c. YoungL_US = YoungL_INTL
- d. Adolescents_US < Adolescents_INTL
- e. Adolescents_US > Adolescents_INTL

- f. Adolescents_US = Adolescents_INTL
- g. Adults_US < Adults_INTL
- h. Adults_US > Adults_INTL
- i. Adults_US = Adults_INTL

Test Statistics^c

	YoungL_US YoungL_INTL	Adolescents_US Adolescents_INTL	Adults_US Adults_INTL
Z	-.361 ^a	.000 ^b	-.577 ^a
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.718	1.000	.564

- a. Based on negative ranks.
- b. The sum of negative ranks equals the sum of positive ranks.
- c. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Table 10.
Current Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Teaching Language Skills and Cultural Aspects

	Teaching Language Skills and Cultural Aspects				Mean Median Mode
	Very under-prepared	Under-prepared	Prepared	Very well prepared	
Teaching Reading – US					
Count	1	6	27	7	2.98
% within group	2.4%	14.6%	65.9%	17.1%	3.00
Cumulative %	2.4%	17.1%	82.9%	100%	3
Teaching Reading – INTL					
Count	3	10	25	3	2.68
% within group	7.3%	24.4%	61%	7.3%	3.00
Cumulative %	7.3%	31.7%	92.7%	100%	3
Teaching Listening – US					
Count	0	10	26	5	2.88
% within group	0%	24.4%	63.4%	12.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	24.4%	87.8%	100%	3
Teaching Listening – INTL					
Count	1	11	26	3	2.76
% within group	2.4%	26.8%	63.4%	7.3%	3.00
Cumulative %	2.4%	29.3%	92.7%	100%	3
Teaching Writing – US					
Count	2	7	25	7	2.90
% within group	4.9%	17.1%	61%	17.1%	3.00
Cumulative %	4.9%	22%	82.9%	100%	3
Teaching Writing – INTL					
Count	2	11	25	3	2.71
% within group	4.9%	26.8%	61%	7.3%	3.00
Cumulative %	4.9%	31.7%	92.7%	100%	3
Teaching Speaking – US					
Count	0	9	23	9	3.00
% within group	0%	22%	56.1%	22%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	22%	78%	100%	3
Teaching Speaking – INTL					
Count	1	9	27	4	2.83
% within group	2.4%	22%	65.9%	9.8%	3.00
Cumulative %	2.4%	24.4%	90.2%	100%	3
Teaching Grammar – US					
Count	1	13	19	8	2.83
% within group	2.4%	31.7%	46.3%	19.5%	3.00
Cumulative %	2.4%	34.1%	80.5%	100%	3
Teaching Grammar – INTL					
Count	3	17	16	5	2.56
% within group	7.3%	41.5%	39%	12.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	7.3%	48.8%	87.87%	100%	2

Teaching Cultural Aspects – US	0	6	21	14	3.20
Count	0%	14.6%	51.2%	34.1%	3.00
% within group	0%	14.6%	65.9%	100%	3
Cumulative %					
Teaching Cultural Aspects – INTL	1	11	18	11	2.95
Count	2.4%	26.8%	43.9%	26.8%	3.00
% within group	18%	29.3%	73.2%	100%	3
Cumulative %					
Comp. in the Structure of English – US	2	13	15	11	2.85
Count	4.9%	31.7%	36.6%	26.8%	3.00
% within group	4.9%	36.6%	73.2%	100%	3
Cumulative %					
Comp. in the Structure of English – INTL	4	13	16	8	2.68
Count	9.8%	31.7%	39%	19.5%	3.00
% within group	9.8%	41.5%	80.5%	100%	3
Cumulative %					

Figure 9.
 One-sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test Results for Current Teacher-Learners'
 Perceived Confidence in Teaching Language Skills and Cultural Aspects

		Ranks		
		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Reading_US - Reading_INTL	Negative Ranks	3 ^a	5.50	16.50
	Positive Ranks	11 ^b	8.05	88.50
	Ties	27 ^c		
	Total	41		
Listening_US - Listening_INTL	Negative Ranks	6 ^d	8.00	48.00
	Positive Ranks	10 ^e	8.80	88.00
	Ties	25 ^f		
	Total	41		
Writing_US - Writing_INTL	Negative Ranks	4 ^g	6.50	26.00
	Positive Ranks	10 ^h	7.90	79.00
	Ties	27 ⁱ		
	Total	41		
Speaking_US - Speaking_INTL	Negative Ranks	5 ^j	8.00	40.00
	Positive Ranks	11 ^k	8.73	96.00
	Ties	25 ^l		
	Total	41		
Grammar_US - Grammar_INTL	Negative Ranks	1 ^m	4.00	4.00
	Positive Ranks	9 ⁿ	5.67	51.00
	Ties	31 ^o		
	Total	41		
Cult_US - Cult_INTL	Negative Ranks	3 ^p	6.67	20.00
	Positive Ranks	10 ^q	7.10	71.00
	Ties	28 ^r		
	Total	41		
EngStr_US - EngStr_INTL	Negative Ranks	0 ^s	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	4 ^t	2.50	10.00
	Ties	37 ^u		
	Total	41		

