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Faculty's Experiences Teaching English Language Learners in Higher Education

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Faculty's Experiences Teaching English Language Learners in Higher Education

A DISSERTATION

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by

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DISSERTATION APPROVAL

We hereby approve the Dissertation

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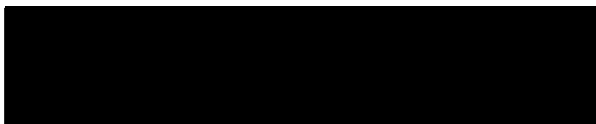
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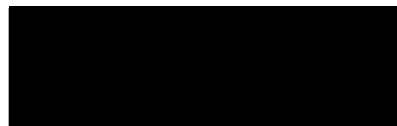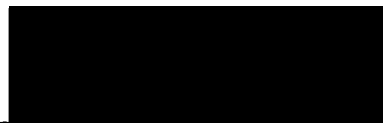Dissertation Committee:

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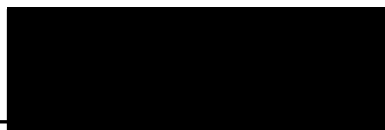_____
Dr. Emily Klein

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Abstract

Conducted in a large size four-year state university, the purpose of this qualitative study was to learn how faculty of multiple disciplines examined and made meaning of their instructional practices and decisions when teaching ELL students, how they modified their instruction to meet the needs of ELLs, and what they saw as areas of struggle when working with this student population. Critical pedagogy (Freire, 1970) was used as a theoretical framework to further investigate the complex nature of how higher education faculty make meaning of their instructional experiences when teaching ELLs within the hierarchical structures inherent in higher education and society at large. Hence, the analyses and discussions were structured through the lens of a Freirean critical pedagogy which allowed me to reveal the complexity of higher education faculty's teaching experiences when teaching ELLs and how their instructional decisions are rooted within these hierarchal institutional structures.

The findings revealed that all participant faculty were genuinely empathetic towards their ELL students' level of English proficiency and how it affected their learning outcomes, and they all expressed interest in attempting to modify their instruction to meet the needs of these students. However, they reported real concerns and frustrations due to their lack of knowledge, expertise, adequate preparation, and especially institutional support to address such needs. The prospect of having to attend to yet another task, in addition to already existing responsibilities, created tension and exacerbated already existing challenges, as faculty attempted to navigate their teaching load and academic obligations while attending to their ELL students' linguistic needs as a catalyst for their learning outcomes and academic success.

Keywords: English Language Learners, higher education, faculty teaching ELLs, teaching English Language Learners in college, ELLs in post-secondary education.

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To my participants for this study, anonymously named, Isabella, Bianca, Debbie, Peter, and Julius, I am so grateful for your willingness to participate in my study; were it not for your stories and reflections, I would not be here now. I thank you for your genuine interest in my

research, where our stories intersected to create a valuable contribution to the field of education in an ongoing effort to cultivate the lost voices of multilingual students.

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To my family separated from me by the sea, my siblings, those gone and those still here, my nieces and my nephews, my great nieces and great nephews, and my brother in-law, Mounir Bakay, you are the roots that hold me, and the core of my persistence and success. I am forever thankful to have you, I love and cherish what we share, and I miss you all. Although continents and borders may separate us, we remain connected and united.

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to these individuals without whom I would never have been able to start and complete this work: My mother, Zohra, and my father, Amara. Thank you for instilling in me the importance of education and persistently reminding me that education is the only thing that I really own and that none can take away from me. For my recently deceased sisters, Lilia and Hinda, and their spouses, Ahmed and Salah. I wish you were still here…I miss you tremendously! May you rest in peace!

To diverse students from all over the globe whose motivation and resilience continue to take them to places to inspire others. And to all educators whose investment in their students and commitment to equity never ceases, and who are always eager to learn, to push boundaries, to advocate for just practices, and to tirelessly resist unjust systemic structures.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

How do educators approach an increasingly diverse student population that is culturally and linguistically different from their native United States-born students? How do they know if the instruction they provide these students is effective or not? Such questions take on greater significance in the context of broader debates about immigration in the United States (U.S.), where anti-immigration laws and policies and English-only instruction have fueled negative views of minority students and immigrant communities (Rodgers & Bailey, 2020). We see this in various forms in society including the ways it is rooted in the broader cultural fear of "otherness" that continue to plague society at large and perpetuate the exclusion and stigmatizing of minority groups such as English Language Learners (ELLs) (Giroux & McLaren, 1987; Koppelman, 2005; Ladson-Billings, 2005; Prieto, 2015; Reeves, 2004; Shear & Jordan, 2020; Valentine, 2020; Volf, 2019). These views of culturally and linguistically diverse minority groups, which include ELLs, have implicit and explicit effects on educators' perspectives concerning who has the power of knowledge and how mainstream students should be taught. How such views, in turn, perpetuate the status quo and adversely impact the decisions educators make when teaching ELL students informs this study.

My linguistic and cultural background, coupled with my experience as both a non-native student and educator, have certainly shaped my thinking about and informed my research interest in the learning experiences of linguistically and culturally diverse students in higher education. My educational path in this country has spanned many diverse schooling experiences—as a learner from English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms to undergraduate and later graduate and doctoral studies, and as a teacher from teaching middle school and high school students to teaching at the college level. In the course of these learning and teaching experiences,

I have increasingly been exposed to issues of diversity and inequity which have deepened my understanding of how I am positioned as both student and teacher and the roles I play as such. My current role as a researcher and my experience in the U.S. education system as student, teacher, and college instructor have furthermore shaped my perspective and positionality on the role of the teacher with respect to cultural and linguistic diversity and inequality. I have had to reflect on my identity as I developed my repertoire as both educator and researcher. I am particularly cognizant of the dual perspective I have had, which is uncharacteristic of most educators in the U.S. On the one hand, I am a non-native English student who was educated as an ELL in this country and have thus lived first-hand the experience of being an ELL college student in the U.S. On the other hand, as a foreign language teacher, I have had the experience of teaching native English-speaking students what it is like to try to learn another language.

In contrast, the majority of K–12 teachers (80%) and college and university faculty (76%) in the U.S. are white (De Brey, et al., 2021; National Center for Education Statistics, 2019, 2020;) and mostly monolingual native English speakers, who, when teaching ELLs, do not necessarily have the knowledge of what it is like to teach students in a language that is not their own. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2020) and the Digest of Education Statistics (2019), in the U.S. the large majority of white professors in the senior ranks of the faculty are male, whereas a thin majority of white professors in the junior ranks of the faculty are female. However, regardless of rank, the vast majority of faculty in postsecondary education are white.[1] Approximately 76% of faculty are white, 38% of whom are white male and

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[1] Following what is now established convention as evident from Associated Press publications, I chose to write "white" with a lower-case "w" because unlike "Black," for which the upper-case "B" denotes the recognition of a

38% of whom are white female (Digest of Education Statistics, 2019; Institute of Education Science: National Center for Education Statistics, 2020).

Likewise, being able to speak other languages helped me to better recognize the challenges my diverse students faced as they acquired language proficiency and thereby helped me to better adapt my instructional strategies according to their linguistic and cultural needs. When I taught in the college classroom, I was already familiar with the complexity of language learning in a linguistically diverse mainstream college classroom. But like many instructors, I have still had to wrestle with my own views and values, as they differ from other educators and administrators. Such experiences dramatically affected my perspective of my role as a critically conscious, social justice-oriented educator who strives to develop knowledge and who has a disposition to better serve those linguistically diverse students who urgently need a more equitable education. Several questions have materialized as I continue to navigate the path of my own education and make meaning of my positionality and what role I play in all this. Who is responsible for the education of those many uniquely linguistically diverse students? What are the steps necessary to make their learning experience meaningful, rewarding, and equitable? As educators, how can we invest in our *own* learning in this context? And how can we prevail despite barriers?

The U.S. education system—like that of most any country—is geared to help perpetuate and enrich the culture of the society by equipping people with the knowledge and skills they need to become functional participants in society. In this context, many pertinent issues have

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people's shared history, especially one marked by prejudice and discrimination because of skin color, "whites" in general don't share any such history. For a more detailed explanation, see Daniszewski (2020).

been raised, researched, and debated concerning the purpose(s) of schools—from educating students to become informed and engaged citizens who further the cause of a democratic society to producing a skilled labor force to address economic needs and generate economic growth (Bolin, 2017; Dewey, 2008; Lareau, 1987, 2002; McLaren, 2003). But the education system as a whole cannot effectively function unless it is informed by diverse perspectives and based on ideas designed to benefit everybody in the society—regardless of race, ethnicity, class, gender, and sexual orientation—and not just a single group of people. Thus, numerous theories have been developed in recent decades, and debates among researchers and stakeholders have ensued, concerning the nature of reforms that would lead to the implementation of a vision of education and teaching responsive to the cultural, linguistic, economic, and social contexts of *all* students' lives—which in a society as diverse as ours seems essential if schools are to succeed in their mission, however it is defined. Many researchers and scholars indeed have expressed concerns and posed questions about the meaning of and the need for enacting equity and social justice-oriented practices in our education system as a whole and especially for minority students from diverse social, racial, cultural, and socioeconomic backgrounds who, in a democratic society such as ours, have the right to a high quality education just like the rest of their American counterparts (Anyon, 1981; Abu Al-Hajj, 2011; Kanno, 2018; Koppelman, 2005; Ladson-Billings, 1994, 1995, 1996, 2005, 2009; Lareau, 1987, 2002 Paris & Alim, 2017; Suarez-Orozco, 2009; Wiley et al., 2018).

How to respond to an increasingly diverse student population is itself an extraordinarily complex issue, and various explanations have been offered and arguments made about the causes of the racial, class, and gender inequalities that pervade American education and, by extension, American society as a whole. It is important to note in this context that some cultural

representations taught in schools may in fact significantly contribute to the persistence of such

inequalities in education. This is evident in how curriculum content typically represents social

norms and hierarchies that contribute to perpetuating the status quo, and thus the need for

culturally responsive teaching is that much more apparent. Such representations, no doubt, are

rooted in longstanding prejudices and earlier beliefs about the purpose of public education,

which devalued diversity and emphasized the assimilation of students of different backgrounds

into the dominant white culture. Conversely, and broadly speaking, culturally responsive

teaching recognizes cultural differences as assets and thus helps in creating a caring learning

environment in which individuals from different cultures and their heritages are valued

(Andrade, 2006; Andrade et al., 2014; De Jon, 2005, 2018; Jackson, 1986; Ladson-Billings 2005;

Nieto, 1992, 1999, 2000, 2004; Lucas et al., 2008; Lucas & Villegas, 2011, 2013; Lucas et al.,

2015; Villegas,1998; Reeves, 2009; Sleeter, 2018a, 2018b; Sleeter & Carmona, 2017). As

Jackson (1986) argued, since culture and difference are important aspects of humanity, they

should play leading roles when it comes to teaching and learning of all students, especially those

from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds such as ELLs. In addition, culturally responsive

teaching involves using the knowledge of cultural diversity to help guide and inform curriculum

development, strategies for instruction, and relationships between diverse learners and their

instructors.

The unprecedented increase in the ELL student population in K–12 U.S. public schools

and institutions (De Jon, 2005; De Jon et al., 2013; De Jon et al., 2018; De Jon et al., 2019;

Lucas & Grinberg, 2008; Mahalingappa et al., 2021; Migration Policy Institute, 2020) has

imposed new challenges for policy makers and public institutions, but primarily for mainstream

educators many of whom are neither acquainted with nor adequately prepared to teach such

diverse students whose cultural and linguistic backgrounds are dramatically different from their

own and that of their U.S.-born, mainstream students (Andrade, 2010; De Jon, 2005, De Jon et

al., 2019; Kanno, 2018; Ladson-Billings, 2004; Lucas et al., 2015; Lucas & Villegas, 2011;

Sleeter & Carmona, 2017). The effects of this lack of preparedness to teach ELLs in mainstream

classrooms is not, however, limited to K–12 education; it expands to higher education as well. If

ELLs do not receive quality instruction from skilled teachers in high school, they enter the

college classroom at a disadvantage compared to their native English-speaking peers and likely

encounter the same source of obstacles to their academic success that they confronted in their K–

12 education.

Postsecondary educators and administrators thus face equally pressing challenges,

especially since the number of ELLs in higher education has also increased steadily over the past

few decades. Students of immigrant parents who were born in the U.S. constitute 20% of the

total U.S. college student population and 24% of community college students (Burgey et al.,

2018). From 1990 to 2014, international student enrollment in U.S. campuses more than doubled

and reached a high of 1 million students for the 2016-17 academic year. It is furthermore

important to note that not all ELLs are immigrants and international students. For instance,

native U.S born students who speak non-mainstream varieties of English are considered ELLs as

well (de Kleine, 2015; de Kleine & Lawton, 2015, 2018). Likewise, not all immigrants and

international students are considered ELLs (Burgey et al., 2018; Gallagher & Hann, 2018; Hann,

et al., 2017; Kanno, 2018; Kanno & Cromley, 2013). These different categories of students

underscore the shift in the broader demographic landscape, the nature of the linguistically diverse

classrooms in which we teach, and the complexity of identifying and categorizing ELLs, and

thus the need for effective, innovative, and responsive instruction that addresses their various

educational and learning needs (Burgey et al., 2018). So, more than ever, both K–12 public

schools and postsecondary institutions need to understand the connection between the quality of

instruction for ELLs and its impact on their access to college and their performance and success

at the postsecondary level. Until then, K–12 ELLs will continue to transfer to college at

underrepresented rates, and those who do transfer will continue to face familiar challenges to

their success in mainstream college classrooms (Almon, 2014; Callaham & Gandara, 2004;

Flores & Drake, 2014; Flores & Rosa, 2015; Flores et al., 2015; Harklau, 2000; Kanno &

Cromley, 2015; Perez & Morrison, 2016).

      In chapter one below I provided an outline of the background information pertaining to

the various factors contributing to the shift in the demographic landscape of higher education in

the U.S. and the challenges this posed for educators and institutions. I then identified the gap in

the literature that focused almost exclusively on ELL instruction and performance in K-12 and

very little on the subject in higher education. I then stated the purpose of my study as it aimed to

address how this gap in the research pertaining to this student population in higher education, the

range of ELLs categories, the factors contributing to their college access and attainment, and the

challenges posed for both ELLs and those who teach them. These challenges in turn hinder their

success in mainstream college classrooms. I concluded with a definition of key terminology to

better explain the complexity of the ELL student population, their unique and diverse learning

needs, and what all this implies for educators who are not adequately prepared to teach and who

lack the support to address their linguistic needs.

Statement of the Problem

      The globalization of the economy has led to substantial changes in many aspects of

peoples' lives, among the most significant of which is the increasing migration of people across

national borders. This migration in turn has presented new challenges to both immigrants and their host countries that are not only evident across the social and political landscape, but equally present in the field of education. In fact, and due to the increased influx of immigration to the U.S. in recent decades, a new student demographic population has emerged in U.S. K–12 public schools that has dramatically changed the ethnic character and linguistic landscape of U.S. schools in general (Lucas et al., 2015). This growth has been well documented in the research literature (Batalova & Levesque, 2021; Batalova & Zong, 2016; Lucas et al., 2015; Lucas & Villegas, 2011, 2013; National Center for Educational Statistics, 2016; US Census Bureau, 2010; U.S. Department of Education, Office of Second Language Acquisition, 2015; U.S. Department of Education, 2018).

Commonly referred to as ELLs, this student population is the fastest growing and continues to grow in both absolute numbers and as a percentage of the total number of students in U.S. public institutions. According to the data from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, 2016), U.S. public schools have experienced an increase in the ELL student population from an estimated 4.2 million (8.8%) in 2003–2004 to an estimated 4.5 million (9.3%) in 2013–2014. Similarly, a report from the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) showed that ELLs constituted roughly 10.5% of the U.S. K–12 student population in 2008 in comparison to 5% in 1990. Equally important, and unlike the past two decades, this growing number of ELL students is no longer confined to a few states but has spread to a majority of states (NCTE, 2008). Likewise, more than 55% of K–12 educators in public schools stated that they are teaching a minimum of one ELL in their classrooms (NCES, 2012).

This globalizing trend has had a clear impact on higher education as well. The U.S. maintains strong and enduring economic and political relations with various other countries,

which, together with the value of U.S. postsecondary degrees, has made the U.S. one of the

leading destinations for international students seeking higher education whose numbers continue

to increase. The advances in communication and transportation technologies have facilitated the

movement of immigrant and international students from across the borders who seek higher

education degrees that increase their chances for success in a global labor market. Indeed, in

today's economy, attaining a postsecondary degree is often necessary to successfully compete in

the job market and to better ensure the potential of a secure career (Anyon, 1981; Bowles &

Gintis, 1976; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Office of Occupational Statistics and Employment

Projections, 2018). Finally, in the context of economic globalization, the ever-changing demands

of the job market require skills that only a higher education can provide (Migration Policy

Institute, 2020). Hence, most students from abroad come to U.S. colleges and universities to seek

those skills and obtain higher degrees. The declining U.S. fertility rate and an aging population,

on the one hand, and the rapid influx of migrants due to globalization, on the other hand, "mean

that all net labor force growth in the United States over the next 15 years is expected to come

from immigrant-origin workers. A similar trend can already be seen in U.S. higher education.

Immigrant-origin students have helped drive growth in postsecondary enrollment nationwide and

across many states" (Migration Policy Institute, 2020, pp. 2–3). As Batalova and Feldblum's

(2020) analysis of U.S Census Bureau data highlighted, in 2018, students from immigrant

families comprised nearly 30% of the U.S. student college population, an increase of almost 10%

from 2000 (Migration Policy Institute, 2020).

 Further adding to this growing diversity of the student body in U.S. postsecondary

institutions are the institutional initiatives promoting internationalization in higher education

(Andrade, 2006; Andrade et al., 2014; Andrade et al., 2015; Gallagher & Hann, 2018; Hann et

al., 2017; Senyshyn & Smith, 2019) and more concerted efforts to recruit international students to increase both student enrollments and profits. The flow of international ELL students from all over the world to U.S. institutions of higher education has not only increased the bilingual and multilingual student body within mainstream college classrooms but has also offered a steady source of new students matriculating in higher education (Andrade, 2006; Banks, 2010; Wang & Machado, 2015). According to international student data from the 2020 Open Doors Report of the Institute of International Education (IIE), the number of international students studying in the U.S. continues to grow, despite a slight decline by less than 2% between the year 2018–2019 and 2019-2020, when there was a total of 1,075,496 international students in postsecondary education. The IIE ranks California, New York, Texas, Massachusetts, Illinois, Pennsylvania, Florida, Ohio, Michigan, and Indiana as the top ten U.S. States hosting international college students. Additionally, IIE reported the top 20 U.S. institutions of higher education that host international students and award them academic credits. Among those with the highest numbers of international student enrollments are New York University (21,093), Columbia University (17,145), Northeastern University (17,491), University of Southern California-Los Angeles (17,309), University of Illinois-Urbana-Champaign (13,962), and Arizona State University-Tempe (13,136) (Open Doors Report--the Institute of International Education, 2020). Parallel to this, in 2018, "while immigrant-origin students accounted for 28 percent of all postsecondary students, they represented much higher shares among some racial and ethnic minority groups" (Migration Policy Institute, 2020, p. 5). Immigrants and U.S-born children of immigrants constituted 85% of all Asian American and Pacific Islander students, and 63% of Latino students. At the same time, 24% of Black students were from immigrant families in comparison

to 76% of U.S born to U.S-born parents (Migration Policy Institute, 2020). **Figure 1** below

illustrates such growth and change in students' demographic and ethnicity.

Figure 1

The Changing Demographic of Student Enrollment in Higher Education (Migration Policy

Institute, 2020).

Students Enrolled in Postsecondary Education, by Race/Ethnicity and Immigrant Generation, 2018
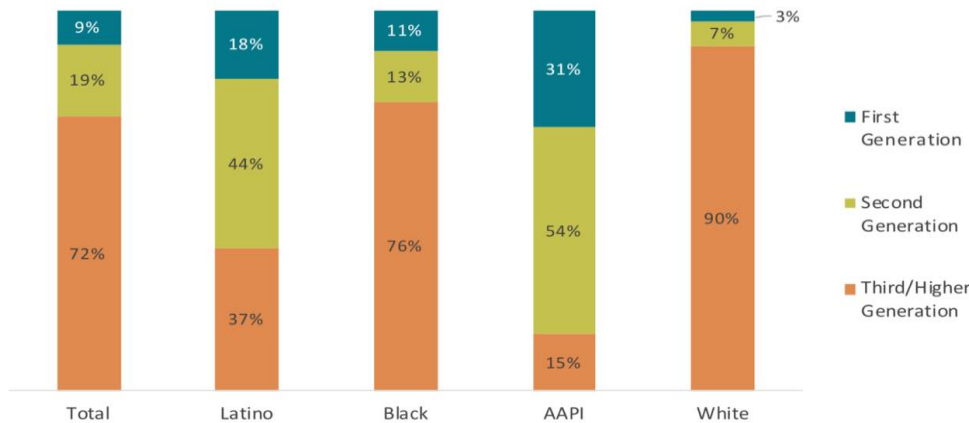
AAPI = Asian American and Pacific Islander.
Source: MPI analysis of data from the CPS October 2018 Educational Supplement.

While internationalization itself is a complex topic that goes beyond the scope of this

study, it is nevertheless another reason that explains the increasingly visible presence of

international students in mainstream U.S. college classes and further underscores the need for

adequate faculty preparation to teach such a linguistically and culturally diverse student

population. This lack of preparedness, coupled with the silence in the literature about the cultural

homogeneity of faculty in higher education (Ladson-Billings, 2005) presents yet another

challenge to the educational outcomes for ELL students and for the faculty that teach them who

continue to be overwhelmingly white, monolingual, and middle-class (Bartolome, 1994, 2002,

2004; Cummins, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1994, 2004; 2005; Lucas & Villegas, 2011; Lucas et al.,

2015; Nieto, 2004; Sleeter, 2018a, 2018b; Sleeter & Carmona, 2017; Sleeter & Delgado-Bernal,

2004; Villegas, 1988; Villegas & De Jon, 2005) and who are accustomed to teaching native English-speaking students. This ethnic and racial disparity between students and educators is especially evident in higher education where students from diverse foreign and domestic backgrounds continue to enroll in U.S. colleges and universities with predominately white, monolingual faculty as they seek degrees for various reasons, and who continue to perform below the average level of their native peers.

In addition, it is important to note the historical context of policies and laws that have further compounded the problem of inadequately educating ELL students and have pushed to place them in mainstream classrooms. Beyond globalization, migration, and internationalization, two major laws in particular have had a profound impact on ELLs' education—impacting primarily K–12 public schools and higher education secondarily: First, California's 1998 passage of Proposition 227, mandating English as the only language of instruction in public schools in the state with the highest ELL student population in the country (22.7%) (NCES, 2016), followed three years later in 2001 by the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act, which mandated annual reported documentation of all students' progress, regardless of their cultural and linguistic backgrounds, through comprehensive standardized testing in reading and mathematics (NCES, 2016). Additionally, the scarcity of bilingual and ESL teachers in public schools rendered the task of teaching ELLs and preparing them for the standardized tests more complex for schools and mainstream teachers. Without adequate and *consistent* numbers of bilingual and ESL instructors who could provide necessary assistance to mainstream teachers with such tasks, the latter were ill-equipped to teach ELLs with "just good teaching" (de Jong & Harper, 2005, p. 102). Furthermore, while the K–12 student population continues to diversify culturally and linguistically, the K–12 teachers educating these students are predominantly white (80%) and

monolingual (NCES, 2018). This racial, cultural, and linguistic disparity extends to higher

education as well where the majority of faculty are still predominately white, monolingual, and

middle-class despite the various initiatives to diversify the teaching force in K-16 (De Jon, 2005;

Lucas & Grinberg, 2008; Sleeter & Carmona, 2017; Villegas et al., 2018). The racial, cultural,

and linguistic disparity between students and educators (Antonio, 2002; Espinosa et al., 2019) is

also compounded by other factors such as the absence of critical dialogue about multiculturalism

and knowledge construction among educators and administrators at the departmental and

institutional levels and how such knowledge manifests itself in practice (Sleeter & Carmona,

2017). Hence, most educators in mainstream classrooms, both in K–12 and higher education,

lack the knowledge, skills, and dispositions to teach such linguistically and culturally diverse

students (Costa et al., 2005; Cochran-Smith, 2003; Cochran-Smith, 2021; Cochran-Smith et al.,

1999; Cochran-Smith et al., 2020; de Jong & Harper, 2005; Fillmore & Snow, 2018; Gallagher

& Hann, 2018; Harrison & Shi, 2016; Lucas et al., 2015; Lucas & Grinberg, 2008, Lucas &

Villegas, 2011, 2013; Meskill, 2005; Sleeter & Carmona, 2017). Consequently, ELL students are

placed in mainstream classrooms (NCTE, 2008, 2016) without adequate support to acquire

English proficiency and thus the achievement gap between them and their native English-

speaking peers continue to widen. While some ELL students can generally adapt to the English-

only mainstream instruction, the majority of them remain at risk as they perform below grade-

level norms and struggle to achieve English proficiency while learning the academic language

(Cummins, 2000; De Jon, 2005; Gallagher & Hann, 2018; Gibbons, 2002; Janzen, 2008; Kanno,

2018; Kanno & Cromley, 2013; Lucas & Villegas, 2011; Samson & Lesaux, 2015; Schechter &

Cummins, 2003; Schleppegrell, 2004; Schleppegrell & Achugar, 2003; Shleppegrell & Moore,

2018). This, in turn, has a dramatic impact on ELL students' access to and their retention rates

and success in higher education (De Jon, 2015, Gallagher & Hann, 2018; Kanno, 2018; Kanno & Cromley, 2013).

The broad shift in the demographic and linguistic landscape of U.S. K–12 public schools and postsecondary institutions, coupled with the effects of the shortage of bilingual and ESL instructors, and educational policymakers and leaders who lack the political will to enact reform agendas (Giroux, 1983; Irvine, 2003, Kanno, 2018; Kanno & Varghese, 2010; Kanno & Harklau, 2012), has exposed the reality that mainstream educators are largely ill-prepared to teach ELL students with diverse linguistic needs (Cochran-Smith, 2003; Costa et al., 2005; Fillmore & Snow, 2018; Harrison & Shi, 2016; Irvine, 2003; Kanno, 2018; Kanno & Cromley, 2013; Lucas et al., 2015; Lucas & Villegas, 2008, 2011; Meskill, 2005). Indeed, according to the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), only a small percentage (13%) of educators have actually participated in ELL-teaching professional development (NCTE, 2008), and merely 20% of them are prepared to teach ELLs (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2002). Because the proficiency level of ELL students is typically lower than that of their native English-speaking peers in the classroom, and because these students are typically taught by mainstream educators who lack the expertise to help them achieve proficiency in academic English, it is virtually impossible for these students to overcome the achievement gap. Thus, if institutional leaders and educators are to overcome this achievement gap, it is imperative that they revise and re-evaluate policies pertaining to the enrollment, support, and especially the instruction of their ELL students. Institutional awareness of the negative impact of profiling ELLs according to "a one size fits all" protocol and how such mechanical profiling affects their learning is equally important (Mahalingappa et al., 2021). Various terms associated with ELL students continue to shift. Such shift in terminology is due chiefly to changes in policies and issues of students'

identities (NCTE, 2017). Likewise, faculty have to reflect on and develop a critical awareness of their instructional practices and *how* they impact their students' learning outcomes, as well as the requisite skills to address the needs of these students. Essential to the development of that awareness and those skills is the need for faculty to know their ELL students' backgrounds and to focus on what these students bring to the classroom that can empower them in their learning and *not* on what disempowers them. Discussions have to ensue at both departmental and institutional levels to adequately and systemically address the wide range of ELL needs. Taking a critical stance, engaging in collaborative learning communities, and establishing structural and pedagogical coherence among higher education administrators and faculty (Cochran-Smith, 2003) are necessary steps towards the enactment of culturally responsive teaching. Such steps would help both administrators and faculty to acquire and build the expertise necessary to address students' linguistic and cultural needs, regardless of their ethnic, cultural, and racial backgrounds.

Purpose of the Study

Despite the widespread recognition of the linguistic and cultural diversity of students in higher education, and hence the importance of and need for multicultural education, coupled with an increased emphasis on culturally responsive teaching in the last few decades (Gibbons, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 1995, 1999, 2005; Lucas et al., 2015; Lucas & Villegas, 2011; Sleeter, 2017), an essential aspect of this reality is often overlooked by policy makers and not prioritized in the research—that is, *linguistic* diversity (de Jong & Harper, 2005; Lucas et al, 2015; Sleeter, 2017). For instance, helping faculty understand how a second language is learned and how to acquire the knowledge necessary for a better awareness of the various challenges that ELL students encounter as they acquire the second language could be very beneficial to their

instructional strategies and teaching practices. In a similar vein, faculty need to critically

examine their instructional knowledge when teaching ELL students and how it transfers into

their daily practices. Such critical reflection should be an essential aspect of their professional

growth, particularly while teaching mainstreamed students whose native language is not English

to acquire academic proficiency in specific subject areas (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011; De Jon, 2005;

Gallagher & Hann, 2017).

     Despite the ever-changing demographic and linguistic composition of the student

population, a predominately monolingual, white teaching staff (Espinosa et al., 2019), and the

overall consensus of the need for a more diverse body of educators who have the disposition

needed to teach a diverse student population, this demographic and linguistic disparity between

students and teachers still persists and typifies our educational reality. In fact, teachers tend to

have different personal educational backgrounds and learning experiences from many of their

students, and yet many often assume that *all* students learn the same way they did, including

ELLs; that is, they are inclined to have a set of prior personal beliefs and perceptions that guide

their practice (Adamson et al., 2013; Brancard & Quinnwilliams, 2012; Brooks & Adams, 2015;

Buxton et al., 2013; Choi & Morrison, 2014; Chval et al., 2015; Deaton et al., 2015; Hardin et

al., 2010; McGriff, 2015; Takeuchi & Esmonde, 2011). In recent decades, research has been

more attuned to how educators, through collaborative inquiry, make meaning of their practices

and the ways in which they modify practice to accommodate diverse students' needs.

     While a wide range of scholarly studies have mostly focused on how teacher education

programs are adequately preparing K–12 teachers for what constitutes effective teaching for

diverse student populations, including ELLs (Darling-Hammond, 2005a, 2005b; Darling-

Hammond et al., 2000; Cochran-Smith, & Zeichner, 2005; Grant, 2008; Ladson-Billings,1999;

Nieto, 2000), and on how teacher educators in such programs should in turn educate prospective teachers how to teach their ELL students population in K–12, scarce is the research on general faculty in higher education and their own teaching experiences with ELLs in their mainstream classrooms. Likewise, little is known about the challenges faculty face teaching their ELL diverse student populations in college, and the necessary preparatory knowledge and experience they should have to meet their students' diverse linguistic and cultural needs. The aforementioned challenges combined with the paucity of research justifies the need for my study. Thus, this study builds on the already existing but slim body of research on general faculty's experiences teaching ELL in postsecondary education by focusing on how faculty make meaning of their instructional experiences while teaching ELLs in mainstream college classrooms.

How faculty of a variety of disciplines view their own level of preparedness and expertise while teaching ELLs, and the importance of examining and critically reflecting on their practices, would help to inform faculty and institutional administrators of what constitutes good practices when teaching ELLs in a democratic society where quality education is no longer a privilege but a human right. This study examined how faculty address the complex process of acquiring English language proficiency and support diverse students in overcoming challenges that prevent them from succeeding in their academic endeavors. Ultimately, the study's faculty participants had the potential to gain a better awareness of how the significance and relevance of their students' various backgrounds and previous schooling experiences can inform their curriculum construction. They were invited to interrogate any misconceptions about their students' ability and investment in their own learning and had opportunities to get to know and appreciate their students' languages, cultures, and values.

The objective for this study was to create a learning environment where faculty in general, and especially those in specific content areas such as humanities, sciences, and social sciences, could become more cognizant about creating a more welcoming and empowering classroom environment and better-informed instructional practices that respond to their ELL students' needs. This study invited faculty to re-evaluate their prior knowledge and sought new learning opportunities that would impact the quality of their ELL instruction, which in turn could help identify effective strategies to help ELLs achieve English proficiency. Furthermore, my hope for this study was to offer new, more equitable and just practices and initiatives for educators, researchers, and institutional leaders that would better respond to their students' diverse linguistic and cultural needs.

The purpose of this qualitative study, hence, was to learn how faculty of multiple disciplines addressed the needs of their ELL students through their examination and reflection on their instructional practices, what challenges they faced in the process, and what professional development and expertise they have acquired to do so. Therefore, the main question that guided this research was: What happens when higher education faculty from a variety of disciplines examine and make meaning of their instructional practices to meet the needs of ELL students? The sub-questions for my study are:

a) How do faculty in various disciplines modify their instruction to meet the needs of ELL students?

b) What do faculty see as areas of struggles when working with ELL students?

c) What institutional resources are in place to support faculty to effectively teach ELL students?

Definition of Terms: Who Are ELLs and How Are They Profiled?

From prekindergarten to postsecondary classrooms, U.S. educational institutions continue to host a growing number of ELLs. According to the Institute of International Education (2017a), for every 10 students in K–12, ELLs account for 1. This growth is even greater in higher education where the number of international and immigrant students in 2016–2017 doubled to a total of 1.1 million compared to 1990–2014 (Burgey et al., 2018). Additionally, immigrant-origin students comprise significant percentages of college and university students in various states in the U.S. In 2018, California was the state with the largest number of students from immigrant families (25%), followed by Texas (11%), and then New York and Florida (9% each). The combination of college enrollment in these top four states accounts for 54% of all immigrant-origin students nationally (Burgey et al., 2018).

As diverse a group as ELLs are, they vary dramatically in higher education based on their prior education, linguistic, and cultural backgrounds, level of literacy, socioeconomic status, levels of English proficiency, and levels of investment in learning among other factors (Andrade, 2006, 2010; Burgey et al., 2018; Marshall, 2009; Oropeza et al., 2010). Additionally, the educational experiences and linguistic capabilities vary significantly among ELL students enrolled in colleges and universities. Some ELLs have English proficiency but lack the academic language, or come to college with a prior education/degree and seek to advance in their career, or graduated from high schools and seek to acquire English proficiency while working toward a degree, while others are adult learners, often with low-income jobs, who enroll to learn English and improve their communication skills (Kanno, 2010, 2018; Kanno & Harklau, 2012; Oropeza et al., 2010). Despite this range of backgrounds, ELLs are traditionally profiled in colleges and universities based on three categories: Generation 1.5, international students, and recent

immigrants. For the purpose of this study, it is necessary to mention how the ELL student population has been previously defined in the literature.

Linguistic minority students, such as ELLs, "have been under-researched and underserved in the context of research on minority students' access to and retention in higher education" (Oropeza et al., 2010, p. 1547). Because they are comprised of different and multiple identities, they are likely more subject to deficit labeling and stigmatized in various ways in both society in general and the literature in particular. For example, the various terms in the literature emerged based on the existence of previous ones and suggest various connotations, positive and negative, and thus either validate the strengths of linguistic minority students or further emphasize the stigma attached to them. While some terms in the literature underscore students' native linguistic and cultural capital, such as "Emergent Multilingual Learners-EML," "English as a New Language Learners-ENL," and "Learners of English as an Additional Language-EAL" (Chen, 2010; Clayton et al., 2019; Leung, 2001; Malmberg, 2015; Zaccaron & Xhafaj, 2020; Zheng, 2013), others derive from deficit views that underscore what the students *lack* by overlooking what they already *have* and can contribute to their learning, such as Limited English Proficiency-LEP. This latter one-size-fits-all perspective seems problematic, as argued by various scholars (de Kleine & Lawton, 2015; De Jon & Naranjo, 2019; Parker, 2019; Wang & Machado, 2015), and these classifications are likely to continue "to blur, overlap, and change with time, as well as with shifting socio-political dynamics" (National Council of Teachers of English, 2008, p. 2).

Contrary to the stereotypical misconceptions about the socioeconomic status and cultural profile of ELLs portrayed in society largely by the media (Parker, 2019), ELLs are a highly heterogeneous group (Kanno, 2010, 2018). Parker (2019) identified two main types of ELLs:

Generation 1.5 and new immigrants or older immigrants who have lived in the U.S. for many

years but only now have the opportunity or have decided to pursue a formal education to

improve their English. In contrast, de Kleine and Lawton (2015) pointed out that at the post-

secondary level ELLs are typically referred to as ESL students, and that ESL students are

typically distinguished in terms of whether they are immigrants or international students. While

Parker overlooked the latter group, it is nevertheless imperative to include international students

among the ELL population, especially given the effects of globalization and the increased efforts

to recruit international students on U.S. college campuses. Parker (2019) made a generic

distinction between Generation 1.5 and new immigrants, as did Burgey et al. (2018), but de

Kleine and Lawton (2015) offered a more specific and inclusive definition that more accurately

encompasses the multi-layered categories that best describe who ELLs really are. According to

the authors, ELL is a term that is typically used at the K–12 to refer to linguistically diverse

students. In their attempt to provide a broader interpretation of who should be categorized as an

ELL student, the authors identify the term "linguistically diverse students" as an umbrella term

that is most often used interchangeably in the literature to describe minority students first

language is not English.

However, it is important to note, as critiqued by many scholars and researchers

(Callaham & Gandara, 2004; Gallagher & Hann, 2017; Hann et al., 2017; Kanno, 2010, 2018;

Kanno & Cromly, 2015), that the term ESL fails to capture the broad and diverse profile of

ELLs. For instance, for many college-level ESL students, English is not their second language,

but rather their third or even fourth. And hence under the ESL category, students' individual

backgrounds and native linguistic and cultural capital are completely overlooked, and they are

labeled strictly on the basis of their lack of English proficiency as the dominant language of schooling in U.S. institutions.

Recognizing the various definitions and categories of ELLs in the literature (Kanno, 2010), and hence the importance of being cognizant of the impact of one-size-fits-all labeling on their learning outcomes, it was essential for faculty in higher education, the target population of this study, to keep in mind while making meaning of their practice teaching ELL students. Moreover, understanding how the term ELL encompasses a broad range of diverse student groups with various linguistic and cultural backgrounds and needs significantly informed the process of self-reflection and instructional decisions faculty made when teaching ELLs. Likewise, and from a researcher's point of view, this awareness of terminology also informed my analysis of the relevant data. Being more cognizant of concepts, terms, and practices, and recognizing their complexity and lack of objectivity not only benefited me as the researcher and participants but the overall solidity of the study. Hence, examining the ELL percentage of the overall U.S. student population, especially in comparison to their native U.S.-born counterparts, underscored the urgency and significance of this study. Figure 2 below illustrates the immigrant-origin share of the students enrolled in postsecondary education, likewise, Figure 3 underscores the population shift between 2000 and 2018 of all students enrolled in postsecondary education by immigrant generation.

Figure 2

The Immigrant-Origin Share of The Students Enrolled in Postsecondary Education from 2000 and 2018.

Immigrant-Origin Share of Students Enrolled in Postsecondary Education, 2000 and 2018

2000

20%

2018

28%
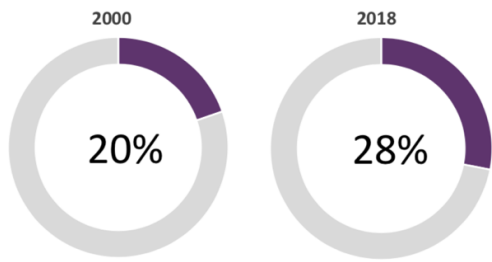
Source: Migration Policy Institute (MPI) analysis of data from the U.S. Census Bureau's Current Population Survey (CPS) October 2000 and October 2018 Educational Supplement.

Figure 3

Student Population Change Between 2000 and 2018 (Migration Policy Institute, 2020).

Population Change between 2000 and 2018: All Adults and Students Enrolled in Postsecondary Education, by Immigrant Generation

All Adults

In Postsecondary Education

131%

82%

32%

26%

15%

-5%

■ First Generation   ■ Second Generation   ■ Third/Higher Generation
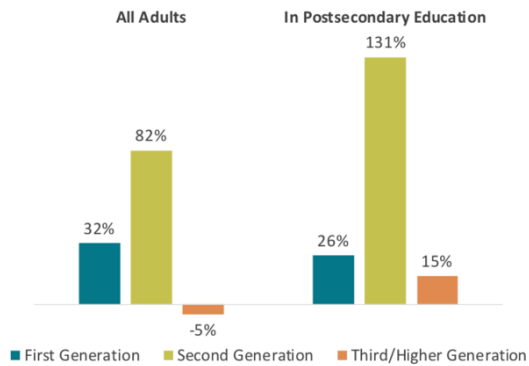
Source: MPI analysis of data from the CPS October 2000 and 2018 Educational Supplement.

The terms English Language Learners and English Learners are the most commonly and increasingly used terms in the literature to describe this diverse student population, depending on the purpose of any given researcher's study. But it is primarily because the terms emphasize the aspect of learning, rather than implying a deficiency on the part of non-native-English-speaking students, that I will use the terms English Language Learners (ELLs), English Learners (EL), and Linguistically Diverse Students (LDS) interchangeably throughout this study.

Key Terminology

English Language Learners (ELLs)/ English Learners (ELs):

1. This term is typically the equivalent of "Linguistically Diverse Students," those whose home language is a language other than English. The term can expand to include native and non-native U.S-born speakers of non-mainstream varieties of English such as African American English, and the English spoken in countries formally colonized by the British (de Kleine & Lawton, 2015).

2. An ELL is defined as anyone who does not speak English as their first language and "whose difficulties in speaking, reading, writing, or understanding English may limit his or her ability" to:

   a. Achieve in classrooms where English is the language of instruction, and

   b. Access opportunities to fully participate in society (Burgey et al., 2018, p. 3).

English as a Second Language (ESL)/ English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL): An educational approach to support and prepare English Language Learners (ELLs) to learn and practice the English language. ESL instruction is mainly focused on teaching basic English vocabulary and grammatical structures that vary in complexity by proficiency course levels (Burgey et al., 2018, p. 3; de Kleine & Lawton, 2015).

Generation 1.5: Originally and frequently used in higher education, this term often refers to:

1. Students who were born abroad but who have been long-term U.S. residents.

2. Students who are often fluent in English but still acquiring all aspects of academic written English.

The designation of 1.5 underscores the middle position these students are caught in between and their feelings of being culturally trapped between first- and second-generation immigrants. As U.S.

long-term residents, these students might reject the term ESL to define them since such term was primarily used to refer to more recent U.S. immigrants (adopted from: National Council of Teachers of English, 2017).

International Students: Students from around the world who came to the U.S. to advance their English proficiency and attain higher education degrees (adopted from NCTE, 2017).

English as a Lingua Franca (ELF): This term refers to the global conception of English as an international and global language of communication between members of various nations (adopted from NCTE, 2017).

Dissertation Overview

In chapter two, I first provided the theoretical framework for this study grounded in critical pedagogy (Freire, 1970) by examining how the framework's key tenets are used as a lens to capture the interconnectedness between faculty's self-reflection on their instructional practices when teaching ELLs in mainstream classrooms and the outcomes of such a reflective process on their instruction. Then I presented the literature review on faculty's experiences teaching ELLs in higher education institutions and the various challenges they confront in their ELL instructional practice.

In chapter three I outlined the methodology design used for this study, along with a detailed explanation of the data collection process and the various stages of the analysis. In chapter four I discussed the emerging findings revealed by the data and examined their interconnectedness pertaining to faculty's responses as they reflected on their ELL instructional decisions. In chapter five, I recapitulated the findings of my study by presenting my interpretive discussion of the conclusions drawn from the findings, followed by the implications of my study for the research, and my recommendations for faculty in higher education, institutional

administrators, and faculty and/or administrators interested in professional development. I

concluded with the impact of my research on my position as both a researcher and an educator.

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, I discuss the theoretical framework that informed my study and helped me situate my inquiry within the empirical literature deemed central to my research questions and data analysis. I thus begin with an overview of critical pedagogy as the main theoretical framework that helped me frame my research question on how faculty made meaning of ELL instruction in their undergraduate courses and more generally how they taught diverse student populations. This lens offered a criticality to culturally and linguistically responsive teaching (Cochran-Smith et al., 1999; Freire, 1970, 1998a, 1998b; Gallagher & Hann, 2017), providing a means of understanding how certain common perceptions of diversity, equity, and access help perpetuate the status quo in ELL instruction. I then review the literature on faculty's experiences teaching ELLs in higher education and the various challenges they encounter in their mainstream classrooms.

Theoretical Framework: Critical Pedagogy

To further investigate the complex nature of how higher education faculty made meaning of their instructional experiences when teaching ELL students within the hierarchical structures inherent in higher education and society at large, I used critical pedagogy (Freire, 1970) as the theoretical framework for this study. Hence, I structured my analyses and discussions through the lens of a Freirean critical pedagogy to gain a better understanding of my research question. Here I begin with an overview of critical pedagogy. I then discuss its core tenets (critical consciousness, the banking model, dialogism, and praxis) as they connect to ELL instruction—each of which is essential to better comprehend and thus analyze the context and complexity of faculty's experiences when teaching ELL students in their mainstream classrooms.

As a philosophy of teaching and learning founded by the Brazilian educator, activist, and social theorist Paulo Freire, critical pedagogy is focused on overcoming relations of oppression through the emancipatory power of education. Rooted in critical theory and emerging from Freire's own experience in the 1950s and 1960s teaching adult literacy to poor and working-class Brazilians in the context of a corrupt and authoritarian state apparatus (Shudak & Avoseh, 2015, p. 469), critical pedagogy developed into a profoundly influential philosophy of liberation, especially among those in the field of education committed to democratic ideals of equity and social justice (Crookes, 2012). More recently, critical pedagogy has been applied specifically to the subject of second language acquisition, where its importance, as I explain further on, cannot be underestimated (Crookes, 2012). According to Giroux, who worked closely with Freire and is one of the leading proponents of critical pedagogy in the U.S., Freire and he initially considered the term "radical pedagogy" to describe the ideas, methods, and practices that informed Freire's work, but they agreed that the term "critical" would likely grant Freire's work a more widespread reception (Crookes, 2012, p. 1). Critical pedagogy is, nonetheless, *radical* in its guiding premise that education can be a fundamental means of individual liberation and social transformation, a notion that has great relevance in the world of ELL students.

Critical Pedagogy and ELL Instruction

What Freire (1970, 1974, 1985, 1997, 2007) undertook, in a sense, is the anatomy of an ideological formation so as to explain how ideology works to construct and maintain a social hierarchy by, in part, representing it to its subjects as natural, as a given, as something that has always been this way and is not subject to change, and whereby the oppressed thus come to internalize their own oppression as natural. For example, insofar as poverty and racism are structural and systemic problems in U.S. society (Anyon, 1981; Apffel-Marglin, 2006; Bolin,

2017; Bowles & Gintis, 1976; Deil-Amen & Deluca, 2010; Dewey, 2008; Fairclough, 2001;

Freire, 1970; Giroux, 1983, 1987, 1988b; Labaree,1997), it is inescapable that the inequities

rooted in these problems are entrenched in, and reproduced through, the education system,

marginalizing students who are already marginalized in the society at large (Sleeter, 2018a,

2018b). Central to this work of ideological formation is how such social structural, linguistic,

and cultural marginalization is internalized and impacts the self-image and achievement of

minority students, such as ELLs. This is what Freire (1970) described as "cultural invasion" (p.