Ranks

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Reading_US - Reading_INTL	Negative Ranks	3 ^a	5.50	16.50
	Positive Ranks	11 ^b	8.05	88.50
	Ties	27 ^c		
	Total	41		
Listening_US - Listening_INTL	Negative Ranks	6 ^d	8.00	48.00
	Positive Ranks	10 ^e	8.80	88.00
	Ties	25 ^f		
	Total	41		
Writing_US - Writing_INTL	Negative Ranks	4 ^g	6.50	26.00
	Positive Ranks	10 ^h	7.90	79.00
	Ties	27 ⁱ		
	Total	41		
Speaking_US - Speaking_INTL	Negative Ranks	5 ^j	8.00	40.00
	Positive Ranks	11 ^k	8.73	96.00
	Ties	25 ^l		
	Total	41		
Grammar_US - Grammar_INTL	Negative Ranks	1 ^m	4.00	4.00
	Positive Ranks	9 ⁿ	5.67	51.00
	Ties	31 ^o		
	Total	41		
Cult_US - Cult_INTL	Negative Ranks	3 ^p	6.67	20.00
	Positive Ranks	10 ^q	7.10	71.00
	Ties	28 ^r		
	Total	41		
EngStr_US - EngStr_INTL	Negative Ranks	0 ^s	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	4 ^t	2.50	10.00
	Ties	37 ^u		
	Total	41		

- a. Reading_US < Reading_INTL
- b. Reading_US > Reading_INTL
- c. Reading_US = Reading_INTL
- d. Listening_US < Listening_INTL
- e. Listening_US > Listening_INTL
- f. Listening_US = Listening_INTL
- g. Writing_US < Writing_INTL
- h. Writing_US > Writing_INTL
- i. Writing_US = Writing_INTL
- j. Speaking_US < Speaking_INTL
- k. Speaking_US > Speaking_INTL

- l. Speaking_US = Speaking_INTL
- m. Grammar_US < Grammar_INTL
- n. Grammar_US > Grammar_INTL
- o. Grammar_US = Grammar_INTL
- p. Cult_US < Cult_INTL
- q. Cult_US > Cult_INTL
- r. Cult_US = Cult_INTL
- s. EngStr_US < EngStr_INTL
- t. EngStr_US > EngStr_INTL
- u. EngStr_US = EngStr_INTL

Test Statistics^b

	Reading_US Reading_INT L	Listening_US Listening_INT L	Writing_US Writing_INT L	Speaking_US Speaking_INT L	Grammar_US Grammar_INT L	Cult_US Cult_INT L	EngStr_US EngStr_INT L
Z	-2.364 ^a	-1.147 ^a	-1.795 ^a	-1.606 ^a	-2.495 ^a	-1.842 ^a	-1.841 ^a
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.018	.251	.073	.108	.013	.066	.066

a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Table 11.
 Graduated Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Teaching Language Skills and Cultural Aspects