152), the process whereby the oppressor imposes his culture and values on the oppressed as

naturally superior. The oppressed are thus encouraged to see themselves through the eyes of the

oppressor and to thereby reject their own beliefs and behavior in favor of the oppressor's. In the

context of the U.S. education system as it applies to ELLs, this notion of cultural invasion helps

us to locate a problem that is at times subtle but often pervasive among the U.S. educators and

how they implicitly consider their ELLs—what is well established in the literature as a deficit

view (Brancard & Quinnwilliams., 2012; Brooks & Adams., 2015; Buxton et al., 2013; Chval et

al., 201; Deaton et al., 2015; Marshall, 2009; McGriff, 2015; Takeuchi et al., 2011). A deficit

view of ELLs has dramatically increased in U.S public institutions, which in turn has continued

to present new challenges primarily for educators who are neither acclimated nor equipped to

serve such diverse student populations in their mainstream classrooms (NCES, 2016). Despite

the challenges and limitations, educators still have the agency to affect positive change in their

classroom communities. But this is only possible if teachers are first willing to engage in

conscious and sustained critical reflection on their practice. The importance of such self-

reflective process as essential to the process of self-transformation, and the challenges posed to

it, which seldom appears as part of institutional agendas, is the focus of this study. And such

reflection, as Bartolome and Trueba (2017) argued, must first enable teachers to develop "ideological clarity," or

> the process by which individuals struggle to identify both the dominant society's explanations for the existing socioeconomic and political hierarchy and their own explanations of the social order and any resulting inequalities. Ideological clarity requires that teachers' individual explanations be compared and contrasted with those propagated by the dominant society. The juxtaposing of ideologies hopefully forces teachers to better understand if, when, and how their belief systems uncritically reflect those of the dominant society and support unfair and inequitable conditions. (as cited in Sleeter & Carmona, 2017, p. 29)

However, the demographic changes referred to above make such "ideological clarity" increasingly difficult to develop. As college mainstream classrooms continue to host increasing numbers of ELL students with linguistic and cultural needs, the accountability of educators for their students' academic achievement is put to the test, their frustration due to various professional and institutional structures and obligations (Andrade, 2006, 2010; Andrade et al., 2015; Bowles & Gintis, 1976; Clegg, 2003; Costa et al., 2005; de Kleine & Lawton, 2018; Frye, 2009; Gallagher & Hann, 2018; Gorski & Goodman, 2011; Hallam & Meineke, 2016; Hann et al., 2017; Harrison & Shi, 2016; Lee et al., 2018; Sindelar & Rosenberg, 2000; Tenuto & Gardiner, 2014), compounded by inadequate preparation, increases, and their deficit beliefs about diverse students and how to teach them become more entrenched (Sleeter & Carmona, 2017). Since students of color are no longer the minority in many U.S schools, more initiatives must be taken to ensure better teacher preparedness. The less faculty are adequately prepared, the more they feel ill-equipped and resistant to serve this new student population (Cochran-Smith et

al., 1999; Gallagher & Hann, 2017;Gorski & Goodman, 2011). Given the situation, it is understandable why many educators assume that curriculum-based knowledge is the same for all students, including students from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, and thus conduct their teaching practices accordingly.

Furthermore, because many educators do not necessarily recognize that their backgrounds are generally different from their students, they tend to have certain perceptions and expectations of their linguistically and culturally diverse students. And thus, they build negative assumptions about their students' level of competency and achievement and label them accordingly (De Jon & Naranjo, 2019; de Kleine & Lawton, 2015; Parker, 2019; Schleppegrell, 2004; Wang & Machado, 2015). Moreover, teachers' class position is yet another element of their identity which can often present itself as an obstacle to ideological clarity. For instance, many middle-class white teachers cultivate biases against students of color who come from less affluent backgrounds and communities (Giroux, 1988, 1998; Lareau, 2002; Ladson-Billings, 2005). And since a student's familiarity, or lack thereof, with academic language is tightly connected to social class, "understanding the role of [the] social experience" (p. 26) of their students, as argued by Schleppegrell (2004), is thus essential for teachers who seek ideological clarity. Educators and institution leaders need to value the languages of their students, whether the students are ELLs or native English speakers from historically marginalized communities, because those languages reflect the values and cultures of the communities from which their students come. Hence, it is essential to *widen* the means through which school language and knowledge is attained. Indeed, "If content teachers were to widen their teacher identity to include that of language teacher, proponents argue that ELLs would benefit from teachers' increased attention to language in the content area" (Reeves, 2009, p. 34).

The historically marginalized and linguistically and culturally diverse are thus like the "oppressed" in Freire's (1970) formulation, defined by a duality which "establishes itself in their innermost being" (p. 48). Informed by the nascent or half-conscious awareness of their own oppression but drawn to the oppressor's false promise of freedom from the conditions of their oppression through incremental development, the oppressed are split between a desire for liberation *from* and a desire for assimilation *to* the oppressor's model. This is especially true for ELL students who are trying to acquire proficiency in English as the *lingua franca* and the only communicative medium in the U.S. at both the K–12 and postsecondary levels, and who are therefore typically caught between English and their native language. In response to the fear of not fully belonging to U.S. society and the desire to gain U.S. linguistic and cultural capital (Anyon, 1981; Abu El-Haj & Bonet, 2011; Delpit, 1995; Kanno, 2018; Labaree, 1997; Lareau, 1987), most of these students end up neglecting their first native language (or, in keeping with Freire's argument, the site of liberation) and assimilating to the institution's dominant language and culture (parallel to what Freire (1970) described as the oppressor's model). For Freire (1970, 1974, 1985, 1997, 1998a, 1998b), the oppressed remain trapped in the oppressor's reality and the logic of the oppressor's reason because they cannot see beyond the immediate context of their own condition. And, as such, the dialectic of oppression is readily self-perpetuating.

Because Freire (1970) saw education as central to this process, he argued for the necessity of a new kind of pedagogy, a critical or radical pedagogy, which would enable the oppressed to become fully conscious of their own condition and the nature of the dialectic itself, and thereby create the conditions of possibility for the overcoming of the dialectic itself through both their own emancipation and the emancipation of the oppressor from a relationship that by its very nature precludes the possibility of either one becoming fully human (Magee & Pherali,

2019). By validating students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds, both students and faculty have the potential to be liberated from classroom practices that often perpetuate an oppressive system that does not actually benefit the students it is designed to serve. For example, it is critical in this context to point out that by understanding how a second language is acquired, faculty would be able to make connections between the process of acquiring English and the challenges they experience while teaching their ELLs. This in turn would inform better pedagogical decisions.

Core Tenets of Critical Pedagogy

Critical Consciousness. Central to Freire's (1970) formulation, as he elaborated it in his best-known work, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, is the dialectical relationship between the oppressor and the oppressed. Because Marxist theory provided Freire with his theoretical framework, and because his work drew on his experience with Brazilian workers and peasants, Freire's (1970) elaboration of this dialectic is centered in a class-based analysis of capitalist oppression. And since, for Freire (1970, 1985, 1998), education can only achieve its emancipatory potential if rooted in the reality of the student's daily life, teacher and student must first forge a critical understanding of the nature of this dialectic in their own lives. How the consciousness of both the oppressor and oppressed are formed and maintained, and how the dialectic of oppression, in turn, functions in an educational context, must thus be understood before the consciousness of each and their relationship to one another can be transformed (Magee & Pherali, 2019). And, by extension, the application of critical pedagogy beyond the immediate context in which Freire (1970) worked must necessarily be informed by the reality of the students involved. Though, for Freire (1970, 1997, 1985), the process by which critical consciousness takes shape is itself part of the larger process of transformation. Such critical

consciousness would help educators to better comprehend their vital role as transformative

agents in the learning process of their diverse students, and thus the importance of understanding

the student-teacher power dynamic within the classroom and how it echoes the dominant

ideologies within hierarchical social structures. Connected to the purpose of this study, it is

important to critically reflect on to what extent faculty in higher education are aware of the

interconnectedness between their ELL students' various backgrounds and their curriculum

construction, and how such interrelatedness helps them to make meaning of their instructional

experiences when teaching ELLs. It is equally important for faculty to examine how they get to

know their ELL students and identify their needs, and how that is manifested in the various ways

they attempt to modify their instructional practice. Critical pedagogy in this context would be a

coherent and useful framework to allow faculty to inspect their levels of criticality when

reflecting on their ELL instruction, which in turn would allow for a better understanding and

examination of how and to what extent faculty are critical of their instructional practices when

teaching ELLs and thus offer a better-informed analysis and findings for this study.

Banking Model. This new or radical pedagogy, critical pedagogy, was developed by

Freire (1970) as a specific response to what he identified as the prevailing "banking concept" of

education, which positions the student as passive receptacles into which the teacher deposits

information, and which, in this way, functions as a fundamental instrument for the maintenance

of the dialectic of oppression (p. 72): By "[p]rojecting an absolute ignorance onto others, a

characteristic of the ideology of oppression, [the banking concept] negates education and

knowledge as processes of inquiry" (p. 72). And for Freire (1970), "apart from inquiry, apart

from praxis [or action informed by theoretical reflection], individuals cannot be truly human" (p.

72). The teacher "justifies his own existence," in turn, "by considering [the students'] ignorance

absolute" (p. 72). And the students, in their turn, "alienated like the slave in the Hegelian dialectic, accept their ignorance as justifying the teacher's existence" (p. 72). By effectively positioning students not as subjects who act but as objects to be acted upon, the banking concept becomes a principal ideological means for the creation of what Freire calls "limit-situations" (p. 99) —that is, those situations that impose limits on the consciousness of the oppressed with the intent of foreclosing the possibility of their freedom (Shudak & Avoseh, 2015, p. 465).

In the area of second language acquisition, specifically, Freire's understanding of the effects of the banking model is directly connected to the purpose of my study, and was especially relevant to the relationship between faculty and ELLs, as both negotiate their identities within the power structures of the classroom (Darder, 2011, 2012; Fairclough, 2001; Giroux & Simon, 1988). Thus, from a critical pedagogy lens, neither the student nor the teacher, trapped in that same dialectic, can realize the transformative possibility of their relationship in a context in which the banking concept of education is dominant. Within such a model, ELLs are viewed as empty vessels that faculty fill with basic knowledge. This is especially true in ESL courses where non-native English speakers are placed simply to learn English vocabulary and grammatical structures. This, in turn is, detrimental for their retention and success in college, since being placed in ESL courses delays their graduation and thus further puts them at a disadvantage compared to their native-born U.S. peers (Andrade, 2006; Andrade et al., 2014, 2015; De Jon, 2005, 2018; Flores & Drake, 2014; Flores et al., 2015; Flores & Rosa, 2015; Nieto, 2004; Kanno & Cromley, 2015).

Dialogism. In contrast to the banking concept, Freire (1970, 1974, 1997, 1998, 1999) proposed a dialogic model of education as the means for both students and teachers to transform rather than to simply adapt to the conditions of oppression (Bajaj, 2015; Bartolomé, 1994;

Biesta, 1998; Blackburn, 2000; Bourdieu 1991; Bowers & Apffel-Marglin, 2006; Burbules, 2000). This approach to the dialectic of oppression necessarily shifts agency to the student/oppressed, which itself, Freire (1970) argued, is the indispensable precondition of their liberation. For it is only as the subject of their own liberation and not an object to be liberated that genuine freedom is possible.

The dialogic model that Freire (1970, 1985, 1998, 2007) developed is one informed by love, humility, and faith. The love of which Freire (1970, 1974, 2007) wrote is not a sentimental love, but rather a love defined by one's commitment to the other and the cause of their liberation (p. 89). This is strictly relevant when reflecting on faculty's level of commitments when teaching their ELL students. Using the metaphor of language to affirm the subject's aspirations and agency as subject, Freire (1970) argued that the "naming of the world, which is an act of creation and re-creation, is not possible if not infused with love" (p. 89). Understood as such, love is the "foundation of dialogue" and the "task of responsible Subjects and cannot exist in a relation of domination" (p. 89), in which one side projects absolute ignorance on and thereby effectively objectifies the other which, however subtle, often defines the teacher-student relationship, and all the more so in a context in which the student is linguistically marginalized. Thus, "[o]nly by abolishing the situation of oppression is it possible to restore the love which that situation made impossible" (p. 90). Therefore, faculty need to move from educator-centered towards student-centered instruction and focus on learning *how* they can love their ELL students, not as a sentimental act of love but rather, as elucidated by Freire (1970, 1974, 1998, 2007), one that is committed to the learning needs and success of their ELLs.

Likewise, and from a theoretical standpoint, using Freire's critical and dialogical approach towards student-teacher liberation and transformation is an important lens through

which I made sense of my collected data and allowed for better data analysis. By framing

faculty's meaning making of their instructional experiences when teaching ELLs within a critical

stance that could allow for a committed student-centered instruction, I gained a better

understanding of how faculty engaged in critical reflection at a deeper level that is informed by

humility, love, and caring. Furthermore, I was able to understand what are the possible barriers

that could hinder their reflective process, how they understood and negotiated what it actually

means to be committed to their ELLs' learning and success, and how they found ways to teach

content that is relevant to their ELL students' linguistic and cultural experiences. By engaging in

critical dialogue, faculty also comprehended their role in learning how a second language is

acquired and how it empowered their linguistically diverse students to take ownership of their

knowledge as it pertains to their personal experiences and cultural backgrounds, and not as it

only perpetuates the status quo (Bowers & Apffel-Marglin, 2006; Burbules, 2000; Crookes,

2012; Ellsworth, 1989; Freire, 1970, 1974, 1998; Giroux, 1988a, 1988b, 1998; Ladson-Billings,

2009; Magee & Pherali, 2019). Underlying the interdependency and complexity of multiple

components in ELL instruction rooted in second-language acquisition can not only inform

faculty's critical stance but also helped me examine and analyze the data from a better-informed

perspective.

     Humility among educators, especially those teaching diverse students such as ELLs, is

likewise a necessary basis for dialogue conceptualized in this context (Crookes, 2012; Ellsworth,

1989; Freire, 1974, 1985, 1998; Giroux, 1983, 1988; Giroux & McLaren, 1987; Ladson-Billings,

1994, 1999, 2005, 2009; Magee & Pherali, 2019; O'Brien & O'Shea, 2011; Paris & Alim, 2017;

Senyshyn & Smith 2019; Shudak & Avoseh, 2015). For authentic dialogue—one that is based on

reciprocal validation and exchange of knowledge, is premised on the recognition of one's own

incompleteness, as opposed to, say, the position of the teacher in the banking model, who, in projecting absolute ignorance on her students, falsely assumes her own self-sufficiency, thus negating the need for humility. As Freire (1970) wrote,

> The naming of the world cannot be an act of arrogance. . . How can I dialogue if I always project ignorance onto others and never perceive my own? How can I dialogue if I regard myself as a case apart from others--mere 'its' in whom I cannot recognize other 'I's? . . . How can I dialogue if I start from the premise that naming the world is the task of an elite . . .? (p. 90)

In other words, instead of faculty focusing solely on what ELLs do not have and know about the mainstream language, culture, and knowledge in their classroom, they also ought to reflect on what *they* as educators do not know about their students' language, culture, and knowledge (Andrade, 2010; Andrade et al., 2014; De Jon, 2005, 2018; de Kleine & Lawton, 2015; Flores & Drake, 2014; Flores & Rosa, 2015; Flores, et al., 2015; Kanno & Cromley, 2015; Nieto, 2004; Reeves, 2004, 2006, 2009). Being cognizant that teaching ELLs is not a one-way street, and thus the need for a mutual linguistic and cultural humility, is an important step towards a self-recognition of our incompleteness as educators and human beings in general. For how can faculty anticipate a dialogic relationship with their ELL students and thus recognize their needs if they continue to assume the position of the "elite" in their classroom and the only source of knowledge? Research shows us that ELLs bring considerable cultural and linguistic knowledge but it is not the conventional linguistic and cultural knowledge that the faculty are accustomed to looking for (Andrade, 2006; Andrade et al., 2014; De Jon, 2005, 2018; Flores & Drake, 2014; Nieto, 2004; de Kleine & Lawton, 2015; Kanno & Cromley, 2015; Kanno & Harklau, 2012; Kanno & Varghese, 2010; Roessingh & Douglas, 2011; Schleppegrell, 2004).

Consistent with his emphasis on love and humility as essential to dialogue, Freire (1970) insisted on the necessity of an "intense faith in humankind . . . faith in their vocation to be more fully human" (p. 90). In this context, this vocational faith is essential for educators when teaching ELL students. To trust the students' humanity is critical for their success—their ability to learn the word and thus transform their world based on their own understanding of it and not that of their professors. By becoming aware and convinced of their ELL students' power as learners, faculty will ultimately assist in unlocking their English language learners' potential (Burgey et al., 2018) to become active agents in their own learning experience. Affirming one's faith in the abilities of ELL students to acquire English as a second language based on their needs and what they already know is yet another important element that would allow dialogue to be taken to the next level and raise awareness about the value that ELLs bring to their specific learning community and institutions in general. Without such faith, Freire (1970) argued, "dialogue is a farce which inevitably degenerates into paternalistic manipulation" (p. 91) where educators position and assert themselves as *having absolute knowledge* of their ELL students' instruction and outcomes, while disregarding and/or overlooking other facts deemed critical to their students' learning. But this faith, as discussed above, is not a naïve one. Rather, it is a critical faith, conscious of the concrete situations that limit and thwart the power of human beings to name, create and transform the world, but convinced that power can be reborn in "the struggle for liberation" (p. 91) enabled by and enabling dialogue. It is through such critical faith and dialogue that educators would understand the complex nature of their teaching when it comes to the unique and diverse needs of their ELLs. An instruction rooted in and positioned within ELLs' linguistic and cultural backgrounds would not only enable them to take part in their learning and promote their success but would also emphasizes the power of critical faith and

dialogue among educators and their ELL students as essential instruments leading to such

learning outcomes. To assert that language is critically contextualized with culture, and that

neither can be separated from the other in a sociocultural context, would underscore the

argument that faith and dialogue equally promote trust between ELLs and their instructors.

  Praxis. The dialogic model and the "horizontal relationship of . . . mutual trust" (p. 91) it

engenders—whereby the "dialoguers," through their mutual recognition of the other as subject,

form a "partnership in the naming of the world" (p. 91)—leads the oppressed (ELLs), in turn, to

a critical understanding of their own condition—the critical consciousness which gives the

oppressed the confidence in their emergent agency and the sense of responsibility necessary for

emancipatory action. Freire's notion of *praxis* is central here. For neither critical consciousness

nor action alone can lead to liberation. Rather, it is only in their dialectical relationship, as the

reflection born of this new consciousness and the action it makes possible inform one other, that

real liberation becomes possible. From a Freirean point of view, praxis aims to promote critical

reflection that leads to action. It is through the reflective interpretation of the words that one can

change the world. In an educational context, praxis is intended to bridge the gap between theory

and transformative action. In other words, for praxis to occur, learners need to be prepared to

engage in collective action, to be actively involved in the development of their own learning

experiences, and to be afforded a learning environment that allows them to fully express

themselves and address their linguistic needs. Reciprocally, educators need to empower and

unlock their ELLs' potential to help them better understand the nature of their educational

environment so they are better able to negotiate their ways of learning, and ultimately enact their

own agency as emergent learners aware of their role and their responsibilities for their own

success.

If developed by both ELL students and faculty and adapted to their specific needs and context, critical consciousness as an emancipatory construct could offer a useful critical lens to gain cognitive clarity on how reinforcing the linguistic legitimacy of English as the only means of communication and instruction within the classroom also deprives minority students such as ELLs of their linguistic rights, which allow them to express themselves in their native language and thus resist reproducing unjust new divisions of institutional power that continue to devalue diversity and emphasize the legitimacy of English as the dominant language. However, liberation cannot be achieved relying solely on critical consciousness, it equally necessitates a constructive relationship between the faculty and ELLs that is dialectic and dialogic in nature. It is only through reflective criticality and dialogue that emancipatory action can potentially occur. By validating the language of their ELL students, faculty will build a constructive relationship with their students and unlock their students' linguistic potential which is invaluable for their learning.

Critical Pedagogy and Linguistically and Culturally Responsive Instruction

Because it was written during a period of a repressive and corrupt rule in Brazil, *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (1970) is thus contextualized through colonization broadly conceived. For to see how colonization is internalized, and how it becomes the discourse of the oppressor used to dominate the oppressed, is what critical pedagogy renders visible and is essential for understanding how oppression works and how to contest it by fostering the consciousness necessary to overcome it. This is particularly important when thinking about critical pedagogy in the context of language teaching and power dynamics in institutional settings. Relevant to teaching language in mainstream college classrooms, ELLs may feel linguistically and culturally marginalized and disempowered especially when their native language and culture are absent and not validated within curricula and among their instructors

and native peers. Having English as the language of instruction, and often viewed from a deficit perspective, ELLs are more likely to feel disempowered as they internalize their lack of English proficiency and do not see themselves as capable of acquiring academic English. Hence, enabling ELLs to understand the linguistic and cultural power dynamic will help them gain perspectives on their real cognitive capabilities and responsibilities in acquiring English. Language is a mean of colonization and a powerful tool to oppress, and as such the colonizer's language becomes the language of power and is thus imposed on the colonized as the normative means of communication without validating the latter's native linguistic and cultural backgrounds. By granting a normative status to the dominant language, colonial discourses and narratives remain dominant in our education system today, with English as the dominant language of communication and instruction, dictating which language has power (Bourdieu, 1991; Fairclough, 2001; Freire, 1985) and which culture has capital in the classroom. And as these linguistic structures become internalized, especially among students from minority groups such as ELLs, they dictate and overtake their ability to think for themselves—they tell them how to think and who they should be as individuals in society, based on predetermined and predominant political and institutional ideologies. Such structures are not absent in ELLs' mainstream classrooms, especially in their daily interaction with their native peers and professors. As they become internalized, these narratives and discourses suppress the students' willingness to believe in their ability to think for themselves, to engage in constructive criticism and self-transformation and to enact change, and thus they become subject to believing that liberation is impossible and that change is unrealizable. The aim of critical pedagogy in this context is to enable both ELL students and faculty to establish a critical distance from the English language not only as the lingua franca but also as the language of power and oppression.

Such distance will allow for critical thinking and deep awareness of language as a sociopolitical instrument that can be used to perpetuate the status quo and maintain institutional and social hierarchies that continue to benefit those in power. Helping students and faculty make such a correlation between language and power visible will ultimately allow for self-transformation. When ELLs' languages and cultures are validated by their institutions and faculty, they become cognitively and critically aware that their linguistic and cultural heritages add value to their learning and hence they feel empowered to negotiate and invested in their education.

It is in this context, I argue, that critical pedagogy as described above, if combined with culturally and linguistically responsive teaching, could be a powerful and liberating approach/framework that offers learners a space to *externalize* their thoughts of being oppressed by themselves and others, and thus allows for an awakening of their self-consciousness. This is relevant to my research question pertaining to faculty making meaning of their instructional practice with ELLs because it is within this critical framework that faculty and educators in general need to position themselves as critical practitioners and agents of change to begin to understand how the ways they teach ELL students continues to perpetuate dominant ideologies in the classroom, let alone in society, and dictate the dynamic with their diverse and marginalized students.

To re-examine, from a Freirean point of view, the fundamental role of educators teaching ELLs in the context of critical self-consciousness, critical pedagogy offers both students and especially faculty who teach them two propositions: First, oppression does exist in educational settings; minority groups and people of color are still subjected to oppressive social structures on various levels as consequence of race, ethnicity, religion, gender, language, etc. Thus, to think of education and knowledge themselves as entities detached from all oppressive societal structures,

such as institutional racism, patriarchy, and class, is a naïve conception of the world and who we are as human beings. Neither knowledge nor education are by any means neutral which renders teaching a political act for both students and faculty. In fact, teaching and learning remain forever ethical and political endeavors. Second, the transformation of the oppressed, and thus liberatory education, is conceivable for all students who are marginalized but that depends on awakening their critical self-consciousness. For example, ELLs need to understand the power dynamic and structures in their classrooms and how this affects the way they negotiate their learning. To do so, they need to be participants in their learning experience and knowledge construction, and hence their linguistic and cultural knowledge needs to be validated by their instructors. In this context, faculty can help their ELL students to learn to interrogate *how* they learn and to negotiate content knowledge construction to make connections between their classroom learning environment and the broader normative institutional and social contexts that help to perpetuate the status quo. By doing so, faculty could ultimately *lead* and empower their ELL students to transform their educational experiences, as they come to see themselves not as "the oppressed" but rather "the empowered."

When combined with critical pedagogy, linguistically and culturally responsive teaching, as argued above, or rather critically linguistically, culturally responsive teaching would serve as an emancipatory and empowering approach for both teachers and students. Three aspects of this combined framework seem essential in their interconnectedness. First, the very premise of culturally and linguistically responsive teaching and the precondition of the fostering of democratic principles is the *understanding* that inequity in education is rooted in broader structural issues of race, gender, language, and social class. Second, culturally and linguistically responsive teaching is only really possible if teachers are viewed and view themselves not as

technocrats of a sort, but as "transformative intellectuals" (Giroux, 1988a, 1988b). And third, culturally and linguistically responsive teaching necessitates engagement with the communities in which the students themselves live.

In the theoretical framework section, I provided an overview of critical pedagogy as the main theoretical lens for this study. I discussed its core tenets as they intersect and how they offer a useful frame to better understand how faculty critically engage in a reflective process as they attempt to make meaning of their practices when teaching ELLs. I explained the importance of critical consciousness to help render the dialectic oppression visible, especially in its connection to the student-faculty relationship and the learning environment. I clarified how the banking model, as opposed to the question-posing model, in education impacts learning outcomes and helps perpetuate unjust power structure dynamics. I illuminated how the dialogic approach relates to praxis when fostering a constructive learning environment for learners. Finally, I concluded with an analysis of how critical pedagogy when merged with linguistically and culturally responsive teaching could be a useful lens through which to address the complex and interconnected nature of faculty's teaching experiences with ELLs and how such a lens can help them reflect on the impact of their prior knowledge on their instructional decisions.

Bearing in mind that there are valid critiques of the limits of Freire's philosophy, such as his seemingly reductive and monolithic conception of oppression and his utopian claim for the power of education, it nonetheless remains a profoundly significant contribution to the fields of second language acquisition. One need not embrace the entirety of Freire's argument to thus recognize the relevance of certain of his central concepts and elements of his argument to educational reform in the U.S context.

In the section below, I explained the criteria and process for the specific empirical literature selection that helped me to best address my research questions. I then reviewed and synthesized the existing literature pertaining to faculty experiences while teaching ELLs. The reviewed literature focused, mainly, on how faculty viewed their roles and the challenges they faced while teaching diverse student populations in higher education institutions. Scarce as it is, the existing literature about faculty and ELL instruction in higher education helped me to better situate the scope of the research on the subject of my study, and informed the direction of my data analysis as I made meaning of the participants' stories.

Literature Review

The purpose of this literature review is to provide the necessary context for this study by situating it within the existing research pertaining to my research questions. Thus, this literature review systematically examines and synthesizes the empirical literature on faculty's perceptions in various areas of their instructional practices when teaching ELLs and how they make meaning of their instructional decisions. In what follows, I review the relevant studies, discuss the findings of the analysis, and conclude by recapitulating and underscoring the key findings and providing implications for future studies.

After a close reading of the abstracts and headings, subheadings, and conclusions, I selected 21 articles from the pool of 56 studies. My selection was based on one criterion—the relevance of those studies to my research topic: how faculty in higher education make meaning of their instructional practice when teaching ELLs. Of the selected studies, some were mostly qualitative while other were either quantitative or mixed method. The data collected in these studies came from various sources (e.g., small- and large-scale surveys, small- and large-scale longitudinal studies, state-initiated and funded projects, interviews, observation notes, inquiry-

based reports, reflective and collaborative inquiries, discussions, educators' and student's

statements, meetings notes, etc.). Most participants in these studies were K–12 teachers, faculty

in higher education, and ELL students.

The EBSCO search host (Academic Search Premier/ Education Research complete/

ERIC) and Google scholar were used to search for peer-reviewed empirical articles. Using a

variety of descriptors-- a) "English Language Learners" and "Higher Education"; b) "Faculty

teaching ELLs" and "higher education"; c) "General educators and non-native minority students"

and "post-secondary education"; d) "general faculty and ELLs instruction" and "culturally

responsive instruction in higher education"; and e) Teaching English Language Learners (ELLs)

in college" and "faculty's beliefs"—my search yielded 56 articles that linked to faculty

instructional experiences with ELLs.

After a thorough reading of the abstracts of each article to identify those most relevant to

my search, I eliminated 35 articles because they were not specific to my research question and

focused either on K–12 in-and pre-service teachers' beliefs about ELLs, or on their learning

experiences in teacher education programs while learning how to teach ELLs, rather than on

faculty's instructional experiences with ELLs. Furthermore, while 12 of the 35 studies eliminated

from my search selection broadly addressed ELL instruction in higher education, they lacked a

critical approach in their methodology and therefore did not incorporate an overarching critical

research stance on equity in education (Cochran-Smith, 2009; Magee & Pherali, 2019; Sleeter,

2018a, 2018b; Sleeter & Carmona, 2017), which is central to my inquiry. Thus, the importance

and need of using critical pedagogy as a theoretical framework to address this gap in the

literature. However, and due to the scarce research strictly related to faculty experience with

ELLs in higher education, I drew on K–12 teachers' instructional experiences with ELLs as an

additional related source. By drawing on the literature on K–12 teachers and ELLs practices, I do not intend to compare the two bodies of literature but rather use the former as a background to inform my research on how faculty in post-secondary education make meaning of their instruction of ELLs. My hope is that the combination of this literature pertaining to teaching ELLs, and understanding which knowledge and dispositions are necessary to best serve ELLs, be it in K–12 or in higher education, will not only benefit teacher/faculty practices but also improve the outcomes of the diverse students they serve.

The existing literature on K–12 teachers' experiences teaching ELLs would be also useful to understand and address ELL learning needs as they transit from secondary to post-secondary education. Using literature on both K-12 and postsecondary educators simultaneously will help me better anchor my study within the empirical literature, scarce as it may be, on faculty's perceptions of their own practice when teaching ELLs. This then left me with 21 articles. However, after mining reference sections of the most relevant articles in my search, I identified an additional four articles pertinent to my study which were included in this review, and which thus increased to about 25 the total number of my articles. While the 25 articles were mentioned in this review, the focus was only on 11 articles that are explicitly related to faculty's experiences teaching ELLs in higher education. The remaining ones were marginally used for reference, since it seems important and appropriate, given the slim body of research on my research topic.

I then reviewed the research on how educators instruct ELLs in mainstream classrooms. By reviewing the empirical literature, I aimed to learn what the existing research tells us about faculty experiences teaching ELLs in college mainstream classrooms and ultimately how the findings of my literature review informed my research on how faculty made meaning of their

instructional decisions and practice when teaching ELLs. I incorporated an overview of the empirical research (scarce as it is) on faculty's experiences teaching ELLs in higher education and potential barriers they may encounter in their practice, which also suggested that the majority of faculty in higher education, just like K–12 teachers, were not adequately prepared and lacked the expertise to teach diverse student populations, including ELLs. It is important to acknowledge though that teaching ELLs in different disciplines have different requirements and needs. Most of what I read thus far however, has focused on literacy-based humanities and social sciences. Therefore, in my study I aim to focus on the latter.

An analysis then follows of the role of faculty inquiry as an essential base from which to cultivate a praxis-oriented, collaborative, and dialogic stance (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009). Such a stance would ultimately foster a safe space for faculty to interact with one another, which itself can provoke substantial self-reflection as faculty assume a critical perspective from which to explore the complexity and tension pertaining to their teaching of ELL students. It is through this dialogic inquiry that faculty can eventually re-imagine their role as agents of change for marginalized groups from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds. This space of inquiry is also where faculty would voluntarily invest in their learning, develop shared goals, build a collegial and interconnected community of practice, and potentially emerge as learners who seek a collective understanding of their instructional experiences and of the latter's impact on their students' learning.

After a careful and close examination of the reviewed studies, five themes emerged: (1) Factors affecting ELLs' access to and success in college; (2) Challenges ELLs experience in college; (3) Faculty responses to ELL content language teaching responsibility; (4) Faculty

challenges and tensions when teaching ELLs; and (5) The role of faculty inquiry in promoting

self-reflective critical practices. Below I discuss each theme separately.

Factors Affecting ELLs' Access to and Success in College

To gain a better understanding of the implication of the correlation between the literature

on ELLs in K–12 and higher education and how the former informs our understanding of ELL

access, performance, and success in the latter, it is essential to understand the various factors

impacting ELLs' transition from K-12 education to postsecondary education. As previously

discussed in the introduction, not all ELLs are the same in terms of their English proficiency,

cultural backgrounds, and linguistic needs. ELLs who are proficient in English tend to attend

four-year institutions whereas ELLs with low English proficiency attend two-year community

colleges. This college orientation underscores the importance of English proficiency level on

college choice, access, and attainment of degrees for ELL students. Likewise, ELL academic

performance and social experiences in K–12 education is one among other indicators of ELLs'

college choice (Andrade, 2010; Bifuh-Ambe, 2011; Callaham & Grandara, 2004; Hann et al.,

2017; Kanno, 2018; Schneider & Jin, 2022; Kanno & Varghese, 2010). It is well documented in

the literature (Delpit, 1995; De Jon et al., 2013; Gallagher & Hann, 2018; Kanno, 2018; Kanno

& Cromley, 2013, 2015; Lucas & Villegas, 2013) that various barriers inhibit ELLs from

attending colleges of their choice such as the stigma attached to the ELL label coupled with the

low expectations both at the secondary and postsecondary levels. Other factors that shape ELLs'

college choice are their racial and ethnic background and the fact that they are often the first

generation to attend college and thus lack the support they need to navigate college systems and

cultures. Furthermore, their demographic characteristics determine their college choice.

Limited access to advanced college preparatory courses has equally detrimental effects on ELLs' college choice and access (Andrade, 2006, 2010; de Kleine & Lawton, 2015). Students who have parents with social capital and socioeconomic status (Bourdieu, 1986) and know how to navigate school systems have a much higher chance of accessing and attending good four-year colleges and benefiting from available resources compared to those who lack such access and capital and thus tend to either drop out of high school, are denied access to college, or are limited to community colleges. In fact, this is consistent with patterns emerging from statistical studies where only 19% of ELLs attend four-year colleges straight from high school compared to almost 50% of native English speakers (Callaham & Gandara, 2004; Kanno, 2018; Kanno & Cromley, 2013, 2015). ELLs' academic proficiency, access to school resources, and socioeconomic capital are critical for their access to college and attainment of degrees. Not surprisingly, many ELLs do not even bother to apply to four-years colleges and thus "they eliminated themselves before they had a chance to be eliminated" (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990, as cited in Kanno, 2018, p. 30). This self-elimination, as Kanno (2018) illuminated in her study, is mainly a result of all the accumulating factors discussed above, but in particular comes from the deficit orientation of high schools vis-à-vis their ELLs. ELLs are driven to the community college pipeline because they lack the confidence and perception of being college-bound, and thus view four-year colleges as outside their range. Furthermore, "placed in an educational system in which their lack of English proficiency is highlighted while their multilingualism receives little recognition, ELLs may come to internalize this deficit orientation and accept their lack of opportunities as a logical consequence of their deficit" (Kanno, 2018. p. 8). This lack of self-assurance is of course compounded by their lack of English proficiency which in turn explains why certain ELLs might feel inferior in terms of their own speech and proficiency compared to "exterior standard[s] of

correctness" (Kanno, 2018, p. 26) or what is referred to as "linguistic insecurity" (Labov, 1966, as cited in Kanno, 2018, p. 26). Such linguistic insecurity is equally the reason why ELLs experience high levels of anxiety when trying to communicate in English compared to their native-English peers (Callaham & Gandara, 2004; De Jon, 2005; De Jon & Naranjo, 2019; De Jon & Harper, 2013; De Jon et al., 2018; Gallagher & Hann, 2018; Kanno, 2018; Meskill, 2005; Roessingh & Douglas, 2011). Unfortunately, many educators seem to overlook such barriers that inhibit ELLs from having full access to various school resources and a range of college choices, and thus perpetuate the status quo of overlooking ELLs' accomplishments and potential. This deficit view in turn reinforce what Kanno (2018) termed the "equity trap," which prevent educators from seeing their ELL students, like their native counterparts, as successful learners. Therefore, it is imperative that educators reflect on their teaching practices by interrogating their deficit views about ELLs and provide them the support they need to succeed. Likewise, educators need to make concerted efforts to cultivate constructive and trusting relationship with their ELL students to help unlock their potential and empower them to exert their agency as they navigate their educational and learning options. Such empowerment aligns with Freire's liberatory concept of critical pedagogy that advocates for students' freedom from institutional and societal restrictions. For faculty play an essential role as part of the institutional structures known also as "institutional habitat" (Kanno, 2018, p. 8) that continue to perpetuate the dominant culture. Knowing that the "existing educational system [is] meritorious" (Kanno, 2018, p. 7) has a great impact on ELLs' self-esteem (Kanno, 2018) and how they view their potential as learners and their sense of their educational possibilities. A shared understanding among faculty that social and cultural reproductions are rooted in institutions that continue to delineate "the role of school education in the reproduction of societal inequities" (Kanno, 2018, p. 7) is

thus necessary. Of equal importance is the recognition that a liberating instruction based on mutual respect for ones' linguistic and cultural origins is a vital means for ELLs' self-perception, confidence, and awareness of their realm of possibilities, which are all contingent on their faculty's self-dispositions and their levels of commitment when teaching them.

In a similar vein and pertaining to the context of college access and attainment of degrees, Kanno and Cromley's study (2013) was the first longitudinal one on a national scale that focused on how ELLs compared to English-proficient linguistic-minority students (EPs) and *English-monolingual Students* (EMs) in terms of access to college and attainment of degrees. Most previous studies focused on either linguistic or non-linguistic factors, whereas this study looked at both. And the gap between ELLs on the one hand and EPs and EMs on the other was larger than even the authors assumed. Surprisingly, though, the linguistic factor alone, while significant, did not prove as important as generally believed. And while income/class is important in ensuring one can afford postsecondary education (PSE), social and cultural capital are at least as important as economic capital in access and attainment of degrees, though specific factors influencing access are not necessarily the same as those affecting the attainment of a degree. So, for example, parental involvement and support are important for ELL access to higher education but less so for the attainment of a degree.

A rigorous, college-prep curriculum is also important in determining access, contrary to the sorts of classes in which ELLs are typically enrolled. Thus, interventions at the high school level are important here. But once in college, those who go part-time or who take time off between high school and college are less likely to attain a degree. Since economic factors often figure into these decisions, it is especially important at the college level that students are aware of and receive all the need-based scholarship support and financial aid they are eligible for

(Flores & Drake, 2014; Hamann & Reeves, 2013; Kanno, 2018, Kanno & Cromley, 2015; Kanno & Varghese, 2010; Labaree, 1997).

Challenges ELLs Experience in College

Academic Barriers. The literature indicated that for ELLs to succeed in college, they need to acquire academic proficiency in the target language. To do so, they need to overcome various barriers. Acquiring English proficiency is complex and particularly challenging where English as the lingua franca (Au, 2006; Callaham & Gandara, 2004; Cummins, 1980, 1981, 1993, 2000; De Jon, 2005; Gallagher & Hann, 2018; Lucas & Villegas, 2013; Meskill, 2005) remains the only means of communication in U.S. schools and higher education institutions which in turn poses a challenge for ELLs whose native language is not English and are required to perform equally to their native peers. Furthermore, the "veneration of English" (Reyes, 1992, p. 429, as cited in Meskill, 2005, p. 741) has positioned English as the language of power. Such linguistic superiority is tied to the "contemporary lingua franca (Apple, 1995) and its collateral as a key to economic opportunity in the United States and around the world" (Meskill, 2005, pp. 741–742). Therefore, allocating power to English and those who speak helped perpetuate deficit views about those whose native language is not English (Cummins, 2000). The lack of linguistic capital (Bourdieu, 1991), among other factors, has a negative impact on ELLs' access and success in college (Andrade, 2010; Gallagher & Hann, 2018; Meskill, 2005). As such, English has become the language of *dis*empowerment for minority learners such as ELLs (Burgey et al., 2018; Harklau, 2000; Marshall, 2009; Walikala, 2008). How knowledge is constructed is in the hands of those in power, and thus "how the English language is used to construct assumptions and practices to legitimize particular ways of constructing knowledge" (Welikala, 2008, p. 159) becomes the norm.

Adding to this challenge is the test of proficiency in standardized English that most ELLs need to take as an admission requirement and the score that determines whether an ELL is ready to take college courses (Roesingh & Douglas, 2011). Studying and passing the English language proficiency test is a challenging task itself, especially for ELLs whose first language is not English. Furthermore, and as argued by Wang and Machado (2015), passing the proficiency test is not a guarantee that an ELL has become proficient in the English language. In fact, this is a misconception that exists in higher education especially among faculty who are not familiar with second language acquisition and who thus seem to overlook the fact that "Language acquisition takes time and is affected by factors such as motivation, attitude, native language and educational background, learning strategies, environment, culture, and access to the language" (Andrade, 2010, p. 222). Such academic barriers are the academic reality for most ELL students in college, especially those with low English proficiency. Not surprisingly, these barriers have detrimental effects on ELLs' self-esteem and learning outcomes, and thus combined they become a great source of anxiety which is often documented in the literature when studying the experiences of ELL students in U.S. colleges (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011; Schneider & Jin, 2022; Wang & Machado, 2015).

For instance, in her study about the importance of recognizing ELLs' needs in mainstream college classrooms, Bifuh-Ambe (2011) demonstrated that ELL students face various challenges as they acquire English as the new language through an interplay of complex social, cultural, and linguistic processes. In fact, as the author noted, "acquiring proficiency in the various English language skills and the ability to utilize those skills as a medium of learning is a daunting task" (p. 13). As suggested by the research, learners whose native language is not English take five to seven years to learn and acquire the academic language (Cummins, 1993,

2000, 2006; Shleppegrell, 1984) and perform at a level comparable to their English native counterparts. Therefore, while they are still learning the English language, they are also expected to acquire the academic language at the college level after approximately two years of ESL classes and to perform at that level "the most difficult function of literacy skills acquisition—content literacy, the ability to use language to access and master specialized material in content areas across the curriculum" (Vacca & Vacca, 2005, as cited in Bifuh-Ambe, 2011, p. 16). Bifuh-Ambe (2011) reported high levels of anxiety associated with ELLs' various challenges as they try to master the English language and navigate the U.S. college landscape. In a similar vein, a correlation between a given text and ELLs' cultural knowledge was noted as a potential strategy that would make textual comprehension easier for ELLs. According to this approach, ELL students will do better on reading and textual comprehension since "every act of communication includes ones' knowledge of the world" (Kornienko, 2000, p. 3, as cited in Bifuh-Ambe, 2011, p. 17). The lack of prior knowledge rendered comprehension a daunting task for ELLs because ELLs at the college level often lack the background knowledge or "schemata that may facilitate comprehension of subject matter" (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011, p. 17), and thus "if the author and the reader have very little in common, as may happen when they live in different cultures or have different belief systems, then the likelihood of true communication is low" (Kornienko, 2000, p. 3, as cited in Bifuh-Ambe, 2011, p.17). This is due to their new social and academic experiences in the host destination and particularly their lack of cultural exposure to the new linguistic knowledge. However, it is important to note that not all ELLs in postsecondary education have the same experiences. Every ELL situation is different which in turn makes their learning richer and more complex, and therefore necessitates the awareness of

such differences, especially among faculty who teach them in mainstream college classrooms and who are generally not adequately prepared to teach them.

Additionally, learning for ELLs in postsecondary education is different from the K–12 context. Although some assume that research findings addressing ELLs' needs in K–12 are transferable to college, there is no sound theoretical and practical basis for such an assumption (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011). In other words, as contended by Bifuh-Ambe (2011), we simply cannot generalize research findings on ELLs' needs in P–12 to postsecondary education. It is not theoretically sound because students in higher education typically come from a more diverse range of ethnic and linguistic backgrounds, and thus, unlike in K–12, ELLs at the college level are much less likely to share a common L1 (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011). The level of diversity among ELLs themselves at the college level should be taken into consideration when faculty teaching ELLs make meaning of their instructional decisions.

However, and in the context of how ELLs learn English in ESL classes, researchers argue that there is a striking similarity between the rationale for transferring ELL students into ESL classes in both K–12 and postsecondary education (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011; Callaham & Gandara, 2004; Harklau, 2000; Mahalingappa et al., 2021; Marshall, 2009).While the goal behind this rationale is to provide ELLs space where they can learn the academic language in a sheltered environment, the rationale is unfortunately problematic and counterproductive, despite its good intentions (Gallagher & Hann, 2018; Kanno, 2018; Meskill, 2005). Not only does pulling ELL students out of their required courses and placing them into ESL classes put them automatically at a disadvantage, as it delays their graduation process compared to their native peers, it also deprives them of the opportunity for regular interaction with their native peers in an academic context, which is very important for academic language acquisition. This is equally detrimental

to their career and financial planning. Educators who understand the challenge inherent in

learning a new language, albeit in an academic and institutional setting, and are well versed in

the knowledge necessary for second language acquisition and teaching a diverse student

population, could potentially implement a theory-based and social justice-oriented instructional

process in their curriculum. It is only such a process that will enable them to become

transformational agents in their professional communities by more effectively navigating and

deconstructing institutional barriers and thereby better addressing and fostering the linguistic and

cultural needs of their ELL students.

Furthermore, and in the context of learning strategies that enable ELLs to attain academic

proficiency in the college classroom, Bifuh-Ambe (2011) emphasized that while some ELLs may

gain social communicative proficiency, they may still need to master their literacy skills at the

college level. Likewise, they need to master multiple college-level proficiencies which "typically

include performing academic tasks such as listening to lectures, taking notes, reading textbooks,

and writing term papers" (Ward, 1998, p. 2, as cited in Bifuh-Ambe, 2011, p. 15). Thus, when

"one or both language forms are not functioning fully, the student's cognitive abilities and

academic performance may be negatively affected" (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011, p. 15). And lastly, it is

important to keep in mind that to be proficient in the English language, ELLs have to interact

with their peers in and outside the classroom. However, and due to the college dynamics and the

fast-paced nature of college ESL classes, ELLs are often neither able to meet with their

classmates outside the classroom to practice their interpersonal language skills—which in turn

might impact their sense of belonging to the college community, nor do they often have the

confidence to participate in class discussion (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011; Kanno, 2018; Karathanos &

Mena, 2014; Welikala, 2008)—both are critical for them to attain the required proficiency level

deemed essential for their success in college. In this context, faculty need to take such

circumstances into consideration, especially when conducting classroom discussions and refrain

from making deficit assumptions about their ELL students' motivation to learn and cognitive

capabilities.