	Teaching Language Skills and Cultural Aspects				Mean Median Mode
	Very under-prepared	Under-prepared	Prepared	Very well prepared	
Teaching Reading – US					
Count	1	7	15	10	3.03
% within group	3%	21.2%	45.5%	30.3%	3.00
Cumulative %	3%	24.2%	69.7%	100%	3
Teaching Reading – INTL					
Count	7	3	16	7	2.70
% within group	21.2%	9.1%	48.5%	21.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	21.2%	30.3%	78.8%	100%	3
Teaching Listening – US					
Count	0	7	15	11	3.12
% within group	0%	21.2%	45.5%	33.3%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	21.2%	66.7%	100%	3
Teaching Listening – INTL					
Count	8	5	14	6	2.55
% within group	24.2%	15.2%	42.2%	18.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	24.2%	39.4%	81.8%	100%	3
Teaching Writing – US					
Count	1	5	15	12	3.15
% within group	3%	15.2%	12%	36.4%	3.00
Cumulative %	3%	18.2%	63.6%	100%	3
Teaching Writing – INTL					
Count	8	3	15	7	2.64
% within group	24.2%	9.1%	45.5%	21.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	24.2%	33.3%	78.8%	100%	3
Teaching Speaking – US					
Count	0	8	18	7	2.97
% within group	0%	24.2%	54.5%	21.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	24.2%	78.8%	100%	3
Teaching Speaking – INTL					
Count	7	6	15	5	2.55
% within group	21.2%	18.2%	45.5%	15.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	21.2%	39.4%	84.8%	100%	3
Teaching Grammar – US					
Count	3	6	18	6	2.82
% within group	9.1%	18.2%	54.5%	18.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	9.1%	27.3%	81.8%	100%	3
Teaching Grammar – INTL					
Count	7	6	13	7	2.61
% within group	21.2%	18.2%	39.4%	21.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	21.2%	39.4%	78.8%	100%	3
Teaching Cultural Aspects – US					
Count	0	2	14	17	3.45

	% within group	0%	6.1%	42.4%	51.5%	4.00
	Cumulative %	0%	6.1%	48.5%	100%	4
Teaching Cultural Aspects – INTL						
	Count	6	2	14	11	2.91
	% within group	18.2%	6.1%	42.1%	33.3%	3.00
	Cumulative %	18.2%	24.2%	66.7%	100%	4
Comp. in the Structure of English – US						
	Count	0	1	12	20	3.58
	% within group	0%	3%	36.4%	60.6%	4.00
	Cumulative %	0%	3%	39.4%	100%	4
Comp. in the Structure of English – INTL						
	Count	6	5	15	7	2.70
	% within group	18.2%	15.2%	45.5%	21.2%	3.00
	Cumulative %	18.2%	33.3%	78.8%	100%	3

Figure 10.

One-sample Wilcoxon signed-rank test results for Graduated Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Teaching Language Skills and Cultural Aspects

		Ranks		
		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Reading_US - Reading_INTL	Negative Ranks	4a	5.50	22.00
	Positive Ranks	10b	8.30	83.00
	Ties	19c		
	Total	33		
Listening_US - Listening_INTL	Negative Ranks	2d	5.50	11.00
	Positive Ranks	13e	8.38	109.00
	Ties	18f		
	Total	33		
Writing_US - Writing_INTL	Negative Ranks	4g	6.00	24.00
	Positive Ranks	13h	9.92	129.00
	Ties	16i		
	Total	33		
Speaking_US - Speaking_INTL	Negative Ranks	4j	5.50	22.00
	Positive Ranks	11k	8.91	98.00
	Ties	18l		
	Total	33		
Grammar_US - Grammar_INTL	Negative Ranks	3m	4.50	13.50
	Positive Ranks	7n	5.93	41.50
	Ties	23o		
	Total	33		
Cult_US - Cult_INTL	Negative Ranks	1p	3.50	3.50
	Positive Ranks	10q	6.25	62.50
	Ties	22r		
	Total	33		
EngStr_US - EngStr_INTL	Negative Ranks	2s	6.50	13.00
	Positive Ranks	18t	10.94	197.00
	Ties	13u		
	Total	33		

Ranks

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Reading_US - Reading_INTL	Negative Ranks	4a	5.50	22.00
	Positive Ranks	10b	8.30	83.00
	Ties	19c		
	Total	33		
Listening_US - Listening_INTL	Negative Ranks	2d	5.50	11.00
	Positive Ranks	13e	8.38	109.00
	Ties	18f		
	Total	33		
Writing_US - Writing_INTL	Negative Ranks	4g	6.00	24.00
	Positive Ranks	13h	9.92	129.00
	Ties	16i		
	Total	33		
Speaking_US - Speaking_INTL	Negative Ranks	4j	5.50	22.00
	Positive Ranks	11k	8.91	98.00
	Ties	18l		
	Total	33		
Grammar_US - Grammar_INTL	Negative Ranks	3m	4.50	13.50
	Positive Ranks	7n	5.93	41.50
	Ties	23o		
	Total	33		
Cult_US - Cult_INTL	Negative Ranks	1p	3.50	3.50
	Positive Ranks	10q	6.25	62.50
	Ties	22r		
	Total	33		
EngStr_US - EngStr_INTL	Negative Ranks	2s	6.50	13.00
	Positive Ranks	18t	10.94	197.00
	Ties	13u		
	Total	33		

- a. Reading_US < Reading_INTL
- b. Reading_US > Reading_INTL
- c. Reading_US = Reading_INTL
- d. Listening_US < Listening_INTL
- e. Listening_US > Listening_INTL
- f. Listening_US = Listening_INTL
- g. Writing_US < Writing_INTL
- h. Writing_US > Writing_INTL
- i. Writing_US = Writing_INTL
- j. Speaking_US < Speaking_INTL
- k. Speaking_US > Speaking_INTL

- l. Speaking_US = Speaking_INTL
- m. Grammar_US < Grammar_INTL
- n. Grammar_US > Grammar_INTL
- o. Grammar_US = Grammar_INTL
- p. Cult_US < Cult_INTL
- q. Cult_US > Cult_INTL
- r. Cult_US = Cult_INTL
- s. EngStr_US < EngStr_INTL
- t. EngStr_US > EngStr_INTL
- u. EngStr_US = EngStr_INTL

Test Statistics^b

	Reading_US Reading_INT L	Listening_US Listening_INT L	Writing_US Writing_INT L	Speaking_US Speaking_INT L	Grammar_US Grammar_INT L	Cult_US Cult_INT L	EngStr_US EngStr_INT L
Z	-2.000 ^a	-2.884 ^a	-2.570 ^a	-2.236 ^a	-1.512 ^a	-2.683 ^a	-3.531 ^a
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.046	.004	.010	.025	.131	.007	.000

a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Table 12.

Current teacher-learners' Perceived Confidence in Planning, Implementing and Managing Instruction

	Planning, implementing and managing instruction				Mean Median Mode
	Very underprepared	Under- prepared	Prepared	Very well prepared	
Differentiating instruction – US					
Count	1	13	18	9	2.85
% within group	2.4%	31.7%	43.9%	0%	3.00
Cumulative %	2.4%	34.1%	78%	100%	3
Differentiating instruction – INTL					
Count	2	15	17	7	2.71
% within group	4.9%	36.6%	41.5%	17.1%	3.00
Cumulative %	4.9%	41.5%	82.9%	100%	3
Using technology – US					
Count	3	8	19	11	2.93
% within group	7.3%	19.5%	46.3%	26.8%	3.00
Cumulative %	7.3%	26.8%	73.2%	100%	3
Using technology – INTL					
Count	4	12	20	5	2.63
% within group	9.8%	29.3%	48.8%	12.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	9.8%	39%	87.8%	100%	3
Material selection & dev. – US					
Count	0	12	24	5	2.83
% within group	0%	29.3%	58.5%	12.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	29.3%	87.8%	100%	3
Material selection & dev. – INTL					
Count	2	18	19	2	2.51
% within group	4.9%	43.9%	46.3%	4.9%	3.00
Cumulative %	4.9%	48.8%	95.1%	100%	3
Instructional planning – US					
Count	2	5	25	9	3.00
% within group	4.9%	12.2%	61%	22%	3.00
Cumulative %	4.9%	17.1%	78%	100%	3
Instructional planning – INTL					
Count	3	10	24	4	2.71
% within group	7.3%	24.4%	58.5%	9.8%	3.00
Cumulative %	7.3%	31.7%	90.2%	100%	3
Instructional delivery – US					
Count	0	9	25	7	2.95
% within group	0%	22%	61%	17.1%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	22%	82.9%	100%	3
Instructional delivery – INTL					
Count	3	9	24	5	2.76
% within group	7.3%	22%	58.5%	12.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	7.3%	29.3%	87.8%	100%	3
Classroom management – US					
Count	0	20	14	7	2.68
% within group	0%	48.8%	34.1%	17.1%	3.00

Cumulative %	0%	48.8%	82.9%	100%	2
Classroom management – INTL					
Count	4	17	15	5	2.51
% within group	9.8%	41.5%	36.6%	12.2%	2.00
Cumulative %	9.8%	51.2%	87.8%	100%	2
Safe classroom environment – US					
Count	1	5	24	11	3.10
% within group	2.4%	12.2%	58.5%	26.8%	3.00
Cumulative %	2.4%	14.6%	73.2%	100%	3
Safe classroom environment – INTL					
Count	3	6	25	7	2.88
% within group	7.3%	14.6%	61%	17.1%	3.00
Cumulative %	7.3%	22%	82.9%	100%	3
Culturally responsive teaching – US					
Count	0	7	18	16	3.22
% within group	0%	17.1%	43.9%	39%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	17.1%	61%	100%	3
Culturally responsive teaching – INTL					
Count	2	11	18	10	2.88
% within group	4.9%	26.8%	43.9%	24.4%	3.00
Cumulative %	4.9%	31.7%	75.6%	100%	3