      Linguistic and Sociocultural Barriers. Although higher education institutions represent

themselves as proponents of diversity and claim to implement various initiatives that aim to

diversify their faculty and student bodies in an attempt to increase diversity, their focus is often

on a superficial appearance of diversity without addressing the systemic inequities that the focus

on diversity is presumably intended to remedy (Andrade, 2010; Gallagher & Hann, 2018;

Spencer & Castano, 2007). The gap between the faculty who are predominately white,

monolingual, and middle class and the multilingual and multicultural student population

continues to widen (Andrade, 2010; Lucas & Villegas, 2013; Schneider & Jin, 2022; Vandrick,

2014). This demographic makeup of the faculty influences the culture of college campuses and

thus creates certain norms and values that are geared to privilege the pervasive culture of

whiteness, which, in turn, all students are expected to adhere to, regardless of their linguistic and

cultural backgrounds. When such expectations become the sociocultural standards, ELL

students, especially those of various ethnic minority groups from a lower socioeconomic class

and with lower English proficiency, are often perceived through a deficit lens (Gist et al., 2019;

Moore & Shulock, 2010; Vandrick, 2014). This in turn may put ELL students at a disadvantage

compared to their native peers with respect to academic achievement, college attainment and

success (Andrade, 2010; Callaham & Gandara, 2004; Nieto, 2000, 2004; Rector-Aranda, 2019;

Reeves, 2004, 2006, 2009; Vandrick, 2014). It is therefore essential for educators who are social

justice-oriented to recognize their role in closing this achievement gap by re-envisioning their

responsibility as agents of change in charge of teaching all of their students equitably, regardless of from where they come.

Relevant to the urgency of interrogating the status quo in institutional structures and thus acknowledging minority students' linguistic and sociocultural needs, Rector-Aranda (2019), in her study about the impact of critically compassionate intellectualism in promoting equitable learning and outcomes while educating all students, argued that,

> successful social justice-oriented teachers are sympathetic to their students in a proactive sense—not as a kind of pity denoting student deficiency, but as a recognition of the challenges students face that translate into loving care, genuine relationships, and high academic expectations. Authentic care also means acknowledging the failure of 'nice' policies and practices centered on 'inclusion, optimism, and assimilation' that ignore the institutional inequities experienced most acutely by students of color. (p. 390)

When students feel that their culture and language are valued by their teachers and professors, it gives them a sense of belonging and empowerment, which in turn translates into the higher self-esteem that is essential for their learning and success.

Furthermore, since language is not by any means a mere communicative instrument, but rather a form of social and cultural capital, devaluing ELLs' native language deprives them of access to such capital. Thus, compounding the learning barriers discussed above is the devaluing of ELLs' native languages, which is well recognized among researchers and scholars (De Jon & Naranjo, 2019; de Kleine & Lawton, 2015; Kanno, 2010; Lucas & Villegas, 2011; Lucas & Grinberg, 2008; Parker, 2019; Reeves, 2004, 2006; Sleeter, 2004, 2018; Vandrick, 2014; Wang & Machado, 2015; Zaccaron & Xhafaj, 2020; Zheng, 2013). ELL students' first languages are often devalued both at the institutional levels and in society at large. Similarly, faculty tend to

have deficit views of ELLs' native linguistic skills and the assets that they can bring into the classroom (Meskill, 2005). Such deficit perceptions tend to translate into faculty interpersonal communication with their ELLs and how ELL students are treated in classrooms, on campuses, and in society at large. Because the ELL's native language has been systematically devalued, "the notion of 'quick immersion' to eradicate the 'problem' of the native language, a tenacious misconception that dominated discourse concerning bilingual education from the 1970s through the 1990s" (Meskill, 2005, p. 742) and still persists. In the context of learning the academic English, and as if learning an additional language is not "arduous enough an undertaking" (p. 742), yet scarcely recognized, ELLs are additionally obligated to learn simultaneously the academic English "while keeping up with grade-appropriate academic content" (p. 742).

Faculty Responses to ELL Content Language Teaching Responsibility

There is a substantial body of research on the correlation between K–12 teachers' professional identity and their personal views and how the latter impact their practice and hence the learning of their ELL students. In their mainstream classrooms teachers do not envision themselves as language teachers for their ELL students, rather they are more focused on teaching their content (Adamson et al., 2013; Chval, 2102; De Jon & Naranjo, 2019; de Kleine & Lawton, 2015; Janzen, 2008; Kanno, 2010; Leung, 2001; Lucas & Grinberg, 2008; Lucas & Villegas, 2011; Mahalingappa et al., 2021; McGriff, 2015; Pajares,1992; Parker, 2019; Reeves, 2006, 2009, 2013; Sleeter, 2007; Takeuchi, 2011; Wang & Machado, 2015). Most educators struggle with negotiating their professional identity as experts in their specific discipline *and* being responsible for teaching the English language to their ELL students (Reeves, 2009). In this strand of research, the analyses implicitly and explicitly revealed teachers' personal and professional identity as fundamental to their existing perceptions about ELLs and their responsibility to teach

them English while covering their content areas. These studies demonstrated that, confronted

with the *new* reality of diverse yet mainstreamed ELL students, educators conveyed the feeling

of being inadequately prepared and challenged with an instructional deficit while teaching such a

diverse student population with special linguistic needs. Hence, most educators do not see their

role as being responsible for teaching English to their ELL students. This shift from content to

content *and* language knowledge in educators' instructional responsibilities determined their

attitudes towards these ELL students. As confirmed in the research, faculty clearly have

presumed differences in responsibilities when it comes to teaching ELLs. As Reeves (2009)

argued in her study, educators' self-perception of their own identity, as well as their linguistic

and cultural competency, plays an intricate role in how they view their students, who they are as

educators, and *how* and *what* they teach. Perhaps identity and how it is connected to educators'

perceptions is best understood in Reeves' (2009) assertion that "Shifting teachers' view of their

instructional responsibilities from that of subject area knowledge to subject area knowledge plus

language requires educators to not only adopt new instructional strategies but also to negotiate

their teacher identity" (p. 35). Although her study is on K–12 teachers, the findings are relevant

and transferrable to faculty in higher education as well. For Reeves' (2009) argument, that

educators' identity affects who *they* are as *learners,* shapes their instructional decisions, and

determines their disposition to innovative changes pertaining to ELL instruction, clearly applies

to college faculty as well.

Likewise, the study of Murphy and Pinnegar (2011) echoed similar findings on how

teacher educators' identities in general emerge and shift depending on how they view and

respond to their professional *roles*. Framing their study through the lens of role theory—one that

views roles as daily life occurrences, and hence "of concern to those who perform them and

others" (Biddle, 1979, p. 57, as cited in Murphy & Pinnegar, 2011, p. 183)—identity is thus

equated with the notion of role and is revealed when we "'perform' the various features assigned

to our role or respond to the role of others" (Murphy & Pinnegar, 2011, p. 183). While the

authors did not suggest that these new roles changed people, they nevertheless asserted that both

identities and roles in this context were more complex and discontinuous (Cliff, 2001 as cited in

Murphy & Pinnegar, 2011, p. 184). I find this analysis particularly compelling and relevant to

how faculty view the responsibilities of their role teaching English to diverse students and how

the emergence of such new roles in their professional landscape shape and shift their identities

and their views of their ELL students. Consequently, this notion of new roles, in turn, creates

various forms of tension among faculty, because it entails constructing their identities according

to the new shifting context of their mainstream classrooms—one that includes the various needs

of their culturally and linguistically diverse students, and thus new instructional requirements

they need to conform to, as they become responsible for teaching English to their ELLs, in

addition to their traditional role teaching their content areas.

Additionally, and as the reviewed literature suggested, faculty's sense of ELL content

language teaching responsibility is contingent upon various factors, such as their level of

preparedness to teach ELLs, but mainly on their workload and available time to commit to the

work (Mahalingappa et al., 2021; Sindelar & Rosenberg, 2000). To better understand the

complexity of faculty views on how they perceive their responsibility in teaching language to

their ELL students in their mainstream classrooms as part of their content teaching, I found

Andrade's (2010) study consistent with other studies' findings (Daniel & Peercy, 2014;Gorski &

Goodman, 2011; Hann et al., 2017; Ward, & Selvester, 2011). While relying primarily on survey

data for her study, Andrade (2010) engaged in a preliminary investigation of the level of

accountability among higher education faculty as they perceived their experiences teaching non-native English speakers (NNESs) and shared their views on what they saw as areas of struggles for themselves and for their linguistically and culturally diverse students. Her analysis indicated that, in general, faculty have positive views of their L2 students' performance and efforts in the classroom. However, when teaching NNESs, faculty perceived their students to have more difficulty with active skills (writing and speaking) than with passive skills (reading and listening). Hence, faculty struggled between two alternatives: The first one was lowering their academic expectations due to second language English (L2) speakers' tendency to spend most of their time outside of class in "language bubbles" (p. 222) interacting primarily in their native language and associating with their native cultural peers. This, in turn, tended to weaken their English language skills and negatively impact their quality of learning when "academic expectations are lowered to accommodate their abilities" (p. 222). The second alternative was to uphold high standards at the expense of the students, notwithstanding their low performance due to their inability to comprehend the course material and demonstrate appropriate academic levels of learning (Andrade, 2010; Mahalingappa et al., 2021). However, maintaining high standards for their ELL students without providing effective support and/or intervention can be detrimental for student learning and performance—a barrier itself ironically thus created by faculty. By valuing high standards, faculty hinder the goal of ELL success and render some students invisible.

In a similar vein, this conflict between adapting to the needs of ELL students and the perception that such adaptation leads to lowering content standards is identical to the tension described by Meyer (2000) in her study as she addressed ways to lower substantial barriers that often prevent ELLs from receiving meaningful instruction. By drawing on Vygotsky's (1962)

notion of the learning process in child development, Meyer underscored the importance of

teachers' knowledge of second language acquisition in recognizing barriers that inhibit ELL

students from achieving English proficiency and developing effective communicative skills.

Although faculty seem sympathetic and sensitive to their students' needs as they

struggled to learn academic English, they generally did not report accommodating such needs by

making their course easier. But likewise, they did not state an actual commitment to adjust their

course curriculum and time to better address such needs. Additionally, while faculty showed

respect for students' cultural and linguistic background "in that they oppose intrusive means to

improve [their] English proficiency" (Andrade, 2010, p. 230), they acknowledged that L2

students' English skills needed improvement and interventions. Yet, and not surprisingly, faculty

offered no alternatives that would require them stepping up to such a task and assuming

responsibility to help improve their students' English proficiency skills. Correspondingly, the

findings suggested that faculty responses imply a vagueness about whether they should or should

not be accountable for the learning of their NNESs in their mainstream classroom (Schneider &

Jin, 2022). Not taking a clear stand on this matter, and thus reinforcing mixed messages about

their accountability, reflected, as Andrade (2010) termed it, a "noncommittal attitude" (p. 227)

towards their ELL students' English instruction.

Interestingly though, Andrade (2010) explained what she saw as a "social desirability

bias" (p. 231) that faculty wanted NNESs to behave and conduct themselves in accordance with

certain socially desirable classroom conventions and that these students were more likely to

adhere to these conventions--they worked hard, they abided by the rules, they paid attention, and

they did not disrupt class. However the irony of this bias was that, rather than giving these

students more time and attention to help them master the academic skills necessary to succeed in

the course, the faculty tended to lower the standards for these students and overlooked areas

where the students needed support and where *they* could be of help to them, because again, in

keeping with what was considered socially appropriate based on the culture of higher education,

they assumed others, including the students themselves and English and ESL faculty specialists,

would eventually take this responsibility. Thus, it was not surprising that faculty "advocate

initiatives for improving students' English skills—[those] that did not involve them directly,

such as providing support through tutoring, study groups, technology, or learning centers. They

also viewed students as having responsibility for their own linguistic improvement" (Andrade,

2010, p. 230).

   While acknowledging that improving students' English is not solely the task of English

or TESOL faculty and specialists, faculty participating in Andrade's (2010) study had

nonetheless the least interest in taking charge of such a task by contributing to the cultivation of

their students' English language skills, let alone engaging in professional learning to know more

about new pedagogical methods that would prepare and enable them to better serve their NNESs.

Moreover, Andrade's study indicated that faculty felt "they are doing their part, primarily to help

students understand the content of their classes, and that efforts at improving students' English

skills should be left to others" (p. 230) and "solutions such as raising admission requirements and

motivating students, neither of which are directly in the purview of most faculty, are viewed as

optimal" (p. 230). This resistance among faculty to consider the improvement of their students'

English skills as part of their teaching responsibility, and hence their reluctance to commit

themselves to changing their teaching practice according to their diverse students' needs, was

one salient root of different types of tension that reside within the interpersonal sphere of

faculty's personal and professional identities. (Andrade, 2010; Collins & Bilge, 2016; Gorski &

Goodman, 2011; Mahalingappa et al., 2021; Ward & Selvester, 2011).

      Relevant to faculty's sense of responsibility when teaching ELLs is the study by Meyer

(2000). Albeit focused more on younger students, the author's use of Vygotsky's concept of

child development (1962) to identify four principal barriers to meaningful instruction for ELLs

applied to ELLs in higher education as well. To effectively teach ELLs, Meyer (2000) argued,

teachers "must be skilled at lowering four significant barriers to meaningful instruction:

cognitive load, culture load, language load, and learning load" (p. 229). From an awareness of

the student's degree of knowledge of a given subject in his or her own native language to a

recognition of the implicit cultural knowledge necessary to make sense of a text, skilled teachers

could aid ELLs' acquisition of English through "sensitive efforts to lighten even one or two of

these loads" (p. 235). Students themselves were often motivated to overcome these barriers when

they developed an intrinsic interest in a subject. But this "yearning goad" (p. 234), as Meyer

(2000) described it, was often contingent on the teacher's consciousness of and skilled response

to the aforementioned barriers. And as Meyer (2000) noted with respect to the language load in

particular, tension arose for some teachers when they perceived the sorts of strategies she

recommended as "lower[ing] standards and dumb[ing] down content" (p. 233).

      In a similar vein, Daniel and Peercy (2014) revealed findings that were similar to

Andrade's (2010) study about faculty's perspectives on educating ELLs. Although, unlike

Andrade (2010), the authors primarily focused on how both faculty and administrators in teacher

education program were tentatively committed to evaluating their initiatives and approaches to

guiding teacher candidates on how to be better educators for linguistically and culturally diverse

students in K-12 settings, their analysis and findings were still extremely relevant to faculty in

other disciplines. Findings similar to those in other studies pertaining to faculty's sense of

responsibility for teaching ELLs were detected. While faculty and administrators alike expressed

interest in and a verbal commitment to addressing ELLs' needs by better preparing their teacher

candidates to teach them, they themselves fell short in achieving their goals due to their lack of

effective leadership, a lack of specificity in clarifying the nature of the responsibility, the lack of

coherence and communication, and a lack of initiatives, which were major concerns for some

participants. This is strikingly similar to the finding of Andrade's (2010) study which confirmed

the contradiction between faculty's expressed good intentions and their commitment to enacting

them to address their ELL students' needs.

As evident in the findings of these studies, the demographic shift in mainstream

classrooms necessitates a shift in instructional responsibilities for faculty in various disciplines.

Predictably, this, in turn, has created various forms of tensions among faculty as they attempt to

negotiate their new role of simultaneously teaching the English language and their specific

content areas.

Faculty Challenges and Tensions when Teaching ELLs

There are numerous challenges that faculty face when teaching linguistically and

culturally diverse students. Such challenges have inevitably created a sense of resistance and

tension among faculty, particularly given the changing demographic nature of the student

population. These tensions were implicitly and explicitly evident when teaching ELLs in

mainstream courses and are well documented in the reviewed literature (Andrade, 2010; Daniel

& Peercy, 2014; Gorski & Goodman, 2011; Hann et al., 2017; Ward & Selvester, 2011). How

faculty view and respond to their responsibility of teaching ELLs in their classrooms vary based

on four main tensions: First, the demographic tension reflected in faculty disposition and

attitudinal beliefs about ELLs instruction; second, the effectiveness tension resulting from

faculty level of preparedness to teach diverse learners whose first language is not English; third,

the tension rooted in faculty expectations and fallacies of ELLs' language proficiency levels; and

fourth, the tension that occurs as consequence of faculty's lack of awareness of the importance of

the student-faculty relationship. These four factors ultimately predict how faculty respond to

ELL content language teaching responsibility. I discuss each of these factors below.

Demographic Imperative Tension. The demographic imperative is the new reality and

is an inherent part of the increasing diversity of U.S. society. The U.S. linguistic and cultural

student demographic makeup is rapidly changing and thus constantly adding to the complex

nature of students' identities and learning needs. The resulting cultural divide in our classrooms

has provoked controversy for scholars and teacher educators (Cook-Sather & Abbot, 2016),

which mirrors a wider political conflict about how a democratic society envisions the purpose of

public education. Since the 1970s and 1980s, most notably in the context of school

desegregation, arguments have been made for the inclusion of social justice in public schools.

But as an educational policy initiative, the social justice agenda is linked to a change in the

demographic landscape in the 1990s, known as "the demographic imperative" (Zeichner, 2003).

As Zeichner (2003) explained, the "demographic imperative" is designed to capture an

objectively new situation for teaching and teacher education, which includes the nearly 50

million students in U.S schools served by little more than 3 million teachers, administrators, and

paraprofessionals. In the context of this demographic change, K–12 schools and higher education

institutions have to adapt and rethink their policies, organizational structures, and teaching

strategies to include all learners and better serve their linguistic and cultural needs. Undeniably,

this demographic change has dictated a change in practice (Lowenhaupt, & Reeves, 2017;

Reeves, 2006, 2009. Educators more than ever need to shift their dispositions and build a new professional repertoire to cope with the shifting demographics by incorporating linguistically and culturally relevant and inclusive pedagogies in their instruction. In her study of teacher attitudes towards including English-language learners in mainstream classrooms, Reeves (2006) explored four relevant categories: ELL inclusion; coursework modification for ELLs; professional development for working with ELLs; and perceptions of language learning. Her findings suggested that while many educators in K-12 tend to hold seemingly positive views of their ELL students, those views are likely to shift to a more unwelcoming stance when they are asked to be accountable for the success of those students. She argued that "in a climate of educator accountability for the learning of all students, the inclusion of ELLs can likely create a situation in which teacher attention is torn between meeting the needs of non-ESL and ESL students" (Reeves, 2006, p. 137). This indecision among educators of whether they should meet the needs of ELLs or those of native students is a common dilemma among educators who have ELLs in their mainstream classrooms (Darling-Hammond, 1999a, 1999b, 2000). Although indecisiveness is to be expected, given the lack of proper preparation on how to teach ELL students, educators might best opt out of such a paradigm and begin to view themselves as educators for all students, regardless of their linguistic and cultural backgrounds. For such a divisive view can in turn have detrimental effects on all of their students and will in turn impact ELLs' learning. Similarly, and in a later study, Reeves (2008) emphasized that all educators must listen to that concurrent and ethical call to re-envision and enact their new role as language educators for ELLs in their classrooms, regardless of their primary content area.

Effectiveness Tension and Resistance among Faculty when Teaching ELLs.

Faculty's resistance to and attitudinal beliefs about their responsibility for teaching their

mainstream ELL students who are struggling to acquire proficiency in academic English have been explored in the literature (Andrade, 2010; Burgey et al., 2018; Bunch, 2013; Butler, 2021; Cochran-Smith, 2003, 2014, 2021; Cochran-Smith & Power, 2013; Costa et al., 2005; Dale & Frye, 2009; Daniel & Peercy, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2000, 2005a; De Jon & Harper, 2005; De Jon, et al., 2013; Franson, 1999; Gallagher & Hann, 2018; Gist et al., 2019; Hallman & Meineke, 2016; Hann et al., 2017; Harrison & Shi, 2016; Jimenez-Silva et al., 2016; Meskill, 2005). This resistance is rooted primarily in teachers' lack of self-efficacy and adequate preparation to teach diverse student populations (Darling-Hammond, 1995, 2005a, 2005b). Lack of adequate preparation to teach ELLs and lack of linguistic knowledge and cultural competency impact instructional confidence in general (Bandura, 1982, 1995, 1997), whether for K–12 teachers or faculty in higher education (Andrade, 2010; Daniel & Peercy, 2014; Gallagher & Hann, 2018; Gorski & Goodman, 2011; Hann et al., 2017; Meskill, 2005; Ward & Selvester, 2011). However, it is also important to note, in addition to this lack of preparation, the effect of the internationalization of higher education on increases in the number of ELL students in their classrooms (Anderson, 2015). Relative to other professions in various sectors of the economy, faculty and teachers in general are modestly compensated and yet continuously held accountable for their students' success and increasingly asked to take on more responsibilities (Bowles & Gintis, 1976; Brunton & Jeffrey, 2014; Dale & Frye, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2005a, 2005b; Han et al., 2014; Harrison & Shee, 2016; Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Lee et al., 2018; Sindelar & Rosenberg, 2000; Tenuto & Gardiner, 2014). It is thus not surprising that new challenges and responsibilities associated with a change in the student linguistic landscape in mainstream classrooms is yet another reason some faculty might resist teaching ELLs (Andrade, 2010). Resistance and tension are not unusual responses when educators, more so than most other

professionals, are continuously asked to adapt to new norms and methodologies without proper

guidance, professional development, or institutional support (Sindelar & Rosenberg, 2000).

According to several studies (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011; Burgey et al., 2018; Cochran-Smith, 2003;

Cochran-Smith & Power, 2013; de Kleine & Lawton, 2015; Dewey, 2008; Early & Norton,

2011; Gay & KirKland, 2003; Gollnick & Chinn, 2002; Gort et al., 2010; Grossman, 1995;

Meyer, 2000; Sheets, 2003; Tenuto & Gardiner, 2014), having to change instruction is another

reason faculty seem to be inherently resistant to adapting to the needs of ELLs, and it should be

figured into the equation when attempting to understand why faculty and educators in general are

resistant to teaching new student populations with different linguistic needs (de Jon, 2018; de Jon

& Naranjo, 2019).

Based on the analysis of the literature (Cochran-Smith, 2003; Costa et al., 2005; Fillmore

& Snow, 2018; Harrison & Shi, 2016; Lucas & Villegas, 2008; Meskill, 2005; Sheets, 2003) on

both K–12 teachers and faculty's knowledge of language learning when teaching ELL students,

it is evident that the majority of higher education faculty and K–12 teachers, are not adequately

prepared to teach the ELL student population. Various factors contribute to the lack of faculty

preparedness when teaching ELLs, such as faculty's limited knowledge of second language

acquisition, lack of sociocultural awareness, and limited knowledge of what it means to be an

ELL student in U.S. institutions. In fact, and as Reeves (2006) underscored, "the combination of

a school faculty unprepared for ELLs, even those with low English proficiency, sets the stage for

the frustration and failure of teachers and students" (p. 137).

Similarly, and in the context of how faculty can effectively foster a constructive learning

environment as part of their teaching responsibilities, Karathanos and Mena (2014) addressed the

lack of scholarly attention to how ELLs are supported at the college level at San Jose State

University. They surveyed student reactions to and perceptions of faculty feedback on discipline-specific writing assignments and queried them about what kind of instructional support they received. The authors argued that, especially in education programs, it is imperative that faculty develop expertise in teaching ELLs. And the findings of their study suggested several strategies all faculty (not just English professors) can employ to help their ELLs become proficient academic writers—from providing "clear, precise, encouraging" feedback in more than one area (e.g., content, organization, grammar) to giving students opportunities to submit revisions to providing information on and making writing resources available (e.g., writing lab, tutoring center). However, implicit in their study's findings was the tension between student expectations and faculty workload. When asked how their professors could best assist them in improving their writing, one student effectively acknowledged that meeting their requests would make unfair demands on their professors' time.

Faculty's time, or the lack thereof, is the subject of Shahjahan's (2015) innovative critique, which pertains to the above analysis of the challenges resulting from faculty effectiveness tensions. Shahjahan (2015) contended that the modern Western conception of time as linear and linked to the modern Western idea of "progress" is rooted in the hierarchizing colonial project and is consistent with the current neoliberal logic that dominates higher education. Students, faculty, and administrators are all subjected to and constrained by this notion of time which subordinates the body to the mind. But his proposal--slow down, be "lazy," get in touch with the body, be present through mindfulness, etc.--as he understands, face strict structural limitations (p. 498) (e.g., the "tenure clock"). Thus, while his proposal might be hypothetically useful to help faculty create time and space for their ELLs and their needs, in practice it seems unlikely to be enacted as a broad challenge to those structural constraints.

Faculty Expectations and Fallacies of ELLs Language Proficiency Levels. There are often entrenched misconceptions about ELLs' learning that have detrimental effects on their learning and how faculty view and value their linguistic skills and thus plan their instruction. Hence, it is imperative for faculty to collaborate collectively to build relationships with their linguistic minority students that are participatory in nature, rather than segregated and divisive, and where students linguistic and cultural backgrounds are valued. Among such fallacies is that ELLs who have oral proficiency are believed to have written proficiency as well (Ferris, 2009). This is a common misconception among educators who assume that just because their ELLs master oral communication, they will automatically have a good command of academic writing skills (Franson, 1999; Freeman, 2002; Gay, 2010; Genesee et al., 2006).

Consistent with this misconception is that faculty are often not aware of how challenging it is to acquire English proficiency while learning the academic language that derives from it (Bollin, 2007; Cummins, 2000; Ferris, 2009; Mahalingappa et al., 2021). In fact, based on their own learning experiences as native English speakers, many faculty assume that learning English as a second language should not take long and that ELLs can be proficient in a short time. They seemed to disregard the fact that "language is not a linear process" (Gibbon, 2002, p. 4) and that ELLs are not only acquiring English proficiency but also learning the medium of the English language as well. Contrary to their assumptions, several studies revealed that acquiring second language proficiency can take from five to ten years (Cummins, 2000; Schleppegrell, 2004; Takeuchi & Esmonde, 2011).

Likewise, because academic language, as Cummins (2006) noted, is primarily located in written texts, and because it takes several years longer for most non-native English speakers to

achieve proficiency in academic language—known as cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP)—as opposed to fluency in speaking everyday language—known as basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) (Frankfurt International School [FIS])—specific bilingual educational practices should be designed to bridge the gap by building on both students' conversational fluency *and* the knowledge and development of first-language proficiency rooted in the students' own backgrounds. This, in effect, is the application of the general theory of scaffolding which Gibbons (2002) advocated, and for which Cummins' (2000) model of quadrants offers a good example, with its emphasis on "additive bilingualism" (as opposed to "subtractive bilingualism," which devalues the importance of a student's first language) (FIS). Scaffolding (Gibbons, 2002; Walqui, 2007), as Gibbons (2002) explained, based on Vygotsky's (1978) key idea of the "zone of proximal development" (p. 8), is the "temporary assistance" that teachers provide for students so that students at some future point will be able to complete a task themselves (p. 10).

Another fallacy that seems strictly related to ELLs as adult learners pertains to their degree of motivation to continue and succeed in their education. Faculty often assume that the reason ELLs have not acquired English language proficiency is their lack of motivation. This fallacy is based on deficit views that stigmatize ELLs as non-committed learners. Contrary to this fallacy, however, and rooted in second language acquisition, the notion of learners' investment is strictly connected to identity and how it is socially constructed. According to Norton (2001, 2010, 2013), the acquisition of a second language among adult learners is intricately connected to identity, and identity does not exist independently of social context. In her ethnographic and qualitative research, Norton (2012) critiqued the canonical understanding

of second language acquisition (SLA) because it focused only on individual differences among second language learners and disregards the social context.

Unlike SLA theorists who argued that learning depends on the motivation of second language learners, and drawing on theorists such as Pierre Bourdieu, Michel Foucault, Chris Drawing, and Benedict Anderson, Norton (2013) contended that what is often perceived as a lack of motivation is rather a lack of what she refers to as "investment," and the degree of such investment is influenced by power relations in the social context in which learning takes place— power relations determined by race, class, gender, and sexual orientation. It is precisely this notion of inequitable and inevitable power that Norton argued influences the opportunities for second language learners to learn and practice English. In response, Norton (2013) drew on poststructuralist theories of identity which view the individual as "diverse, contradictory, dynamic and changing over historical time and social space" (p. 4). Through such an understanding of identity as multiple, Norton (2013) advocated teaching strategies that enable second language learners to access identities that empower them in their learning environment and thus encourage investment in the target language culture. Influenced by Bourdieu and Passeron (1977), Norton (2013) argued, based on the learning experiences of the five subjects in her ethnographic study, that language learners invest in a second language with the expectation of an increased range of "symbolic and material resources, which will in turn increase the value of their cultural capital" (p. 50). And as they invest in learning the language, they also invest in their own constantly changing identity.

The degree of investment, however, as Norton noted (2013), is influenced by exposure to the English language beyond the classroom context, since interaction with the "majority community" (p. 79) is critical to second language acquisition among adult learners. But such

exposure, in turn, is restricted due to their lack of "competence in the target language" (p. 79). This paradoxical situation, what Norton referred (2013) to as a "Catch-22," can then have significant bearing on the degree of investment and thus the learning outcomes of the second language learners such as ELLs. It is thus imperative for faculty to gain the necessary knowledge and awareness of how the English language is acquired among their diverse ELL students and how such knowledge will inform their instructional practices.

The Importance of the Student-Faculty Relationship. What is evident in the literature concerning ELLs' learning and faculty's sense of efficacy when teaching them is the importance of establishing a constructive student-faculty relationship (Cook-Sather & Abbot, 2016; Diaz et al., 2016; Exposito & Favela, 2003; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Nungaray & Pana, 2012; Vandrick, 2014). For example, Nungaray and Pena (2012) noted that establishing a constructive student-faculty relationship is important for students' achievement and long-term success. Hence ELL students who have a positive relationship with faculty are most likely to attain their degree. And likewise, faculty who seem to take initiatives to better know their students and their backgrounds are more likely to have well-informed perspectives on innovative and inclusive curriculum and instructional strategies that reflects their ELL students' cultural backgrounds, and thus have a greater chance to address their learning needs. Without exposure to their ELL students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds, faculty will most likely miss the opportunity to build a constructive connection with them (Banks & Banks, 2007; Chval et al., 2015; Cummins, 2000; Deaton, 2015; Hubbard & Stage, 2009; Schleppegrell, 2004; Takeuchi & Esmonde, 2011). While lack of exposure can sometimes be attributed to institutional constraints, several studies indicate that the impetus and empathy necessary to genuinely support ELLs' learning in mainstream classrooms is contingent on educators' conceptions about their responsibilities as educators (Arce et al.,

2014; Brancard & Quinnwilliams, 2012; Brooks & Adams, 2015; Buxton et al., 2013; Deaton et al., 2015); the level of investment in their students' success (Choi et al, 2014, Mallot, 2017; Murphy & Pinnegar, 2011; Takeuchi & Esmonde, 2011); and the determination to make instructional modifications, fine-tune their teaching strategies, and connect with their students on a more personal level. Such exposure to their ELL students' lives provides educators with different perspectives (Bollin, 2007; Brooks & Adams, 2015; Deaton et al., 2015).

Similarly, faculty need to be aware that ELLs come from various backgrounds, cultures, and communities, often with disparate standards and diverse needs (Gort et al., 2010). Hence, each student is unique and thus learns differently (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011; Butler, 2021; De Jong et al., 2018; Kanno & Cromley, 2013; Lucas & Villegas, 2008; Nieto, 2004). But faculty teaching strategies have often been designed as if all students were the same and learn the same way, and thus assume that one instructional strategy will work for all students, which implicitly universalizes and silences the learner. By taking the one-size-fits-all approach, faculty provide their ELLs with standardized teaching and deny them individualized learning, and thus deprive them of effective and meaningful instruction by overlooking what unique experiences and cultural characteristics they bring to the classroom. As agents of equitable education for all, faculty need to appreciate this diversity and incorporate it into their teaching and curriculum. It is the valuing of such diversity that builds confidence and promotes self-esteem among students, no matter what their backgrounds are (Butler, 2021; Costa et al., 2005; Cochran-Smith, 2003, Fillmore & Snow, 2018; Harrison & Shi, 2016; Lucas & Villegas, 2008; Meskill, 2005). By accommodating the learning differences of ELL students and giving them the opportunity for self-initiated extra practice and constructive feedback, faculty ultimately provide them with the culturally responsive support they need, effectively serving as mentors and not just as instructors.

This is where a faculty's holistic grasp of their ELL students is essential to developing inclusive and effective instructional pedagogies.

Equally, faculty need to be conscious of their own power (Cummins, 2000; Freire, 1965, 1998a, 1998b; 1974; Giroux, 1988a, 1988b; Lin & Martin, 2005; Magee & Pherali, 2019) and how they wield it in their classroom, since it has a profound impact on the environment they want to create and their relationship with their ELL students. As teachers, we have to create that balanced and safe environment for the students to allow them to express themselves and encourage their creative and critical thinking. When ELLs feel safe, they can focus on learning instead of worrying about having to protect themselves in the countless ways in which they are prone to do so. Thus, faculty need to be cognizant of and sensitive to both the students' needs and their own position in the classroom to employ appropriate instructional strategies (Andrade, 2010). Faculty who incorporate a sociopolitical perspective into their teaching ought to recognize that it is like a minefield of subjugated and suppressed identities and different positionalities (Norton, 2008, 2012; Pavlenko & Norton, 2007). One must know who she is, where she stands, and when exactly to position herself, and to be constantly reminded of the power and pace of her steps as she traces her path across the teaching terrain. For learners are always positioning themselves in response to where their teachers, peers, community, and political institutions position them. So when faculty, for instance, perceive a student's lack of interest in a subject as a deficit, they need to recognize that their judgement may not consider other factors that contributed to the student's attitude. What seems absent from such a teaching practice is a teaching model that provides faculty with the space and skills necessary to build a profound connection with their students both as individuals and as members of a larger community which marks them socially and politically in quite specific ways (McDonald & Zeichner, 2008).

Negotiating the curriculum (Banks & Banks, 2007; Sleeter & Carmona, 2017), building a

relationship based on trust and respect, nurturing their identity and empowering their sense of

self by resisting narratives that position them as subordinate are only the first steps towards

fostering equitable and democratic practices (Deil-Amen & DeLuca, 2010; Patel, 2016).

It is equally imperative for faculty to consider the experiential knowledge and discourses

that minority groups such as ELLs bring to the table, and to understand that the way different

minority groups define themselves and their world is a reflection of the political struggles they

endure as they negotiate their position in the social hierarchy. For their position as such dictates

the level of power they should have, the privileges they should enjoy, and the agency they should

exercise in society. Their position also reflects their historical struggles, their subordination and

predispositions to inferiority and deficit, and the fact that their experiential knowledge has been

demoted by other dominant groups (McDonough, 2013; Tuhiwai-Smith, 2021).

Interestingly, a new recognition in recent years of the importance of understanding the

role of emotions in the field of L2 or second language studies has emerged (Butler, 2015;

Knupsky & Caballero, 2020; Saeli & Chung, 2019), as opposed to the conventional focus on the

cognitive aspect of language learning and its effects on learners. While perhaps not constituting a

paradigm shift in itself, this "affective turn" is part of a broader "social turn" (Block, 2003) that

views "language and language learners/users as sociohistorically and ideologically situated and

mediated" (Prior, 2019, p. 517). But whereas prior research (Shouse, 2005; Wright &

Cropanzano, 1998) has often focused on emotions associated with language learning in

'negative' terms—e.g., an emotional response of anxiety, fear, frustration, or shame seen as a

problem to be overcome--more recent research in L2 studies has drawn on positive psychology

in an effort to understand how "positive personality factors and subjective feelings such as . . .

contentment, belonging, empathy . . . contribute to perceptions of success, self-efficacy, and satisfaction" (p. 521). To create a classroom environment which encourages the development of these positive personality factors and subjective feelings might therefore enable ELLs to better succeed. Another and potentially equally fruitful area of research looks at the affective lives of teachers and how the feelings and emotions they bring to the classroom are shaped by professional discourses and the policies of the institutions in which they teach. No doubt these discourses and policies also affect their perceptions of and attitude toward their ELLs and how they include them in their instruction.

In a similar vein, Butler (2015) argued that "emotions are inherently interpersonal" (p. 336). As human beings, our emotions guide us and serve like a primary instrument to track the everchanging entities and events that surround us, and to then "evaluate, organize, and motivate responsive action to those changes" (p. 336). As such, scarce are the things we can do on our own that do not take place in time. In other words, it takes two to dance the tango. I find this particularly relevant when thinking about student-faculty relationships inside and outside the classroom. Faculty need to recognize the two-way street of teaching ELLs, that as much as they expect their students to invest in their learning, they need to invest in their students' learning as well.

In response to the recognition of the centrality of emotion in learning and in the student-teacher relationship, and in a small-scale qualitative and quantitative study, Knupsky and Caballero (2020) proposed "Theory of Minding" as a "rhetorical device" derived from Theory of Mind research and offered as a corrective to what are often the wrong impressions we draw about what others are thinking at any given moment. Unchecked, these impressions can help perpetuate stereotypes. In response, the authors argued, Theory of Mind*ing* offers the

opportunity to pause, consciously check in, and explicitly address faculty and student perceptions

of one another, and thus enable each to better "read" the other. Such an approach could be

potentially useful in an ELL context as a means for faculty to consciously reflect on their

perceptions of their students.

 Understanding ELL students' needs requires, foremost, a holistic understanding of the

various challenges that come into play when teaching ELLs, such as the demographic imperative

of the student population in an increasing linguistically, culturally, racially and ethnically diverse

society like ours, the level of faculty preparedness and self-confidence when teaching such a

diverse student population, and the awareness of the importance of a constructive student-faculty

relationship (Irvine, 2003; Jaffe-Walter & Lee, 2011; Perez & Morrison, 2016; Reeves, 2004;

Samson & Collins, 2012; Schmidt & Lazar, 2011). Fostering and building a constructive student-

faculty relationship are contingent on mutual respect and a shared recognition that learning is

indeed embedded in culture, and thus linguistically and culturally responsive instruction is not

only a useful theoretical lens but also imperative for ELL success as these students acquire

English proficiency (Butler, 2021; Cochran-Smith, 2003; de Jon, 2015; Fillmore & Snow, 2018;

Meskill, 2005). It is equally necessary to be cognizant of the assets that ELLs bring to the

classroom learning experience and how the power dynamics in one-way Eurocentric instruction

continues to perpetuate social hierarchies.

The Role of Faculty Inquiry in Promoting Self-Reflective Critical Practices

 Pertinent to faculty tension and resistance about taking responsibility for teaching ELLs

in their mainstream classrooms, are the institutional barriers. According to the literature, faculty

seem to lack sustained inquiry-based professional learning opportunities where they are the

conductors of their own inquiry about their practice (Brancard & Quinnwilliams, 2012; Brooks

& Adams, 2015; Buxton et al., 2013; Clegg, 2003 Cochran-Smith, 2003; Choi et al., 2014; Deaton et al., 2015;Gorski & Goodman, 2011; Harper, 1996; McGriff, 2015; Patel, 2016; Takeuchi, 2011; Yosso, 2005). In the study of Takeuchi and Esmonde (2011), for instance, the authors noted that professional learning opportunities about how to teach ELLs were either nonexistent or temporary in their schools. Although this study was conducted with K–12 teachers, the findings are still very pertinent to faculty in higher education as well. Similarly, and in the higher education context, Gorski et al. (2012) contextualized their study around faculty's ideological dispositions pertaining to diversity and multicultural education and how to teach diverse students in the college classroom. Likewise, the overwhelming whiteness of faculty suggested "limitations in cross-cultural experience and understanding among many of them, hampering the extent to which they feel prepared to do multicultural education" (p. 222). However, one of their core findings about faculty's level of preparedness and self-efficacy equally highlighted the lack of "access to professional development that encourage [faculty] to develop a more counter-hegemonic approach to multicultural education" (p. 222).

An additional salient barrier that reoccurred in this strand is the absence of a safe environment where professional learning communities can take place (Gort et al., 2010). This barrier was evident in the study by Brooks and Adams (2015) pertaining to being adequately prepared to teach ELLs. Prior to the professional development, participating teachers expressed concerns about having their administrators present during the professional development. They expressed relief when they were informed that their administrators would not be present. Teachers seemed to have similar views on what constitutes a safe professional development environment—one that does not include school administrators and where they will not be judged, ridiculed, or penalized by explicitly voicing their beliefs about their students, schools, and

teaching practices. Furthermore, the lack of sustained, school-embedded, and inquiry-based

professional development (Senyshyn & Smith, 2019; Shudak & Avoseh, 2015; Suárez-Orazco, et

al., 2001; Takeuchi & Esmonde, 2011; Walker et al., 2004; Wang, 2018; Wiley et al., 2018),

where teachers are conductors of their own research pertaining to issues affecting their practice,

was another barrier revealed in this set of studies.

Relevant to the argument that faculty lack professional development opportunities

concerning ELL instruction, it is also important to note that faculty's non-comital stand

pertaining to professional development that will better prepare them for ELL instruction does

exist and is indicative of their level of investment towards the learning of their ELL students

(Sindelar & Rosenberg, 2000; Sleeter, 2018a, 2018b). In fact, in her study, Andrade (2010)

argued that despite faculty's moderate interest in pedagogical professional development

addressing their ELLs' needs and gaining knowledge about second language acquisition, they

generally tend to disregard opportunities for professional development that specifically address

content language incorporation in their content area to help their ELLs achieve English

proficiency. Andrade (2010) contended that "this is understandable given that the faculty are not

trained in issues related to English language learning and that they were hired for their expertise

in their chosen field. Interestingly, however, they do not desire training or support in this area"

(p. 229). This complex but seemingly contradictory position stems from the various levels of

tension that exist between faculty's professional identity and the learning of their diverse ELL

students as explained above. But it equally echoes the broader contradictory nature of the politics

of educational reform (Andrade, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 1999a, 1999b; De Jon et al., 2018;

Hollywood et al., 2020; Zeichner, 2003). It is challenging enough as faculty to seek to balance

their teaching responsibilities with administrative duties and scholarly pursuits, but doubly

challenging to do so in the midst "of the contradictory demands that emanate from both outside and inside of the academy, including unilateral legislative mandates for curriculum coverage, restrictive university regulations, and the growing consumer orientation of the higher education marketplace" (Sindelar & Rosenberg, 2000, p.188) fueled by neoliberalism. Not surprisingly, many faculty are overwhelmed negotiating academic culture that, despite its emphasis on student learning and innovative pedagogies, still mostly caters to the "publish or perish" dictum and thus seems to value research more than good teaching (Andrade, 2010; Harrison & Shi, 2016; Hollywood, 2020).

Being pressured by various departmental and institutional requirements, in addition to their regular teaching responsibilities, faculty more than ever are in need of institutional support that acknowledges the complexity of teaching diverse students, and the resources to help them level the playing field not only for their ELL students but for themselves as professionals as well (Andrade, 2006, 2010; Andrade et al., 2015; Bowles & Gintis, 1976; Clegg, 2013; Costa et al., 2005; de Kleine & Lawton, 2018; Frye, 2009; Gallagher & Hann, 2018; Gorski & Goodman, 2011; Hallam & Meineke, 2016; Hann et al., 2017; Harrison & Shi, 2016; Lee et al., 2018; Sindelar & Rosenberg, 2000; Tenuto & Gardiner, 2014). Given the new professional responsibilities of faculty to integrate innovative strategies to effectively address the diverse linguistic and cultural needs of their ELL students, but *without* the adequate support and resources to help them examine and make meaning of their instructional practices within the realm of the continuously changing demographic of their student population, it remains challenging for faculty to learn and develop new approaches to help their ELL students and effectively teach them.

In a similar vein, Hamann and Reeves (2013) echoed Andrade's views on faculty's levels of commitment to and investment in their ELLs' learning when it comes to professional development. When attempting to assess the challenges educators face and the responsibilities they assume when teaching ELLs, Hamann and Reeves (2013) concluded that being adequately prepared and invested in ELLs' learning and success in second language acquisition "is an issue of professional knowledge, to be sure, but it is also one of will" (p. 8). However, it is important to recognize that adequate preparation for teaching ELLs depends on more than "good teaching" and good will (De Jon, 2005; De Jon et al., 2018). Rather, it depends on crucial elements such as well-planned and collectively agreed-upon institutional goals and support. For change to occur, critical dialogue among faculty and between faculty and administrators needs to take place. If equitable education for all students, including ELLs, is to be established at all institutional and departmental levels, it must be informed by a top-down institutional approach and rooted in the academic culture. Thus, faculty's best intentions (Sheets, 2003) to engage in professional learning that adequately prepares them to teach their ELL students are sometimes not alone enough if faculty do not receive the support they need.

The Need for a Critical Stance: Faculty Self-Disposition

Faculty need to be *invested* in their ELL students' learning and achievements. However, such investment necessitates a motivation and the impetus to be familiar with their ELL students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds. It is therefore beneficial for faculty who view their practices as an extension of who they are as educators to filter their conceptions and make them more explicit. The self-reflection process allows faculty to undergo transformational development (Clegg, 2007; Cochran-Smith, 2001; Freire, 1970; Gay & Kirkland, 2003; Gort et al., 2010; Grossman, 1995; McLaren, 2003; Nguyen et al., 2013), which in turn enables them to develop a

more positive set of perceptions about their ELL students. Faculty are ethically *responsible* for

their students' success, regardless of where they come from, and thus they need to realize the

impact of their power as advocates for social justice and agents of change and how to use it in

ways that best allow their ELL students to integrate their language and culture into the learning

experience. ELLs' linguistic background should not be viewed as a problem, but rather essential

to their success (Deaton et al., 2015; Freire, 1970; McGriff, 2015; Melnick & Zeichner, 1995;

Nieto, 1992, 1999, 2004; Noddings, 1984; Norton, 2001, 2010, 2013; Norton & Toohey, 2001;

O'Brien & O'Shea, 2011; Oropeza et al., 2010; Paris & Alim, 2017; Patel, 2016; Rector-Aranda,

2019; Reeves, 2004, 2006, 2009). To better serve their ELLs, and challenging as this might be,

faculty need to ultimately adopt innovative positive views about their diverse students and the

necessary knowledge, skills, and dispositions to teach them. Furthermore, to establish

linguistically and culturally responsive instruction, faculty ought to reflect on their attitudes

towards their ELL students and how such attitudes influence their instructional decisions and the

classroom and campus environments at large (Love & Kruger, 2005; Lucas & Grinberg, 2008;

Lucas & Villegas, 2015).

Conclusion

In this literature review, I aimed to examine and synthesize the research on how faculty in

higher education address the needs of their ELL students and how they thus make meaning of

their instructional practices and decisions. By using critical pedagogy (Freire, 1970) as the main

theoretical framework to anchor my study within the existing literature, I analyzed five emerging

and overlapping strands: 1) Factors affecting ELLs' access to and success in college; 2)

challenges ELLs experience in college; 3) Faculty responses to ELL content language teaching

responsibility 4) Faculty challenges and tensions when teaching ELLs; and 5) The role of faculty

inquiry in promoting self-reflective critical practices. Such analysis is deemed essential to holistically provide a better understanding of how faculty make meaning of their instruction when teaching ELLs. Under the first strand, factors affecting ELLs' access to and success in college, I explained how the existing and interconnected academic, linguistic, and sociocultural barriers dramatically affect how ELLs acquire academic English. Such barriers themselves are strong indicators of ELLs' access to, attainment of degrees, and success in college—which is the core of the second strand: challenges ELLs experience in college. The second strand equally offered a comprehensive overview of how ELLs are positioned in higher education. In the third strand, faculty responses to ELL content language teaching, however, I discussed how the demographic imperative and faculty self-efficacy, coupled with faculty misconceptions about ELLs' level of proficiency and the importance of the student-faculty relationship, have offered a context that emphasized the challenges and tensions that faculty experience when teaching ELLs.

In this literature review I provided the relevant context for my study by situating, investigating, and synthesizing the existing literature on faculty experiences teaching ELLs in higher education and how they make meaning of their instructional practice. Using critical pedagogy (Freire, 1970) as a theoretical framework, I dissected five main themes— understanding factors affecting ELLs' access to and success in college; understanding challenges ELLs experience in college; faculty responses to ELL content language teaching responsibility; understanding faculty challenges and tensions when teaching ELLs; and the role of faculty inquiry in promoting self-reflective critical practices—to provide a broad overview of the overlapping nature of such strands as indicators for understanding the complexity of how faculty make meaning of their instructional experiences when teaching ELLs. Under the theme understanding factors affecting ELLs' access to and success in college, I discuss the various

elements impacting ELLs' transition from K-12 to higher education and how their K–12

academic performance, access to resources, and social experiences predict their college choice,

chance of admission and attainment of degrees. In understanding challenges ELLs experience in

college, I underscore how academic barriers such as acquiring academic English while learning

subject content in English as the only mean of communication, coupled with linguistic and

sociocultural barriers rooted in the demographic composition of most American campuses that

continue to be predominantly white and monolingual (Stanley, 2006; Lucas & Villegas, 2011),

have a profound effect on ELLs' learning and performance in higher education. To better

understand faculty responses to ELL content language teaching responsibility, which constitutes

the third theme, I underscore the correlation between educators' identities and personal

perceptions and their instructional decisions when teaching ELLs. Furthermore, I explain how

such perceptions together with faculty's level of self-confidence and preparedness are strong

predictors of their degree of commitment to and investment in their ELL students' learning.

Under the theme of understanding faculty's challenges and tensions when teaching ELLs, I

address the various barriers that caused tensions and resistance among faculty, such as the

demographic and the effectiveness tensions. While the former was reflected in faculty's attitudes

towards teaching ELLs in their mainstream classroom, the latter was more a result of faculty's

lack of necessary knowledge and preparedness when teaching this diverse student population.

And last, relevant to faculty tension and resistance when negotiating their levels of responsibility

pertaining to ELL instruction, I address the significance of faculty inquiry in promoting self-

reflective critical practices by underscoring the importance of faculty professional learning when

teaching ELLs and the impact of self-initiated and sustained inquiry.

To better understand the complexity of teaching a diverse student population, such as ELLs in higher education, it is imperative to be cognizant of the various factors and barriers that hinder ELLs' learning and success. Understanding how ELLs transit to higher education, what barriers they face while acquiring English proficiency and learning the academic content language, how faculty view these students and teach them, what factors could predict ELLs' success in higher education, and what faculty and administrators can actually do to better prepare these students academically are all salient questions that need to be addressed if institutions are committed to the success of all their students, regardless of where they come from.

The findings of this literature would ultimately help educators, administrators, and other stakeholders to better understand not only the various linguistic, sociocultural, academic, and institutional barriers that hinder the success of ELL students, but also how such barriers encourage us to re-think existing policies concerning ELL instruction and how they can better inform the teaching and instructional decisions involved in serving a diverse student population.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

To better understand how faculty examined their instructional practice when educating ELL students in mainstream college classrooms, I conducted a qualitative research study. Since a qualitative study is concerned with the essential structure of a phenomenon (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016), and thus participants' experiences are the impetus of the qualitative inquiry, a qualitative study was the best research methodology to help me to understand how faculty interpreted their teaching experiences with ELLs. Therefore, the purpose of this qualitative study was to examine how higher education faculty made sense of their instruction of ELL students in mainstream classrooms, what strategies they adapted to effectively educate their English language learners, and the challenges they confronted that inhibit such efforts. The research question that guided this study was: What happens when higher education faculty of multiple disciplines examine and make meaning of their instructional practices to meet the needs of ELL students? The sub-questions for my study included: a) How do faculty in various disciplines modify their instruction to meet the needs of ELL students?; b) What do faculty see as areas of struggles when working with ELL students?; and c) What institutional resources are in place to support faculty to effectively teach ELL students?

In the following section, I explain in detail the study design and how I conducted my qualitative inquiry. I followed by addressing the context of the study as well as participant recruitment, sampling method, and main criteria for my pool sampling. I then proceed with an explanation of how my data sources were collected as they aligned with the study's theoretical framework and the research questions. I conclude with a detailed discussion of the data analysis process as a vital part of my research design, for it generated interpretive answers to my initial research inquiry. In the last part of this section, I discuss the ways in which I ensured the validity

of my research by explaining ethical considerations, trustworthiness, and my researcher's positionality.

Study Design and Methodological Approach

Since a qualitative study is constructed from the understanding of the participants' experiences and not the researcher's, I used a qualitative approach for this study which was exploratory in nature and was designed to offer a thorough understanding of the significance of how participants made meaning of their environment—in this context how faculty made sense of their instruction of ELL students in their mainstream classrooms. This is what makes qualitative research in all its different forms an inductive process, where "the design . . . is flexible, relevant variables are not known ahead of time, [and the] findings are inductively derived in the data analysis process" (Creswell, & Poth, 2018, p. 18). I chose to do a qualitative study because it has been established as one of the most effective and comprehensive methods in qualitative research in supporting detailed analysis of the studied phenomenon. It sought an in-depth understanding through a specific use of the study, be it one or multiple cases (Creswell, 2013). As an inquiry strategy, a methodology, and an in-depth research strategy (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Yin, 2014), my study permitted the collection of in-depth data (in-depth interview and focus group transcripts; observation notes; reflective journals, and artifacts) from faculty which in turn informed the analysis and best captured participants' stories. Such an approach also allowed me to examine how faculty made meaning of their instruction of ELLs. Furthermore, I explored the nature of their interactions as they evolved through the inquiry, how they reflected with one another on their teaching strategies and decisions, and to what extent their instructional decisions shifted the dynamic with their diverse students. The criteria of the participants for this study were faculty in different ranks, and various discipline areas who had or currently have ELL students in

their mainstream undergraduate classes. The goal of this study was to understand and examine

the experiences of five faculty who were invested and committed to reflect on their practice and

to gain knowledge deemed essential to their practice when teaching ELLs and were willing to

collaborate collectively in focus group sessions to build a learning community where they shared

their ELL teaching experiences and the challenges they faced while serving this student

population.

The core tenet of my inquiry was rooted in Norton's (2010) construct of investment and

imagined communities. Initially drawing on her own work on the essential relationship between

investment and identity, and particularly her later work on investment and imagined

communities, which itself drew on Anderson's (1991) seminal work and his idea of the nation as

an imagined community, Norton (2010) argued that:

> In our daily life, we interact with many communities whose existence can be felt
>
> concretely and directly such as our neighborhood communities, our workplaces, our
>
> educational institutions . . . However, these are not the only communities with which we
>
> are affiliated. Imagined ties can extend both spatially and temporally (Anderson, 1991).
>
> Thus, in imagining themselves bonded with their fellow human beings across space and
>
> time, learners can feel a sense of community with people they have not yet met, including
>
> future relationships that exist only in a learner's imagination. (p. 3)

In addition to students and how they imagine "themselves bonded with their fellow

human beings across space and time" (Norton, 2010, p. 3), Norton's notion of learners'

investment and imagined communities, I argue, could be applied to faculty as emergent learners

themselves (Norton & Toohey, 2001; Pavlenko & Norton, 2007). This was a potentially

powerful approach that was integral to the faculty's sense of belonging and community, not only

with their students but with their colleagues as well. Based on the already existing but scarce

literature on faculty as learners when teaching ELLs (Anderson, 1991; Andrade, 2010; Norton,

2010, 2011, 2012), I thus argue that re-envisioning faculty as learners investing in their

professional growth and student learning was a conceptually useful approach that framed a re-

imagined, self-initiated learning faculty community as fundamental for their new professional

repertoire as learners in which they reflected on their shared perspectives and beliefs pertaining

to their ELLs' instruction and learning. Likewise, Norton's framework of investment and

imagined communities would be empowering and inspiring for faculty's relationship with their

ELL students and within their academic community. As a construct, this notion of re-imagined

communities helped social-justice oriented faculty who shared a sense of urgency for the success

of their ELL students in their classrooms, and who were equally interested in making a

difference in their practice. In a similar vein, this new learning investment lens provided faculty

with a sense of belonging and the necessary support to re-imagine their own community, not

only with those they knew (be it students and/or fellow faculty), but with those they did not

know, yet imagined knowing and working with as a prospective community of diverse student.

As learners, faculty also could "feel a sense of community with people they have not met,

including future relationships that exist only in a learner's imagination" (Norton, 2010, p. 3).

Positioned and envisioned as learners (Doyle, 2004; Gonzalez et al., 2002, 2005; Moll et al.,

1992), faculty potentially no longer viewed themselves through the banking model (Freire, 1970)

but rather as individuals who sought to learn, as they unlearned, from their teaching experiences,

diverse classrooms interactions, and diverse student communities—the communities they

currently taught and those they envisioned teaching in a broader context that would better fit the

needs of these students. Such imagined communities, as Norton (2010) argued, were no less real

than those where learners had daily engagement and even had a stronger effect on their current actions and investments. Further, one could make the case that an investment in an imagined community assumed an investment in an imagined identity, one that could continually change across time and space.

These parallel trajectories in Norton's (2010) notion of imagined communities equally helped to frame and capture the complexity of faculty's learner identities as fluid and ever-changing, just like their re-imagined communities, and how faculty's views of themselves and others within a broader context depended on this self-re-imagination. When faculty re-envisioned their learning communities, it helped them to see how their identities and those of their students were complex and how such complexity was manifested in their practice.

Furthermore, given the ongoing processes of globalization and the influx of immigrants on the U.S student population and the educational landscape, Norton's (2010, 2011, 2012) framework of investment and imagined communities was even more beneficial in potentially providing faculty with the mindset necessary to resist tension due to the inclusion of ELLs in their mainstream classrooms and to ultimately re-position themselves differently as responsive practitioners to better serve their current and future students in an increasingly diverse teaching environment. It is precisely within this setting that faculty more than ever needed to invest in the possibility of re-imagined communities that would continue to change "across time and space" (Norton, 2010, p. 3). This was, in addition, especially beneficial to faculty in the current climate of educational reform and high-stakes accountability so as to ultimately position themselves in a better frame of mind to overcome their own attitudinal beliefs and the deficit paradigm and begin to conceptualize the needs of the students they imagine serving. And hence, the need to shift the research focus beyond the process-product (Opfer & Pedder, 2011) and move toward an

understanding of what learning really is and how it is shaped by the interconnectedness of faculty's experiences, identities and relationships with their students. For "[a]s language educators, the research challenges us to consider what pedagogical practices will help students develop the capacity for imagining a range of identities for the future. What shifts of teacher identity will such practices necessitate?" (Norton, 2010, p. 10). When faculty re-imagined their learning communities as they intersected with all students including ELLs and who they might be, they were actually thinking about their students' outcomes by investing in the cultivation of both their individual learning and broader social change.

Finally, it was through voluntary, coherent, and continuous inquiry as a stance that faculty, and all educators for that matter, emerged as learners who seek first and foremost the understanding of how they make meaning of their instructional experience and how it impacts the learning of their diverse students. Thus, faculty had to engage in a focus group cyclical in nature where the inquiry was not merely a provisional tool used for a short-term goal, but rather a process that was authentic and ultimately continuous in nature—a collaborative inquiry that was authentic and embedded in the institutional context and culture, and one that eventually led to a collective understanding and new knowledge that supported teaching which is social justice-oriented and grounded in a culturally and linguistically responsive pedagogy (Cochran-Smith, 2003; 2009, 2013, 2020).

Faculty Focus Group

The focus group for this study met three times for 90 minutes during which I assumed the role of both the researcher and facilitator. This focus group was a central part of the study as it produced meaningful data, created a safe space where faculty met, exchanged ideas, and engaged in discussions about their practices and challenges they faced when teaching ELLs. The

assumption was that faculty would have reason and incentive to be participants in this focus

group inquiry, a commitment to the individual and collective purpose of this inquiry, and the

willingness to make connections and build rapports with other faculty. This inquiry allowed for

the mutual respect of the participants, openness to the potential differences in their views, an

environment in which they allowed themselves to be vulnerable while safely engaged in an

uncomfortable discussion, and an understanding that the inquiry process was exploratory in

nature and was not designed to offer immediate solutions. This process created the ground for

individual and collective reflection and critical thinking pertaining to their ELL instruction.

Establishing clear goals and expectations for this inquiry focus group was thus essential.

In this focus group, the goal was for faculty to examine their practice with a critical lens, one that

questions privilege and power in institutions and society. The inquiry space also allowed them to

engage in critically reflective dialogue that viewed education as an emancipatory space resistant

to ideological and institutional norms. While recognizing that much more work needed to be

done when it came to the process of transforming faculty identity and what this meant for their

decision-making practice, this focus group thus offered a start for faculty who were committed to

social change and equitable education for all.

Likewise, this focus group provided faculty with a community where they collectively

engaged in an *unlearning* process, one that helped them re-position themselves as learners. One

important characteristic of this community was that it was not imposed by an administration or

mandated by a department. As such, this community emerged organically, building on trust and

support that would potentially shift faculty thinking and perceptions about their existing

knowledge and the knowledge they need when teaching their ELL student population. And they

were encouraged together develop strategies that would support their identity as educators, their instructional decisions, and how they relate to their students.

Context: A Four-Year State University in The Northeast

This study was conducted in a large size state four-year state university located in the Northeast of the U.S. with an enrollment of approximately 15,000 undergraduates. This university is also a research doctoral institution. Coupled with its rank and the distinguished scholarship of its faculty, this university is ranked as a Research 2 institution and most notably as a Hispanic-serving institution with more than 25% of undergraduate full-time Hispanic students, which was the primary criterion upon which I based my decision to use it as the site for my study. According to the U.S Census Bureau, in Northeast in 2018, 29% of the college-educated population were immigrants, versus 17% at the national level, which ranks it the second state after California (31 %) (U.S Census Bureau, 2018). Thus, it is not surprising that several community colleges and universities in the Northeast attract a highly diverse student population, and thus a high percentage of ELLs. In the absence of statistical documents on the university website that identify diverse students specifically as ELLs, it was not yet clear to me how ELLs were identified and profiled in this institution. I thus needed to initially operate on this assumption. According to the Migration Institute Report, the state in which my research site was located was ranked among the ten top states with the largest number of college-educated immigrants, as identified by the U.S Census Bureau 2018 ACS and displayed in the figure below. Additionally, in the state where my research site was located almost 30% of college-educated adults were immigrants, as demonstrated in Figures 4 and 5 below (Migration Institute Report, 2018).

Figure 4

The Ten U.S. States with The Largest College Immigrant Populations (Migration Institute

Report, 2018)

Table 1. Ten U.S. States with the Largest College-Educated Immigrant Populations, 2018

State	Total College-Educated Adults	College-Educated Immigrants	State Share of Immigrant College-Educated Population (%)	Immigrant Share of U.S. College-Educated Population (%)
United States	72,576,000	12,556,000	100.0	17.3
California	9,193,000	2,851,000	22.7	31.0
New York	5,094,000	1,300,000	10.4	25.5
Florida	4,645,000	1,165,000	9.3	25.1
Texas	5,578,000	1,118,000	8.9	20.1
New Jersey	2,506,000	721,000	5.7	28.8
Illinois	3,059,000	531,000	4.2	17.4
Massachusetts	2,148,000	406,000	3.2	18.9
Virginia	2,258,000	396,000	3.2	17.5
Washington	1,902,000	370,000	2.9	19.4
Maryland	1,685,000	340,000	2.7	20.2

Source: MPI tabulation of data from the U.S. Census Bureau 2018 ACS.

Figure 5

Immigrant Share of College-Educated Adults (Ages 25 and Older) by State and Percentage

(Migration Institute Report, 2018).

Figure 2. Immigrant Share of College-Educated Adults (Ages 25 and Older) by State, (%), 2018
Source: MPI tabulation of data from the U.S. Census Bureau 2018 ACS.
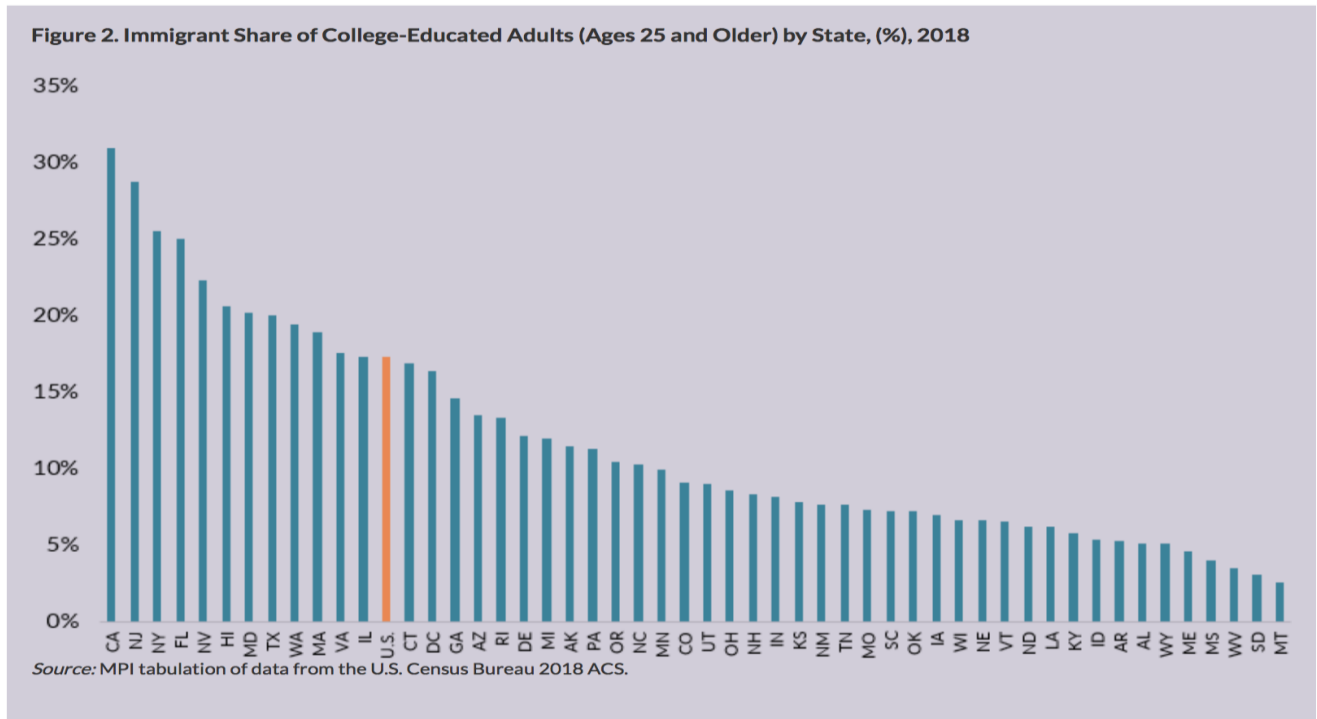
According to the institution website and College Factual (2019) statistics, the student to faculty ratio is 17 to 1, which is higher than the national average 15 to 1, suggesting slightly larger classes in general, particularly in introductory courses. The total instructors are 1,892, of whom only 34% are employed full-time, which is below the national average. Consequently, many classes are most likely taught by part-time non-faculty or non-tenure track faculty, who together constitute 66% of the instructional staff at this university which is considerably higher than the national average of 51% (College Factual, 2019). This high figure could implicitly raise questions about the university's levels of commitment to fostering a constructive student-faculty relationship and predicts faculty's individualized attention to students when applicable.

There are approximately 15,000 undergraduate students from a total of 21,000 enrolled in the university. Fifty-three percent of this university's undergraduates are traditional college age in comparison to 60% at the national level. Of the total number of undergraduates, roughly 60% are non-white, which makes the institution significantly more diverse than the national average. Figure 6 illustrates the university racial/ethnic breakdown of undergraduates (College Factual, 2019).

Figure 6

University Racial/Ethnic Breakdown of Undergraduates (College Factual, 2019).
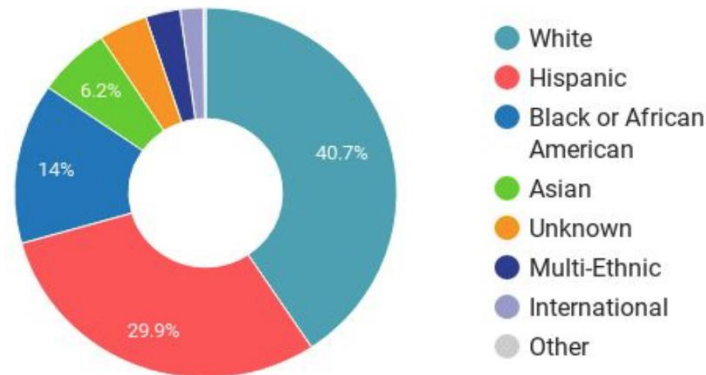
While the majority of student comes from the Northeast, there are nearly 600 international students from 71 countries, 57% of whom are undergraduates, the greatest number of whom come from India, South Korea, and Saudi Arabia. The international student population has increased by almost 17% with Saudi Arabia as the primary contributor to this increase (College Factual, 2019).

Participants

Since a qualitative study sought a holistic understanding of the situation and those who participated in it as the "unit of analysis," understanding the context of such a study was thus essential (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 39). Because sample selection in a qualitative study (Aurini et al., 2016) is determined by linking population characteristics to the research

question(s), and for the purpose of making sure that I recruited the participants needed for my

study, I used a convenience sampling as the primary instrument to recruit faculty participants

based a conveniently available pool of participants (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). I simultaneously

used a snowball sampling known also as a "referral chain" (Aurini et al., 2016, p. 56) as a means

of obtaining more respondents. This strategy relied on the faculty who have previously agreed to

participate in my inquiry to make suggestions of other faculty members they think suitable for

my study, according to the selection criteria. While I was aware of the limitations of snowball

sampling, and the possible challenges this strategy might impose, such as the difficulty of finding

the right respondents and compromising sample heterogeneity (Aurini et al., 2016), I still think it

was worth using for it helped to increase my participants pool from three to five.

   To allow for heterogeneity, the selection criteria for my participant pool included higher

education faculty who ranged in age, rank, teaching experiences with ELLs, cultural and

linguistic background, who did not have a prior degree or formal expertise to teach ELLs, and

who were committed to social justice-oriented pedagogy. Faculty were interviewed to examine

to what extent their knowledge and instructional experiences with ELLs aligned with their actual

classroom practice. My preliminary goal was to have three to five participants for the duration of

one semester. Although setting my participant pool criteria was important, this process was not a

static one and was thus subject to change as my research developed.

   Additionally, I used email as an instrument to recruit respondent faculty. The email was

sent to all Liberal Arts faculty who specifically teach general education subjects (such as

English, History, Math, Sciences, Chemistry, etc.) to undergraduate ELL students, since those

were the courses in which these students generally struggled the most with English. The email

delineated the type (voluntary) and purpose of the study (dissertation research aimed to improve

faculty's understanding of and pedagogical practices pertaining to ELLs), participant criteria

selection, the duration of the study (one semester) and the length of each inquiry group session

(90 minutes every two weeks followed by writing critical reflective journal entries), and one

individual interview session (60-90 minutes). Once faculty agreed to participate in the study,

they were informed of the details of this study and asked to sign a consent form. I also sent an

email to department chairs in various disciplines to ask that they announce my study in their

department meetings for potential participants. A total of eight faculty members responded to my

recruitment efforts of which five from various disciplines and backgrounds agreed to participate

in my study (See **Table 1**). According to faculty demographic data retrieved from the survey, the

three female and two male participants had all completed a doctoral degree. Three faculty

members were associate professors, only one of whom was tenured, one faculty member was a

full-time instructional specialist, and one was a part-time adjunct lecturer. Three faculty

members were in the 40–49 age group, one in the 50–59 age group, and one in the 60–69 age

range group. Four of the faculty members identified as white and one identified as Hispanic or

Latino/a/x. Participants' country of origin ranged from the United States to Mexico to different

countries in Europe. While two faculty participants grew up in Europe, only one spoke a

language other than English as his native language, while the other grew up in an Anglophone

country and thus spoke English as his first language. One faculty participant spoke Spanish as

her first language, and the other two faculty were native English-speaking Americans but had

learned a second language during college and were exposed to different cultures through

personal and educational travel. Faculty's teaching experience at the university level ranged from

1–24 years. Two faculty members taught chemistry, one taught history, and two taught

composition but in different areas (ethnography and rhetoric). The faculty represented the

following departments: History, Chemistry and Biochemistry, and Writing Studies. When asked during the survey if they considered themselves specialists in ELL instruction, only one faculty member confidently responded yes, while the remaining participants responded no. The number of ELL students that faculty reported having in each course they taught ranged from 1-15.

To better prepare participants for the scope of this study in which they agreed to participate, it was necessary to familiarize them with the term "ELL," its meaning and implications for their daily teaching practice and for their understanding of their diverse student population, and how they could thus modify their instruction to meet their ELLs' needs.

Table 1

Faculty Demographic Data (Self-Identified)

Faculty	Age (years)	Gender	Ethnicity	Discipline (Undergraduate Level)	Rank	Country of Origin	Highest Degree Attained	ELL Students per class	Years of University Teaching (years)	Language(s) Spoken at Home (Growing Up)	Language(s) Spoken at Home (Currently)
Peter	40-49	Male	White	Chemistry	Associate Professor-On tenure Track	Europe--(Anglophone country)	Doctoral Degree	11-15	10-16	Only English	Primarily English and another language
Bianca	50-59	Female	White	Rhetoric and Composition	Full-time Instructional Specialist	United-States	Doctoral Degree	1-5	20-24	Only English	Only English
Isabella	40-49	Female	Hispanic or Latino/a/x	History	Tenured Associate Professor	Mexico	Doctoral Degree	1-5	20-24	Only a language other than English	Primarily English and another language
Julius	40-49	Male	White	Chemistry	Non-Tenured Associate Professor	Europe	Doctoral Degree	6-10	10-14	Only a language other than English	Equally English and another language
Debbie	60-69	Female	White	Ethnographic Composition	Part-time Adjunct Professor	United-States	Doctoral Degree	1-5	5-9	Primarily English	Only English

Supplementary presentations about ELLs and Second Language Acquisition, as well as optional readings, were provided for the inquiry group to introduce new knowledge and stimulate discussions among faculty based on their discipline content area, their interactions with each other, their various experiences and expectations related to teaching ELLs, and their instructional viewpoints. Coupled with other emerging factors from the focus group discussions, these considerations helped determine what type of knowledge and needs faculty lacked and in which they were interested in engaging. With this in mind, I selected a tentative list of influential readings about critical and inclusive pedagogies and how it pertained to their instruction when teaching ELLs, as well as related topics and presentations to explain the rationale for and the significance of culturally responsive teaching and second language acquisition deemed essential if faculty were to engage in a meaningful learning experience (See Appendix A). Furthermore, gaining an understanding of who ELL students were and understanding policies pertaining to their education was also very informative. This reading list was also subject to change given the changing dynamic of the inquiry group itself during each session. (See Appendix A for the reading list).

Data Collection

All data were collected during the Spring of 2022. To explore my research questions, several means of data collection were employed for this study to provide a holistic understanding of my inquiry. Below, I briefly discuss the sources of my primary and secondary data collection: Inductive and in-depth interviews; faculty's electronic reflective journals; faculty's inquiry group audio-recorded sessions; observations; demographic survey; researcher's journal; public government and education resources; study site website; and faculty syllabi.

Inductive Interviews/Transcripts

Given the purpose of this qualitative study—that was, to understand the significance of the ways faculty make meaning of their instructional experiences when teaching ELLs—and since interviews "allow people to ascribe meaning to their experiences" (Bochner & Riggs, 2004, p. 202, cited in Leavy, 2017, p. 139), an inductive, in-depth, semi-structured interview was used with the participants. Thus, I conducted one individual virtual interview session for a duration of 60-90 minutes with each participant to gain a better understanding of faculty experiences and challenges when teaching ELLs. All interviews were recorded and transcribed. I included in-depth interview transcripts and carefully constructed open-ended questions in ways that were clear and less ambiguous to my participants. However, I needed to bear in mind that the type of data needed to answer my research question certainly shaped my interview questions as they developed. The interview questions were organized into various categories that helped me answer my research questions. Here I list a few categories. For example, to understand the level of faculty comfort in teaching ELLs, I asked the following questions under the category below.

Category 1: Faculty's Level of Comfort and Preparedness When Teaching ELLs.

- On average, how many ELL students do you have in your classroom?

- How comfortable are you teaching ELLs?

- Overall, how prepared are you to identify and address the academic needs of your ELL students?

- Do you feel that your ELL students have needs that are different from your other students?

Likewise, to better comprehend the level of knowledge faculty had about their ELL students and their learning needs, I asked the following questions.

Category 2: Faculty's Knowledge about Their ELL Students and Their Learning Needs.

- How much knowledge do you have of your ELL students' linguistic and cultural background that would help you address their needs?

- How knowledgeable are you about Second Language Acquisition?

- How comfortable and prepared are you addressing your students' linguistic and cultural needs in your classroom?

Furthermore, to gain an understanding of the overall challenges faculty faced when teaching ELLs and what type of institutional support was in place that would help them successfully teach ELL students. I asked these questions under the category below.

Category 3: Faculty's Challenges When Teaching ELLs and Institutional Support.

- What challenges do you face when teaching ELLs in your mainstream classroom?

- How do you identify your ELL student in your classroom? And is there any institutional protocol that would help faculty identify their ELLs in advance?

- What could you do differently to help ELLs perform better in your class?

- Do you feel it is your responsibility to modify your instruction to adapt to the needs of your ELL students? (See Appendix B for sample interview questions.)

This interview approach elicited responses from a variety of faculty based on their level of expertise and content areas and thus allowed for more diverse perspectives. This, in turn, generated a detailed analysis of their perceptions as they intersect. The semi-structured nature of the interview format also allowed both interviewer and interviewee more flexibility in accordance with individual personalities and the interview environment. Conducting in-depth, semi-structured interviews that were inductive in nature permitted participants to share their

experiences with respect to faculty's teaching experiences with ELLs (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Open-ended, less structured interviews did not only provide opportunities for building rapport

with participants but also allowed for more flexible and conversational ways to collect rich,

descriptive data and facilitated clear analysis, as faculty felt engaged and hence encouraged to

share and describe their interactions and experiences with their ELL students as *they* perceived

them. The goal of conducting individual interviews with each participant is to better understand

the process they engaged in during self-reflection on their teaching of ELLs, but also to

comprehend what they saw as areas of struggle. Based on the reviewed literature (Creswell &

Poth, 2017; Merriam & Tisdell, Miles et al., 2014; 2016; Saldaña, 2016), this process was an

intense one for certain faculty, and thus the individual interview approach seemed ideal in

helping to uncover participant faculty's reactions and emotions that I was not being able to see

during the observations and that other data resources failed to capture. This was best understood

in Patton's (2015) argument:

> We interview people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe . . .
>
> We cannot observe feelings, thoughts, and intentions. We cannot observe behaviors that
>
> took place at some previous point of time. We cannot observe situations that preclude the
>
> presence of an observer. We cannot observe how people have organized the world and
>
> the meanings they attach to what goes on in the world. We have to ask people questions
>
> about those things. The purpose of interviewing, then, is to allow us to enter into the
>
> other person's perspective. (Patton, 2015, p. 426, cited in Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p.
>
> 108)

Before analyzing the data constructed from the interviews, I first transcribed the

recording using a transcription software. The transcriptions then were read very thoroughly,

checking for accuracy against the original interview recording, and any necessary corrections were made. The transcriptions were then re-checked one last time for accuracy against the recording to avoid any possible errors that might affect their validity. Once satisfied with the results, and each transcript was ready for open coding, I followed the outline of Merriam and Tisdell's (2016) recommendations by including a sequential line numbering on the left margin of each transcript, creating a large margin on the right side of the page for comments and generated codes, and leaving an extra space between the interviewer and the participant while italicizing the questions of the former. The coding process generated various categories from which I developed the main themes as they emerged from the findings.

Faculty's Focus Group Recorded Sessions

Additionally, this focus group inquiry aimed to facilitate faculty discussions about the challenges they faced when teaching ELL student population, particularly through the ways faculty interacted with each other. While generating rich data, these interactions and dialogues in turn fostered a sense of belonging, understanding and growth that ultimately could impact their views and instructional strategies when teaching ELLs. Constructive in nature, faculty dialogues provided background for practical and innovative suggestions on how to examine their role as responsive educators to the needs of their linguistically and culturally diverse students. Moreover, guided by a critical stance, this dialogic approach also helped faculty to interrogate their disposition through a more ethical lens when teaching ELLs. To better capture the nuances of faculty's discussions and interactions, and gather more valuable data for this study, all focus group sessions were audio-recorded and transcribed not only to assure accuracy and not miss any details during their conversations, but also to be more present and focused as an observer/listener

during their interactions. All transcribed interviews and focus group data were equally stored on my computer secured with a password.

Faculty's Electronic Reflective Journal

As an essential part of my study and data collection, the faculty focus group provided a space where faculty could interact and share their instructional experiences with ELLs, and was structured to generate important data that helped to answer the research question on how faculty make meaning of their instructional decisions when teaching ELLs. The focus group was conducted virtually, and I met with participants three times for a duration of 90+ minutes for each session. Each session was followed by faculty's critical reflective journal entries. During the focus group, faculty were asked to write three online reflective journal entries to describe the process they went through while attempting to make meaning of their own practice as they modified their ELL instruction and negotiated the relationships between their personal and professional identities. All electronic journal entry data were stored in computer hardware files secured with a password. Faculty were given pseudonyms during all the stages of analysis and findings to eliminate any identifiable information.

Observation

As an additional means of data collection, I included one faculty face-to-face classroom observation for the duration of 60 minutes each. The purpose of the observation offered a glimpse of faculty's teaching that helped me understand their classroom experience and observe their interaction with their ELL students. This served as a supplement to the in-depth, inductive interviews since "it makes it possible to record behavior as it is happening" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 139). I used Merriam and Tisdell's (2016) observation check list while drawing on the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) which is a research-based instructional model

designed specifically for ELL students that links content objective to language objective (Center

for Applied Linguistic, 2018) (See Appendix C for sample Observation Model). Since classroom

observation "offers a firsthand account of the situation under study and, when combined with

interviewing and document analysis, allows for a holistic interpretation of the phenomenon being

investigated" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, pp. 160–161), during my observations I also focused on

firsthand accounts of the classroom environment and how it shaped the learning experiences for

both faculty and all students including ELLs.

With the help of participant faculty to identify their ELL students, I equally focused on

the dynamic between faculty and their ELL students, for it informed my understanding of the

nature of their relationship as they engaged in discussions to make meanings of their

instructional practices within their shared environment. Since the "theoretical framework, the

problem, and the questions of interest determine what is to be observed" (Merriam & Tisdell,

2016, p. 140), I looked for patterns that were relevant to my theoretical framework and

connected to my research questions. Thus, I took detailed notes through the duration of the

observation. However, I kept in mind that serious data collection will only begin after

establishing familiarity with the site and rapport with the participants (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

The field notes gathered during my interviews and observations were also used to interpret and

supplement my data collection. To ensure I accurately recorded their responses, I sent follow-up

confirmation requests and questions by email after each stage of my data collection (interviews,

focus group sessions, and observations), and faculty responded either by email or phone.

Survey

One of my secondary sources and methods of data collection entailed the generation of a

demographic survey which was used to collect faculty personal and demographic information

deemed relevant to my research questions and data analysis (See Appendix D for demographic survey). Since surveys tend to identify groups within the context of their population, combining and complementing the demographic survey prior to the semi-structured interviews helped me better capture faculty narratives as they reflected on their instructional experiences with their ELL students. The survey also had questions about faculty's perceptions, preparedness, and practices pertaining to instructional strategies and pedagogies with ELLs.

Researcher's Journal

Conducting qualitative research was a complex and meticulous undertaking. Detailed descriptions were crucial in every step of the research process, especially when gathering data collection (Leavy, 2017). With this in mind, and as a researcher, I placed great importance on keeping a detailed track of my thoughts, questions, challenges, and the rationale behind each step of the research process. I thus continued to record all my notes prior, during, and after the interviews, observations, analysis, and through each stage of my research. Note-taking was also important to describe participants' unspoken reactions and physical cues—which were beneficial to gain a better understanding of participants' responses and reactions to certain questions and thus helped make meaning of the transcribed data during the coding and analysis processes.

Public Government and Education Sources

For the purpose of this study, I included documents and statistical data from participant institution and government websites that served as supplements to the data, such as the study's site's mission statement, the Institute of International Education (IIE), the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), the National Education Association (NEA), the National Council of Teachers of English, the U.S. Department of Education, the Office of English Language

Acquisition, the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition (NCELA), and the

Migration Policy Institute (MPI).

Study Site Website

This source of data was particularly relevant for my study as it gave me an overview of

the participant site's policies and mission statement pertaining to their faculty, institution

structures and policies, and diverse student populations such as ELLs. The mission statement

equally helped me understand whether it aligned with and influenced faculty's pedagogical

orientation when teaching ELLs. Furthermore, and pertaining to the ELL student population, the

college website offered relevant statistical data on the demographic composition of student

population, which was made anonymous and did in turn help better establish the context for my

study pertaining to the ELL students placed in faculty's mainstream classrooms.

Faculty Syllabi

For the purpose of my study, faculty syllabi were very useful as they offered great

insights into faculty's instructional pedagogies. They also indicated faculty's curriculum content,

learning materials, focus of discussions, and nature of assignments. Likewise, when read

carefully, faculty syllabi terminology, writing communicative style, rules, and listed resources

were also indicators of the level of their inclusiveness pertaining to ELL students. Specifically,

by analyzing faculty syllabi, I wanted to assess to what extent ELLs were included and addressed

in the curriculum and instructional plan.

Data Analysis

Data analysis started as soon as faculty responses from interviews and focus group

sessions were transcribed. Additional sources of data, such as faculty reflective journal entries,

in-person classroom observations of faculty, the university website, faculty course syllabi, lesson

plans, and additional teaching resources, were also examined to add richness to the data collection and depth to my study. Since the data analysis was "the process of making meaning" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 202) of the collected data, I started my data analysis by breaking down the data in small information segments that deemed relevant for addressing my research questions. I then was "looking for recurring regularities" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 205) by using an open-coding process. After the completion of the initial coding of each of my data resources (interview transcripts, observation field notes, and reflective journal entries), I then assigned codes to each small section of the textual data which eventually helped me to construct related categories and thus engaged in analytical coding, also known as *axial coding* (Strauss &, Corbin,1998).

Unlike descriptive coding, analytical coding "comes from interpretation and reflection on meaning" (Richards, 2015, p. 135, cited in Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 206). Throughout this coding process, and as I moved from one set of data to another, I constantly compared the first list of codes extracted from the first transcript (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) to the next set of data as I went along to determine if they were equally present there as well. To look for similarities between sets of data, I created a separate list of notes, comments, and memos for each set of data, as it pertains to faculty's responses, while constantly comparing them together. Once the separate list was created and compared and thoroughly examined for patterns, a master list of concepts was formed merging all data set codes together. This master list "constitute[d] a primitive outline of classification system reflecting the recurring regularities or patterns" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 206) in my study. These regularities and recurring patterns comprised the categories or themes for my data analysis.

Once I had my data themes, I engaged in the evidence sorting process by creating separate file folders for each category using a word processor. Each coded unit of data was transfered to the according theme folder. In the event that I needed easy access to a certain unit of data to verify the context of any given quote, it attached a reference to each unit with participants' names, and/or line number of the excerpt (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Since "devising categories [or themes] [was] largely an intuitive process, but it [was] also systematic and informed by the study's purpose, the investigator's orientation and knowledge, and the meaning made explicit by the participants themselves" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 210), it was important to keep in mind that, when naming the themes for my study analysis, I had to think about my research question, my orientation and positionality as a researcher, and the meaning-making generated by my participants—together, these elements were be the impetus behind naming my themes. A portrait was one principal form among others that helped me make sense of the data and identify potential commonalities among participating faculty as they materialized. Table 2 below illustrates my data collection chart.

Table 2

Data Collection

Research Question	Data Collection	Timeline
How do faculty make meaning of their instructional practice when teaching ELLs?	• Audio-recorded faculty individual interview(s) • (60-90 minutes) • Focus group (90 minutes) • Focus group reflective writing journals (3 times)	3 Meetings
How do faculty modify their instructions to meet the needs of ELL students?	• Survey • Audio-recorded faculty individual interview(s) • (60-90 minutes) • Observation (60 minutes) and field notes • Artifact collection: Syllabi/College Mission Statement/ Website(s)/faculty curriculum materials	3-4 months
What do faculty see as areas of struggles when working with ELL students?	• Survey • Audio-recorded faculty individual interview(s) • (60-90 minutes)	3-4 weeks
What professional learning is in place in the institution to help them successfully teach ELL students?	• Survey • (60-90) Audio-recorded Interviews with faculty • Focus group (90 minutes) • Focus group reflective writing journals (3 times)	3-4 weeks

In addition to the portrait method mentioned above as one principal form among others that helped me to examine and interpret the differences and commonalities among faculty's stories as they intersect, the Listening Guide concept (Gilligan et al., 2003, 2015) was also used for the data analysis. To better understand and make meaning of participants' accounts as they revealed the multiplicity of their voices, the thematic analysis was not sufficient on its own to capture the nuances of their stories and shifting dispositions pertaining to ELL instruction. Hence, it was necessary to supplement the traditional thematic analysis, which was primarily focused on the words the participants spoke, with the Listening Guide method as a voice-

centered approach that helped me expose the polyphonic nature of their responses as well as the

distinct cadences and what they implied for the analysis. I explained below in detail this voice-

centered methodological analysis by outlining its four steps and how I used them to analyze

participants inner voices as they recounted their stories.

The Listening Guide Method

In addition to using critical pedagogy as my theoretical framework, I found Gilligan et

al.'s (2003; 2015) Listening Guide concept particularly useful as a secondary analytical tool to

capture my participants' dispositional shifting as they recounted their experiences when teaching

ELLs. The Listening Guide method was combined with a thematic analysis of participants'

accounts generated from individual interviews and focus group sessions. The focus group was

intended as an instrument not only to triangulate data through participants' responses, but to

equally elucidate the findings emerging from the thematic analysis. My intention in using the

Listening Guide was to better analyze and make meaning of participants' stories which the

previously conducted thematic analysis may otherwise overlooked. Combined with a critical

pedagogy lens, the Listening Guide provided me with a lens to interpret how personal, relational,

and professional factors informed participants' experiences and impacted their emotional

tensions as experienced in their practice. This combined methodological analysis allowed for a

better understanding of the subjectivity of both the participants and the researcher (Gilligan et al.,

2003). Because the Listening Guide approach is voice-centered (Brown & Gilligan 1992), it

enabled me as the listener/researcher to underscore the significance of the participants'

narratives, while recognizing that such narratives are woven into a web of connectedness within

a broader social and cultural context. As such, this method revealed the multi-layered nature of

the participants' responses and their relationship to one another. I explain this methodology below, elaborating on each of its four steps.

    The Listening Guide (LG) is an important method of qualitative data analysis that emerged in response to certain perceived limitations of traditional coding, which enables researchers to conduct an in-depth analysis of their data without "reducing the complexity of [the] inner psychic processes [of participants] to placement in single static categories" (Gilligan, et al., 2003, p. 254). Originally developed in the interrelated fields of psychology and women studies by Gilligan & Brown (1992), the LG is a way of methodically identifying and mapping the multiplicity of voices that constitutes the self in relation to a given subject of research. It offers a way to identify those different voices that emerge from any one participant's story and make sense of them in relationship to one another. As a method, it consists of several distinct steps that "together are intended to offer a way of tuning into the polyphonic voice of another person" (p. 254), a pathway, as such, "into relationship rather than a fixed framework for interpretation" (as cited in Brown & Gilligan, 1992, p. 22). The steps— (1) listening for the plot, (2) constructing I-poems, (3) listening for contrapuntal voices, and (4) composing an analysis— are intended to reveal the way in which participants articulate their stories and the way they speak (Gilligan et al., 2003) in relation to the study's research questions. Central to the LG method itself is the researcher's level of reflexivity and her role as an attentively engaged listener in the process of making meaning of these voices. In the below section, I briefly explain each step of the LG method while emphasizing how together, these four steps provide a very useful interpretive lens, one that reveals the hidden layers of inner psychic within each participant's storyline and their interconnectedness beyond the traditional thematic analysis (Edwards & Weller, 2015).

Step 1: Listening for the Plot

As the name of the first step indicates, my initial listening focuses on orienting oneself within the territory of the story that is being told, tending to the questions of who, what, where, why, and how. At this stage I, the listener/researcher [2], was especially attentive to the emergence of dominant themes embedded in multiple contexts as well as possible contradictions and what might be left unsaid—the unspoken. As a listener/researcher, I also took note of the larger sociocultural context of both the story and the interview itself. Equally important in this first step was my awareness as the researcher's/listener of my own response to the participant's story. And since qualitative research is inherently subjective and interpretive in nature--one that relies primarily on the researcher's positionality and reflexivity--it was important for the me, the listener/researcher, to explicitly attend to my own reactions to the narrative by acknowledging my own positionality and the subjective aspect(s) of my being implicated in my mental and emotional responses to storyline. Being cognizant of the importance of mitigating our biases and of "our position of power within the research relationship" (Lordly et al., 2015, p. 4) remains essential for ensuring accountability within our research.