Figure 11.
 One-sample Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test Results for Current Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Planning, Implementing and Managing Instruction

		Ranks		
		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
DiffInst_US - DiffInst_INTL	Negative Ranks	3 ^a	6.33	19.00
	Positive Ranks	8 ^b	5.88	47.00
	Ties	30 ^c		
	Total	41		
Tech_US - Tech_INTL	Negative Ranks	1 ^d	4.50	4.50
	Positive Ranks	10 ^e	6.15	61.50
	Ties	30 ^f		
	Total	41		
Material_US - Material_INTL	Negative Ranks	2 ^g	7.00	14.00
	Positive Ranks	13 ^h	8.15	106.00
	Ties	26 ⁱ		
	Total	41		
InstPlan_US - InstPlan_INTL	Negative Ranks	1 ^j	10.50	10.50
	Positive Ranks	11 ^k	6.14	67.50
	Ties	29 ^l		
	Total	41		
InstDelv_US - InstDelv_INTL	Negative Ranks	3 ^m	4.50	13.50
	Positive Ranks	8 ⁿ	6.56	52.50
	Ties	30 ^o		
	Total	41		
ClassMan_US - ClassMan_INTL	Negative Ranks	5 ^p	6.50	32.50
	Positive Ranks	9 ^q	8.06	72.50
	Ties	27 ^r		
	Total	41		
LearnEnv_US - LearnEnv_INTL	Negative Ranks	2 ^s	4.00	8.00
	Positive Ranks	7 ^t	5.29	37.00
	Ties	32 ^u		
	Total	41		
CultResp_US - CultResp_INTL	Negative Ranks	1 ^v	3.50	3.50
	Positive Ranks	10 ^w	6.25	62.50
	Ties	30 ^x		
	Total	41		

a. DiffInst_US < DiffInst_INTL		i. Material_US = Material_INTL		q. ClassMan_US > ClassMan_INTL	
b. DiffInst_US > DiffInst_INTL		j. InstPlan_US < InstPlan_INTL		r. ClassMan_US = ClassMan_INTL	
c. DiffInst_US = DiffInst_INTL		k. InstPlan_US > InstPlan_INTL		s. LearnEnv_US < LearnEnv_INTL	
d. Tech_US < Tech_INTL		l. InstPlan_US = InstPlan_INTL		t. LearnEnv_US > LearnEnv_INTL	
e. Tech_US > Tech_INTL		m. InstDelv_US < InstDelv_INTL		u. LearnEnv_US = LearnEnv_INTL	
f. Tech_US = Tech_INTL		n. InstDelv_US > InstDelv_INTL		v. CultResp_US < CultResp_INTL	
g. Material_US < Material_INTL		o. InstDelv_US = InstDelv_INTL		w. CultResp_US > CultResp_INTL	
h. Material_US > Material_INTL		p. ClassMan_US < ClassMan_INTL		x. CultResp_US = CultResp_INTL	

	DiffInst US DiffInst INTL	Tech US Tech INTL	Material US Material INTL	Inst Plan US Inst Plan INTL	Inst Delv US Inst Delv INTL	Class Man US Class Man INTL	Learn Env US Learn Env INTL	Cult Resp US Cult Resp INTL
Z	-1.303 ^a	-2.652 ^a	-2.829 ^a	-2.321 ^a	-1.814 ^a	-1.355 ^a	-1.811 ^a	-2.697 ^a
Asymp. Sig. (2- tailed)	.193	.008	.005	.020	.070	.176	.070	.007

a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

	DiffInst US DiffInst INTL	Tech US Tech INTL	Material US Material INTL	Inst Plan US Inst Plan INTL	Inst Delv US Inst Delv INTL	Class Man US Class Man INTL	Learn Env US Learn Env INTL	Cult Resp US Cult Resp INTL
Z	-1.303 ^a	-2.652 ^a	-2.829 ^a	-2.321 ^a	-1.814 ^a	-1.355 ^a	-1.811 ^a	-2.697 ^a
Asymp. Sig. (2- tailed)	.193	.008	.005	.020	.070	.176	.070	.007

a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Table 13.
 Graduated Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Planning, Implementing and Managing Instruction

	Planning, implementing and managing instruction				Mean Median Mode
	Very under-prepared	Underprepared	Prepared	Very well prepared	
Differentiating instruction – US					
Count	0	4	16	13	3.27
% within group	0%	12.1%	48.5%	39.4%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	12.1%	60.6%	100%	3
Differentiating instruction – INTL					
Count	7	3	14	9	2.76
% within group	21.2%	9.1%	42.4%	27.3%	3.00
Cumulative %	21.2%	30.3%	72.7%	100%	3
Using technology – US					
Count	0	6	19	8	3.06
% within group	0%	18.2%	57.6%	24.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	18.2%	75.8%	100%	3
Using technology – INTL					
Count	6	6	14	7	2.67
% within group	18.2%	18.2%	42.4%	21.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	18.2%	36.4%	78.8%	100%	3
Material selection & dev. – US					
Count	0	8	18	7	2.97
% within group	0%	24.2%	54.5%	21.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	24.2%	78.8%	100%	3
Material selection & dev. – INTL					
Count	6	7	13	7	2.64
% within group	18.2%	21.2%	39.4%	21.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	18.2%	39.4%	78.8%	100%	3
Instructional planning – US					
Count	0	5	14	14	3.27
% within group	0%	15.2%	42.4%	42.4%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	15.2%	57.6%	100%	3
Instructional planning – INTL					
Count	6	4	15	8	2.76
% within group	18.2%	12.1%	45.5%	24.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	18.2%	30.3%	75.8%	100%	3
Instructional delivery – US					
Count	0	2	14	17	3.45
% within group	0%	6.1%	42.4%	51.5%	4.00
Cumulative %	0%	6.1%	48.5%	100%	4
Instructional delivery – INTL					
Count	7	4	15	7	2.67
% within group	21.2%	12.1%	45.5%	21.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	21.2%	33.3%	78.8%	100%	3
Classroom management – US					
Count	2	2	19	10	3.12
% within group	6.1%	6.1%	57.6%	30.3%	3.00

Cumulative %	6.1%	12.1%	69.7%	100%	3
Classroom management – INTL					
Count	7	4	15	7	2.67
% within group	21.2%	12.1%	45.5%	21.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	21.2%	33.3%	78.8%	100%	3
Safe classroom environment – US					
Count	0	0	17	16	3.48
% within group	0%	0%	51.5%	48.5%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	0%	51.5%	100%	3
Safe classroom environment – INTL					
Count	6	1	16	10	2.91
% within group	18.2%	3%	48.5%	30.3%	3.00
Cumulative %	18.2%	21.2%	69.7%	100%	3
Culturally responsive teaching – US					
Count	0	1	12	20	3.58
% within group	0%	3%	36.4%	60.6%	4.00
Cumulative %	0%	3%	39.4%	100%	4
Culturally responsive teaching – INTL					
Count	6	3	11	13	2.94
% within group	18.2%	9.1%	33.3%	39.4%	3.00
Cumulative %	18.2%	27.3%	60.6%	100%	3

Figure 12.

One-sample Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test Results for Graduated Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence In Planning, Implementing and Managing Instruction

		Ranks		
		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
DiffInst_INTL - DiffInst_US	Negative Ranks	12 ^a	7.92	95.00
	Positive Ranks	2 ^b	5.00	10.00
	Ties	19 ^c		
	Total	33		
Tech_INTL - Tech_US	Negative Ranks	12 ^d	8.50	102.00
	Positive Ranks	3 ^e	6.00	18.00
	Ties	18 ^f		
	Total	33		
Material_INTL - Material_US	Negative Ranks	11 ^g	8.55	94.00
	Positive Ranks	4 ^h	6.50	26.00
	Ties	18 ⁱ		
	Total	33		
InstPlan_INTL - InstPlan_US	Negative Ranks	12 ^j	7.92	95.00
	Positive Ranks	2 ^k	5.00	10.00
	Ties	19 ^l		
	Total	33		
InstDelv_INTL - InstDelv_US	Negative Ranks	19 ^m	10.66	202.50
	Positive Ranks	1 ⁿ	7.50	7.50
	Ties	13 ^o		
	Total	33		
ClassMan_INTL - ClassMan_US	Negative Ranks	11 ^p	9.86	108.50
	Positive Ranks	5 ^q	5.50	27.50
	Ties	17 ^r		
	Total	33		
LearnEnv_INTL - LearnEnv_US	Negative Ranks	11 ^s	6.77	74.50
	Positive Ranks	1 ^t	3.50	3.50
	Ties	21 ^u		
	Total	33		
CultResp_INTL - CultResp_US	Negative Ranks	10 ^v	6.35	63.50
	Positive Ranks	1 ^w	2.50	2.50
	Ties	22 ^x		
	Total	33		