The listener's/ researcher's level of reflexivity can be best examined through an understanding of the principles of reflexivity as explained by Mauthner and Doucer (1998) and adapted by Gilligan et al. (2003). Gilligan and her colleagues' self-questioning strategies offered space for me to tune in to and interrogate my position within the interview territory by noting my "own social location in relation to the participant, the nature of [her] with this person, and [her]

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[2] I use "listener/researcher" to emphasize the fact that the Listening Guide (LG) foregrounds the researcher as a listener first and a researcher second.

emotional responses" (Gilligan et al., 2003, p. 257). As I reviewed the interview transcript, I was

"noticing and reflecting" on where I did and/or did not find myself "feeling a connection with

this person . . . , how this particular person and this interview touches me (or does not touch me),

what thoughts and feeling emerge as I begin to listen and why I think I am responding in this

way, and how my responses might affect my understanding of this person and the stories being

told" (pp. 257–258).

Step 2: I-Poem(s)

Step 2 entailed the construction of the I-poem which was a distinctive aspect of the

Listening Guide method. The I-poem is intended to highlight the different and at times

competing voices present within each participant's response or story. The I-poem's purpose is

twofold: to first urge the researcher to really listen to the participant's *first-person* voice—"to

pick up its distinctive cadences and rhythms" (Gilligan et al., 2003, p. 259) -- and to then attend

to *how* the participant speaks about themself. This step is critical in a "relational method in that

tuning into another person's voice and listening to what this person knows of her- or himself

before talking about him or her is a way of coming into relationship that works against distancing

ourselves from that person in an objectifying way (Brown & Gilligan, 1992, qtd. in Gilligan et

al., 2003, p. 259). In other words, the I-poem explicitly implicates the listener/researcher in a

non-objectifying relationship to the participant's story, and thus the latter and not the researcher

guides the interpretation of the narrative.

During this step the researcher selects theme-specific passages from the transcript—

"cutting across or running through a narrative rather than being contained by the structure of full

sentences" (p.260)— in which the first-person voice features prominently to tease out the

polyphonic nature of the speaker's voice. Specifically, the listener/researcher underlines every

use of the pronoun "I" with the accompanying verb and any relevant phrases. And then, in the

sequence in which they appear in the transcript, the listener/researcher arranges the underlined

words, verb and phrases as separate lines in the form of a poem, thus foregrounding the speaker's

subjectivity to better allow the listener to "attend just to the sounds, rhythms, and shifts" in [the

participant's] usage of "I" in his or her narratives" (p. 260).

Step 3: Listening for Contrapuntal Voices

In this step the listener tunes into the different "voices" that typically emerge when

anyone is asked to reflect on and respond to an issue of personal significance that has a certain

degree of complexity. During this step the listener/researcher aims to capture these different

voices or themes as they unfold and interact with one another, while attempting to understand the

participant's views of themself within the framework of their experience and what this reveals

about them (Lordly et al., 2015). Drawing on a form of classical music as the operative metaphor

here, in which different melodic lines each with their own rhythm and instrumentation comprise

the musical composition as a whole, this step offers a way of listening to the multiplicity of

voices or "the multiple facets of the story being told" (Gilligan et al., 2003, p. 262). Listening for

Contrapuntal Voices is situated within the context provided by the previous two steps (Listening

for the Plot and I poems), and it's in this step that the listener/researcher begins to "identify,

specify, and sort out the different strands in the interview that may speak to [the] research

question" (p. 262). It is thus the research question or questions that guide this step in the

Listening Guide process, whether it is rooted in the researcher's theoretical framework or

emerges in the course of the prior two steps, or in some combination of the two. Specifically, in

this step the listener/researcher should first "listen for and determine what the markers of a

particular contrapuntal voice are" (p. 262)—that is, she listens carefully to one voice at a time as

she reads through the text segment, underlining any statements that seem to convey that voice. And then she does the same thing again listening for a second voice. Reading the text multiple times while listening for contrapuntal voices "allow the possibility that one statement may contain multiple meaning, and therefore may be underlined multiple times, and also allow the [listener] researcher to begin to see and hear the relationship between the person's first-person voice and the contrapuntal voices" (p. 263). It's important to note, however, that contrapuntal voices are not inevitably in opposition with one another; they can be at times harmonious as well. Ultimately, even if one voice initially surfaces as the dominant voice, the aim of this step is not to identify a dominant voice but rather to determine the relationship between these contrapuntal voices and how they connect to the research questions.

In the context of my study, this analytical step allowed me not only to clearly evince the shifting nature of the relationship between the contrapuntal voices of "not knowing" and "not being able", but to equally reveal the degree of faculty tension concerning to their feeling of responsibility when teaching ELLs. The frequent shifting between the contrapuntal voices in my study (the "not knowing" and "not being able") was certainly indicative of a central conflict in faculty's attitudes towards ELL instruction, but this conflict itself could have also been understood in terms of how it contributed to the already existing emotional tension of the profession experienced by faculty.

Step 4: Composing an Analysis

Once the listener completes the first three steps (Listening for the plot, constructing the I poem, and listening for the contrapuntal voices), she returns to the more conventional role of research for step 4 where she attempts to weave together what she's learned from the first steps about her participants and their relationship to the research question. In essence, the researcher

will interpret the text in a way that intwines all that she has learned to answer her research question(s) and what existing evidence that support her synthesis. At times, such process can even mandate, as Gilligan and colleagues (2003) noted, the researcher to modify the research question(s).

Ethical Considerations

As Aurini et al. (2016) contended, "Ethics in qualitative research speak to the relationship between researchers and those they study. They are a central aspect of research design and all decision-making processes throughout the project" (p. 59). As a researcher, it was my ethical obligations to keep an honest relationship with my participants. As researchers engage in a qualitative study, we tend to build a connection with our participants, they trust us as researchers, and they share their experiences, their personal knowledge, and they expose who they are to us for the sake of our project, be it at a personal or professional level. This must be appreciated and respected beyond the informed consent. Part of my responsibility as a researcher was to honor such trust and make sure that my participants' rights were clarified and protected. I thus initiated the process to get the approval for my study from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at my study site institution and provided my participants with the informed consent form and made sure they understood the scope of my research and their rights if they choose to participate. During all stages of data collection and analysis, I used pseudonyms to protect the identity and workplace of my research subjects and preserved their confidentiality.

Trustworthiness

In qualitative research, trustworthiness and validity generally refers to "whether a study is 'well grounded'" (Aurini et al., 2016, p. 61). To ensure the validity and trustworthiness of my research study, I made sure to render my explicit and implicit subjective biases visible

throughout the research process, given the fact that, as researchers, we tend to "collect, interpret or present data that support [our] own prejudgments, theories or goals" (p. 61). And since "methodological approaches cannot guarantee valid findings, but a good research design help bolster the credibility of [our] conclusions" (Aurini et al., 2016, p. 62), it was essential to "'test' the validity of [our] conclusions rather than to verify them" (p. 62). Several strategies have been identified by qualitative research scholars to help us as researchers verify our validity (Aurini et al., 2016; Creswell, 2013; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Maxwell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016; Yin, 2014). To test the validity of my findings, a good method involved respondent participant faculty as member-checkers (Birt et al., 2016; Maxwell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Since knowledge is co-constructed (Vygotsky, 1978), member-checking was a useful instrument not only to determine the study's credibility and validity, but also for participating faculty to have an opportunity to engage in data interpretation as they recollected their statements pertaining to their instructional experiences during and after their interviews and focus group sessions and the reflective journal entries they shared during the inquiry. The main findings of the study were shared with participant faculty to ensure their accuracy. During this member-checking process participants were encouraged to confirm, modify, correct, and/or expand on their responses. Member checking was done at the participant faculty's convenience in face-to-face meetings, by email, or by phone. Moreover, soliciting feedback from faculty participants during the research process did not only validate my credentials and ethics as a trustworthy researcher, and the accuracy of my interpretations of the data, but it also enabled me to build a sense of community and trust with my participants. Additionally, I solicited feedbacks from my critical friends' group, constituted of doctoral students in my cohort and educators/colleagues, to help me

challenge biases and subjective obstacles during the process of data analysis and to assure the validity of my findings.

Similarly, I conducted additional individual meetings as needed to give me a first-person account from each participant when going through the validation process. For it was only through the act of telling the stories to the interlocutor as a social act that we become aware that the "power of narrative is not so much that it is *about* life but that it interacts *in* life" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 34). And therefore, to listen to my participants' stories, and *engage* in collecting their stories, helped me better understand their reality as they saw it and not as I anticipated it. To ensure my internal validity and credibility as an interlocutor through this act of telling, I had my participants validate my analysis of the data collected and solicited their feedback on my initial findings as they emerge.

Likewise, I employed triangulation by using various methods of data collection as a means to confirm the credibility of my study. Thus, multiple sources of data were re-examined and cross-checked by comparing them against one another including the interviews transcripts, the reflective journal entries, the recorded inquiry group sessions, the observations, and my field notes. For example, participant faculty's statements and stories during the interviews were compared with what I observed during their instructional practice, what I read in their reflective journals, and what I noted in my journal during their inquiry group interactions (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Triangulation did not only allow for accurate interpretations of participants' statements, but it also served as a filter for my personal assumptions and biases when analyzing the data. Thus, it allowed me to increase the validity and reliability of my findings by interpreting my participants' stories as *they* told and viewed them and not as I think they should be understood.

Researcher Positionality

I know that having a high tolerance for ambiguity and accepting that there were no right or wrong answers was a must if I was to be an effective qualitative researcher—"that one has to be comfortable with the ebb and flow of a qualitative investigation and trust in the process" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 18). I started questioning my own orientation regarding basic tenets about the reality of my research topic—How do faculty make meaning of instruction of ELL students? Why was I interested in this research topic? What were my *real* views and disposition about this topic, being a former English language learner myself, a trilingual immigrant, a parent, an educator who has taught ELL students in both K-12 and higher education settings, and a researcher? How did my multiple identity markers affect the validity of my research? These questions followed me through this research process as I tried to negotiate which identity from the above list would best fit my role as a researcher. Which identity should be *quieted*, and which one should be *awakened*?

No doubt, as a social-justice oriented educator and researcher, one who believes in social equity and a fair education for all, I had much invested in my research topic. My multiple identities constituted me both as an individual and as an educator/researcher, and thus, needless to say, I too had certain preconceptions about education and how it was conceptualized, structured, performed, and delivered in a democratic society plagued by hierarchal power structures which favored the elites and marginalized minority groups. As researchers, we need to acknowledge our subjective preconceptions and expose them—not only to understand who we are as individuals but also to keep our research as transparent as possible. Since subjectivities are impossible to shed and thus can surface at any stage of the research process, from the research design to the analysis and interpretation of the data, it was ethically just to acknowledge our

subjectivity by disclosing our viewpoint and understanding how it could influence our research

process. Recognizing our subjective tendencies during our research did not only allow for the

filtering of such tendencies but also for the prevention of any negative inclinations that might

favor certain methodological strategies over others and thus manipulate the research process. In

fact, when it comes to the research, "rather than trying to eliminate these biases or

'subjectivities', it is important to identity, unpack, and monitor them in relation to the theoretical

framework, and in light of the researcher's own interests, to make clear how they may be shaping

the collection and interpretation of data" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 16). Such subjective

biases, though, as they constitute our beliefs, if used without being examined, can have a

profoundly negative effect on our views about the research, how we view ourselves and are

viewed as researchers, and how we are connected to others in the world in which we live.

So, when I envisioned doing this research, I re-envisioned myself as an observer and "the

primary instrument for data collection and analysis" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 16), and I saw

myself as one who was well immersed in the participants' environment. I thought about my

positionality in terms of both what Merriam and Tisdell (2016) termed the "*emic* or insider's

perspective, versus the *etic* or outsider's view" (p. 16) and the pros and cons that accompanied

both. As an insider, I shared the same cultural background and experiences of those ELLs (an

immigrant or one of similar status, an ELL educated in U.S institutions, a trilingual speaker who

learned English as a new language, a student who experienced the institutional culture of

schools/colleges that viewed and continued to view my language and culture as a deficit, and an

educator), be they students or educators. And as an outsider, I was the researcher who sought an

understanding of the significance of faculty's perceptions of their instructional experiences as

they taught ELLs. Likewise, I was a story recorder, one who used a "*steady-cam* to frame an

ever-changing broad landscape and then narrow[ed] the focus and follow[ed] a specific set of

events or actions in the broader terrain" (Agee, 2009, p. 442). As a researcher, I thus planned to

record such events authentically in a rich descriptive style based on the reality of the faculty

participants' experiences and not my own. It was my responsibility in this research to conduct a

qualitative inquiry that made meaning of these recorded *clips* of my participants' personal and

professional experiences, and to conduct research *with* them and not *on* them (Merriam &

Tisdell, 2016, p. 64).

But as I reflected on this dual positionality of the researcher as emic-insider/etic-outsider,

I found Gildersleeve's (2010) argument particularly compelling and very relevant to my views.

Indeed, he challenged the notion of insider/outsider as a fixed identity for the researcher, which

thus could potentially constrain the "understanding of how power can operate in productive,

rather than solely repressive ways" (p. 409). His perspective on positionality and particularly on

what he termed "reflexive research praxis" (p. 409) resonated, given the nature of my theoretical

lens in this research, critical pedagogy. Such "reflective praxis," he continued, was "a way of

doing inquiry that attempts to disrupt and displace oppressive social practices with radically

democratic ideals seeking to eliminate oppression and marginalization" (p. 409). This was

particularly relevant as I attempted to determine faculty's understanding of their instructional

experiences and decisions pertaining to ELLs and how they made meaning of such perceptions

within the power dynamic and structures of institutional and social contexts. What Gildersleeve

(2010) referred to as "active learning" (p. 409) was also relevant to my positionality as a learner

in my research and the power relations within my study. So instead of reducing the researcher's

positionality to a fixed and predetermined standpoint (insider/outsider), Gildersleeve's (2010)

argument offered a more flexible positionality, one that was fluid and transformative and

reciprocally enacted a "culturally reflexive inquiry" (p. 409). In fact, a researcher's positionality

and the relationship between the researcher and the participants has always been a complex issue

and a valid concern that affected both parties involved. And perhaps as Lincoln suggested (2010,

citing Fine, 2016), to effectively study "the Self-Other conjunction" was contingent on really

"working the hyphen" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 63). Having this in mind, assuming the role

of a researcher/observer in my study assured that my subjectivity was not interfering with my

data collection and analysis and especially with the interpretation and presentation of the

research analysis and findings.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

This qualitative study examined how faculty in multiple disciplines make meaning of their practice when teachings ELL students, how they attempt to address their needs, what challenges they face in the process, and what knowledge and expertise they have acquired to do so. During my analysis, I examined how faculty view their role while teaching ELL students, what they consider to be appropriate modifications in their instruction to meet the needs of these students, and what barriers they face in adopting such instructional modifications. Hence, the main question that guided this research is: What happens when higher education faculty from a variety of disciplines examine and make meaning of their instructional practices to meet the needs of ELL students? My research question branched into three sub-questions that guided my study:

a) How do faculty in various disciplines modify their instruction to meet the needs of ELL students?

b) What do faculty see as areas of struggles when working with ELL students?

c) What institutional resources are in place to support faculty to effectively teach ELL students?

In this chapter, I present the findings of my study by providing a detailed explanation of the five themes that emerged from the data analysis. Subthemes are noted within each theme and the interconnectedness between them was closely examined and analyzed. The data, primarily obtained from interview transcripts, focus groups, classroom observations, and field notes, were analyzed through inductive thematic analysis which led to the emergence of five main themes with corresponding subthemes: 1) Faculty disposition: The intersection of identity, experience, and practice; 2) Faculty self-reflective tension: Justifying discipline-specific epistemological approaches when attempting to modify ELL instruction; 3) Faculty misconceptions of their ELL

students; 4) Faculty's challenges and tensions when teaching ELLs; and 5) Attending to faculty's needs: The need for institutional change.

To better address my research question, I used Freire's (1970) critical pedagogy as a theoretical framework to carefully analyze the data and explain the findings for this study. The core tenets of Freire's critical pedagogy (critical consciousness, the banking model, dialogism, and praxis), especially as they relate to faculty-ELL student relationships and knowledge construction, provided me with the foundation to investigate and analyze the complexity of higher education faculty's experiences when teaching ELLs and how their instructional decisions are rooted in hierarchal institutional structures.

As a complement to my use of Freire's theory, I employed the Listening Guide method developed by Brown and Gilligan (1991) to conduct an in-depth analysis of the data, which enabled me to capture and highlight the multiplicity of voices that constitutes the self in relation to each faculty's response as they attempt to make meaning of their instructional experiences and reflect on their role when teaching ELL students. Composed of four distinct steps—(1) listening for the plot, (2) constructing *I-poems*, (3) listening for contrapuntal voices, and (4) composing an analysis—the Listening Guide method offered me the means to tune into the polyphony inherent in each faculty's story, thus offering a new perspective on the fluidity of faculty's identity in relation to the research question, instead of relying solely on a fixed framework to articulate participants' stories (Gilligan, 1992). In combination with one another, critical pedagogy and the Listening Guide method offered me a powerful lens to tease out the nuances and uniqueness of each faculty's experiences as they attempt to make meaning of their practice while teaching the ELL students with diverse needs. In the section below I explain and critically examine each of the five themes.

Theme 1: Faculty Disposition: The Intersection of Identity, Experience, and Practice

While there are differences among my five participants when it comes to teaching ELLs and how each made meaning of their instructional strategies and decisions, one common strand that linked all participant faculty's stories is how their past educational experiences and their personal, professional, and social backgrounds collectively positioned them in relation to their ELL students and their practice while revealing aspects of who they are as educators, the way their professional identity is constructed, and how they view teaching and learning when teaching diverse students in general and ELLs in particular.

Faculty Background: Education and Teaching Experience

The data disclosed a range of personal, social, and professional factors that shaped the participants' disposition as educators when teaching diverse students such as ELLs and the self-perception of their role when teaching in this capacity. In particular, their linguistic and cultural upbringing and their socioeconomic status played an instrumental role in shaping the professional identity of the faculty participants and their view of their ELL students and their teaching practice in general.

Bianca, one of my five participant faculty—a full-time instructional specialist with a Ph.D. and 12 years of experience teaching composition—drew on her prior personal and professional experiences as a student, a writing center tutor, and an educator to reflect on her own teaching philosophy and methods when teaching ELL students in her introductory composition courses. This in turn had a great impact on how she viewed her role as an educator, her teaching strategies, and her instructional decisions. As a first-generation college student— and the only member of her family to earn both a master's degree and a Ph.D.—she was on her own when applying for college and struggled to navigate the institutional system and

bureaucracy. Eager to have a degree and cognizant of its importance as a means of moving

beyond her socioeconomic class, she was determined "in all kinds of ways . . . to graduate as a

way out" (Bianca's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 22). This was not easy for her, especially as

the child of working-class parents who lived mostly on welfare—she did not have other

alternatives but to take out substantial student loans. Bianca's economically disadvantaged

upbringing shaped who she was to herself and to others, and played a significant role in the

construction of her professional identity. This was what Bianca grew up knowing:

> the further west you went, the whiter it became . . . . and the richer it became. . . . I knew
>
> where I was from. I knew I was from the undesirable town. And I knew who my family
>
> class was. . . . I knew there were race issues about that too. It wasn't just, uh, class issues,
>
> I knew it was both class and race. I was very . . . well-aware of that. People I hung out
>
> with, you know, were diverse . . . you know, we all knew what was going on. And, um,
>
> yeah, it'd piss you off (laughs). And I always sort of grew up knowing, like, people in
>
> other towns didn't like my friends . . . because my friends weren't white, maybe, or were
>
> poor, or both. (Bianca's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 3)

Raised in a very diverse environment, Bianca attended community colleges which served

a predominately poor and working class Latinx and Black student population, as this was the

only education she could afford at that time. As a college student she felt like in relation to other

students, not only because she was a non-traditional student from a working-class background,

but also because she was alienated from her other privileged native peers who come from middle

and upper middle class backgrounds, and did not approve of her affiliation with minority groups

both on and off campus, such as the non-native speakers with whom Bianca felt connected and

had a sense of belonging. Her admiration of other languages and cultures was evident when she

traveled to and lived in both Mexico and Puerto Rico and learned Spanish in her 30s. The diverse

nature of Bianca's background inspired and influenced her teaching philosophy. In fact, as a

white monolingual student, she grew up like most of her ELL students, especially those

experiencing socioeconomic and linguistic barriers who are often gazed upon with a deficit view.

Her experience growing up in a working-class household, learning a second language, dealing

with institutional barriers, and being othered among other factors were clearly informing her

teaching beliefs and strategies. The following response indicates how Bianca's professional

education positioned her and shaped her ways of thinking about language learning, prejudice,

and linguistic discrimination: "because of my work in rhetoric and composition, which is

language arts based, the intersection is actually about linguistic discrimination, which is

prejudice related to language and linguistics. So it's a kind of natural fit for me. I've been

thinking about these things for a long time, and I myself am also a Spanish language learner"

(Focus Group 1, 2022, p. 3).

Additionally, though, it's worth noting the factors that motivated Bianca's professional

training. Growing up in a diverse and socioeconomically underprivileged community, it was

natural for her to seek ways to give back to other underprivileged communities like hers. Helping

people from various disadvantaged backgrounds to overcome their own challenges was one

salient goal for her. Her commitment to help marginalized communities was evident in her

involvement with non-profit organizations such as an Equal Opportunity Fund program (EOF)

designed to serve economically disenfranchised students. It was through her work in this

program that Bianca had the opportunity to work closely with diverse student groups—mostly

ELLs—who were graduating from high school and entering college. When reflecting on her

prior professional experience in the EOF program and beyond, Bianca said:

That's actually where my training started, because I literally started . . . we're talking . . . 1990 I was being trained to think about how different . . . people from different cultural backgrounds approach writing differently. . . . And that cultural difference between, let's say: "This is the way we write in the United States" . . . and "these are the values in terms of how you structure an essay, how you express yourself" . . . but . . . in Asia, it might be different . . . In this other country, it might be different also . . . So, I'm a kid who was already . . . exposed to different cultures, and backgrounds, and already kind of has a sensibility of how people are brought up . . . people don't all do the same thing, think the same way, like the same thing . . . or approach things the same way, and then I became a tutor in the writing center . . . then I go into college experience, where that gets further. (Bianca's Interview Transcript, 2022, pp. 3–4)

Additionally, what sparked Bianca's investment in this professional experience was not only her commitment to being an ally for the linguistically and culturally diverse students she served, but also her deep desire to teach diverse student populations and come to know them through their stories.

So, I just wanted to say, one of the other things that really impelled me into my future investments, and interests, and everything that has to do with writing and teaching writing, is working with a particular student population of writers . . . those who came to the writing centers from all over the world . . . the stories they told . . . it was worth it for me. (Bianca's Interview Transcript, 2022, pp. 3–4)

In a similar vein, Debbie's prior learning experience has shaped who she is as an educator—first, as a K–12 teacher for 14 years, then as an adjunct instructor in anthropology and media studies for 10 years, and, currently, as an adjunct instructor for college ethnographic

writing courses. Although new to this institution, she has considerable experience teaching ELL

students, because she initially earned a master's degree in TESOL to teach in the New York City

school system. Her degrees (including a Ph.D. in Anthropology) and prior knowledge of and

experience with a variety of ELL student populations had better prepared her to teach her ELL

students in her writing courses. During our interview, Debbie explained the various categories of

ELL students she worked with:

> I work with community members whose education ranges from nothing to professionals
>
> like architects and nurses, who are new to this country and want to learn English. So, I
>
> worked with the first level beginners. My research was on community radios in El Salvador
>
> after their Civil War and how they were helping to rebuild the society, clinically, culturally,
>
> lots of different ways. but El Salvador was really just emerging from a civil war, back then,
>
> it was a mess. I worked with mostly return refugees and there were surprisingly many
>
> wonderful moments despite what everybody had been through, which is also very
>
> interesting. That was in the '80s. I've done a bunch of different things in my professional
>
> life. (Debbie's Interview Transcript, 2022, pp. 1–2)

Debbie's travels to Guatemala, Mexico, and El Salvador also have widened her linguistic and

cultural perspectives. Her middle-class upbringing allowed her to focus more on her education

and provided her with the material and symbolic capital she needed (Norton, 2015).

When Debbie was asked during our interview whether her educational and professional

experiences coupled with her training and prior knowledge helped her to be a better teacher for

her ELL students, and if so in what way, she replied:

> Yes and no . . . I think my frustration was . . . I feel like I've learned both through my
>
> own teaching and through learning from other people. I feel like I've learned strategies

that are very effective. I've felt that in the high schools I was teaching I was rarely able to

implement them because I had other rules that were things that I had to do. So I wasn't

really allowed to be an ESL teacher because of the structures of the programs. So in my

classes here at [this institution] none of the students are at lower levels. There are

students who speak another language. English may be their second language. They're all

pretty much proficient. They're all just beginners. In other classes some of them have

been in the US for a long time but they're just learning the very basics . . . so it's not easy

. . . it's complicated. (Debbie's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 3)

Interestingly, even someone like Debbie, who has a strong educational background and

prior training geared towards effective ELL instruction, finds that teaching ELLs and addressing

their various needs is not necessarily an easy endeavor, and that there are no simple solutions

when it comes to putting theoretical strategies into practice, one that is informed by linguistically

and culturally responsive instruction. It's important to note here that even though Bianca and

Debbie teach in the same college, have similar degrees, and have similar cultural and linguistic

backgrounds—both being Americans of Italian descent, both having travelled abroad to a non-

English speaking country and learned a foreign language—they differ in terms of *how* their

experiences as both students and educators shaped their professional identity and dramatically

influenced their teaching practice—This is further discussed in the following section on how

faculty's prior teaching and learning experience shaped their practice.

Unexpectedly and intriguingly, two of my five participants, Isabella and Julius, identified

themselves as ELLs. Conversely, Peter, another participant, born in England and having lived his

whole life there until he moved to the U.S several years ago to teach in this institution, lacked the

profile of an ELL since his first language is English. He nevertheless added another aspect to the

diversity and complexity of my participant pool as he introduced a different cultural and educational perspective. Together, these three participants offered a significant lens to examine how faculty's personal and professional backgrounds shape their identities as educators of ELL students. Their educational experiences in turn offered an equally important factor in considering how faculty's background affect their instruction.

For instance, Isabella's educational experience abroad as a native Mexican international graduate student in England, as an ELL graduate student acquiring academic English while pursuing her master's, and now in the U.S. as a tenured professor of African history in this university for the past 20 years have informed her professional identity. As an ELL graduate student trying to acquire proficiency in academic English in England, Isabella recalled her learning experience as follows:

> I was still put in a class to learn, to write in academic English and then talk about all the effective parts of, how you hang onto your language. I spell bad, like I did in my master's degree, and throughout that year of my master's degree, I was reading a lot in Spanish, literally just because I was missing home. So I was doing all my readings in English, all my academic work in English, but then just the stuff that I would do for pleasure would be just reading in Spanish. And then when I finished my master's, I actually didn't get great grades, which was kind of like that wake-up call for me. My English still needed to improve. (Focus Group # 2, 2022, p. 7)

Isabella's struggle with academic English and how it affected her college performance was evident in this passage. It was clear to her that her lack of proficiency in academic English posed a real barrier for her learning and success—just like the ELL students in her classrooms.

It is interesting, however, the way Isabella in her argument above subconsciously elaborated on her struggle with her two identities (being Mexican and a student in an English-speaking foreign country). She implicitly seemed to make a correlation between two facts: the cause and effect. The cause is that "throughout that year of [her] master's degree, [she] was reading a lot in Spanish . . . because [she] was missing home." And the effect is that she "spell[ed], like [she] did in [her] master's degree . . . and her English still needed improvement". It was thus reasonable to assume that Isabella was internalizing the attribution of her not "great" grades and lack of proficiency in academic English to what she perceived as her ill-advised decision to read in Spanish for pleasure which thus disrupted her learning of English. The way Isabella was positioned in these two environments as a graduate student reflected the complexity of her identity as both fluid and socially constructed, and how as both an ELL learner and an educator she seemed to have multiple identities, the one of a Hispanic non-native English speaker and a prior ELL student, and that of an educator in U.S institution (Norton, 2013). Central to Isabella's story is how institutional power structures still cater to those in power and, hence, continue to perpetuate the status quo and frame education within a colonial context. In Isabella's case, particularly how she was advised to acquire her academic English proficiency underscored how English was normalized as the only medium of instruction to protect the interests of native English speakers against non-native speakers. Her experience, thus, underscored what Freire (1970) referred to as "cultural invasion"—an ideological formation that explains how social, linguistic, and cultural marginalization is internalized— and the effects it has on minority students', such as ELLs', self-image and success. In an academic setting, "cultural invasion" (p. 152) comes about when the oppressor (institutions) imposes his (its) culture and values on the oppressed (ELLs) as inherently superior. The oppressed are thus

encouraged to strip themselves of their linguistic and cultural assets and see themselves through

the eyes of the oppressor, and to thereby discard their own beliefs and values in favor of the

oppressor's. In a similar vein, Isabella's experience learning English as an ELL graduate student,

and how she was encouraged to let go of her Spanish to acquire English proficiency, subtle as it

seemed, implicitly revealed a colonial mindset, one that supported maintaining and extending

assimilative approaches to learning the English language.

Born and raised in Mexico, Isabella grew up in an upper middle-class household. She was

the oldest of three siblings. Her parents went to college and have degrees. Her mother is a

chemist, and her father is a lawyer. She completed her undergraduate education in Mexico,

navigating college on her own, but strongly supported by her parents who highly valued

education and instilled the love of learning in their children. Her father surrounded her with

books, as Isabella humorously commented on him giving her books all the time: "that's it, you

have to deal with it" (Isabella Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 5). However, having children of her

own now, she, seems to recognize the value of books in her life and thus cherished her father's

memories. She did not need to take student loans since education was almost free in her country.

Being the first in her family to obtain a Ph.D., she made her family proud. As an academic

researcher, she attributed her accomplishments and scholarship to the rigorous undergraduate

program in her native Mexico where she was taught that to be a good teacher one needs to be a

good researcher and that the two are tightly interconnected. Isabella's love of research and how it

informed her teaching was evident when she said:

> I've always felt like I was fortunate in the sense that in Mexico, when you're trained to be
>
> a historian or when you do a history degree, the way in which you're trained is that you
>
> can't be a good teacher if you're not a good researcher and you cannot be a good

researcher, if you don't know how to communicate what you're researching, so that the

two are not separate. You always have to be thinking about how you're going to teach

what you're researching and how you're going to research what you teach. So I had that

drilled into my head throughout even my Ph.D. or so. I was never not thinking about that.

So that was always an advantage. (Isabella's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 1)

Although Isabella's undergraduate history studies allowed her to make a positive correlation

between her research and her teaching and how the former informed the latter, her experience as

an ELL graduate student in England forced her to make a conscious separation between her

native language and academic English. Indeed, Isabella was strongly advised by her graduate

advisor in England to stop reading Spanish if she wanted to achieve proficiency in academic

English in order to attain her Ph.D. Willing to sacrifice the former for the latter, Isabella

temporarily let go of her Spanish and thus assimilated to English as the dominant language in

education. Notably, Isabella was convinced that this was the right thing to do, seeing her

advisor's emphasized worded recommendation as a great contributor to her current fluency in

English.

Furthermore, the cultural capital Isabella acquired from her upbringing has profoundly

shaped her belief in the importance of individual responsibility in learning where there are "very

little opportunities to make mistakes" (Focus Group 3, 2022, p. 10). This is evident in her

teaching philosophy, inclusive of her ELL students, a point I elaborate on the following section,

as I do with respect to the other participants as well.

Like Isabella, Julius, the second participant who also identified himself as an ELL, is a

tenured faculty member—a professor of computational chemistry who has been teaching for the

past 10 years in the same university. He was born, raised, and educated in the Netherlands. After

obtaining a master's degree in his native country, he moved to England to pursue his Ph.D. and

then moved to the U.S where he worked in a postdoctoral position in California until he got his

current position in this institution. Like Isabella, he had to learn English as a second language

and acquire proficiency in academic English. And as with my other participants, it was equally

evident from my interview with Julius how his prior learning and teaching background informed

his approach when teaching his content area to his students. In Julius's case, though, as explained

in the interview excerpt below, he used his personal insecurity about his knowledge of academic

English to leverage his own vulnerability as well as his teaching approach for his ELL students:

> I just thought for fun, because this is my second language, I kind of make jokes about
>
> English, it's like an impossible language, really, and why do we all have to speak
>
> English? We should really switch to something else, kind of make it a little bit light-
>
> hearted for those who are like me. Especially when I mess up in class, it's like, "Okay,"
>
> you know? Sometimes I write a word on the board and I'm struggling with the spelling
>
> because you're so close up, and it's like, "Okay." Then I ask the class, "Okay, do we need
>
> an O or an E?" It always breaks the tension because they realize that...I'm doing this
>
> process, right? And so, if I'm doing it, well, then maybe it's okay for them to do it too.
>
> (Isabella's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 10)

Likewise, Peter came from abroad, and his prior experience both as a student and an

educator added a distinctive level of complexity to the data analysis—his background offering a

different perspective on how and why faculty's prior experience should be carefully examined

and interpreted. Born, raised, and educated in an affluent middle-class family in London, and

having taught at Durham University in the Northeast of England for several years, Peter's

personal background and educational experience informed his approach in the classroom as a

non-tenured chemistry professor in this university. In fact, Peter went to state-funded elite

schools that "recruited smart students while 10–15% of [his] school mates went to Oxford"

(Peter's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 2). Many of his family members went to prestigious

colleges as well. His father was a professor of psychiatry, and his mother was a nurse, and thus

Peter had the privilege of having no education-related debt since he was very supported by his

parents. Interestingly, the university he attended in England had few minority students. This is

evident from his response below:

> I went to Durham in Northeast England which I guess it has a reputation of being a
>
> university for fairly well-off people. I met a lot of people quite like myself. Some were
>
> financially a lot more privileged than I was there, but there were hardly any minority
>
> students. There were a couple of British Indians probably. Virtually no Black people. Not
>
> that many Europeans. It was kind of a bubble. If I'd gone to London, it would've been
>
> rather different. Certainly, going there, it was kind of a monoculture. (Focus Group 3,
>
> 2022, p. 10)

Not surprisingly, most members of his extended family shared the same socioeconomic

status as his immediate family members, many of whom were doctors, professors, and lawyers.

Peter noted that there were very few women in science and very few faculties of color among his

colleagues, especially in the sciences, both in England and in his current U.S university. His

privileges were not only related to his family's socioeconomic status but also to his Indian

American wife's academic capital who, through her academic network as a tenured professor in

his current institution, was granted a tenured-track position in the chemistry department. It is

worth mentioning that his wife's parents were immigrants—the first immigrants Peter was

exposed to in his family.

In response to the interview question of how aware he was of his ELL students in his classrooms, Peter remarked:

It had not really occurred to me that any of my students would have a major problem understanding English. From my interactions with them, not that many do, but I don't really interact with all of them. Some are a lot more talkative than others. But what I would say is that a lot of the technical language of my subject is quite similar across different languages, internationalism to the technical terms. I worked in France for a while. And knowing the chemical vocabulary was a lot easier than learning the conversational vocabulary. Most of the chemical words are recognizable in different languages, even in languages I don't really know very well. I mean, I speak decent French and a little bit of German, but you can still recognize chemical words. If you read a paper in . . . German, it's not the chemical words you have to look out for. It's the others.

(Peter's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 3)

It is important to note foremost the effect of Peter's educational experience on his level of exposure to diverse student populations and thus the degree of his awareness of their struggles with the English language in his classroom. This was perhaps anticipated given his lack of knowledge of and disposition towards identifying the ELL students in his courses. Equally noteworthy here is how Peter relied on his own assumption and prior learning experiences to justify how the technical language in his field of chemistry is universal and thus the justification of not looking at it as a real barrier to his students' learning. In general, what seems apparent is his attempt to minimize the level of difficulty of his content area, and that the language of the latter should thus be easy and recognizable to all students, regardless of where they come from. This is evident in his above statement which is itself an extension of a widespread misconception

among educators (one I will elaborate on in another theme) about scientific language in general and how it is universal for all students, including ELLs (Abedi et al., 2020) In the next sub-theme section, I elaborate on the effects of faculty's prior learning experience on their practice.

The Effect of Faculty's Prior Learning Experiences on Their Practice

One common sub-theme that has emerged in this section that is tightly connected to faculty disposition and the ways their prior background, professional identity, and educational experience intersected is the effect of those experiences and constructs on faculty practice. In fact, it was evident through the data analysis and findings that differences in the prior knowledge and learning experiences of the faculty participants have clearly informed their different views about ELL students and how to teach them. In this section I closely examine how each participant viewed their teaching and how it translated into their instructional decisions.

Consistent with the literature review of this study, teachers typically walk into the classroom with a preconceived set of beliefs about their students and what the teaching and learning experience will look like, including the assumption that all students learn in the same way they did, even though research shows that students typically come from different backgrounds than their teachers (Adamson et al., 2013; Brancard & Quinnwilliams, 2012; Brooks & Adams, 2015; Buxton et al., 2013; Choi & Morrison, 2014; Chval et al., 2015; Deaton et al., 2015; Hardin et al., 2010; McGriff, 2015; Takeuchi & Esmonde, 2011). Thus, a vast body of research produced in recent years has focused on the significant effects and implications of reflective and collaborative inquiries on educators to help them make meaning of their practice and ultimately shift their disposition paradigm from knowledge transmitters to knowledge co-constructors. Such a shift would also help them to modify their instructional strategies so as to

better prepare them to serve their diverse students, especially those who are linguistically challenged (Mahalingappa et al., 2021).

In Bianca's case, for instance, the profound effect of her background on her classroom practice was manifested in her instruction and teaching style during my observation. As a means of triangulating the data, my observations were mainly focused on how my participants interacted with their ELL students and how they modified their instructions to meet the needs of the ELL students. My observations were later compared with the participants' responses during the interviews and the focus group discussions. When I conducted the informal observations, my emphasis was on the first-hand accounts of the classroom environment and how it shaped the learning experiences for both the faculty and students. As I entered Bianca's classroom during my visit to one of her composition classes, I immediately noticed that the class was very welcoming and inviting for her students. As noted in my journal, her methodology was organic, not technical or forced, and was very engaging. All students, including ELLs, participated in the classroom discussion. What I found especially encouraging was the way she interacted with her ELL students as observed and recorded in my field notes during her classroom observation. In fact, she did not look at her students as ELLs or non-ELLs; rather, she considered them all the same. And according to her, they all deserved her attention:

> I know I'm a very creative writer, and I'm a very impactful writer, but I struggle with it and I have forever. So I always kind of bring that to my teaching, too. So when I look at students . . . They're all the same to me . . . . I don't care why they're struggling with their writing, whether it's language . . . English, ELL issues, or something else . . . That always just became sort of . . . a pull for me, right? Like I know that struggle no matter what it stems from. (Bianca's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 22)

Consistent with Bianca's prior professional experience and especially her work with the EOF

program, it is important to note how significantly those experiences have shaped her professional

identity in the classroom. For example, Bianca's story about one of her ELL students, Miguel,

still resonated with me as she recalled it:

> It's these kinds of experiences that informed my teaching . . . And I had multiple, but
>
> there are a few that always stand out to me. I had a student, his name was Miguel. He was
>
> Latino. Wonderful young man, bright, charming, smart, hard worker, dedicated, wanted
>
> his degree. He showed me the burn on his hand that was from when he joined the gang,
>
> talked to me about escaping it. He wants better for himself. I run into him in the middle
>
> of the fall semester. "How are you doing?" I'm so excited to see him. How are things
>
> going? He doesn't look good. I say, "What's wrong?" He says there's problems,
>
> bureaucratic, basically paperwork problems with his financial aid. "Oh, don't worry. It'll
>
> work out. It's gonna be fine." He's like, "No, you don't understand." I said, "What's the
>
> matter?" He's like, "I might have to go back home temporarily until this all gets worked
>
> out in," you know, his home was in an urban city . . . (Bianca's Interview Transcript,
>
> 2022, p. 21–22)

It was evident from the way Bianca spoke when she told this story through the tone of her voice,

and her facial expressions, how sad this made her, and how vividly she recalled all the details

and remembered Miguel as if as he were right in front of her. Bianca continued:

> I said, "That's okay. You know, it'll work out. It'll come back. You'll be fine." He said,
>
> "No, you don't understand." I said, "What do you mean?" He says, "If I go home, my past
>
> gang members are gonna be knocking on my door. I can only say no so often. If I keep
>
> saying no, I put my mother and my little sister in danger." That's the kind of stories I've

heard. . . . That's why when somebody complains to me about . . . the student can't use, you know, indefinite and definite articles or prepositions correctly, I'm like, "Shut the hell up. Who cares? Do you understand their sentence?" I say, "Get a grip, yeah, then move on." (laughs) . . .These are not the things we need to worry about. Like, getting somebody their degree, are they smart? Did they deserve this degree? Are they working hard? Are they making sense? Move on. (Bianca's Interview Transcript, 2022, pp. 21–22)

Bianca's story offered yet another example of how her past experiences and background have shaped who sense of self. She recognized that her own interest in different languages and cultures while herself a student often resurfaced in her ELLs' stories, which she found heartening, and which has had a positive impact on her teaching philosophy and practice in general. She recounted how the fascinating and at times heart-breaking stories of her ELLs enriched her experience and pushed her to be more cognizant of how their environment affects their performance and learning. She was able to make those connections between her students' lives and how they could affect their learning experiences, and she thus constantly reflected on her teaching strategies and decisions as she attempts to make them relevant for all her students, including ELLs.

Another example that illustrated how Bianca's prior educational experiences informed her practice, and hence how she envisioned her teaching as being for all of her students, regardless of where they come from, was the scaffolding (Gibbons, 2002; Walqui, 2007) method she used to build on her students' prior knowledge which was evident during my classroom observation. By writing her students' words and phrases on the board as *they* spoke, she enacted a sense of learning investment among her students (Norton, 1995, 2013; Reeves, 2009), thus viewing them as knowledge constructors (Freire, 1970; Shudak & Avoseh, 2015). Furthermore,

Bianca's way of engaging her ELL students in the reading discussion, by valuing their opinions, noting every statement they made, and thus positioning them to lead classroom discussion while facilitating the flow of their ideas was an effective strategy and was clearly manifested in her conscious effort to select supportive and encouraging words that instilled a sense of empowerment in her students.

The following example clearly illustrates how Bianca's conscientious choice of words while teaching ELLs was embedded in the strategies which enabled her culturally responsive teaching. Additionally, during my observation, I noticed that while promoting discussion about the assigned reading, Bianca wrote this question on the board exactly as it appears here: "What do YOU know? What don't WE know?" Interestingly, her particular use of the subject pronouns "you" and "we" suggested her keen attentiveness to her ELL students' need for empowerment by deliberately positioning them as co-generators/constructors of knowledge in her classroom. Bianca's conscientious and self-reflective approach to learning while teaching her ELLs was evident through her deliberate use of the subject pronoun "you" that positions ELLs as the knowers, thereby rendering the generation of classroom knowledge as a collective process. By tending to this simple yet powerful method, she inspired and motivated her ELLs to contribute to the conversation, and thus become aware of and invested in their learning experience as they witness first-hand how their knowledge is being valued and used (Bowers & Apffel-Marglin, 2006; Burbules, 2000; Crookes, 2012; Ellsworth, 1989; Freire, 1970, 1974, 1998 a ; Giroux, 1988a, 1988b, 1998;). In a similar fashion, through her use of the first-person plural pronoun "we," Bianca was not only disrupting the conventional distribution of power between faculty and students within her classroom, but also the institutional and hierarchal structures of oppression where hegemonic knowledge is normalized and perpetuated (Ladson-Billings, 2009; Magee &

Pherali, 2019) and where ELLs are labeled as non-proficient and thus positioned as deficient

compared to their native peers. Bianca not only interrupted the status quo in her classroom but

also symbolically contributed to her students' liberation by using the "words" to help them

understand their "world" (Freire, 1970) and thus stop seeing themselves through the eye of their

"oppressor." For example, Bianca's choice of an excerpt from the novel *How to Talk to Girls at*

Parties by Neil Gaiman, Gabriel Bá, and Fábio Moon (2016) as the reading text for her students,

and the way she used it to introduce them to idiomatic expressions, offered another instance of

how she exposed her students to different linguistic and cultural references and encouraged them

to integrate the new knowledge gained through the reading into their writing. In this way she

enabled her students to raise the level of their critical thinking and their awareness of how the

different languages and cultures of characters who seem alienated are still interrelated and

valuable to their identity construction and how they view and understand their world.

Using instructional strategies that were embedded in linguistically and culturally

responsive pedagogy to empower all her students especially ELLs and include them in their

learning aligns with the research on the importance of focusing on what ELLs bring to the

learning experience and how allowing them to share their knowledge gives them a sense of

belonging and investment in their learning—that their personal stories have value and are

validated (De Jon, 2005, 2018; Jackson, 1986; Ladson-Billings 2005; Lucas et al., 2008; Lucas

& Villegas, 2011, 2013; Lucas et al., 2015; Nieto, 1992, 1999, 2000, 2004; Norton, 2013, 2015;

Reeves, 2009; Villegas, 1998). This especially aligns with Norton's (2013) construct of

"investment" for instance, where she argued that "in order to claim more powerful identities

from which to speak, language learners can challenge unequal power relations by reframing their

relationship to others" (Norton, 201, p.377). This re-framing is contingent to a certain degree, on

what she termed " 'the learner's *investment'* in the language practices of a given classroom or community" (p. 377). Norton drew on poststructuralist theories of identity which viewed the individual as "diverse, contradictory, dynamic and changing over historical time and social space" (2013, p. 4). Through such an understanding of identity as multiple, Norton advocates teaching strategies that enable second language learners to access identities that empower them in their learning environment and thus encourage investment in the target language culture. Influenced by Bourdieu and Passeron (1977), Norton argued that language learners invest in a second language with the expectation of an increased range of "symbolic and material resources, which will in turn increase the value of their cultural capital" (Norton, p. 50). And as they invest in learning the language, they also invest in their own constantly changing identity.

Isabella's background and social identity likewise informed her teaching approach and philosophy but in a markedly different way. Although she showed genuine understanding and interest in helping her ELL students improve their linguistic skills by listening and responding to their questions, she seemed often to rely on her own experience as an ELL student and used it as a lens to reflect on her ELL students' learning experiences and to negotiate her pedagogical and instructional decisions. This is expected given the fact that she herself undertook a very similar path to acquire proficiency in academic English. For instance, her belief in self-reliance informed an individualistic approach to learning which sees learning as almost exclusively the sole responsibility of the student, her ELL students included. She recalled for example her mother's statement pertaining to her learning and success and implicitly referred to it as wise advice: "Your successes are yours. Your failures are yours. We're happy if you do well, but it's up to you. Everything that you do comes back to you" (Focus Group #3, 2022, p. 7).