a. DiffInst_INTL < DiffInst_US	i. Material_INTL = Material_US	q. ClassMan_INTL > ClassMan_US
b. DiffInst_INTL > DiffInst_US	j. InstPlan_INTL < InstPlan_US	r. ClassMan_INTL = ClassMan_US
c. DiffInst_INTL = DiffInst_US	k. InstPlan_INTL > InstPlan_US	s. LearnEnv_INTL < LearnEnv_US
d. Tech_INTL < Tech_US	l. InstPlan_INTL = InstPlan_US	t. LearnEnv_INTL > LearnEnv_US
e. Tech_INTL > Tech_US	m. InstDelv_INTL < InstDelv_US	u. LearnEnv_INTL = LearnEnv_US
f. Tech_INTL = Tech_US	n. InstDelv_INTL > InstDelv_US	v. CultResp_INTL < CultResp_US
g. Material_INTL < Material_US	o. InstDelv_INTL = InstDelv_US	w. CultResp_INTL > CultResp_US
h. Material_INTL > Material_US	p. ClassMan_INTL < ClassMan_US	x. CultResp_INTL = CultResp_US

	DiffInst US DiffInst INTL	Tech US Tech INTL	Material US Material INTL	Inst Plan US Inst Plan INTL	Inst Delv US Inst Delv INTL	Class Man US Class Man INTL	Learn Env US Learn Env INTL	Cult Resp US Cult Resp INTL
Z	-2.754 ^a	-2.504 ^a	-2.054 ^a	-2.754 ^a	-3.797 ^a	-2.158 ^a	-2.832 ^a	-2.754 ^a
Asymp. Sig. (2- tailed)	.006	.012	.040	.006	.000	.031	.005	.006

a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Table 14.
Current Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Assessment

	Assessment				Mean Median Mode
	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Prepared	Very well prepared	
Formal assessment – US					
Count	1	9	26	5	2.85
% within group	2.4%	22%	63.4%	12.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	2.4%	24.4%	87.8%	100%	3
Formal assessment – INTL					
Count	3	15	21	2	2.54
% within group	7.3%	36.6%	51.2%	4.9%	3.00
Cumulative %	7.3%	43.9%	95.1%	100%	3
Informal assessment – US					
Count	1	3	29	8	3.07
% within group	2.4%	7.3%	70.7%	19.5%	3.00
Cumulative %	2.4%	9.8%	80.5%	100%	3
Informal assessment – INTL					
Count	3	8	25	5	2.78
% within group	7.3%	19.5%	61%	12.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	7.3%	26.8%	87.8%	100%	3

Figure 13.
One-sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test Results for Current Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Assessment

		Ranks		
		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
FormAssess_US - Form_Assess_INTL	Negative Ranks	2 ^a	5.00	10.00
	Positive Ranks	11 ^b	7.36	81.00
	Ties	28 ^c		
	Total	41		
InfAssess_US - InfAssess_INTL	Negative Ranks	1 ^d	5.50	5.50
	Positive Ranks	11 ^e	6.59	72.50
	Ties	29 ^f		
	Total	41		

a. FormAssess_US < Form_Assess_INTL

d. InfAssess_US < InfAssess_INTL

b. FormAssess_US > Form_Assess_INTL

e. InfAssess_US > InfAssess_INTL

c. FormAssess_US = Form_Assess_INTL

f. InfAssess_US = InfAssess_INTL

Test Statistics^b

	FormAssess_US Form_Assess_INTL	InfAssess_US InfAssess_INTL L
Z	-2.586 ^a	-2.814 ^a
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.005

a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Table 15.
 Graduated Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Assessment

	Assessment				Mean Median Mode
	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Prepared	Very well prepared	
Formal assessment – US					
Count	0	5	16	12	3.21
% within group	0%	15.2%	48.5%	36.4%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	15.2%	63.6%	100%	3
Formal assessment – INTL					
Count	6	5	15	7	2.70
% within group	18.2%	15.2%	45.5%	21.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	18.2%	33.3%	78.8%	100%	3
Informal assessment – US					
Count	0	2	19	12	3.30
% within group	0%	6.1%	57.6%	36.4%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	6.1%	63.6%	100%	3
Informal assessment – INTL					
Count	6	1	19	7	2.82
% within group	18.2%	3%	57.6%	21.2%	3.00
Cumulative %	18.2%	21.2%	78.8%	100%	3

Figure 14.

One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test Results for Graduated Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Assessment

		Ranks		
		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Form_Assess_INTL - FormAssess_US	Negative Ranks	10 ^a	5.50	55.00
	Positive Ranks	0 ^b	.00	.00
	Ties	23 ^c		
	Total	33		
InfAssess_INTL - InfAssess_US	Negative Ranks	10 ^d	7.90	79.00
	Positive Ranks	3 ^e	4.00	12.00
	Ties	20 ^f		
	Total	33		

a. Form_Assess_INTL < FormAssess_US

b. Form_Assess_INTL > FormAssess_US

c. Form_Assess_INTL = FormAssess_US

d. InfAssess_INTL < InfAssess_US

e. InfAssess_INTL > InfAssess_US

f. InfAssess_INTL = InfAssess_US

Test Statistics^b

	Form_Assess_INTL - - FormAssess_US	InfAssess_INTL - InfAssess_US
Z	-2.859 ^a	-2.388 ^a
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.017

a. Based on positive ranks.

b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Table 16.
Current Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Professionalism

	Professionalism				Mean Median Mode
	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Prepared	Very well prepared	
Professional Collaboration – US					
Count	0	11	23	7	2.90
% within group	0%	26.8%	56.1%	17.1%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	26.8%	82.9%	100%	3
Professional Collaboration – INTL					
Count	5	17	18	3	2.41
% within group	12.2%	41.5%	39%	7.3%	2.00
Cumulative %	12.2%	53.7%	92.7%	100%	2
Personal Reflection – US					
Count	0	5	21	15	3.24
% within group	0%	12.2%	51.2%	36.6%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	12.2%	63.4%	100%	3
Personal Reflection – INTL					
Count	1	7	20	13	3.10
% within group	2.4%	17.1%	48.8%	31.7%	3.00
Cumulative %	2.4%	19.5%	68.3%	100%	3

Figure 15.
 One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test Results for Current Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Professionalism

		Ranks		
		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Coll_US - Coll_INTL	Negative Ranks	2 ^a	6.50	13.00
	Positive Ranks	15 ^b	9.33	140.00
	Ties	24 ^c		
	Total	41		
Reflection_US - Reflection_INTL	Negative Ranks	0 ^d	.00	.00
	Positive Ranks	4 ^e	2.50	10.00
	Ties	37 ^f		
	Total	41		

a. Coll_US < Coll_INTL

b. Coll_US > Coll_INTL

c. Coll_US = Coll_INTL

d. Reflection_US < Reflection_INTL

e. Reflection_US > Reflection_INTL

f. Reflection_US = Reflection_INTL

Test Statistics^b

	Coll_US Coll_INTL	Reflection_US Reflection_INTL
Z	-3.137 ^a	-1.890 ^a
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.059

a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Table 17.

Graduated Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Professionalism

	Professionalism				Mean Median Mode
	Very underprepared	Underprepared	Prepared	Very well prepared	
Professional Collaboration – US					
Count	0	4	13	16	3.36
% within group	0%	12.1%	39.4%	48.5%	3.00
Cumulative %	0%	12.1%	51.5%	100%	4
Professional Collaboration – INTL					
Count	7	3	13	10	2.79
% within group	21.2%	9.1%	39.4%	30.3%	3.00
Cumulative %	21.2%	30.3%	69.7%	100%	3
Personal Reflection – US					
Count	0	3	10	20	3.52
% within group	0%	9.1%	30.3%	60.6%	4.00
Cumulative %	0%	9.1%	39.4%	100%	4
Personal Reflection – INTL					
Count	6	2	13	12	2.94
% within group	18.2%	6.1%	39.4%	36.4%	3.00
Cumulative %	18.2%	24.2%	63.6%	100%	3

Figure 16.

One-sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test Results for Graduated Teacher-Learners' Perceived Confidence in Professionalism

Ranks

	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Coll_US - Coll_INTL	Negative Ranks	3 ^a	19.50
	Positive Ranks	14 ^b	133.50
	Ties	16 ^c	
	Total	33	
Reflection_US - Reflection_INTL	Negative Ranks	1 ^d	3.00
	Positive Ranks	10 ^e	63.00
	Ties	22 ^f	
	Total	33	

a. Coll_US < Coll_INTL

b. Coll_US > Coll_INTL

c. Coll_US = Coll_INTL

d. Reflection_US < Reflection_INTL

e. Reflection_US > Reflection_INTL

f. Reflection_US = Reflection_INTL

Test Statistics^b

	Coll_US - Coll_INTL	Reflection_US - Reflection_INTL
Z	-2.815 ^a	-2.709 ^a
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.007

a. Based on negative ranks.

b. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

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