Drawing on and convinced of the efficacy of her own way of learning while acquiring English proficiency in England, Isabella stated that for their benefit, it is the ELL students' responsibility "to make themselves understood" (Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 3). And just like reading a lot in English helped her to improve her English, she assumed that if they invest their time in reading in English the way she did, their English would most likely improve, thus implying that the means to English proficiency is the same for everyone: "I always just draw back again on my own experience . . . I was doing all my readings in English, all my academic work in English" (Focus Group #2, 2022, p. 8). While Isabella's point was valid, reading can improve one's level of proficiency in the target language, the level of literacy and schooling experience from one ELL to another differs dramatically and thus must be taken into consideration (Bifuh-Ambe, 2009; Cummins, 1981; De Jon, 2019; De Jon et al., 2018; Garcia 2009; Gay, 2010). Interestingly, however, Isabella did not believe that her native Spanish could really benefit her native Spanish speakers in their effort to acquire academic English; rather, she believed that her fluency in English was helpful for them, something that contradicts the research which places great emphasis on the importance of the native language as an instrument to help ELLs attain English proficiency (Cummins, 1980, 1993, 2000). Hence, she identified disciplined reading habits as an efficient way to acquire English proficiency:

> I've had students, Chinese was their first language. I've had students that French was
>
> their first language. I've had students who come from all over . . . A lot of students who
>
> are Spanish speakers. I might be able to help them a little bit more, but it's been
>
> interesting. I don't feel like necessarily the knowing of Spanish helps me a lot more to
>
> help the Spanish speakers than necessarily other students. I think it's because, I obviously
>
> learned English, but I'm not an English teacher. So most of my English I've learned just

by working with English, so . . . that end up being the main advice that I give them, just

read a lot, keep reading. (Isabella's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 11)

As stated above, while reading can be a effective vehicle on the road to proficiency, Isabella's argument seems to neglect the relatively fluid category of ELLs' different levels of literacy and proficiency. In other words, an ELL might have good interpersonal skills but struggle to read academic texts, such as is the case with Generation 1.5 students, which thus suggests the limits of Isabella's advice for ELLs as a whole.

This strictly aligns with the literature as mentioned above on how educators tend to generalize their personal learning and schooling experiences when thinking about their students' learning and college experiences (Adamson et al., 2013; Brancard & Quinnwilliams, 2012; Brooks & Adams, 2015; Choi & Morrison, 2014; Chval et al., 2015; Deaton et al., 2015; Hardin et al., 2010; Lucas et al., 2008; Lucas & Villegas, 2011, 2013; Lucas et al., 2015; McGriff, 2015; Takeuchi & Esmonde, 2011; Reeves, 2009; Villegas, 1998). Because as an ELL student, Isabella navigated the university structure, culture, and bureaucracy on her own without the help of her parents, she believed that this was applicable to anyone in her situation. While she acknowledged the challenges that ELLs encountered in college as they acquired the academic language, she nevertheless seemed to put great emphasis on the ELL students' degree of motivation in their learning and thus their need to rely *solely* on themselves to navigate and succeed in college just like she did. Isabella's approach to her ELL students' learning seems to understate the importance of family support and parents' educational capital (Lareau, 1987) as critical variables for ELL students' success in college and how these significantly shape their college learning experience. As mentioned in a previous section, as the daughter of a mother who was a chemist and a father who was a lawyer, Isabella had strong emotional support at home and the social,

educational, linguistic, and cultural capital that adequately prepared her for her future as a

college student and later a professional. But that support and that capital are likely not available

for many of her ELL students. Isabella herself acknowledged on several occasions the

significance of her parents' role in this regard:

> Yeah absolutely. I mean there's no question about that. I think if there was one thing that
>
> I think my parents always gave me is that they gave me a good support . . . My parents
>
> weren't even checking my grades. My parents were like, "Okay, you're there. You do
>
> what you need to do." They were not after me in terms of checking grades. They were not
>
> after me in any of those things. I felt support, but I didn't feel pressure. I think that was
>
> really important. (Focus Group #3, 2022, p. 7)

Isabella's generalized assumption was equally detected in Peter' responses during the focus

group sessions and the one-on-one interview, despite his awareness of his privileges:

> It kind of changed my perspective on what most people's experience was as a student.
>
> When I eventually moved to here where I was in the US, I had quite a lot of students used
>
> to work a job as well as study which I never had to do. Most of my friends didn't have to
>
> do when I was an undergrad which obviously made things a lot easier. If you have to
>
> work a job and study, then it is obviously a much sterner test of determination, time
>
> management, and all these things. I guess from all of that I recognize that most people
>
> didn't have the platform that I did . . . I don't know how I would've got on if I had had to
>
> study in a foreign language or had to work a 40-hour week in addition to studying. Those
>
> things would've made it a lot more difficult; I think. (Focus Group 3, 2022, p. 7)

Peter seemed nevertheless to be ambivalent about his students' real motive for not having their

textbooks for his course. It was only during the focus group discussion that he was challenged by

another faculty member to consider the possibility that his students did not purchase textbooks because of financial hardship and not simply because they chose not to spend their money on the books, as Peter originally suggested. Peter seemed to overlook the possibility of his ELLs' being in a different socioeconomic class and how that could change the nature of their learning experiences, which is in line with what the reviewed literature of this study suggests—that ELLs are more likely to enroll in community colleges than in four-year institutions, in part because of accessibility but mostly due to the relative affordability of the former (Kanno, 2018; Kanno & Cromley, 2013, 2015; Kanno & Varghese, 2010). Thus, one can reasonably assume that not all ELLs can readily afford the cost of textbooks. It is, in turn, equally reasonably to assume that Peter's apparent lack of awareness of his students' financial situation could be attributed to his own upbringing and lack of exposure to this kind of diversity (Labaree, 1997; Malott, 2017; Nieto, 2004). For as noted in a preceding section, Peter was born into an affluent family, did not pay for his own education, never had to work while attending college, and has no student loan debt. His family's affluence and his parents' educational and social capital made it possible for him to focus solely on his studies. He acknowledged during focus group discussion how he "had it pretty easy" (Focus Group 3, 2022, p. 9).

Julius, on the other hand, seemed to be aware of his students' struggles but simply did not know how to address them. He did not think he was qualified to teach them English in addition to his content area, not feeling "fit" for that responsibility and title. Being an ELL himself, he also acknowledged how difficult it is to learn English and how his own learning experience was both difficult and rewarding. However, and like Isabella, he also argued that it's the ELL students' responsibility *to figure out a way* that works for them to learn English if they want to succeed in college, and that English is their only ticket to college success. This, again,

underscores the neoliberal logic that underpins the power of institutional structures (Fairclough, 2001; Lin & Martin, 2005)—a logic that dictates how academic language should be learned and through which medium of instruction. That logic seemed to find expression in the respective educational experiences of both Isabella and Julius. According to both, assimilating into the English language as the means of instruction granted them access to academia and thus gave them privileges that they otherwise would not have had.

Interestingly, Julius still struggled with both the written and the spoken forms of academic English and repeatedly confessed how stressful and vulnerable this made him feel, especially when teaching and writing on the classroom board. He expressed his frustration about why the English language has to be the determinant for his students' success in his subject area by asking a rhetorical question: "Can you separate language from chemistry? I wish there was a way . . . to separate at least 'mentally' the two?" *From his* perspective, language "is not the only ingredient to success" (Julius' Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 5). This seemed at odds with his previous response to the importance of learning English if one wants to succeed in college: "We are in an English-speaking country. And I think that part of the college education is to learn English well, because it's going to serve you well in your future environment, right. Now that's very true" (Julius' Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 12). Just like Isabella, Julius too was struggling with two identities: a long-time ELL and an accomplished chemistry professor in a U.S. institution (Flores et al., 2015; Norton, 2013). Furthermore, Julius seemed to internalize his linguistic status as an ELL and thus struggled to reaffirm his professional identity due to his lack of English proficiency which impacted his confidence as a chemistry lecturer. His two interconnected identities further underscored "the complexity of faculty's stories and identities

where their entangled selves feature at different levels and where past selves surface to interact with those of the present" (Finlay, 2009, p. 13).

Interestingly, his rhetorical question above about whether language can be separated from chemistry implicitly echoed his frustration and insecurity about his own degree of English proficiency and whether it would be possible for him to acquire a level of proficiency that matches his academic status. In posing that question, Julius drew on his personal background and linguistic experiences as a successful chemist, but one who is still not fully fluent in English. He expressed his concerns about his linguistic credentials and how they affected his confidence in the classroom:

> And then, you still have to write clearly and try not to be ambiguous. I think I'm sensitive to ELLs because I try to work quite hard on my own English. I feel that I should be able to write correct English and I try to really avoid making mistakes, starting with spelling mistakes, but also sentence construction. If there's any kind of ambiguity, I try to redefine it. This is always in the back of my own mind. And I think that gives me an appreciation of the struggle for some of the students that I know they're in the same position. I don't explicitly make that a part of my teaching philosophy, but I know that it is a part of my teaching. I'm sensitive to it. (Julius' Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 2)

This struggle with his identity was evident in his journal as well and how he viewed his self-efficacy not, notably, as a chemistry professor but as an English learner. He often questioned himself: Was he speaking with the right accent (Self-questioning of self-efficacy)? Was he explaining the lesson properly (self-doubt)? This is clearly observed in his statement: "If they don't understand what I'm saying, I blame my own accent, try to make fun of it" (Julius' Reflective Journal, 2022, p. 2).

Julius's lack of linguistic capital (Fairclough, 2001; Giroux & Simmons, 1988b; Norton, 2010, 2013; Norton & Toohey, 2001) made him very aware of his accent and thus vulnerable in front of his students including ELLs and how they might perceive his self-efficacy as their source of knowledge—he clearly struggled with his self-image as a professional. This also aligns with the literature on how students, especially ELLs, tend to have deficit views of the self-efficacy and competence of their non-native educators (Alseweed, 2012; Chun, 2014; Lagasabaster & Sierra, 2002; Liaw, 2012; Mahboob, 2004). Julius story was another example of how much the educational experience of all of my participants informed their practice with their ELL students.

Consistent with other participants, Debbie's education and teaching experiences had an impact on who she was as an educator and how she conducted her instruction. She seemed to focus more on finding technical strategies—useful tools that would work with her ELLs, regardless of the setting. From the review of her syllabus, and especially her lesson plan—which was heavily influenced by a K–12 lesson plan format with its column table template, the exact name, order, and timing of each activity, and the exact transcription of the verbal introduction and interventions in the different sequences of the lesson—it was evident that Debbie was very organized and detailed-oriented, and carefully planned all aspects of her lesson instruction and related activities. Debbie's focus on the technical and strategic aspects of instruction to deliver her lesson exactly as it was planned clearly manifested itself during her classroom observation.

Having worked as a K–12 high school teacher for several years, Debbie seemed to draw primarily on her prior ESL high school teaching experience to inform her teaching strategies and approaches with her current ELL students. The effect of that prior experience was evident during her classroom observation in, for example, how she conducted group work in her classroom,

announced homework assignments, allocated time to take attendance, and assigned students to read specific passages from the text. At the high school level, her teaching strategies were geared to a certain type of ELL student—those with low English proficiency who had been in the country for two years at most, and who mainly struggled with low English proficiency. Her current college-level ELLs, however, as explained elsewhere in this section, came from diverse backgrounds and ranged from generation 1.5 students to long-term ELLs; they are thus at different levels in their knowledge of English and hence have different needs. This wide range in levels of English proficiency and prior knowledge among ELLs aligns with the literature (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011; Callaham & Gandara, 2004; Kanno, 2018; Kanno & Cromley, 2013, 2015). However, it is important to acknowledge, as the research also shows, that not all ELLs in higher education necessarily have the same experiences, which ultimately renders their learning richer and complex. It is necessary therefore for faculty to have the awareness of such distinctions, especially those like Debbie who have worked in both settings: K–12 and postsecondary (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011).

Even though Debbie's primary professional experience with ELLs was in a K–12 educational context, that experience could still readily inform her teaching as an adjunct professor at the college level. As mentioned in the preceding sub-theme, despite the difference in ELL student categories (Kanno, 2010) between the K–12 context and her current college classrooms, in general, the barriers for ELLs' learning are still the same (Roesingh & Douglas, 2011). The continuity of the barriers that ELLs face in K-12 and higher education is consistent with the reviewed literature for this study which underscores the similarities between the linguistic challenges for K–12 ELLs and those faced by ELL college students, which have detrimental effects on their access, retention, and success (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011; Callaham &

Gandara, 2004; Harklau, 2000; Kanno, 2018; Kanno & Cromley, 2013, 2015; Marshall, 2009;

Roesingh & Douglas, 2011). But Debbie's experience teaching different categories of ELLs was

also consistent with what the research reveals—that ELLs can differ considerably from one

another in postsecondary education due to, among other factors, their prior education,

socioeconomic status, linguistic and cultural background, level of literacy and English

proficiency, and degree of investment in their learning (Andrade, 2006, 2010; Burgey et al.,

2018; Marshall, 2009; Oropeza et al., 2010; Parrish, 2015). Moreover, learning experiences and

linguistic competences fluctuate widely among ELL students enrolled in community colleges

versus those in universities.

During her interview, Debbie stated that one of the frustrating points for her was how the

research on ELL instruction was focused on so many theories and not much on what such

theories would look like in practice. It was, in fact, that disconnect between theory and practice

that led her to move from higher education, where she hoped to find the answers that did not

seem available in her K–12 teaching experience. But ironically, she found the same problem in

higher education. Despite the wide range of her training and newly acquired knowledge,

according to her, she's still not there yet—that she has not figured out how to put the theoretical

knowledge into practice. As a matter of fact, one of the reasons Debbie agreed to participate in

my study was because she found it quite important for her teaching interests and was hoping that

the findings of my study might help to explain why the relevant theories are not aligned with

practice and perhaps even offer her new strategies that actually work in the classroom. Debbie's

conception of good teaching was that which is rooted in and informed by theory. This is how she

understood her practice and what it means to be prepared to teach ELLs—one must have the

tools and strategies and they should be always aligned with one's practice. Debbie's view of

practice here is understandable, coming, as she did, from a professional background that values

theory as the impetus of instruction and is thus heavily invested in training and professional

development and VAMs, especially in the K–12 setting. However, while research underscores

the value of theory as a useful lens to inform practice, the research equally highlights the value

and the impact of the reflective process on teachers' prior knowledge and experience, and how

the latter shape the construction of their professional identity and thus their methods of

instruction (Brooks & Adams, 2015; Buxton et al., 2013; Choi & Morrison, 2014; Chval et al.,

2015; Deaton et al., 2015; de Jong & Harper, 2005; Hardin et al., 2010; Lucas & Villegas, 2011;

McGriff, 2015; Nieto, 2000; Takeuchi & Esmonde, 2011; Youngs & Youngs, 2001).

Through this theme, I examined how faculty's prior experience served as a *de facto*

parameter for their practice and teaching philosophy when teaching ELLs, and how it's

necessary to shift our focus beyond the process-product (Opfer & Pedder, 2011) or the

"Apprenticeship of Observation" (Conner &Vary, 2017; Loreti, 1975; Mewborn & Tyminski,

2006), and to move toward a common understanding of how faculty's teaching is shaped by the

interconnectedness of their experiences and identities as both fluid and socially constructed.

Theme 2: Faculty Misconceptions of Their ELL Students

Central to my research question and connecting each of the themes that have emerged

from my data analysis is how faculty reflected on their experience when teaching ELLs and how

that reflective process, in turn, revealed certain assumptions and misconceptions they had about

their ELL students and how to teach them in general. The following misconceptions were

identified and discussed below: a) How language is acquired; b) L1 hinders ELL attainment of L

2; and c) The "one size fits all" approach to learning.

How Language is Acquired

One prominent assumption among faculty in this study and how they view their ELLs'

learning pertained to their understanding of how a language is acquired—especially for ELLs

with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, levels of literacy, and education. This was

evident in my faculty participants' responses to interview questions and the opinions their shared

during focus group sessions. Consistent with the research and contrary to my expectation was the

lack of factual knowledge among four of my participants about Second Language Acquisition

(SLA). Despite their experience learning another language— be it a foreign language—such as

Spanish for Bianca or French for Peter— or English as a second language—as was the case for

Julius and Isabella (both are ELLs)—these participants, apparently, did not have a clear

understanding of SLA and thus how challenging it is to acquire English proficiency *while*

learning the academic language that is built on it. Based on their responses, it seems that they

lacked an understanding of the fact that ELLs must deal with this *twofold predicament* while

working towards English proficiency: they learn how to speak, read, and write in English at the

same time as they acquire academic English. This can be an unsettling and even discouraging

challenge which can have profound effects on their learning, motivation, and self-esteem—let

alone their success (Andrade, 2006; Bifuh-Ambe, 2011; Bollin, 2007; Callaham & Gandara,

2004; Cummins, 2000). For example, informed by their own learning experiences, Peter and

Julius believed that learning English as a second language should not take long and that ELLs

can be proficient in a short time. When asked, how long do you think it takes to learn a second

language? Julius replied:

> I would say really a few months, maybe a year, to get up to speed and then you keep just
>
> improving and improving and trying to make things better. I think I've seen students who

came here without knowing much English and I've seen students who within a year really

got up to speed, being able to articulate quite well and just do fine in their studies, whilst

absolutely not having perfect English, but really making both of them work, a language

and studies. (Julius' Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 5)

This response was consistent with his response to two related questions in his reflective

journal: How knowledgeable are you about second language acquisition? And how comfortable

are you incorporating it in your teaching? There he wrote: "I don't know very much about,

Second Language Acquisition. I'm not an expert in that area. I'm kind of interested but, no, I've

got to study it. And I certainly don't consider myself knowledgeable in that area" (Julius'

Reflective Journal # 2, 2022). Similarly, when Peter was asked the same questions during his

interview and focus group discussion, he replied:

> Some people are just good at languages though . . . Soak them up like a sponge . . . If you
>
> are a sharp youngster, I mean, if you are immersed in it, then you can get good results in
>
> a year or two. I was pretty good by the time I left France. They asked me if I was Dutch
>
> rather (Laughs)- I was obviously English-speaking French. So, I take that as a
>
> compliment. I mean, I spoke it every day all the time for two years. And that took me
>
> from rusty high school French to *fairly fluent*, conversational French, or only spoken
>
> French, not formal written French. I didn't do a lot of French writing. I could hold a
>
> conversation pretty well and eavesdrop on people on buses and things. I probably, if I
>
> tried to even write a paper in my subject area in French, it wouldn't have been great.
>
> (Peter's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 5)

Both responses above seem to overlook the fact that "language is not a linear process" (Gibbon,

p. 4), and learning a new language has nothing to do with an innate gift or a talent, but more

importantly that ELLs are not only acquiring English proficiency but also learning English as the medium for academic study. Contrary to both Julius and Peter's assumption, several studies revealed that acquiring language proficiency can take five to ten years (Cummins, 2000; Schleppegrell, 2004; Takeuchi & Esmonde, 2011). What is, furthermore, worth noting in Peter's response, and as the literature review of this study reveals, is the common misunderstanding of the difference between *fluency* and *proficiency* (See Cummin, 2000; De Jon, 2018; Leeser, 2004; Suzuki & Kormos, 2020) in language acquisition, particularly in an academic setting. To adequately define these two terms requires a detailed explanation, itself dependent on how different disciplines conceptualize and measure fluency and proficiency according to different linguistic criteria (e.g., grammar, accuracy, pronunciation), which points to the practical complexity of these terms and thus renders an adequate definition beyond the scope of this study. Thus it is important to simply keep in mind that the term "fluency" in relation to second language acquisition should not be confused with "proficiency" when assessing ELLs. For the former (fluency), generally speaking, pertains to the level of comfort and ability to express oneself in a clear, accurate way that flows as they speak, while the latter (proficiency) pertains to a high level of literacy and the ability to write fluidly and coherently, especially in an academic context.

This is especially evident in Peter's use of "fairly fluent," which, in turn, is indicative of his understanding that second language acquisition is typically measured by one's level in spoken communication, which is also known as interpersonal skills in SLA (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011; Cummins, 2000). Likewise, and despite her recognition of her ELL students' linguistic and cultural needs, Bianca seemed to attribute English proficiency to one's degree of fluency in

conversational English. This was apparent in how she expressed her surprise about one of her student's abilities with spoken English:

> It's always amazing to me how language acquisition can work . . . I can tell you that I've had students who tell me they barely studied English, and they've been here for two years and I'm listening to them and saying like, this student speaks fluently, like they've been here for 20 years . . . I don't know if I have much more to add than that. (Focus Group 2, 2022, p. 6)

Isabella's response was not all that different from Julius's: "I don't know. I can't say I'm very knowledgeable" (Isabella's Interview Transcript, p. 17). This again demonstrates how, with the exception of Debbie, my participants either had no clear understanding of SLA or understood SLA primarily in connection to the level of fluency in spoken English.

L1 Hinders ELL Attainment of L2

Another common assumption apparent in my participants' perceptions of their ELL students' learning was that using their native language interferes with their acquisition of English. Understanding ELLs' relationship to their native language in this way marginalizes their first language and implicitly represents the attainment of proficiency in English as the prominent aspect of their identity. For example, despite her informed approach to the various categories of ELLs in her classroom, Bianca nonetheless viewed ELLs' previous knowledge of another language or languages, native or not, as an obstacle to their learning English. This was evident in what she said during our second focus group discussion:

> I do think it's very important for teachers to address misconceptions. I've had students whose English is not their first language. It could be a third or fourth or fifth. And sometimes I think to myself, well, how does that mess with stuff too, right? Like, so it's

not that they're an English language learner that's messing with their ability to write,

maybe it's because they have four languages walking around in their head, and some of

them can be very different. If you speak Arabic, and Spanish, and I don't know, Japanese,

like those are really different languages. How does that impact your expression, your

means of expression? (Focus Group 2, 2022, p. 6)

Bianca's misconception here further enforced the reductive view that continues to frame equity

in education as a superficial outcome of acquiring English proficiency among bi- and

multilingual students. And thus, it simplifies not only what is required to effectively teach these

students, but also the complexity of the process of their identity construction (Bourdieu, 1977;

Bourdieu & Passaron, 1977; Burgey et al., 2018; Butler, 2021).

This common misconception among educators about the negative impact of native

language on ELLs' acquisition of English proficiency is consistent with the research of this

study. In fact, ELL native language and how it has been systematically devalued, whereby the

concept of "quick immersion" to minimize or eliminate the native language as the problematic

source of this process, is the result of a persistent misconception that still dominates the

discourse about the value of bilingual education (Cummins, 1980; De Jon et al., 2018; Garcia,

2009). It is within this context that faculty view their ELLs' first language as a hurdle that

hinders the students' attainment of English proficiency. This, in turn, positions their ELLs in a

catch-22 situation where they undertake the arduous task of learning English as a new language

while simultaneously being required to attain grade-appropriate academic content proficiency

(Meskill, 2005). This misconception was evident in participants' stories where they viewed their

ELLs' native language as an obstacle that the students must let go of to learn English properly

and acquire proficiency in academic English. Isabella offered a case in point in recounting her

experience as a graduate student and how she navigated her way through academia, and even in

explaining her own beliefs about the importance of learning "correct" English when teaching her

students. Certainly, as explained in the previous section, Isabella was the perfect example of an

ELL who had to put her first language to the side in her effort to acquire English proficiency and

succeed in college. Despite her attachment to her native language and culture, and especially the

joy she experienced readings books in which she saw her father's presence, she had to let go of

all of that and quickly immerse herself in the English language. She consciously convinced

herself of the importance of letting go of her L1 as the only way to acquire proficiency in her L2.

She was implicitly and explicitly trained to view her native language as one bereft of the

educational capital she needed, which itself could only be acquired by relinquishing her L1 and

assimilating into L2 (Langer & Furman, 2004). It bears noting in this context that Isabella's story

echoes the colonial discourse in which language is power (Bourdieu 1986, 1991; Fairclough,

2001), and how within the structures of such power her L1 was no longer worth investing in

since it became associated with failure while her L2 was deemed to be the path to success.

      Julius's experience echoed Isabella's in this regard. His experience as an ELL taught him

the value of English as the medium for success, and he now views English the same way for his

students. As he said, because "everything is in English. The textbook is in English, English is the

language that's used in the classroom" (Julius' Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 4), it is imperative

for his students to attain English proficiency if they are to succeed. It is necessary, he continued

to:

> be able to read an English text, a test, the lab manual is in English, so it's really
>
> problematic if you don't have a rudimentary understanding of the language . . . but you
>
> bring a background from another country, another language, yeah, you could do fine. . . If

you are smart, you can probably figure out a lot, but in terms of participation, you got to

be able to communicate. If you're in the lab with a lab partner, you have to be able to

speak English to some extent. (Julius' Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 4)

But it is worth pointing out here that while Julius acknowledged the value of the English

language for his students' learning, he nevertheless, and unlike other participants, placed a great

emphasis on his students' prior knowledge of chemistry as an asset for their learning experience,

thus valorizing what his ELLs can contribute to their own education. Contrary to the tendency to

rely on English as the primary medium of learning and communication, I find his reflective

questioning in this passage thought-provoking and insightful: "I always wonder how much gets

lost in translation. . . . Just from one accent to another accent, how much gets lost?" (Julius'

Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 3). In his reference here to the potential loss of meaning when one

attempts to express herself in the target language—in this case, English—Julius seems to be

cognizant of the importance of preserving the value of the native language and its benefits, be it

his own or that of his ELL students. His statement equally evoked the effect of losing one's

native language on their identity and sense of belonging. Hence, just as the meaning of the native

language often gets lost in translation, so, too, do one's multiple selves get entangled within their

professional identities.

Coming from England, however, a foreign country with a different culture yet the same

native language, Peter had a very different experience with his L1 and L2. Unlike Isabella, for

example, he did not have to choose between his native and target language. His native language

was the language of communication and learning in his institution. Despite his status as a cultural

outsider, he was anything but a linguistic outsider. To the contrary, his British accent is typically

perceived in a quite positive light in mainstream American culture. Symbolically carrying his

linguistic capital as a torch, Peter thus had a different experience navigating his way in academia.

His language *is* the language of power (Lin & Martinb, 2005). His linguistic capital added to his

inherited socioeconomic privileges, which made his experience considerably easier than

Isabella's or Julius's—as Peter said, "I had it pretty easy" (Focus Group 3, 2022, p. 9). So

despite a different cultural background, his L1 was of primary importance, and thus it was not

desirable nor was he encouraged to leave his native language behind—to the contrary, it is the

power associated with his native language that enabled him to progress in his education and on

his career path (Bourdieu, 1977; Darvin & Norton, 2015; Deli-Amen & DeLuca, 2010;

Fairclough, 2001). Interestingly, however, Peter's L1 was the L2 in his case. It is worth noting

here, though, how participants' assumptions about the nature of the relationship between the L1

and L2 affect their views of their ELL students and how that, in turn, impacts their instruction.

The "One Size Fits All" Approach to Learning

Faculty reported using different methodologies, according to their respective disciplines,

when teaching their ELLs. But what was more revealing was how faculty's instructional

decisions were informed by their views of their ELL students' backgrounds. For example,

Bianca reported focusing more on students' stories and experiences than their grammatical and

vocabulary mistakes. Debbie emphasized a similar focus and assessed her students' work

according to her department's guidelines for all students. For example, she used what she termed

"labor-based" assignments to assess her students, regardless of whether they were ELLs. This

assessment methodology, which involves dissecting the writing process into several drafts,

allowed students to edit their paper in three different phases until their essay met the assignment

criteria. However, generalizing the efficacy of one method as equally effective for all students

exemplified the assumption that "one size fits all." There was, indeed, a tendency among all

participants to generalize their instruction and means of assessment as applicable to and equally

effective for all students, regardless of whether a particular practice was initially designed with

either native speakers or ELLs in mind.

Another example of this assumption was evident in Isabella's expectations of how

learning should occur for her ELLs—that is, her implicit generalization that English should be

viewed as the only medium of learning, which, in turn, and as mentioned previously, echoed her

own learning experience. Thus, her emphasis on the importance of her ELL students reading in

English to achieve proficiency because they were in no position to negotiate otherwise:

> If you have to read in English as your second language, it's because *you can't afford not
>
> to do it*, you absolutely have to figure out how certain structure are working . . . You
>
> understand much more like that in English . . . that there's a particular purpose to using
>
> these tenses rather than these other tenses. And there's a purpose to using this word rather
>
> than this other word, et cetera. (Isabella's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 4)

Tied to her insistence that her students read in English to attain proficiency is the importance of

mastering the comprehension of historical texts. In fact, Isabella made the connection between

the importance of her students reading English-language historical texts in English and how such

reading was critical for them to understand the purpose of historical thinking. However, in doing

so, Isabella seemed to overlook the other linguistic-related areas of struggle for her ELLs, since

reading was not in fact *the only* area in which they struggled (Andrade, 2010; Bifuh-Ambe,

2011). Additionally, instead of framing her students in a deficit view by overlooking what her

students actually knew and hence the possible contributions they could make to the learning

experience in her history class, Isabella seemed to only reflect on the misconceptions they had

about history that they brought to her class, which again was in line with the literature review of

this study where faculty tended to focus on what ELLs do not have instead of focusing on what assets they do have which can add to their learning (Andrade et al., 2014; Baker, 2000; Garcia, 2009).

>Talking about misconceptions, one of the main misconceptions that my students come to history classes with is that history's just about being able to tell a story with the right names and the right dates in place. But it's actually more about . . . how to think historically. And that's slightly different thing. And the problem with teaching historical thinking is that the only way to really learn that is by reading the work of historians in English. So, it's not even just about language, but it's about certain constructions. (Focus Group 1, 2022, p. 8)

To better understand Isabella's response above, one needs to unpack the train of her thought. First, interestingly, when asked about her misconceptions about her ELLs, Isabella redirected the idea of misconception towards her students. She seemed to attribute their struggle to comprehend the content of her instruction to their false assumptions about what history actually is, which, in turn, limits their comprehension and thus the quality of their research papers. When she was then redirected to the original question, Isabella defended her assumptions about her students' knowledge of historical thinking and justified *why* she drew the conclusions she did about her students' performance. While her argument above may implicitly have reiterated a deficit gaze towards her students, positioning them as deficient in a certain historical or theoretical knowledge, her words, nonetheless, just like Peter's, underscored the complexity involved in attempting to accurately assess ELL students' linguistic needs and knowledge and how these affect their learning. But in what follows below, as she differentiated between the various needs of her ELLs, Isabella made a distinction between "linguistic problem" and

"foreign language problem," which in turn implies her hypothesis of the two as different entities, whereas in reality and based on the research they are closely interconnected:

> In terms of the assumptions, if we start to unpack that . . . we could think about it in terms of what are the expectations I have about my students, I have a lot of assumptions of students come to class that sometimes might be related to language learning. But I think they're more related to the kind of historical language that they have acquired. I always tell them this is not history channel kind of history . . . it's a completely different thing. And, that very first assumption is not usually incorrect, but I think it doesn't help me to discern, like what Peter was saying, to what extent the problem is a linguistic problem, or is a foreign language problem, or another kind of language problem. You just said there's plenty or many. (Focus Group 1, 2022, p. 9)

Indeed, it is precisely because Isabella's students spoke a foreign language that they had linguistic barriers; the two were undeniably interconnected (Andrade et al., 2014; Harrison & Shi, 2016; Sheets, 2003). This is equally in keeping with the research for this study which points to an associated and common misperception among educators who, in general, view all ELLs in essentially an identical fashion, and who, therefore, assume they all learn in essentially the same manner as well. Furthermore, one could argue, the distinction Isabella makes above is indicative of a certain level of subconscious frustration about her own lack of knowledge of the different categories of ELL students in her classroom.

Most of the participants did not seem to recognize that their teaching methods did not work for all of their ELL students and that they thus needed to apply new instructional strategies beneficial to their ELL students' learning (Baker, 2000; Kanno, 2010; Lucas & Villegas, 2011; Sheets, 2003). Corresponding with the research, faculty seemed to focus more on delivering their

lesson as planned than on the actual teaching (Andrade, 2010), which recalls Freire's (1970) critique of the banking model of education—as applied here, positioning ELLs as empty vessels. In other words, empty vessels do not have distinct stories and divergent backgrounds and experiences that shape what they know and how they learn. As such, faculty can assume that they all start from essentially the same place and learn in essentially the same way.

Peter's assumption about the universal nature of the language of chemistry and, by extension, of math and science in general, for instance, led to his assertion that chemistry does not actually pose an additional challenge for his ELL students and, thus, ELLs do better in math and science in general. By assuming that the language of chemistry is universal (Interview Transcript, 2022), an assumption Julius shared, Peter seemed to minimalize the impact of not attaining English proficiency on his students' performance and level of engagement in the classroom. Likewise, his assumption that a certain approach would be effective for his students, including his ELLs, just because it worked for him as a student in the past was indicative of a "one size fits all" pedagogy that implicitly positioned students as identical empty vessels. Peter's teacher-centered approach to learning was evident during my observation of his class. His traditional method of instruction, limited to lecturing and writing on the board while students copied what he said and wrote with no interaction between them, was suggestive of the need to reflect on his practice as a first step to re-evaluate his approach in the classroom. Like faculty in other disciplines, chemistry faculty need to be cognizant of their potential role in helping their ELL students' meet the challenges of learning English such that they not only help the students learn the subject matter, but also benefit them in their overall education (Lee, 2005; Lee et al., 2005).

The research informs us about the effects of ELL disengagement and how that disengagement contributes to the students' lack of motivation and investment in their learning and, in some cases, their withdrawal from college (de Kleine, 2015; de Kleine & Lawton, 2018; Kanno, 2010; Lucas & Villegas, 2011; McGriff, 2015). While recognizing that chemistry is a difficult subject to grasp, even for native English-speaking students, Peter clearly lacked the disposition, knowledge, and support to implement changes to his instructional strategies, especially those designed to support his ELLs, such as a constructivist approach, scaffolding through visual clues, or modeling, to list a few. However, it is important to realize that such strategies alone are not enough to even begin to address the various linguistic and cultural needs of ELLs, if their use is not accompanied by faculty's genuine concern and interest in reflecting on their practice by examining the assumptions and misconceptions they bring to the classroom, in part through their own positioning, and how those assumptions and misconceptions, in turn, influence the decisions they make when teaching an increasingly diverse student body.

In this theme about participants' misconceptions about their ELLs, I addressed their lack of knowledge about their ELL students and the impact of, instead, operating on assumptions. I analyzed participants' main misconceptions about their ELL students and how such misconceptions, emerging within their stories during their reflective process, convey the level of faculty's knowledge and degree of preparedness when teaching ELLs. I examined how these misconceptions were primarily rooted within each participants' prior learning experiences and backgrounds which constitute a laboratory for the exploration and development of such ideas. And lastly, I explained the significance of faculty assumptions in relation to their practice and how the former affects the latter and thus, in turn, the learning of their ELL students.

Theme 3: Faculty Self-Reflective Tension: Justifying Discipline-Specific Epistemological Approaches When Attempting to Modify ELL Instruction

Before discussing the analysis of my participants' responses pertaining to their reflective process and how they justified their discipline-specific approaches when attempting to modify their ELL instruction, it is worth mentioning that it was necessary for me to conduct an introductory presentation during a focus group meeting about the different categories and terminologies related to ELLs and what that implied for their instruction. Rooted in my recognition that research alone is not sufficient for my participants to answer all the questions and address all challenges related to the complexity of ELL instruction, it was useful, nevertheless, especially for their self-reflective process, to help faculty situate their practice within current research on ELLs based on their discipline. In particular, my objective was to offer participants a collective space where knowledge about ELLs could be shared and co-constructed, and where I could contribute even on a small scale to their inquiry as they attempted to make meaning of their practice and engage in a more reflective praxis. I thus shared my own knowledge about ELLs and provided research-related articles pertaining to ELLs' learning and Second Language Acquisition.

As discussed in the above section, there was a direct correlation between faculty's personal backgrounds, prior learning experiences, and professional identity and how those elements affected their pedagogical content knowledge and instruction in general when teaching ELLs. During the reflective process, partially triggered by me having previously introduced them to the various categories of ELLs and Second Language Acquisition, it was evident in faculty's responses that they struggled between focusing on teaching their content area and addressing the diverse needs of their ELL students. In this section, in turn, the analysis implicitly and explicitly

revealed what faculty did or did not do to modify their instruction to meet those needs. Interestingly, what faculty viewed as modifications of their practice pertained mainly to assignments and assessments, and the changes they described were themselves circumscribed by faculty's disciplinary knowledge and discipline-specific assumptions about what their ELL students should learn. It was furthermore apparent that as a consequence of this struggle, participants sought to mediate the tension that resulted when attempting to address their ELLs needs by justifying the epistemological limitations of their discipline-specific knowledge.

Faculty reported having different teaching objectives and approaches when teaching ELLs in their respective disciplines which influenced how they assessed their ELLs' knowledge of the material. These differing approaches could be seen, in turn, as themselves rooted in the backgrounds and experiences of my participants. But despite their understanding of and empathy towards their ELL students' learning situation, the only real modifications pertained to assessment, and, apart from that, there was no discernible intention or attempt among participants to modify their instruction in any significant way to meet the needs of their ELL students. There were two principal reasons for this: a perceived lack of time and space within the curriculum, given the need of the faculty to cover the course content; and, even more so, their lack of the necessary knowledge and expertise to address the various needs of their ELL students. For example, in his reflective journal, Peter expressed his discomfort in being a language instructor for his ELL students in addition to his workload: "I can't say I feel comfortable with being a language instructor as well as a subject area instructor. This is despite the abundance of specialist terminology in my subject area, which as I mentioned in one of our discussion groups, is a bit like learning a second language. That must also be true to some extent for any scientific discipline though. The syllabus is already packed and there is no time for

additional material" (Peter's Reflective Journal Entry #2, 2022). He also shared similar concerns

in another reflective journal entry about not addressing his ELLs' needs because he lacked the

time due to other responsibilities:

> I will do what I can to address ELL needs with regard to my course materials and
>
> delivery, based on Chemistry Education literature, but I simply don't have time to
>
> completely revolutionize what I am doing. Nobody has suggested that I am hard to
>
> understand in class. . . . There is always a balance between having enough time to fulfill
>
> all my other responsibilities and doing the best I can at teaching. If I taught full time, I
>
> would be able to make a better job of it. So far as getting tenure goes, "good enough" has
>
> to be the aim for my teaching. (Peter's Reflective Journal Entry #3, 2022)

Peter's response clearly reflects institutional priorities that faculty have internalized and which,

in turn, manifest themselves in how they view their teaching responsibilities and what that

implies for ELL instruction, a point I discuss in the next section.

> Isabella, likewise, expressed similar concerns and described the tension she felt when she
>
discussed modifying instruction for ELLs and what that implied for her current teaching

responsibilities:

> Added responsibilities do add tension to my work and, I think, also to the ability of
>
> students to learn in my classes. ELL students, as students with any kind of special need,
>
> require more time and attention than the time I can typically devote when I have classes
>
> with 30 or 40 students. This is more the case when we are talking about classes that
>
> require time to revise complex readings and to help students improve their writing. The
>
> type of content I teach requires trust and engagement, and neither of these can be
>
> cultivated when there is a large number of students. Instead of being proactive when

identifying and attending to the needs of students, I have to be reactive, I respond and

adjust when I see a problem, but this is a stressful way to approach things for both the

students and me. (Isabella's Reflective Journal Entry #3, 2022)

While Isabella's point above about trust and engagement is valid and is contingent upon the

reduction of class size, especially when dealing with a diverse student population with various

learning needs, there seems to be a common thread that connects the concerns of all of the

participants primarily articulated in terms of their lack of knowledge in how to address ELLs'

various needs and thus their reluctance to assume any additional responsibilities given their

already heavy workload. Furthermore, Isabella's recognition of her lack of knowledge when

teaching ELL students does not help her to address their needs, as suggested in the following

response: "How to make adjustment . . . given the diverse range, that this student body

constitutes, we don't really know what to do about it. I wouldn't really know. I adjust to specific

situations, and I have adjusted to specific situations, but to have a systematic approach or a

methodology or a clue, no, I don't" (Focus Group #2, 2022, p. 9). Bianca's response below, in

turn, echoed the same concerns articulated by both Peter and Isabella:

I can only really say that . . . adding any "new responsibilities," no matter what they are,

creates emotional tension for me. As a contract employee who teaches a 4/4/1 load (4

courses in fall and spring, and a summer course), most of which are first-year writing

courses, which are intensive and more time consuming than an average lecture/exam/quiz

course, I have a lot of responsibility already. And, as a Composition & Rhetoric scholar, I

am also very well aware of the importance of my pedagogy . . . I am constantly

accounting for a variety of student learning needs—disability, language difference, race,

class and cultural differences, etc. Additionally, I am constantly accounting for the

complex means by which people actually learn how to write, and how my teaching

practices do or do not account for that. In fact, it goes further than me. (Isabella's

Reflective Journal Entry #3, 2022)

Taken together, these factors helped to crystallize some of the challenges faculty faced in

teaching and assessing such a diverse student population. Take Peter, for instance, whose

understanding of what it meant to modify instruction, given his subject area of chemistry,

differed dramatically from that of Bianca and Isabella. Unlike Bianca, for example, whose means

of assessment relied heavily on writing assignments in her composition courses, Peter's students

were instead assessed on their metacognitive skills when solving chemistry problems.

Accordingly, developing a chemistry assessment instrument, with ELL students in mind, could

substantially differ from other participants' assessments in content and format. While assessment

in chemistry relies heavily on solving problems and laboratory research assignments, which

require little substantial writing, in other disciplines, such as composition and history, students

are assessed on the clarity of written arguments, the flow of ideas, and the accuracy of

vocabulary and grammatical structures. Although assessments are designed to gauge a student's

strengths and weaknesses in any content area so that faculty have a better idea of where more

targeted learning can occur, the sciences in general are considered among the most difficult

subjects for most college students (Bifuh-Ambe, 2009, 2011; Exposito & Favela, 2003; Roesingh

& Douglas, 2011), let alone ELLs who are required to learn the content specific terminologies of

given fields of science while still learning academic English (Bifuh-Ambe, 2009, 2011).

In his attempt to find a "fair" way to assess his students' knowledge, Peter described the

way his discipline differs from those of his co-participants, with the exception of Julius who also

taught chemistry and shared the same struggle as Peter:

> I guess I'm probably in a slightly different position from the rest of you in my subject area. Written outputs for you guys are the assessed materials. And so, you could potentially detect from those what the exact issues are. I have the impression, in my subject area, it is just this lack of understanding of a language . . . this thing in the background that could do harm. And it's a little difficult to get a handle on because how well they're actually writing isn't one of the assessment criteria for me, as long as it's comprehensible. (Focus Group 2, 2022, p. 7)

As mentioned in his statement, Peter's comprehension of his students' answers was one important criterion that he looked for when assessing his students' chemistry exams or lab reports. However, he did not necessarily view the lack of comprehensible answers as a problem strictly associated with ELLs, but rather one that was common among their native peers as well. And thus, he struggled to pinpoint the reasons behind it. Based on our discussions during the interview and focus group meetings, it was evident from Peter's statement below how he questioned his expertise when attempting to measure his students' knowledge:

> And believe me, there are plenty of native English speakers who have written incomprehensible answers in my assessments. And so, it is rather difficult to tell why. I will read. I haven't read the articles you sent me about learning in chemistry classroom, but I think I should definitely make a point of reading it certainly for the future. So I may have a better idea of what I can get at, what I can do a bit better, but I don't know how I'm going to measure it. (Focus Group 2, 2022, p. 7)

It is worth highlighting, as suggested above, how the process by which Peter attempted to make meaning of his teaching practice in general, but more specifically to determine how to assess the students in his course, triggered his critical reflection about the effectiveness of his course for his

ELLs and how that effectiveness was evaluated by his students at the end of each semester.

During a focus group discussion, for instance, and through an exchange with other participants,

Peter questioned why the issue of assessment in relation to student struggles with the English

language never came up in his student evaluations, which led him to further wonder to what

extent his ELL students were aware of the nature of their own learning experience—that is, how

being an ELL actually affected their learning and performance in his class. Peter equally

hypothesized that, even if his ELLs did not express their concerns about their lack of English

proficiency in their evaluation, that did not mean that they were not struggling in his class. He

wanted his class to be inclusive and supportive of his ELLs' learning. Peter wondered what

should and could be done beyond trying to be clear and making the effort to interact more with

his ELLs. But he was also reminded that it is not an easy endeavor for him to reach all of his

students, to include everyone:

> You look at student surveys at the end of semesters. Stuff like this just never comes up. I
>
> don't know to what extent they know being an ELL affects their learning in my class.
>
> Nobody ever said that I was incomprehensible, but that doesn't mean they don't struggle
>
> with. If you don't have to think about understanding the English, that's going to make
>
> things easier in any class, including mine. But I reflect often on what I should be doing as
>
> far as explaining things with clarity and trying to interact a bit more with students. It's not
>
> very easy with a class of typically 60 to get everybody involved. Some people would tell
>
> you that it is very easy, but I have not found it easy. If I ask a question, sometimes you
>
> can hear a pin drop. (Focus Group 2, 2022, p. 8)

Peter's critical reflection and self-interrogation signaled a possible shift in his disposition about

his practice and instructional decisions and what that means for his ELL students' learning. A

progression in the train of his reflective thinking was emerging. Compared to his interview and

previous focus group sessions, Peter seemed to be more engaged and more attuned to the big

picture—he saw a connection. For the first time he viewed his teaching experiences vis-à-vis his

ELL students with a critical lens. He seemed genuinely concerned about their learning and

success, despite not taking significant steps to change his practice due to his lack of knowledge

and expertise when teaching and assessing ELL students, which is closely aligned with the

literature (Andrade, 2010; Reeves, 2009). This discernible shift in Peter's disposition could

ultimately be a promising first step towards an actual change in his teaching practice.

Relevant to the different instructional objectives and approaches of the faculty

participants are Debbie's specific views of how assignments were created, and how assessments

were conducted in her ethnographic writing course. When she reflected on her course instruction,

for instance, assessment came first to mind. She seems to struggle finding successful strategies to

gauge her ELL students' learning. Debbie stated that COVID also shaped the types of

assessments she used. In fact, she indicated that because of COVID and how it impacted her

students, she geared the writing to shorter assignments that allowed her students to express

themselves and describe how the pandemic affected their lives and their loved ones. This, in turn,

lowered the stress level associated with writing considerably longer papers. Debbie found the

experience rewarding for both her and her students, especially her ELLs. Students showed

engagement in discussions of class readings, which she conducted via an online platform

(Padlet), assisted by guiding questions to help her ELLs students understand the context. She

noticed that this temporary form of assessment encouraged her students to participate, especially

those who tend to have a hard time participating in the physical classroom. And "because also

[she] was one of those kids who would never speak in class" (Focus Group 2, 2022, p. 9), she

thought this would be a nice way to involve those students who are usually quiet in her class (p.

9). Pertaining to her ELLs' assessment, such instructional methods also allowed her

> to get them to express themselves more. And then I can also see, if they're responding to
>
> a reading, I can see what their comprehension is. I can see who is really understanding it.
>
> And who's either just quoting or who doesn't really understand what they're reading. Or I
>
> can see who can express themselves more fully. And who only can say a few things.
>
> (Focus Group 2, 2022, p. 9)

It is important to note here how conscientious Debbie was about her students' needs, especially

during COVID, which further underscores the importance of knowing students' backgrounds and

building student-faculty relationships founded on mutual trust and caring. Similar to how Peter's

reflective process was informed by the focus group discussion, Debbie also incorporated other

participants' stories, as well as my input as a researcher, to reflect on her teaching experience and

how her practice impacted her students' learning, especially under pandemic conditions. This is

evident in Debbie's comment below:

> So, it's also assessment for me to see where they're at. So that allows me then to do what
>
> Bianca was saying, to constantly reflect on my teaching and adjust to students. But the
>
> other piece of this, and this maybe comes from what you presented to us in the beginning
>
> of this study, Carma, like three parts of learning a language is the effective part, which
>
> becomes so big during COVID, is, and I find this semester, or this year, students are still
>
> suffering from all of the stuff that happened during COVID. (Focus Group 2, 2022, p. 9)

It is imperative to note here, however, that, while Debbie's approach to instruction and

assessment seemed responsive to and rewarding for all of her students, particularly her ELLs, it

was not clear to me if her instructional strategies were provisional, contingent upon the

pandemic, or if they were a standard part of her pre-existing practice. While this presents an interesting question, given the scope of this study, it would take me too far afield to address it in this context.

Bianca shared similar views when reflecting on teaching her ELL students. When asked how she modified her practice, consistent with Debbie's reflection on the pandemic, Bianca shared her thoughts on the changes she made to her instruction in the context of the pandemic:

> I think what is interesting is, as much as I know, all of us hated that sudden slip in 2020, into online teaching. And as much as I hated it, on one level, I've taken some of the things I was doing online and use it. I had to alter certain things . . . and then use them in the classroom now. I think, now looking at it, some of those things I'm doing assisted my ELL students. So, for example, I project instruction on the board and I'm talking about, and it's written and [I'm] saying it now, being able to put that together, it allows for more cognitive integration for my ELLs. The more ways we interact with new knowledge, the more ways that [they] integrate it into [their] abilities and becomes part of [their] real knowledge, so to speak, that we can assess them. So, I'd say, that's a positive thing.
>
> (Focus Group 2, 2022, p. 20)

While assessing her ELL students' writing, however, Bianca reported having different assessment objectives by being more focused on the logic of her ELL students' arguments and whether they made sense to her. Unlike Isabella, her students' stories and experiences and how they conveyed them through their writing was far more important than their grammatical mistakes and problems with vocabulary.

> When I identify a student as ELL . . . I don't grade on grammar, anyway. Almost, I'd say, like, if I'm looking at a student essay . . . I don't care who they are, 95% of my grade is on

content, organization and ideas . . . Cause you make the argument, "Did you do the

assignment?" And the assignment doesn't say, "This must be grammatically perfect."

there's a threshold of course . . . I don't want it to look like you didn't even try, polish it.

So, it's more like, "What kind of effort do I think you actually put into this?" What are the

ideas they're expressing? Do I understand their argument? . . . The way in which I grade

is flexible—it makes room for multiples. (Bianca's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 8)

Unlike Bianca, for Isabella, and despite her genuine desire and attempt to help her ELL

students and make her class a safe place for them to express themselves and have an equitable

learning experience, as mentioned in a previous section, there was still an apparent disconnect

between her good intentions and her actual practice. She seemed to put more emphasis on

grammar and vocabulary when assessing her students. If her students did not adhere to correct

grammatical rules and structures, for instance, that still influenced her grading when assessing

their essays, including those of her ELLs. According to Isabella, grammar was an important

vehicle for her students to learn and through which to show their understanding of the historical

content *she viewed* as important for their learning. Thus, knowing how to properly conjugate

verbs in the past tense, for instance, is deemed relevant to a student's ability to analyze historical

texts, since, Isabella argued, how can students even talk about historical events if they don't

know how to conjugate a verb in the past tense: "The problem with teaching historical thinking is

that the only way to really learn that is by reading the work of historians. So it's not even just

about language, but it's about certain constructions. It's about how arguments get put together in

a correct format and proper past tense" (Isabella's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 10).

It, furthermore, seemed evident from Isabella and Debbie's exchange on how to best

assess their students based on their disciplinary-specific content that Isabella's formal

understanding of the English language, based on her prior education, knowledge, and technical

linguistic training, informed her view of what is important for her students to know and thus how

to properly assess them. For example, Isabella argued:

> one of the constant things that I continuously correct are two things. One is, students
>
> never for some reason use the past tense, the straight past tense. This is history, this is
>
> stuff that happened. There's no reason to use the "would," the "should," or "is," but
>
> "was." And the second one is the passive voice and that one is a big one, because again,
>
> it's not just a matter of clarity in terms of like grammatical clarity, but it's like in history,
>
> you're trying to say that somebody did something, right. So I've never been able to
>
> understand why that happens, but again, I can't say that this is only something that non-
>
> native speakers do; everybody does it. (Focus Group 1, 2022, p. 10)

Isabella's stance clearly differed from Debbie, who as a native English speaker acquired English

the way native speakers naturally acquire a language, a process reinforced by her former position

as an ESL high-school teacher, instructed to de-emphasize grammar and emphasize content. In

other words, whereas Isabella viewed some of her students' struggles in her history class as a

result of a lack of clarity in their argument rooted primarily in their limited understanding of

academic English grammatical structures, Debbie seemed to downplay a formal approach to

teaching writing grounded in the explicit teaching of grammar in favor of a focus on content.

However, Debbie's reference to "structure of language" (Focus Group 1, 2022, p. 9) and to

subject-verb agreement in the quote below suggests that for Debbie as much as for Isabella

grammar was still represented explicitly or implicitly as the key to her students' ability to clearly

express their ideas in writing. As Debbie explained:

And when I was teaching in high school, we're not allowed to teach grammar, they don't

want you to do grammar lessons at all, it's all based on content . . . but the structure of the

language so students can express themselves clearly like the subject and the verb have to

agree. Otherwise, we don't know who you're talking about or who's doing what right. So,

while spelling might not be so important and plurals may or may not be important,

depending on the question and articles may not be important, subject and verb

connections are really important. And the structure, the order of sentences in a paragraph

might be really important, even if each sentence isn't that beautiful. (Focus Group # 1,

2022, p. 9)

However, one could reasonably assume that their different perspectives on what is important to

assess in their students' writing could also be attributed to the different disciplines in which each

teaches. While the study of history stresses an objective approach to past figures and events, the

nature of the ethnographic writing that Debbie teaches is centered on students recounting their

subjective experiences. But Isabella generalizing the struggle as one not limited to ELLs but

common to all students was problematic, since her focus on grammar as the key to clarity in

historical thinking seemed to overlook the specific needs of ELL students as they struggle to

acquire proficiency in the academic language. By underscoring the necessity of the proper usage

of the past tense and the active voice in historical analysis, she implicitly and unintentionally

placed her ELL students at a disadvantage since they were still acquiring the academic language,

let alone discipline-specific terminology and the grammatical skills to express their ideas. As

such, her ELL students were the ones who will be most adversely affected by her assessment

rationale. Isabella herself explained her thinking as follows: "Because in history language is our

instrument. Students complain about that. They get marked down for bad grammar or poor

vocabulary or something like that. And they're like, 'Oh my God, this is not an English class. Why are you marking me that for that?' It's like, well, again I always tell them, of course, the only way I get to know what you're thinking is by reading it. (Isabella's Interview, 2022, p. 13).

While Isabella's point was valid—students need to know English grammar and vocabulary—and thus she does not support lowering her standards, she nonetheless seemed to disregard the fact that her ELLs' level of proficiency in academic English did not necessarily allow them to elaborate on the structure, content, and context of historical texts in the way she expected. To teach all her students, including ELLs, how to actually achieve such a goal—that of being able to understand a text in its historical context—it could, thus, be very beneficial, especially for ELLs, to learn academic English content-specific terminologies. Isabella's perspective also aligns with the literature review for this research on how faculty tend to wrestle with two alternatives when teaching ELLs in various disciplines, especially those in which writing is an essential focus. The first is to maintain high English standards at the expense of ELL students' success, which can thus potentially weaken their English language skills and negatively impact their learning experience. The second is to lower academic expectations for their ELLs so as to enhance the latter's ability to achieve by allowing them to interact primarily in their native language, and thus to "dumb it down" for them, as it were (Andrade, 2010; Meyer, 2000). In another instance, however, Isabella also wrestled with the catch-22 of these two alternatives, through the position she assumed to assess one of her ELL students with a learning disability. This is how she described her assessment modification:

> A lot of the times I've had students that come to class with a very severe restriction in
> their reading or in both reading and comprehension . . . And what we do is shorten the
> paper . . . and give them something significantly shorter reading to do. With some of

them in the past, I've worked with a student who had both A.D.D, something like that,

like a learning disability, but also was working on a second language. He was from

Portugal or Brazil. And for him, I remember what we did is, since he had so much trouble

getting through long pieces of reading, so we have to lower for him the amount of

reading that he was doing. I figured, for a student like that, again, the focus for me is

always the learning. So if a student like that comes to me and that student is going to

learn whether he reads 100 pages, or whether he reads 50 pages. (Isabella's Interview

Transcript, 2022. p. 7)

This account exemplified Isabella's struggle addressing a double barrier to learning that one of

her ELL students faced and how she resolved that in her instructional and assessment decisions.

While doing the best she could under the circumstances, she still found the process complex and

challenging. However, it was not clear whether the accommodation she made was intended to

address her student's disability or her student's status as an ELL.

But despite what appears in the above case to be at least an implicit recognition of and

willingness to respond to the differing needs of her ELL students, Isabella explicitly suggested

that modifying her practice for her ELL students is not necessarily in their best interest. This was

illustrated in her reflection below:

Reflecting on my own experience as having to learn and operate in an academic

environment, in a second language, I think that the other level of that reflection is

whether there might be a limit to how much that is actually beneficial to your students.

So I think as much as we want to, I think that note that you gave us about how sometimes

in trying to make things easier, we hurt, we end up hurting people. In other words, there

needs to be a way in which we can adjust things, but there might be, what they call a

point of no returns, in which, if you start to do that too much, you might end up hurting

students. So I think that's another layer of complexity to this issue. (Isabella's Interview

Transcript, 2022, p. 8)

Equally noteworthy here is the fact that Isabella seemed to base her argument on a discussion

during our focus group that followed one of my informative presentations in which I explained

how "dumbing it down" can backfire due to its negative effects on ELLs' abilities to attain

proficiency in the academic language. While her concerns were valid, she seemed nevertheless to

confuse two approaches here—modifying one's practice is, in fact, a more complex endeavor

and thus does not equate with a mere "dumbing it down" approach by lessening the content for

ELLs to make it easier for them (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011; Exposito & Favela, 2003; Mathews, 2020;

Paris & Alim, 2017). The latter is not, likewise, indicative of how faculty should approach their

teaching if their goal is, in fact, to make it more culturally and linguistically responsive for their

ELL students' needs and thus more inclusive and equitable for all of their students. How these

two approaches to modifying instruction (lowering vs. maintaining high standards) are

understood and implemented by each participant are clearly different. And hence the nature and

degree of reflectivity as a process varies significantly from one participant to another, which

underscores the tension of this process and thus the complexity of this analysis.

From a theoretical point of view, Isabella seemed to lack the knowledge of how language

is acquired and the importance of scaffolding the structure of the English language while

teaching history to her ELLs to help them build on their already existing knowledge and skills

(Cummins, 2000; Gibbons, 2002, 2008; Schleppegrell, 2004). The research further underscores

the need for faculty to shift their disposition from that of a deficit-gazer to an asset-oriented

advocate by acknowledging the strengths of each student's background and experience and

empowering them by incorporating those strengths into the learning experience (Exposito &

Favela, 2003) instead of focusing on what they lack or do not know (Andrade, 2010; De Jon &

Harper, 2005; Paris & Alim, 2017).

Interestingly, when Isabella was asked which specific strategies she used with her ELL

students that she typically did not use with her native English-speaking students to help them

understand the sometimes complex ideas and language associated with historical texts, she

responded as follows:

> I think talking to them is really important, because I said in my experience, they're very
>
> good at articulating their ideas verbally. Like I said, they tend to be good communicators.
>
> I think in a way they have to make themselves understood. And it's a very Socratic
>
> process they need to use, in the sense that like, okay, what do you want to say? I'm
>
> struggling with my paper, or I don't know what my paper is going to, or I don't
>
> understand this idea. I always try to identify a place in the reading or something.
>
> (Isabella's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 14)

While Isabella's suggestion is a common and effective strategy to promote student discussion,

the term "Socratic approach" as a discussion strategy could present comprehension barriers to

her ELL students, as they might not be familiar with the meaning of content-specific

terminology, and thus hinder their ability to understand the text and/or be a part of classroom

discussion. This is, in fact, consistent with the literature reviewed in this study, which draws

attention to how often the different levels of ELLs' English proficiency may hinder the ability of

these students to interpret the text (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011). In this case, though unintentionally,

Isabella assumed that just because her students were in college, they should all be familiar with

the term "Socratic method" (Bifuh-Ambe, 2011; De Kleine, 2015). Her account thus offers a

valuable example of how the existence of various categories of ELLs, who differ in levels of

literacy, English proficiency, and prior schooling, can impact their ability to interpret academic

language and can often inhibit their understanding of content-specific terminology, which most

ELLs struggle with (de Kleine, 2015; de Kleine & Lawton, 2015, 2018; De Jon et al., 2018).

According to the reviewed research, this is a problem that scaffolding, for instance, as a

constructivist strategy (Harrison & Shi, 2016; Irvine, 2003; Kanno & Cromley, 2013; Kardia,

1998; Karathanos & Mena, 2014), can better address. Isabella's assumption is understandable,

since, without any prior knowledge and awareness of the different categories of ELLs and the

range of abilities that these encompass, it is difficult to distinguish between and accurately assess

the different levels of English proficiency among individual ELL students in a given classroom.

So, for example, the assumption is often made that because students are able to articulate

themselves clearly in spoken English, their reading skills in English are at an equivalent level.

But again, this is a common misconception among educators who are often not familiar with the

diverse nature of the ELL student population, as discussed in the previous theme concerning

faculty's misconceptions when teaching ELL students.

Most participants seemed to refrain from implementing substantial changes in their

practice or truly reflecting on their own perceptions of and beliefs about ELLs; rather, they

conceived of change as merely a supplemental element that they could incorporate without

otherwise changing their instruction in any fundamental way, just as the literature suggested

(Andrade, 2010; Gallager & Hann, 2018; Kanno & Cromley, 2013). Given the changes required

to adequately address their ELLs' needs, this perspective was predictable and hence

understandable, since such changes would necessarily lead faculty beyond their comfort zone

and create yet another responsibility but without the necessary training or support. Furthermore,

the aura of expertise which surrounds the profession and which faculty typically feel the need to

convey (Andrade, 2010; Bifuh-Ambe, 2011; de Kleine, 2015), coupled with their already heavy

workload and the obligation to do research, made it more difficult to even begin to grasp how

their lack of knowledge about ELL instruction implicitly imposed limitations on and exposed

shortcomings in their own approaches to addressing the needs of their ELL students (Lucas et al.,

2008, 2015; Kanno & Cromley, 2013). So it is not surprising, then, that, for some of my

participants, the self-reflective process during focus group discussions and reflective journals,

rather than leading to a genuine process of self-critique, discovery, and change (Gay, 2010; Gay

& Kirkland, 2003), seemed instead to offer an occasion for participants to justify the reasons

behind their present teaching methodology, informed by the very misconceptions they have

already internalized.

In this theme, I examined how faculty's prior experiences served as a *de facto* parameter

for their teaching philosophy, practice, and instructional decisions when teaching ELLs, and how

they reflected and viewed their role in modifying their instruction for ELLs in their specific

discipline. Thus, the necessity to shift their focus beyond the process-product (Opfer & Pedder,

2011) and to move toward a common understanding of how their teaching was shaped by the

interconnectedness of their experiences and identities as both multiple and socially constructed.

However, it is equally important to acknowledge the various barriers faculty confront during

their practice as they attempt to address those needs of their ELL students.

Theme 4: Faculty Challenges and Tensions When Teaching ELLs

In the previous section I addressed faculty's reflective process when attempting to modify

their instruction for their ELL students. In the process, other prominent challenges for and

tensions among participants were also revealed and these constitute the focus of this theme. It is

important to point out from the start here the interrelation of the subthemes, which constitute the

pillars of this theme—or, in other words, how participants' tensions are triggered by the

multilayered challenges they are confronted with during their practice and while attending to

their ELLs' needs, which, in turn, adds to the intricacy of this analysis. The following are the

subthemes that have taking shape in this context: a) The lack of institutional clarity and

structure; b) Faculty workload and time allocation; c) Faculty perceptions of their level of

knowledge and preparedness when teaching ELLs; d) The isolating nature of academia and

faculty emotional tension; and e) Faculty Shifting attitudes towards their responsibilities when

teaching ELLs: "not knowing" vs. "not being able." I explain below each subtheme separately

and how these challenges intersect in participants' stories.

The Lack of Institutional Clarity and Structure

As the title of each but the first of the subthemes for this section suggests, the challenges

faculty face and the tensions that result are typically experienced at the individual level in their

day-to-day professional lives. But these challenges are also rooted in the lack of institutional

clarity and structure as revealed in the participants' responses.

While participants have discipline-specific knowledge, employ a range of educational

skills, and engage in scholarship, they were still in need of adequate training to prepare them to

teach diverse students, such as ELLs, in courses specific to their respective disciplines.

Participants conveyed the lack of sustained support necessary to prepare them to help their ELL

students achieve the level of academic proficiency needed for their success. Participants' stories

revealed common stressors that further inhibited them from effectively attending to the need of

their ELLs. Among these is the general lack of institutional clarity. In fact, during focus group

meetings most participants jointly recounted their experience of not being effectively informed

about detailed aspects of their teaching and related service responsibilities. For example, Peter

voiced his views on the lack of guidance, effective communication, and clear and detailed

instructions that could help new faculty adjust to their academic roles and thus reduce some of

the pressure associated with the profession, especially for junior faculty like himself. This is how

Peter recalled his own experience as a newly hired tenure-track professor in research 2 striving

comprehensive university:

> Well, I don't know if there's anything they could do to get rid of [the pressure]. I mean,
>
> most interesting jobs come with a bit of pressure . . . But you don't get a lot of guidance
>
> about how to manage the relative balance of these things . . . you arrive on your first day
>
> and it's like, "Well, there's your desk. Get on with it" sort of thing. You don't get a lot of
>
> specific guidance as to what's required, some fairly vague intonations of what you need to
>
> do. But none of these things you need clarification on are written down in a contract
>
> anywhere, or anything like that. They're all fairly subjective requirements. It says you
>
> have to demonstrate effective teaching and research, but what those are in the eye of the
>
> beholder, really. (Focus Group 3, 2022, p. 18)

When she was navigating the complex and demanding route to promotion and tenure as a

junior faculty, Isabella said she also felt overwhelmed due to the lack of clarity in the

institutional and departmental policies, requirement, and expectations. She described the process

of assembling her file for tenure as a daunting one and expressed frustration at the lack of

specific guidelines about the kind of research needed for tenure. This was evident in her

statement below, as she reflected on her experience of the tenure track process:

> There's always been a bit of an unspoken thing that, yes, we wanted you to be a good
>
> teacher, but you're not really going to be rewarded for being a good teacher. Doesn't

matter how good you are. And even if you do a lot of service, you're not going to be

rewarded for doing that either. I had a bit of a rough time getting tenured, even though I

had the publications that I thought were warranted. And the service, I had pretty

significant service and I think I was a decent teacher. . . . I was told when I arrived like,

"No, just publish articles and don't worry about publishing a book." So, I was working on

articles, and I got the articles that I was told I needed. And then turned out that maybe

that wasn't enough . . . it was not pretty . . . they did not promote me until that book was

out in the press . . . And now it's the same thing to go to full [professor]. I basically need

another book . . . I've done a ton of service. But in reality, all I know that it's the one

thing that is going to get me promoted is that book . . . it's not going to be anything else.

(Focus Group 3, 2022, pp. 16–17)

In addition to the evident frustration and stress she experienced as consequence of the lack of

clear guidance from her department on publication expectations, Isabella's story further exposed

the frequent disconnect between faculty's needs and institutional structures and policies.

Another factor that contributed to faculty tension and the challenges they faced was the

lack of autonomy. Faculty expressed dissatisfaction when addressing the question of autonomy

in their practice. For example, when Isabella was asked, "What would you like to see in place

that would help you lessen the pressure and tension you're constantly feeling?" she replied,

"Actually, I would ask for two things. Well, one is to be listened to. I mean, I think speaking to

Bianca's point of view is like, Don't tell us what to do, just let us do the things that we know how

to do. But second, clarity" (Focus Group 3, 2022, p. 19).

Similarly, Bianca was visibly annoyed discussing the frequently changing rules and policies in her department and the limits this imposes on her professional autonomy. As she described it:

> we were piloting something and then they just scraped it. And then they changed the schedule that we worked endlessly on to be able to use. And then they made these other changes and new demands . . . I can't even keep track of it. Literally every semester there was something else. So, excuse my language, but I want to say like "Help us and leave us the fuck alone." Like, I've been here 10 years . . . and we've never gone more than a year without some radical change being imposed upon us, by the outside of course, not stuff we asked for, because God forbid, we get what we actually ask for. . . . Occasionally we do, but that's usually a big fight too. So, that's like help us helpfully, not in ways that don't actually help us because we put a lot of friggin' work into designing this curriculum. (Focus Group 3, 2022, p. 18)

Compounding the problem of the lack of professional autonomy for faculty is the general lack of institutional support, manifested most clearly in the lack of resources that would support faculty in their teaching practice. Participants reported feeling stressed out and overwhelmed carrying out their normal teaching responsibilities while attempting to accommodate those students with various linguistic and learning needs. Included in the lack of resources is the scarcity of regular, discipline-specific professional development, specifically designed to support and adequately prepare faculty with respect to ELL instruction and assessment.

Likewise, there was a shortage of sustained, inquiry-based professional development opportunities where faculty conduct their own inquiry. Participants reported this as another stress-related challenge. Faculty-driven professional development would help participants to

reflect on their practice to better attend to the needs of an ever-diversifying student body.

Additionally, participants reported not being receptive to professional development that did not

adequately address their needs and seemed to be more like a divergence from their practice than

an effective supplement. Faculty thus avoided these, believing they did not offer useful ideas,

methods, techniques, etc. for meeting the various challenges they face. This is relevant to the

research for this study which emphasized the importance of making professional development

relevant to faculty's disciplines and needs (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; McGriff,

2015; Takeuchi & Esmonde, 2011).

Furthermore, there was an absence of small learning communities where faculty conduct

their own inquiry and where they share with colleagues concerns and challenges specific to their

practice without being implicitly or explicitly judged or retaliated against. For instance, Bianca

expressed her desire to create her own professional development after being inspired by our

focus group discussion: "I would love to create professional development, you know, small one

here and there, and invite you guys, you know, I'd love to, let's partner up. Let's do something. I

would love it" (Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 21). Bianca also pointed to another challenge

specific to adjunct faculty, who must often commute between different colleges to cobble

together the equivalent of a full-time position, and who may thus not have the luxury of time to

attend professional development:

> Doing PDs when you're an adjunct, teaching two courses or three course in different
>
> schools–your commute–and you make nothing . . . some adjuncts I know are in public
>
> assistance (laughs) and you really want them to do PD work? Good luck. We absolutely
>
> invite them to our department meetings, only a handful show up. We don't blame them.
>
> We understand why they can't. Same thing with PD. A hand full, small handful will show

up. It's a mess. Constantly . . . You're supposed to do it out of the love of your heart, and

what? You can't pay your electric bill? Come on. You can't do that. (laughs) (Bianca's

Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 20)

Faculty Workload and Time Allocation

The manifold demands on and expectations of faculty amplified the challenges they

faced, especially when they attempted to shift from content instructors to instructors of content

and language for their ELL students (Andrade, 2010). The workload presented yet another

central challenge (Costa et al., 2005; de Kleine & Lawton, 2015). In fact, the term workload

itself disclosed an array of responsibilities that faculty assume in higher education. According to

participants, covering the course content, for instance, was considered among the most

challenging tasks which alone was quite time consuming and which contributed to the feeling of

being overwhelmed, let alone other responsibilities such as teaching preparation, classroom

instruction, office hours, advising, conferencing with students, attending department and

committee meetings, reading, grading and commenting on student papers, completing service

work, and conducting research and reviewing journals. This was consistent with the research that

states that faculty usually spend an average of 50–60 hours a week on job related tasks (Costa et

al., 2005; Dahm et al., 2015; Misra et al., 2012). To meet institutional expectations, participants

needed to successfully address all the above elements of the profession. The pressure or tension

of meeting those expectations was then compounded by the need to address the needs of the

diverse students in their classrooms, which itself required the allocation of additional time that

many faculty, as consequence of their many other responsibilities, simply did not have.

The data showed that what seemed to be most challenging for participants was the large

size of their classes. Faculty reported having a hard time achieving work balance as they struggle

to perform their academic responsibilities while teaching classes that average from 30 to 60

students, depending on the discipline. For example, Peter reported having 60 students in his

chemistry class which, together with lab hours and the need to attend to students' questions

outside of the classroom, limited his opportunities to interact with his ELL students, thus making

it virtual impossible to identify and address their needs. Peter's experience, as he recounted it

below, exemplified the effect of large class size on ELLs' learning and the student-faculty

relationship as confirmed in the literature review for this study (Bifuh-Ambe, 2009; Costa et al.,

2005):

> Well, I also could do a bit more with them [ELLs] if I didn't have so many students. I get
>
> to know the people who talk and the people who come to see me, a bit better than the
>
> others, but I don't know, not many students are that keen to interact with faculty. And I
>
> checked with my colleagues and it's not just me. I don't get a very good handle on, who is
>
> struggling with what and why? I only have a few data points each semester to try and
>
> work that out. And can only come to a fairly general conclusions rather than specific help
>
> for specific people. (Focus Group 2, 2022, p. 12)

Similarly, Bianca, as an instructional specialist, expressed the feeling of being constantly

overwhelmed with the very time-consuming tasks of grading and student conferencing for her

four large writing classes. As she said: "Workload is huge problem . . . as a full-time

instructional specialist . . . I teach a 4/4 load and I teach writing, which it's highly intensive to

give feedback on X number of essays" (Focus Group, 2022, p. 10). Given the labor-intensive

grading required of her, and the demands of her workload in general, Bianca also questioned

who should have the responsibility for addressing the needs of ELL students:

So workload is a great deal. And it makes me think about what Isabella is talking about . . . like the forms we get from the disability office and accommodation for students, and yet there is no mechanism for ELLs. If the faculty member can't do it because of their workload, well then who takes the responsibility, upon whose shoulders does it fall? Well, it's got to be the university, on one level. They've got to pick up the slack somewhere. They're not paying us so, help us out here. But we don't get that. (Focus Group, 2022, p. 10)

Bianca's question precisely articulated the problem—indeed, "upon whose shoulders does it fall?" And because of her rank as a full-time instructional specialist, which did not afford her the job security that comes with tenure, this understandably created even more tension for her than for the other participants.

Like Bianca, Isabella shared her dismay about the impact of large classes both on her and on her students' learning and progress, and she reflected on the lost opportunities that might otherwise have been available to further assist them with their papers. The result was frustration and a sense of emotional exhaustion, as she explains below:

I think, the whole workload thing is key because even when you think about the broad range of English Language Learners, and then you have, students with disabilities and then you have just your normal set of students, who you're trying to convince to do the work. And I can't tell you how many times, my thought process is like, I'm reading these papers and I'm thinking, if I only had half of these students, I could do just so much more with them. And if you have, 60 or 30 students, and you just constantly feel like you can't possibly do enough. It just gets you to that point where you said, well, I'm just going to

do what I can do and the hell with the rest. Because I just can't give any more of this. (Focus Group, 2022, p. 11)

Julius's experience was a little different, as he was heavily involved in curriculum construction in his department. He served as a curriculum coordinator in addition to his regular teaching load and was also responsible for the supervision of 20 instructors, some of whom were ELLs. Julius described his workload experience:

I work with lab instructors, so not so much with students, but . . . still, I work directly with ELL students, but in running the general chemistry curriculum, I'm coordinating it, so I work with about 20 people each semester. And actually, some of them are ELLs, so they have that same barrier. . . because they're sort of my peers, but maybe not exactly peers. And it's always delicate how the balance is made. (Julius' Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 2)

For Debbie, however, concerns about the workload and time allocation seemed to be among the most significant challenges faculty face when trying to teach their ELL students. This is clear from her response during a focus group meeting:

I'm new in this particular world, but from what all of you have been saying and what I've heard from other colleagues, it seems that certainly our workload and available time is a factor. But it seems like outside of those of us who have second language learners, most faculty aren't trained in to recognize or to adjust for ELLs. It doesn't seem like, it's part of the university priority. Does that seem true to you all? (Focus Group 3, 2022, p. 9)

Debbie's observation further underscored the role of the university itself in fostering an equitable and inclusive learning experience for all students, including ELLs, and the awareness that the university has not, in fact, made this a priority.

Faculty Perceptions of Their Level of Knowledge and Preparedness When Teaching ELLs

Except for Debbie, who felt prepared but lacked the time and resources to address her ELLs' needs, my participants reported feeling generally unprepared when teaching ELL students. Their notion of preparedness varied, however, based on their professional background and their views on ELL instruction. Isabella, for instance, when asked if she feels prepared when teaching her ELL students, replied, "I can't say I feel prepared . . . I'm always winging it. I don't feel necessarily very prepared" (Isabella's Interview Transcript, 2022, p.11). Debbie's response, on the other hand, suggested a gradual progression: "Well, one of the things I have to say is that there's a lot of skills involved in teaching that my first five or six years I felt like I was just learning from scratch all the time. It was only over the last few years that I felt confident" (Debbie's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 6.).

Regardless of the level of preparedness, most faculty still seemed to lack the knowledge of and the adequate preparation to address their ELLs' linguistic and cultural needs which affected their sense of self-efficacy and motivation. The data revealed various factors that contributed to the perpetuation of this lack of preparedness among faculty. Two in particular seemed of great importance. The first was the lack of a practical identification system enabling faculty to identify the ELL students registered for their courses prior to the beginning of the term. Such a system would help faculty to effectively prepare their syllabi, content curriculum, and instruction materials to better adapt to their ELL students' needs. This basic method of mapping the student demographic would be critical for faculty to embed responsive teaching in targeted strategies that would benefit a diverse group of students. Relevant to this lack of a protocol and/or mechanism was Isabella's response to the focus group questions: How do you

identify your ELL student in your classroom? And is there any institutional protocol that would

help faculty identify their ELLs in advance?

> If we think about how the mechanism we have to address the learning disabilities, we get
>
> a little form from the disability center telling us, this student will need this, and this
>
> student will talk to you about what specific needs for your class. But we don't have
>
> anything like that for second language learners. . . . *If* we recognize them, we did just
>
> because of our interaction. But even if we do, given what you said, the diverse range that
>
> this student body constitutes, we don't really know what to do about it. I wouldn't really
>
> know. I adjust to specific situations, and I have adjusted to specific situations, but to have
>
> a systematic approach or a methodology or a clue, no, I don't. (Focus Group, 2022, p. 10)

Peter's response was similar—"No, you would have no idea. No, there would be no way of

determining that" (Peter's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 3)—and Julius was in agreement as

well:

> I think it's a really relevant. And I have to be honest that in 10 years that I've taught, I've
>
> never explicitly asked that question. I've never really gone out to see who among my
>
> students is an ELL. I think that is a learning point for me. I think it's an eye opener. I
>
> don't have an easy way of finding out. I don't think our institution is really providing
>
> anything . . . I don't know. I've never seen anything about it . . . I think awareness among
>
> faculty and institution to own this and to say these are the students that we serve, what are
>
> the tools that you need, etc. faculty can use them to help the students in this respect?"
>
> (Julius' Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 3)

Perhaps one of the most prominent examples of faculty's lack of knowledge about the

existing range of ELL student categories and the various levels of English proficiency was how

often Isabella mistakenly identified students of hers whose native language was not in fact English. Misguided by the fluency of some of her ELL students during class discussion, Isabella assumed that their writing skills were on par with their speaking skills. Once she read their papers, however, she was surprised to see how much they struggled with the written language. She explained: "I've been in that situation in which I have students that they articulate their ideas, and they communicate very well in the classroom during class discussions. But then I get their papers, and it's just like, I can't recognize that this is the same student, that is so articulate in class discussion" (Focus Group, p. 19). Her perspective. in fact, aligned with the research for this study which categorized those students as generation 1.5—students who were born or came to the U.S at a very young age and learned English at a very young age, mainly through conversing. Therefore, their conversational skills were like those of native speakers, but many of them still struggled to achieve English proficiency in other areas, such as reading and writing, due to the lack of a strong English foundation. On the other end of the spectrum, Isabella has also had ELL students who have struggled with basic communication, in addition to reading and writing in English, which made even understanding the content of class discussions difficult for them. Isabella shared her frustration and the challenges of meeting the diverse needs of such students, which, prior to my presentation, she was not really aware of. This lack of knowledge was a problem for all of my participants, which stands to reason, because without adequate professional training there is no way to know how to identify and differentiate between the various categories of ELLs. And without that knowledge, instruction and assessment become even more challenging for faculty, not least because for ELL students from a diverse range of linguistic and cultural backgrounds, with different prior schooling experiences, and with

different levels of literacy, content-specific terminology in textbooks can itself seem quite

foreign.

Isabella's lack of knowledge about what the term "ELL," based on the research, actually

incorporates, let alone what that looks like in the classroom, made her feel overwhelmed. And

she was not the only one who experienced such a feeling or tension—the tension of not

knowing—Bianca, Peter, and Julius all shared the same reaction when I presented on ELL

research for them during our first and second focus group meetings. Most participants expressed

their surprise but also their appreciation for the newly gained knowledge. Isabella in particular

had an "aha" moment which she shared later in the meeting. She appreciated having this space to

learn, for instance, that the term "ELL" is actually an umbrella term hosting other sub-terms that

previously caused her tension and led her to attribute her ELL students' deficiency in writing to

their lack of focus, motivation, and commitment to read the historic texts.

The second factor affecting faculty's degree of preparedness for teaching ELLs, which

emerged from their reflections, was rooted in the complexity of modifying instruction and

assessment for the diverse range of ELLs. As explained in the previous section on how faculty

modify their practice when teaching ELLs, one of the challenges they faced when teaching ELL

students with different educational backgrounds and various levels of literacy pertained to the

spectrum of disciplinary-specific assessments. Because different disciplines emphasized different

skills with different corresponding assessments, how student writing in English was assessed, for

example, and whether it was assessed at all, differed from one discipline to another. This

variation in ELLs' levels of proficiency along with the nature of assessment based on different

disciplines, can in turn have an impact on ELLs' performance if they were not proficient in

academic English. Thus, Peter's assessment of his ELL students differed from how Bianca or

Debbie graded their ELLs' writing, which, given their different disciplines, was reasonable and expected. But to factor in additional language-related criteria in order to gauge their ELLs' knowledge in their respective disciplines renders this task problematic. Peter, for instance, wondered aloud more than once in our focus group meetings how he should measure his ELL students' language skills in his chemistry class. As he said on one such occasion: "It's a little difficult to get a handle on because how well they're actually writing, isn't one of the assessment criteria, as long as it's comprehensible. I can do a bit better, but I don't know how I'm going to measure it" (Focus Group 2, 2022, p. 7). In my interview with her, Debbie shared a similar perspective:

> Right. You have ELLs or anybody that you can guess, based on their experience, they're struggling with the language . . . would you be willing to say, "Okay, you know what? If I correct them about the sequence of their argument . . . or based on the sequence of the paragraph, the vocabulary, the grammar, they're going to fail miserably. So, I have to kind of look for something else. We do several drafts . . . it helps all students, but especially those who were really struggling with the language. (Debbie's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 6)

Debbie's response further illustrated the conflict between the multiple needs of ELLs and the static nature of assessing the academic language.

The Isolating Nature of Academia: Faculty Emotional Tension

In addition to the tensions and challenges discussed above, what is commonly overlooked in such discussions is the isolating nature of academia and its effects on the sense of well-being and job satisfaction among faculty (Hargreaves, 1998; Kelchtermans, 2005). In the context of this study, the efforts of faculty to leverage their students' linguistic repertoires in the interest of

equitable learning without adequate institutional support could have an adverse effect on their emotional state as they wrestled with conflicted emotions (Shouse, 2005), wondering if they were doing or not doing enough for their ELLs. In this section of the analysis, I address how the isolating nature of academia affects participants' emotional well-being and how their sense of isolation is portrayed and voiced in their stories.

In compelling and interconnected stories, my participants described their feelings of being isolated and silenced in their institution. During interview and focus group meetings faculty talked about their teaching experiences with ELLs and the ways they individually navigated the challenges of their professional responsibilities. As I attended to the specific details of my correspondents' experiences and attempted to make meaning of their accounts, I could see a common thread emerge. Instances in my participants' stories evinced general feelings of isolation and underscored the sense of a disconnect between the emotional needs connected to their practice and the larger institutional climate. That disconnect and its effect could be seen, for example, in the frustration Debbie felt when speaking about the gap between theory and practice and in her expressed desire for practical strategies that would actually work to help address the needs of her ELLs. That larger disconnect between theory and practice, analogous to and overlapping with the disconnect between the institutional climate and faculty's emotional needs, could in turn be seen as manifested at the individual level in the distinction participants made between what they should have done and what they actually did.

In a somewhat different vein, but equally illustrative of the isolating effects of academia, was Isabella's reflection on her own learning experience as an ELL graduate student. For Isabella, it was not a matter of needing to reconcile the long-existing disconnect between theory and practice in her teaching, but rather trying to make meaning of her assimilative experience as

an ESL student in graduate school in England where she was isolated from her linguistic roots.

As she recalled:

> I was still put in a class to learn, to write in academic English and then talk about all the
>
> effective parts of how you hang onto your language . . . but then just the stuff that I would
>
> do for pleasure would be just reading in Spanish. And then when I finished my master's, I
>
> actually didn't get great grades. My English still needed to improve . . . but then [my
>
> advisor] said . . . "You need to stop reading in Spanish. You have to isolate yourself and
>
> stop reading and thinking in Spanish, because that's the only way you're going to improve
>
> your written English." (Focus Group 2, 2022, p. 7)

It is worth unpacking the significance of Isabella's story here. She was first told that her native

language *was* important to her learning and worth hanging onto, so she read in Spanish for the

pleasure of it—a pleasure no doubt rooted in the linguistic connection to culture and family—

only to realize that her grades were "not good" and that she needed to improve her English, but

now at the expense of her native language. Eager to succeed and prove that she belonged, she

took her advisor's recommendation: She shunned her first language and immediately tried to

"stop reading and thinking in Spanish." As her advisor said, "isolate yourself."

Isabella then experienced the isolating culture of academia as a newly hired tenure track

faculty member in the history department. Like many new junior faculty, as a newly minted

Ph.D. more comfortable in the role of budding researcher, Isabella was effectively thrown into a

classroom of undergraduates without being adequately prepared to teach them. She learned how

to survive in this environment, largely through trial and error, since there was no real support

system for junior faculty and little even in the way of clear guidance. And as suggested from an

excerpt of her story I quoted in a previous section, where she referred to the lack of clarity, it's

evident that a frustrating sense of isolation accompanied Isabella through the tenure process as well.

Bianca felt isolated in her professional role, too. Being an instructional specialist, she felt like an outsider within her own department, like she did not belong, thus echoing her personal experience as a student when she felt marginalized due to her socioeconomic status and the type of peers she socialized with. This sense of exclusion positively affected how she viewed her ELL students. She seemed to understand their struggles. The absence of a climate that is conducive to collegiality and which promotes autonomy and inspires collaboration also contributed to her sense of isolation.

The isolating nature of academia for my participants was, in turn, reinforced by their reluctance to reveal their emotional state or forge closer relationships with their students. "[I]t's emotionally exhausting," Isabella stated in response to a question about faculty-student relationships (Focus Group, 2022, p 18). Participants seemed hesitant to ask for help and support from colleagues which was, in part, an effect of the individualistic ethos that pervades the profession and the culture at large, but which also suggests the degree of emotional dissonance in academia (Owens et al., 2018) evident in the frequent lack of genuine collegiality. Especially given the premium placed on expertise, and the inevitable insecurities it thus cultivated, the academic climate in general was such that faculty felt uncomfortable explicitly revealing their emotional concerns and reactions due to the nature of academic climate (Costa et al., 2005; Owens et al., 2018). This perceived reaction among faculty was in line with the research reviewed in this study which indicated that faculty tend to avoid asking for assistance to perform responsibilities that do not necessarily fall into their area of expertise for fear of being perceived in some way as inadequate (Bifuh-Ambe, 2009; Costa et al., 2005; Andrade, 2010; De Jon et al.,

2018; de Kleine & Lawton, 2018). Adding to this tension was the "publish or perish" challenge which faculty felt they had to address while attending to their daily workload and attempting to strike a balance between the two. And job insecurity, which was a concern for Bianca, as an instructional specialist, and Debbie, as an adjunct, added another layer of emotional stress. Taken together, my participants' accounts of the various tensions and challenges associated with their work confirmed the importance of recent research on the role of emotions in the teaching profession and their effects on practice (Butler, 2015; Knupsky & Caballero, 2020; Saeli & Chung, 2019).

Faculty Shifting Attitudes Toward Their Responsibilities When Teaching ELLs: "Not Knowing" vs. "Not Being Able"

One of the principal challenges that faculty experienced with their ELL students was adequately responding to their needs in the context of institutional constraints that curtail the responses of faculty, and which thus result in a shifting in their disposition. The analysis revealed a constant shift in participants' responses to their role in addressing ELLs' linguistic needs between "not knowing" and "not being able." Institutional constraints created the conditions for the shifting between these two dispositions of "not knowing" and "not being able," and such constraints are most apparent in the challenges posed by faculty workload and institutional structure, as discussed above. But my participants' tension and shifting about their role was primarily rooted in the problem of how to reconcile themselves to the decision to teach the content or to teach the content and the English language.

As explained both above and in the methodology section, in addition to using critical pedagogy as my theoretical framework, I found Gilligan et al.'s (2003) Listening Guide concept particularly valuable as an additional analytical instrument for my analysis of this section to

grasp my participants' disposition shifting by carefully listening to their words as they reflect on their experiences. The Listening Guide method was combined with a thematic analysis of participants stories from the individual interviews and focus groups. This combined methodological analysis allowed for a better understanding of the subjectivity of both the participants and the researcher (Gilligan et al., 2003).

As a lens that was solely focused on making meaning of participants' words, the Listening Guide provided me with a method to identify the different voices, implicit and explicit, at play in my participants' responses, and to show how this polyphony translated their emotional dispositions and tensions by locating meaning in relation to the self (Sorsoli & Tolman, 2008). Given the purpose of my inquiry as it pertains to my research questions and the amount of data that could be reasonably managed in the scope of this study, I limited my I-poem constructions to two participants, Isabella and Peter. The I-poems were created based on the two participants' responses to questions from the interviews and focus group. Following the four steps of the Listening Guide method, the focus was to explore the emotional aspect of Isabella's and Peter's experiences as they oscillate between the "not knowing" and "not being able" in their accounts. Considering the expansive nature of this method and the space constraints here, I decided to condense the multiple pages of my two participants' responses into a single page. To compose the I-poems it was thus necessary to extract excerpts of my participants words and condense them in a coherent and meaningful way. But conscious of the fact that such an approach could distort the meaning of my two participants' stories and how they conveyed them, for both ethical reasons and the integrity of my research, I made every effort to maintain in the construction of the I-poems the consistency of their words and the essence of their stories. Below are the two I-poems composed from Isabella's and Peter's words.

Isabella's I-Poem	**Peter's I-Poem**
We might recognize them	
even if we do	*I checked with my colleagues—it's not just*
we don't really know what to do.	*me.*
I wouldn't really know.	*I can't really tell who anyone is*
I don't have a clue	*I mean, you remember the talkative ones—the*
I'm not an expert on this	*very smart ones.*
let's play this by ear and see what exactly they	*You don't remember who you end up failing.*
need	*I can't tell by looking at a list of names.*
	I can't tell how good their English
	I don't know . . . it's hard to tell
I think, again	*I don't know how to tell*
I know they might be having issues	*I don't know the literature*
I've been there for 22 years	*I kind of have enough problems*
I remember having that feeling,	*I guess I can make some easy changes*
I remember to convince myself	*I'm not aware who they are*
I belonged there	*I don't know about SLA*
I was struggling	*I don't know who is struggling*
I did struggle with the language	*I have some challenges*
I reflect on my own experience	
I learned in a second language.	
I saw this all the time	

I worked really hard	*This ELL stuff is big gap in my teaching*
I had service	*I mean nobody mentioned anything*
I think I was a decent teacher	*I find this topic quite interesting*
I'm doing what I'm supposed to	*I will read. I haven't read the article*
I'm advising students	*I think I should make a point of reading*
I'm doing committees	*I may have a better idea if*
I've been Chair . . . But in reality	*I can do a bit better*
It took a book to get me promoted.	*I could do general things*
I want to teach	*I don't know if they know*
I have to write grants	*Nobody ever said I was incomprehensible*
I've decided not to	*I think that doesn't mean they don't struggle*
I just don't have time.	*I reflect often on what I should be doing*
I can't do it.	*I speak with clarity*
you can't possibly do enough.	*I could do more if I didn't have so many of*
I'm just going to do what I can do . . . and the	*them.*
hell with the rest.	
I just can't give any more of this.	
I can't say I feel prepared	*I don't know how*
I'm always winging it.	*I have not found it easy.*
I don't feel necessarily very prepared.	*Nobody's ever asked me*
I work with English language learners	*I guess they're at a bit of a disadvantage,*
I confess	

I guess I'm not very comfortable *I don't know about them* *I think I would attend PDs* *I confess there's so much training* *I have to identify students at risk* *I have to do cyber security training* *I have to do the FERPA training* *Trainings and trainings* *I think it's overwhelming.* *I mean the days are full . . . It's hard.*	*I'm not totally sure what else I can do about* *it.* *I always feel rather rushed* *I'm untenured.* *I have to pay attention to research.* *I could do a bit more with them* *I feel I'm floundering a bit with that* *I don't know how to make assessment fairer* *I didn't know anything about this.* *I don't know if there's anything they should do* *I mean, you don't get a lot of guidance* *You don't…*
I think they could be useful if *I think these trainings need to be streamlined* *I need . . . a system to know them* *I adjust to specific situations,* *I need to have a systematic approach* *I think, there are students that I've missed,* *I would like to provide a space*	*I guess I can make some easy changes* *I mean, more awareness and a few little tips* *I'm not up for a massive upheaval* *I don't think it needs to prompt a revolution*

It is interesting to note during the I-poem construction and analysis that even though the

sequence in which the participants originally recounted the salient points of their individual

stories differed, their dispositions, the "not knowing" and "not being able" phases through which they went and between which they wavered, were analogous, and thus the shifting in their dispositions. Consistent with the steps of the Listening Guide method and attending to the multiplicity of the voices in Isabella's and Peter's I-poems, I thus focused my interpretation on the subjective meaning of each of their stories as it emerged in the stanzas. Though in no particular order, three intersecting trends emerged from the two participants' I-poems: the need to justify the "not knowing" disposition, the associated tension of "not knowing," and the "not being able" stance triggered by the reflective process and leading to a negotiation of needs. Given their interconnectedness, my analysis treats the first two of these trends together.

In the first of the two phases between which they shifted—the "not knowing"—the two participants appeared to exhibit similar reactions when reflecting on their role in responding to their ELL students' needs while attending to their other teaching and professional responsibilities. In this phase, in the words of both participants, an ongoing struggle surfaced as they sought to justify their disposition as "not knowing." This was clear from the first stanza of each poem. For example, in Isabella's I-poem, she justified the "not knowing" by her subconscious allusion to the belief that there was no way for her to learn about the ELL student population in her class, and that even if she "might recognize them," that did not mean she knew what to do. Isabella 's words here expressed a tense inner dialogue, as she tried to challenge and silence a judgmental inner voice by justifying her lack of knowledge about her ELLs. In response to that inner voice, she stated the logical reason for the "not knowing" disposition ("*even* if we do / we don't really know what to do"), but nonetheless reaffirmed that knowledge alone was not sufficient to address her ELLs' needs. The constantly shifting positions connoted by these different voices was also evident in her use of the first-person plural subject pronoun "we" and

the first-person singular subject pronoun "I." The shifting between the "we" and the "I," furthermore, suggested a generalization of her own experience with ELL students from individual to collective to avoid singling herself out as somehow inadequate out and, in a sense, as a way of lending support to her justification of her disposition. This was evident in the first, third, and fourth stanzas of her poem ("We might recognize them / even if we do / we don't really know what to do / I wouldn't really know"), where the tension between her different inner voices ebbs and flows as she swings between "not knowing" and "not being able."

From Peter's I-poem, it was apparent that he engaged in a similar kind of tension-filled dialogue with himself. Recognizing his inability to identify the ELLs in his classroom, Peter also shifted pronoun usage to justify his disposition of "not knowing." This was apparent in the first three stanzas of his poem. Peter's shifting between the first- and second-person singular subject pronouns "I" and "you" also signaled the shift between his acknowledgement of the "not knowing" (his ELL students and how to address their needs) and the need to justify that disposition. Additionally, and like Isabella, his shifting between "I" and "you" also emphasized his need to justify his disposition in relation to the experience of his colleagues, that it was not just him. And thus, his assertion that his lack of knowledge about ELLs and institutional support did not only cause tension for him but for his colleagues as well ("I checked with my colleagues—it's not just me").

It is worth noting, however, that the intersection of the different voices that constituted Peter's story and his I-poem also appeared to implicitly reveal Peter's deficit view when describing his students ("I mean, you remember the talkative ones—the very / smart ones. / You don't remember who you end up failing"). Although it was not clear from his words if Peter was referring to his ELLs or his students in general, he nonetheless implied a positive correlation

between talkativeness and smartness and a negative correlation between silence and cognitive weakness and failure. His recollection of his students and the extent to which he came to know them seemed thus contingent on their cognitive abilities. This added a further nuance to the analysis of Peter's I-poem as it could reveal the influence of his own upbringing on his misconception of his students and how he justified his lack of knowledge of them. Like Isabella, however, Peter's tension materialized as he moved between "not knowing" and "not being able" ("I can't really tell who anyone is / I don' know . . . it's hard to tell / I don't know how to tell / I don't know the literature / I don't know about SLA / I don't know who is struggling").

Concerning the last of the three intersecting trends that emerged in the two participants' I-poems, my analysis focuses on locating the self through the different voices and associated tensions, thus disclosing the "not being able" disposition triggered by the reflective process and how participants then re-negotiate their needs. The participants' poems disclosed patterns of resistance pertaining to their own sense of responsibility towards ELL education. For instance, Peter's position on his role shifted yet again to the "not being able" end of the spectrum. An inner voice re-emerged, reminding him how frustrating it is to assume responsibility without the necessary knowledge of his students—which he thus saw as not entirely his responsibility. The fourth stanza of his poem illustrated the tension he felt ("Nobody's ever asked me / I always feel rather rushed / I'm untenured / I have to pay attention to research / I could do a bit more with them / I feel I'm floundering a bit with that / I don't know how to make assessment fairer / I didn't know anything about this. / I mean, you don't get a lot of guidance"). However, as his views on the extent of his responsibility receded, his self-reflective inner voice surfaced, as if prompting his motivation and a feeling of obligation towards his ELL students—as if his inner voice seemed to persuade him to make an exception and perhaps to be open to the idea of

making some changes in his practice ("I guess I can make some easy changes / I mean, more

awareness and a few little tips"). Regardless of what those changes would be, however, they

would need to be "easy" and supplemental rather than transformative in nature. This conception

of additive strategies to address ELLs' needs is aligned with the literature reviewed for this study

on educators' conceptions of the degree of change they are capable to make in their practice

given the institutional constraints and lack of support to accommodate their ELL students' needs

(Andrade, 2010; Andrade et al., 2014; Bihuf-Ambe, 2009; De Jon, 2019; De Jon et al., 2018; de

Kleine & Lawton., 2015; Parrish, 2015).

The struggle to reconcile between the multiple voices was similarly apparent in Isabella's

poem. Her predominant "I voice" (Gilligan et al., 2003) was suggestive of the level of her

tension as she reflected on her workload and how it made her physically and emotionally

exhausted ("I worked really hard . . . / I'm advising students / I'm doing committees / I had

service / I think I was a decent teacher"). It is interesting to note the range of emotional registers

in Isabella's poem, from a reasonable plea ("I'm doing what I'm supposed to do / I want to

teach") to the need to justify her disposition of "not knowing" ("I work with English language

learners / I confess . . . I guess I'm not very comfortable/ I don't know about them") to the tension

of "not being able" ("you can't possibly do enough / I'm just going to do what I can do . . . and

the hell with the rest / I just can't give any more of this"). And finally, similar to Peter, she

shifted between different voices as she reflects once again on her disposition pertaining to her

ELL instruction, while assertively negotiating her needs and reclaiming a space for herself ("I

have to write grants / I've decided not to . . . / I just don't have time / I can't do it / I think these

trainings need to be streamlined / I need . . . a system to know them / I think, there are students

that I've missed / I would like to provide a space) within institutional constraints and lack of adequate preparation and resources to teach ELLs.

The shifting in my participants' disposition between "not knowing" and "not being able" was a result of the various factors and challenges discussed above. All participants wrestled with the notion of a new responsibility—that is, addressing ELL students' linguistic needs—added to their already existing workload and the other responsibilities that accompany their academic role. Compounding this new and complex responsibility is the lack of adequate training to prepare them for this task. Because faculty grapple with the two dispositions of being content instructors and language and content instructors in the absence of effective guidance and clear institutional expectations, their shifting dispositions and tension about taking on yet another new responsibility without the necessary provisions is understandable. Thus, to better address the problems at root in this shift in their disposition, certain changes need to take place at the institutional level.

Theme 5: Attending to Faculty's Needs: The Need for Institutional Change

The lack of institutional support, often exhibited in contradictory structures and policies within departments and administrations, has significantly contributed to faculty's ambivalence about their role in addressing their ELL students' needs. The lack of clarity in institutional policy concerning ELLs and the lack of adequate support and resources when serving this student population placed the burden of responsibility on faculty to individually meet the needs of their ELL students while attempting to manage their many other professional responsibilities. Faculty needed clear policies, supportive structures, and adequate resources in place to help them to, first and foremost, understand what was expected and required of them to better address the needs of their ELL students.

All of the participants in my study expressed their frustration at the lack of a systematic approach that would help them identify their ELL students prior to the start of each semester, which would give them more time to prepare teaching materials geared to their ELLs' needs. As Isabella argued:

maybe a system, something like that in a sense it tells me this student comes with a second language, these are the issues that we could deal with . . . I don't know. It's something that definitely speaks more specifically to the needs of individual students, but that also helps me figure out, how is it that my class can help with that or how is it that given the situation of my class, that can be helpful for the student?" (Isabella's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 19)

But Isabella also added that simply knowing which students in a class are ELLs was itself not sufficient if faculty did not know how to respond to their various needs. The lack of a systematic approach as such, according to her, represented a real issue so that "even if [they] do [know about them], [they] don't really know what to do about it. [They] wouldn't really know. [They need] to have a systematic approach or a methodology or a clue" (Focus Group 2, 2022, p. 10). She further added: "they might be having some issues, well, it would be a start to know who they are" (p. 10).

Similarly, Debbie noted that the issue of ELLs does not seem like a priority for the university or most faculty, for that matter:

It sounds to me, I'm new in this particular world, but from what all of you have been saying and what I've heard from other colleagues, it seems that certainly our workload and available time is a factor. But it seems like outside of those of us who have, either are second language learners or have it as the teaching pedagogy as part of our content, most

people are not really, it's not an issue. Most faculty aren't trained in to recognize or to

adjust for ELLs. It doesn't seem like, it's part of the university priority. Does that seem

true to you all? (Focus Group 2, 2022, p. 9)

Debbie's remarks below on the disconnect within the educational system in general seemed

relevant to her argument above, a disconnect which was readily apparent in the dichotomy

between instructional methods in theory and what they actually look in practice when teaching

ELL students. As she said:

I felt like there wasn't a system that worked. I didn't see a system that worked, and I

certainly didn't teach in a system that worked. There were pieces and I went to lots of

trainings and people had some wonderful ideas, but when those ideas were put into

practice nothing really seemed to be addressing the struggles that the ELL students were

having. The students I worked with were not the ideal students—the ones who came from

China or Eastern Europe with really strong educational backgrounds, and they could just

transfer that and just needed to learn English. (Debbie's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 2)

The questions that most clearly defined faculty's lack of awareness about the ELL

student population—who they are, how to identify them, how to better assist them, and how to

assess their knowledge—were only a few of the pressing questions that my participants struggled

with in their practice, as discussed in previous sections. Participant faculty face various

challenges when attempt to modify their instruction to address their ELL students' needs. To do

so, the university and institutions in general needs to make sure that all of their faculty have the

adequate preparation and necessary resources to respond to the needs of all of their students,

including ELLs. All participants showed lack of practical knowledge and resources when

addressing their ELL students' needs, even though who had substantial training that they thought

it would've prepared them for such task. Thus, their needs differ based on their discipline area. However, I particularly found Peter's following statement effectively elaborated the common shared concern among participants pertaining to their lack of knowledge about the ELL student population: "You get taught to consider all sorts of factors that can affect the effectiveness of your teaching, but nobody I ever spoke to mentioned anything about considering anything to do with ELLs" (Focus Group 3, 2022, p. 11).

Equally frustrating among participants concerning the lack of institutional resources and support pertaining to ELL instruction was the absence of professional development designed to address ELL needs. For example, Isabella expressed a feeling of being overwhelmed by the excess number of professional development and training requirements that seem less relevant to her needs, and she argued that professional development need to be more streamlined to faculty's instructional needs and address the gaps in their knowledge.

> I don't think that there are specific PDs on ELLs, I don't know. Like I said, if there are, I don't know about them. Yes, I think I would attend . . . I think we feel like faculty, there's just so much training that like we're bombarded with all kinds of training that we're getting. How to I have to identify students at risk and how to deal with . . . Right now I have this cyber security thing that I have to do and the FERPA last year, and there's trainings and trainings and trainings and trainings, and I think it's always a bit overwhelming. I think it would be useful though, but I think a lot of these trainings need to be streamlined. (Focus Group 3, 2022, p. 17)

Furthermore, participants reported feeling overwhelmed with large classes, and they associated large classes with the lack of time they are able to allocate to the needs of their ELL students. This, in turn, created tensions for them, as previously explained in sections above.

Isabella, for instance, argued that the lack of time prevented her from giving more constructive feedback to her ELL students that they would benefit from: "I always think as like, if I had half the students, I would be able to leave more detailed comments. We would be actually able to work on the problems that each of them is having" (Isabella's Interview Transcript, 2022, p. 10).

Another pertinent factor and source of frustration that participants viewed as essential to their academic role was the lack of agency and autonomy in their workplace. For example, Isabella expressed her dissatisfaction that the administration does not typically value faculty's opinions in the decision-making process. As she said: "We very rarely get asked how to fix things. And when we get asked how to fix things, we get asked to fix things that are not really for us to fix. So, no, I mean, it's-Yeah. I mean, we don't have a say" (Focus Group 3, 2022, p. 13). Her statement echoed the frustration Bianca felt as an instructional specialist who does not get included in the decision-making process in her department: "We've never gone more than a year without some radical change being imposed upon us by the outside, not stuff we asked for, because God forbid, we get what we actually ask for" (Focus Group 3, 2022, p. 18).

To better prepare faculty to teach an increasingly diverse student body, which included an ever-increasing number of ELLs who came to the learning experience with various needs, colleges and universities have to first be more cognizant of and responsive to the needs of the faculty who teach them. Institutions need to more thoughtfully invest in their faculty's professional development and well-being by providing resources and support deemed essential to their job satisfaction and the success of the students they serve.

In this chapter I addressed the principal challenges that faculty face when teaching their ELL students—challenges rooted in the context of institutional constraints which limit the ability of faculty to effectively respond to the needs of those students and from which a discernible

ambivalence thus results. Academic culture and the present structure of higher education imposes those constraints, and the latter, in turn, creates the challenges for faculty. Ultimately, these constraints are themselves rooted in the subordinate position of higher education and education in general in U.S capitalist society.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this qualitative study was to learn how faculty from a variety of disciplines address the needs of their ELL students through their examination of, and reflection on, their instructional practices, what challenges they face in the process, and what professional knowledge and expertise they have acquired to do so. Therefore, the main question that guided this research was: What happens when higher education faculty from a variety of disciplines examine and make meaning of their instructional practices to meet the needs of ELL students? The sub-questions for my study were:

a) How do faculty in various disciplines modify their instruction to meet the needs of ELL students?

b) What do faculty see as areas of struggle when working with ELL students?

c) What institutional resources are in place to support faculty to effectively teach ELL students?

To better address my research question, I used Freire's (1970) critical pedagogy as a theoretical framework to make meaning of faculty's stories and prior experiences when teaching ELL students. Grounded in the assertion that knowledge is best achieved when guided by four core critical tenets (critical consciousness, the banking model, dialogism, and praxis), critical pedagogy helped me to position and interpret faculty's stories in relation to these ideas—in particular, how these tenets relate to faculty's reflective process on their instructional decisions, the nature of the relationship of power between faculty and their ELL students, and the institutional hierarchal structures in which faculty themselves are embedded. How faculty's knowledge about ELLs is constructed, and how power relations are negotiated within this context when teaching this diverse and unique student population were also examined and analyzed. This framework allowed for a better analysis of the complexity of higher education

faculty's teaching experiences when teaching ELLs and how their instructional decisions are rooted within these hierarchal institutional structures.

In addition to critical pedagogy and to better conduct an in-depth analysis of the data and thus generate both a thematic and subjective interpretative analysis, I combined the Listening Guide method developed by Gilligan and Brown (1992) with Freire's theory. The goal was to capture and highlight the multiplicity of voices that form the self in relation to each faculty's response as they attempt to make meaning of their instructional experiences and reflect on their role when teaching ELL students (Sorsoli & Tolman, 2008). Combining the two methodologies of analysis allowed for the subjectivity of both the participants and the researcher (Gilligan et al., 2003). Situating faculty's sense and degree of responsibility for their ELLs' needs in relation to their emotional responses to the question of their responsibility as such helped me to better make sense of the role of emotion in faculty's practice in this context. For example, the shifting in faculty's responses (between not knowing and not being able), as described in the findings, indicated the various levels of tension they experienced while attempting to address their ELLs' needs. This tension and thus their lack of ability to address their ELL students' needs was rooted primarily in various institutional constraints and a lack of the resources that would adequately prepare them for this student population.

I combined the Listening Guide method with a thematic analysis of my participants' stories during individual interviews and focus groups. Through this method the participant's "voice" was maintained as central during the entire process of analysis, while I made explicit the way in which the text informed my interpretation. Since the Listening Guide method was voice-centered (Brown & Gilligan, 1992), it allowed me, as the listener/researcher, to underscore the significance of the participants' narratives, while recognizing that such narratives were woven

into a web of interconnectedness within the broader sociocultural and hierarchal institutional context. As such, the multi-layered nature of my participants' responses/experiences and how they related to one another were revealed through the two I-poems I constructed from Isabella's and Peter's words. In combination with one another, critical pedagogy and the Listening Guide operated as valuable lenses to decipher how personal, relational, and professional factors informed the participants' stories/experiences and impacted their emotional tensions as experienced within their practice. And this approach thus offered me the means to tune into the polyphony inherent in each faculty's story.

In this closing chapter, I recapitulate the findings of my study followed by my interpretive discussion of the conclusions. I then present the implications of my study for the research, and my recommendations for faculty in higher education, institutional administrators, and faculty and/or administrators interested in professional development. I conclude with researcher reflective remarks on the impact of my research on my position as both a researcher and an educator.

Summary of Findings

To attain a better understanding of how participant faculty made meaning of their instructional experiences when teaching ELLs and to capture the nuances of their individual stories, I determined that a qualitative research design (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016), deductive in nature, was the best fit for this study. As described above, a combination of a thematic and subjective analysis yielded five overarching findings.

The first finding revealed that despite the individual differences that constitute the identities of my faculty participants, as well as their unique educational experiences and practice, one common thread that tied their stories together was how their past educational experiences

and their personal, professional, and social backgrounds collectively positioned them in relation

to their ELL students and their practice. The data showed different aspects of who they were as

educators, the way their professional identity was constructed, and how they viewed teaching

and learning based on their discipline area when teaching ELLs. Faculty's prior experiences in

this context shaped their teaching and instructional decisions and offered a lens on how faculty's

practice was indeed influenced by the interconnectedness of their experiences and identities as

both fluid and socially constructed. Second, and relevant to faculty's past educational

experiences and professional identities, the findings also showed that faculty had misconceptions

about their ELL students and second language acquisition. Central to my research question was

how participants reflected on their teaching experience with ELLs and how such a reflective

process, in turn, revealed certain assumptions they had about their ELLs and how to teach them.

The principal misconceptions that took shape in my participants' responses were the belief that

L1 hinders ELL attainment of L2 and that the "one size fits all" approach to learning was best for

their ELLs. This finding equally disclosed the significance of such assumptions in relation to

faculty's practice and how the former affected the latter and thus, in turn, the learning of their

ELL students. Third, participants' responses revealed the self-reflective tension they experienced

while attempting to modify their instruction to adopt to their ELLs' needs. Such tension was

largely triggered by the lack of effective preparation that would support them in adapting

adequate strategies to teach their ELLs. While the reflective process in which faculty engaged

was useful in allowing them to examine their instructional decisions when teaching ELLs and

articulating the challenges as they saw them from the perspectives of their respective disciplines,

the progression of thoughts that emerged through the conscious and complex process of

reflection nonetheless revealed the tension at the heart of their responses. Fourth, the main

factors constituting this finding were rooted in the challenges and tensions faculty confronted when teaching ELLs and how they navigated such constraints. Among the prominent challenges identified were the lack of time due to their teaching load and other professional responsibilities, and the lack of clarity within institutional structures which often hindered faculty from achieving their goals in a timely manner and navigating their required academic roles. However, the isolating nature of academia and the pressure faculty felt to assume the various responsibilities associated with their position in order to advance professionally and/or achieve the job requirements associated with tenure, in addition to taking on the further responsibility of adapting their instruction to the needs of their diverse students, whom they were typically not adequately prepared to teach, produced evident emotional strain for my participants. Taken together, these challenges further exacerbated the emotional tensions among participants associated with their work, which aligns with the recent research on the role of emotions in the teaching profession and their effects on practice (Butler, 2015; Knupsky & Caballero, 2020; Saeli & Chung, 2019). Consequently, and during the complex process of reflection on their role in addressing ELLs' linguistic needs, faculty continuously shifted between a disposition of "not knowing" and that of "not being able." The institutional constraints created the conditions for this shifting, but the latter was mainly rooted in the problematic position of how to reconcile themselves to the decision to teach the content or to teach the content and the English language. Finally, my findings show what faculty view as necessary steps to help them overcome some of the barriers as they attempt to modify their practice to better adapt to their ELLs' needs. To better attend to all of their students' needs, including their ELLs', institutional changes have to occur. Among those indispensable changes is the need for support and training that would better prepare faculty to teach what is typically a very diverse group of students. Participants

collectively expressed the need for professional development that is geared to ELL instructional strategies. Furthermore, a system in place to help faculty understand the diverse demographic of the students on their roster prior to the beginning of each term was seen by my participants as crucial for them to better prepare their course syllabi and curriculum for their ELL students. To conclude, these findings were inherently interconnected as my participants' individual and varied accounts nonetheless revealed that they were all genuinely empathetic towards their ELL students' level of English proficiency and how it affected their learning outcomes, and they all expressed interest in attempting to modify their instruction to meet the needs of these students. However, they all reported real concerns and frustrations due to their lack of knowledge, expertise, adequate preparation, and especially time to address such needs. The prospect of having to attend to yet another task, in addition to already existing responsibilities, created tension and exacerbated already existing challenges, as they attempted to navigate their teaching load and academic obligations while attending to their ELL students' linguistic needs as a catalyst for their learning outcomes and academic success.

Conclusions

In this section I interpret the conclusions generated from my findings. Founded on my interpretation of the findings, I have arrived at four overarching ideas that I would state as follows: 1) The complexity of ELL-inclusive practice; 2) Caught between a rock and a hard place: Faculty emotional toil and well-being; 3) The lack of institutional ideological clarity; and 4) Faculty's lack of ideological clarity and a self-reflective space. In the section below I discuss each of these concluding ideas individually.

The Complexity of ELL-Inclusive Practice

As the findings suggested, the research questions, to which this study was initially designed to respond, did not have easy answers. Rather, addressing ELL-inclusive practice in higher education had ramifications which extended far beyond the classroom. As explained elsewhere in this study, questions pertaining to ELL instruction intersected with political and policy debates about education, immigration, and globalization. It is thus not likely that interventions at the level of the classroom or even at the institutional level can fully address the complex nature of the issues involved. Nonetheless, this complexity did manifest itself in the classroom and at the institutional level in ways that could and should be addressed and that were not entirely dependent on that larger context. As those who play central roles in this process, faculty were most directly involved in this complex endeavor and thus faced multifaceted challenges that significantly affected their practice when teaching this student population. Based on my interpretation of the findings of this study, I aim to highlight the various levels of complexity of inclusive-ELL instruction as they concerned the faculty and the diverse categories of their ELL students and their needs.

The Complexity for Faculty. The complexity for faculty pertaining to ELL-inclusive practice was evident in faculty's responses in the following three discernible areas that were strictly interconnected: 1) the lack of knowledge, support, and adequate preparation; 2) the tension of faculty discipline-specific epistemological approaches; and 3) ELL-faculty identity negotiation and construction.

Based on the aforementioned findings, two salient factors among others could be seen as contributing to the perpetuation of the lack of preparedness among faculty when teaching ELLs, which itself posed a great challenge. Faculty's lack of knowledge about their diverse ELLs'

needs presented equally substantial barriers when attempting to modify their instruction. Without

adequate preparation to guide them through this process, faculty lacked self-efficacy to address

such needs. Furthermore, the lack of institutional mechanisms to help faculty to address the

needs of their ELLs was also a major concern among participants. As previously mentioned in

the findings, Isabella's misidentification of one of her Generation 1.5 ELLs as a native student

(based solely on that student's oral proficiency in English) offers yet another example of how

faculty lacked effective strategies and mechanisms to help them identify their ELLs and thus be

better equipped to address their needs.

According to the findings, participant faculty struggled with their self-reflective tension

as they justified their discipline-specific epistemological approaches when attempting to modify

instruction and assessment for their ELL students. When considering their degree of

responsibility for, and preparedness when, addressing ELL linguistic needs in their respective

disciplines, faculty distinguished between their discipline content expertise and what was

expected of them as content and language instructors, and they showed considerable reluctance

to embrace the latter because of their lack of expertise. Such views often caused a shift in faculty

responses to these two roles when reflecting on their responsibilities to address their ELLs'

needs. As they wrestled with these two types of responsibility while lacking knowledge,

resources, and institutional support, a shift in faculty's perceptions of their roles was detected

mainly in their shift concerning two dispositions: the "not knowing" and "not being able," as

previously analyzed and demonstrated in the findings through the two I-poems which echo the

inner polyphonic and contrapuntal voices of Isabella and Peter.

The findings also exposed a correlation between ELL-faculty professional identity

construction and their approach to teaching ELLs which is yet another evident complexity

pertaining to ELL-inclusive practice. ELL-faculty responses indicated that they did not

necessarily correlate their own knowledge of another language and culture to effective teaching

of their ELL students. Counter to what the literature suggested, the ELLs among my faculty

participants argued that their different linguistic and cultural backgrounds did not necessarily

better prepare them to teach ELLs (Andrade, 2006; Andrade et al., 2014; De Jon, 2005, 2018;

Jackson, 1986; Nieto, 2004; Lucas et al., 2008; Lucas et al., 2015; Lucas & Villegas, 2011, 2013;

Reeves, 2009; Sleeter & Carmona, 2017; Villegas, 1998). In fact, faculty who spoke a language

in addition to English and were from or exposed to other culture(s) did not find their background

particularly helpful for their ELL students. Rather, they argued that their knowledge and level of

proficiency in English was what helped them to better adapt to the challenges that inclusive ELL

instruction presented, as previously suggested in some of my participants' responses. This

unanticipated yet important conclusion ran counter to my own experience as an ELL educator,

my expectations as a researcher, as well as the reviewed literature of this study, which

underscored the importance of educators' non-native linguistic and cultural upbringing as an

important factor in effectively preparing them to address their ELL needs. This misalignment the

findings of my study revealed suggests the limitations of the current literature and points to the

need to conduct further research on the relationship between the significance of speaking and/or

being exposed to another language and culture and one's approach to teaching ELLs. Moreover,

this finding could be significant for the direction of new research to investigate the reasons why

faculty held such perceptions and to help researchers understand the characteristics that define

multicultural educators and what they look like in real practice.

     An additional finding of my study that suggested the need for further research is how

ELL faculty, such as in the case of Julius and Isabella, for instance, negotiated their dual

identities—that of a long-term ELL and that of a faculty member—while teaching ELL students. Conversely, exploring how their ELL students viewed their self-efficacy as ELL professors in various disciplines could also be valuable for future research, as it would help us to better understand other complex strands related to ELL instruction from both ELL faculty and ELL student perspectives. To better understand how these perspectives relate to one another could be especially important when attempting to diversify the teaching force and addressing the diversity gap between faculty and students.

The Complexity of the Diversity of ELL Categories and Needs. Another factor that emerged in the findings, as consequence of faculty's reflections, which equally contributed to the challenges of teaching ELLs, was rooted in the complexity of attempting to modify their instructional decisions based on their content area (Daniel & Peercy, 2014; De Jon et al., 2018; Drozt, 2014; Gort & Glenn, 2010), and, chiefly, how to adapt assessment to the range of ELLs in their classes (Costa et al., 2005; de Kleine & Lawton, 2015, 2018). As evident in the findings, when teaching ELL students with various educational backgrounds and levels of literacy, faculty reported their frustration and tension concerning the generation of disciplinary-specific assessments (De Jon et al., 2019; de Kleine, 2015; Drozt, 2014; Hann et al., 2017). The different disciplines that faculty taught stressed diverse skills with distinctive corresponding assessments, which in turn posed great challenges for their ELL students who often lacked English proficiency, let alone specific content terminology. This was clearly apparent in the findings where participants expressed their frustration as they wrestled with assessing the knowledge of their ELL students.

This variation in ELLs' level of proficiency, coupled with the nature of discipline-specific assessments, created challenges for both faculty who were not prepared to adapt to this situation

and their ELL students who lacked the academic language. Hence, it was understandable how

teaching ELLs could be challenging and at times even daunting for some faculty, mainly due to a

lack of the relevant knowledge and adequate training to support their instructional decisions

(Andrade et al., 2014; Andrade et al., 2015; Bifuh-Ambe, 2011; Villegas et al., 2018) and the

absence of a coherent institutional support. Taken together, these factors created considerable

emotional tension.

"Caught Between a Rock and a Hard Place": Faculty Emotional Toil and Well-Being

It is important to situate these above-mentioned micro-challenges in the larger macro-context of

the institution itself (Giroux, 1983; Giroux & McLaren, 1987; O'Meara, 2011, 2012; O'Meara et

al., 2016) and how its culture and structure are both effects of and in conflict with larger social

forces (Bourdieu, 1986; Bowles & Gintis 1976; Fairclough, 2001; Giroux & Simon, 1988b). So,

for example, the university as the institutional site dedicated to the pursuit of knowledge and the

development of the critical thinking skills necessary for individuals to play an active and

constructive role in a democratic society (Dewey, 2011) was often at odds with the university as

an entity with finite resources increasingly pressured by external "stakeholders" to produce a

workforce in the interest of economic growth and prosperity especially in public institutions.

The tension between these two frequently competing functions of the institution of higher

education played out in the classroom where faculty could find themselves caught between doing

what they understood to be in the best interest of their students' education and what the

administration prioritized for its own institutional reasons (Bourdieu, 1991; Gorski & Goodmen,

2011). Faculty were thus tasked with myriad responsibilities apart from their regular teaching

load. In addition, and as such, constraints, visible or otherwise, were imposed on faculty's

autonomy (Andrade, 2015; Costa et al., 2005), compromising the individual agency that should

have ideally been granted as a consequence of their expertise and thereby making it more difficult for them to adequately address their students' needs.

Given the institutional culture of higher education, and how in general the hierarchical nature of institutional structures in a capitalist society typically works to perpetuate a status quo that in the case of higher education is often at odds with the needs of faculty and students, it is not surprising that my participants all had strong views on what their institution was actually doing (or, rather, not doing) to adequately prepare them to effectively address their ELLs' needs. This awareness of their lack of institutional support while confronted with the needs of the new demographic imperative further exacerbated their emotional tension as they attempt to modify their instruction to better respond to their ELLs' needs. The findings exposed the emotional toil faculty endured as they wrestled to balance their regular workload and attending to their ELL linguistic needs. Being in such position where they had to navigate between two responsibilities, providing content-specific instruction or providing content and language instruction imposed real tension and took its toll on their emotional well-being. It is also important to note that attention to the emotional well-being of faculty in higher education, and the role of institutional constraints in contributing to the emotional tension faculty experience, was yet another gap in the research. The scarcity of research on faculty emotional well-being was notable, since the lack of emotional well-being is one of various factors leading to the current attrition in the teaching profession (Butler, 2015; Costa et al., 2005; Knupsky & Caballero, 2020; Owens et al., 2018; Saeli & Chung, 2019). This emotional tension in turn is exacerbated by the absence of ideological clarity within the institution.

The Lack of Institutional Ideological Clarity

Consistent with the complexity of ELL-inclusive practice, as discussed above, in this section I reflect on the interconnected challenges revealed in the findings pertaining to the institutional climate. The resulting tensions were typically experienced at the individual level in faculty's day-to-day professional lives. But given the reality of ELL students as central to the new demographic imperative, there was an equally pressing need for administrators, boards of trustees, local officials, and other so-called stakeholders at the institutional level, especially in the context of "striving comprehensive institutions" (Gardner, 2013, p. 350) such as the state university that served as the site for this study, to rethink their priorities in their mission and purpose as they pertained to faculty and student well-being. For instance, the findings of Gardner's (2013) study underscored that the environment in striving comprehensive institutions has often been lacking clarity and support, "given the increasing demands on faculty time to produce scholarship and to maintain a high teaching load" (p. 51), which in turn leads to dissatisfaction among faculty who work in such a climate.

Furthermore, the continued emphasis on research and publishing, often at the expense of teaching, to enhance the image of and enrollment in the institution, has not best served the interest of an increasingly diverse student population (Gardner, 2013; O'Meara et al., 2016). While research is of obvious importance in the broader mission of higher education and to the development of innovative theories and practice, as the findings of this study indicated, given their workload and time allocation, faculty lacked the time to adapt their practice to ELLs' needs, let alone the adequate preparation necessary to be equipped to address these needs.

Thus, and as a striving comprehensive institution, the university where my study was conducted did not seem to engage in deliberate rethinking of their priorities when it came to

addressing the needs of the ever-increasing diversity of the student body. According to the

findings, faculty reported the lack of institutional support to effectively teach their diverse ELL

student population, and argued that institutional support depended on the necessity of shifting the

focus from the university's status to the needs of its diverse students. In fact, given the recent

economic climate in this country for public higher education, institutions may be even more apt

to participate in what has been termed "mission drift" or "academic drift" (Berdahl, 1985, as

cited in Gardner, 2013, p. 350), in which "institutions drift away from their original missions

toward norms of prestige and status typical of and established by more elite institutions"

(Morphew & Huisman, 2002, p. 492, as cited. in Gardner, 2013, p. 350). As a result, a lack of

clarity in the institutional mission and for the faculty's role can ensue (Gardner, 2013, p. 350).

The Lack of Faculty Ideological Clarity and a Self-Reflective Space

At the individual level, as a means to ideological clarity, faculty lacked collective and

constant engagement in self-reflective inquiries that would allow them to critically interrogate

their perceived misconceptions about their knowledge and practice. Based on the findings,

faculty did not have the space within their institution to reflect on their practice. Without

diminishing the need for ideological clarity and change at the institutional level, one should

acknowledge that change does not happen in a vacuum or come only from the top. Faculty who

seek change can ultimately go beyond the role of "gate keeper,"(Bartolome, 2002; 2004) in

which, despite their good intentions and support, they can still uncritically perpetuate the status

quo (Carrasco-Nungaray & Pena, 2012) and thus "continuously allocate resources to those

students already in possession of dominant forms of social capital, leaving low-status students on

the margins of social networks" (Garcia & Ramirez, 2018, p. 6). Instead, by assuming the

position of "empowerment agents" (p. 6), those who "are motivated to go against the grain" (p.

6) can activate "empowerment social capital" (p. 6). As such, teaching could be a fruitful and powerful site for transformation, regardless of the scale of such transformative attempts. Given the shift in the student demographic, conducting business as usual does not serve the needs of all students, regardless of where they come from, nor does it promote the self-reflection that would help create the conditions for growth. A pedagogy that is shaped by faculty who are invested (Norton, 2015) in equitable practice and "aware of institutional structures that keep social networks and resources from reaching low-status students" (Garcia & Ramirez, 2018, p. 6), if fostered in a supportive institutional climate, can ultimately lead to transformation and liberation.

As such, it is reasonable to hypothesize that while participants in this study and educators in general neither intended nor most likely would see it this way, within the broader context of the institution of higher education, and with respect to their general approach to their ELL students, their classrooms became sites for the perpetuation of the neoliberal ideology where systemic power structures were manifested through their teaching, their relationship with their students, their assessment of their students, and how they viewed their role as educators for a diverse student body (Deli-Amen & DeLuca, 2010; Fairclough, 2001; Gay & Kirkland, 2003). Ultimately, it is within the parameters of critical reflection and continuous dialogue that faculty could engage in a process that aims to foster the emancipatory practices (Freire, 1970) that would eventually lead to action and the empowerment of their ELL students. It is only through such a critical lens that both students and faculty can render oppressive ideologies visible and collectively work to contest them by developing the consciousness to overcome them. But to do so, faculty need to be adequately prepared to engage in such a process, and to have the support and access to the resources that would enable them to modify their instruction in a way that is better geared to address their ELL students' needs.

The interconnectedness of the above-mentioned factors underscores the complexity of ELL-inclusive instruction, which should be taken into consideration when attempting to understand the challenges faculty face when attempting to modify their instruction to teach ELLs. Hence, these factors should together be made explicit and tackled holistically and not addressed separately from one another. But to implement such a holistic approach has wide-ranging implications for the institution as a whole.

Implications and Recommendations

To adequately address faculty constraints while navigating ways to modify their practice to adapt to ELL instruction would require both structural changes at the institutional level and the additional resources necessary to fund and enact those changes. So, for instance, if faculty had even a slightly reduced teaching load, they would potentially have time freed up to devote to the needs of their ELL students. But the administration would then need to agree to hire additional faculty to fill the gap which would, in turn, require allocating further resources to instructional budgets. This seems unlikely, however, given the funding crisis in higher education linked to declining enrollments and made worse by the pandemic, periodic budget cuts fueled by a hostile political climate, and broader questions about whether higher education is worth the financial investment due to the ever-increasing cost of tuition. The current increase in political attacks on education and controversial efforts at the state level to further strip educators of their autonomy by censoring the teaching of certain subjects and defunding diversity programs from higher education curricular (See Liam, 2023) are only the most glaring of the current challenges that our education system faces and indication of the need to teach beyond our classroom walls.

But even if we were to put aside the various institutional constraints rooted in the structure of capitalism and our current political context, unless college and university

administrations are collectively committed to implementing and funding the structural changes

needed to establish a more inclusive and socially just curriculum, individual institutional efforts

to move in this direction will likely remain superficial and hence inadequate. I elaborate below

on what can be done to address the challenges rooted in institutional constraints when faculty

attempt to make their instructional practice inclusive of and meaningful to their diverse students

such as ELLs. Despite its small scale, my hope is that this study offers important implications for

faculty in higher education, for institutions of higher education, and for new venues for

professional development. I hope as well that my study adds to the pool of the existing research

on the instructional experiences of higher education faculty while teaching diverse students.

Implications for Faculty

Continuously reflecting on our practice in general, and in the case of my study on how

our practice applies when teaching ELLs, will not instantaneously provide us with the expected

solutions and/or the "quick fixes" (Bartlett, 2023) we envision and hope to then implement in a

simple and straightforward manner. It nonetheless offers an important lens through which we can

come to acknowledge and accept our teaching of ELLs as a dilemma, to understand ourselves

and our practice within that dilemma, and to thus be cognizant of the complex and messy nature

of teaching itself. To embrace instead of denying and rejecting the dilemma of teaching in this

context could, in turn, provide us the space to grant ourselves permission to make mistakes and

ultimately to learn from them, and to accept our emotional discomfort and vulnerability when

faced with new challenges and points of disjuncture within our practice (Gort & Glenn, 2010).

How, for instance, can we make sense of and learn from evidence that contradicts our already

existing knowledge and dispositions towards inclusive education when teaching a diverse student

population (Gort & Glenn, 2010)? How can we adapt our practice to incorporate the depth and

breadth of the new knowledge and skills needed to meet the desired expectations? How can we mediate the tension between exposing our own lack of knowledge, discomfort, and vulnerability as educators of diverse students and maintaining our reputation as confident and competent experts in our fields? How can we as educators navigate and manage the teaching dilemma while being responsive to the need for and attempting to maintain both our students' and our own emotional well-being? These are fundamental questions that educators need to continually reflect upon, personally and professionally. But it is equally important that institutional leaders and other stakeholders reflect on these questions and recognize the need to invest in and act upon their implications if they are to make meaningful changes in their institutions to address the genuine needs of the faculty as the means to improve the learning and outcomes for all students.

To address such challenges engrained in institutional constraints, I highlighted the importance of creating and fostering a reflective space where faculty can examine their practice, interrogate their biases and instructional decisions, and engage in a collegial collaborative inquiry embedded in their discipline specific needs. Faculty need to reconceptualize the real institutional constraints under which they work to find within them subversive and liberatory opportunities for self-reflection on their practice and how they understand their role within such constraints.

We need to teach all of our students, regardless of how they are labeled—whether as students with special needs, such as those with individualized education programs, as students with disabilities, or as students with linguistic needs. The list will keep growing, as more categories are defined, especially in the current "reform" climate which continues to place great value on standardized testing and caters to measures of hyper-accountability. Treating the needs of ELLs as a marginal problem requiring only an additive solution frames this student population

in a way that runs counter to the very notions of equity and inclusion in education. ELLs and all historically marginalized students are our students; this is the reality of our teaching in an ever-increasingly diverse society. It is thus not surprising and perfectly understandable why certain educators who lack the knowledge, support, and disposition view this student population as a problem and even a threat to their longstanding pedagogical approaches in the classroom. It is also not surprising for educators to adopt a deficit view of this student population, a view that is embedded in our neoliberal capitalist education system. With respect to ELLs, this pervading lack of a favorable disposition towards the importance of and need for inclusive education, socially and institutionally embedded in a systemic way, makes it convenient for educators and administrators alike to view this diversity in the classroom and the institution as a whole as a temporary inconvenience that is only in need of a quick fix. The somewhat predictable result for faculty, then, are the feelings of unease, self-doubt, and lack of control and power both within the classroom and within the institution, and hence the tension.

But whether faculty's ideological clarity (Bartolome, 1994, 2004) is the effect of a reflective process which happens independently of or in the context of faculty practice, the ultimate goal is the faculty's self-transformation which would ideally lead to a transformed teaching practice which would itself, in turn, transform their diverse student population. Of course, in a very individualistic society like the U.S., the focus of transformation tends to be on the individual, which is generally true in education as well. When we focus on student success, we focus on students as individuals succeeding in their education so they can better their lives and be productive members of society. And education at its best does offer the possibility of the genuine transformation of the self.

Finally, and through the reflective process described above, it is important for us as faculty to reframe our mindset towards inclusive education for all our diverse students, including our ELLs. We need to reconceptualize our ideas of who we are to the students we are trying to teach. Are we teaching all our students, or do we have our own unstated criteria of inclusivity when it comes to our specific disciplines? What are the student criteria we have in mind when we enter our classrooms? What misconceptions do we harbor about our students? How do we imagine what happens when we teach them? What is the logic behind our expectations and how does such logic affect our practice and the students we profess to serve?

However, as long as administrators and policy makers view addressing ELLs' needs as a quick fix or mere additive solution, faculty also will view it and treat it as such. Thus, while faculty ideological clarity, agency, and the space for a reflective process are all essential for this endeavor— for grassroots change can and does occur in individual classrooms—the need for the reconceptualization of the broader issues and how to address them must also occur at the top. Only then can change ultimately occurs in a more systemic fashion. Which leads me to my next section on what is implied for institutions of higher education.

Implications for Higher Education: Adapting to The Challenges of the New Demographic Imperative

According to the findings of my study, one significant challenge, pertaining to how faculty responded to their perceived level and degree of responsibility towards ELL instruction, was how faculty wrestled with their dispositional shifting between "not knowing" and "not being able." Such shifting, as explained elsewhere in my study, is rooted in institutional constraints and the lack of institutional ideological clarity pertaining to their role when teaching ELLs, the absence of institutional support, and the absence of a clear protocol to help them identify their

ELL students. It is in the context of this challenge that my study points to the implications of the prevailing discourse about ELLs in higher education and how it could end up perpetuating the status quo. In other words, when various programs in higher education continue to emphasize the relationship between ELL students and native-English-speaking students as a binary, they reinforce and maintain that perspective as such. And thus, faculty are more inclined to perceive students as belonging to different sub-groups or categories requiring different methods of instruction from the dominant group. The likely consequence of this for faculty is the perception of this "different" instruction as an additional teaching responsibility, and one to which resistance would be more likely. Terminology matters especially in this context, as it could affect faculty's individual perceptions of their responsibility to those students who fall outside the dominant group, including ELLs.

For example, as Ladson-Billings (1995, 1999) reminded us, the creation of categories of difference among our diverse students has led stakeholders to conceive teaching learners as distinct from teaching diverse learners, which is a problematic distinction. Especially in a society as diverse as ours, the latter should be understood as an organic part of the former. In other words, to treat them as categorically different, and thus, for instance, to add program course requirements devoted exclusively to preparing educators for diverse learners, creates a false construct by implying that quality teaching can be achieved apart from learning the skills necessary to teach diverse students. The more we write about and discuss the two as separate entities, the more we drift further from the real issue: diverse learners are every bit as much learners as are all mainstream students and deserve the same quality teaching.

When it comes to diversity and educating diverse learners, every reform proposal argues that something different is needed and must be adopted in our education system, but that

"something" often remains vague, implicit, superficial, or ambiguous at best. Diversity is an essential reality of the American education system. How does that reality affect individual teaching practices? And all the more so when, like the student population, teaching itself has become an increasingly diverse profession? The now commonplace motto "Celebrate Diversity"—a well-intended, if somewhat vague recognition of this reality—may in fact help to mask the real challenges posed by a student population as varied in its demographic as it is in its learning capabilities. Indeed, sometimes it appears as little more than a catchphrase to shield institutions from potential criticism and even accusations of discrimination.

If policymakers and higher education leaders and educators really believe in the value of diversity—that is, exposure to and engagement with diverse perspectives and opinions rooted in diverse backgrounds and experience benefits everyone—we need to move beyond formal "Diversity Training." While nodding to the importance of incorporating diversity issues into the curriculum and classroom practice, such training often seems designed to do little more than make teachers aware of and sensitive to the reality of difference in the classroom, including the potential legal repercussions. But given the ongoing ethnic and racial tension in American society, which seems to once again be coming to a head, it is evident that more needs to be done in the classroom. And, therefore, there is an evident need for more critical and reflective practitioners among faculty who continue to interrogate the status quo and engage in critical and self-transformative thinking that enables them and all their students, including ELLs, to be liberated through the common understanding of the importance of the dialogic process in deconstructing hierarchical social structures and relations of power that continue to perpetuate injustices in our education system. Such ideological clarity and political awareness will allow these questions to be posed: How do we gauge equitable and just teaching in a climate of

diversity? What aptitudes and standards are we measuring our teaching practice against? How do we know quality teaching is occurring when teaching diverse learners? If teacher quality is highly correlated with student outcomes, then shouldn't diverse learners be included in these outcomes and equally be recipients of such high-quality teaching? And what degree of responsibility can we realistically place solely on the individual educator to enact such change?

Awareness of the various levels of complexity involved in addressing the need for an ELL-inclusive practice should encourage institutional leaders to invest in implementing organizational strategies that would promote and create an environment where both students and faculty have clear instruction, realistic expectations, and attainable goals. Institutions of higher education need to consider their role in facilitating effective communication between administrators and faculty and addressing the gap between their ELL student population's needs and their faculty's lack of adequate support and preparation to adapt their practice to the needs of such a diverse student body. But what, more specifically, can or should institutions do to adapt to the new demographic imperative? I propose below some recommendations as they apply to both ELLs and faculty.

Addressing ELLs' Needs. Creating a center where students with diverse needs, such as ELLs, can find the necessary support is important for their academic success. At the time of my study, the institution at which I conducted this study had eliminated its ESL courses, thus pushing more ELLs students directly into mainstream classes. Considering this development, such a center seems even more necessary. Here is where ELL students could be assessed based on their English proficiency, then paired with a mentor of their choosing with whom they could build a rapport, and who would support them as they acquire English proficiency, which would greatly benefit them as they transition into general education courses.

Institutions already have an effective system in place for identifying and addressing the needs of students with various learning needs, such as students with learning disabilities. While I am not implying in any way that being an ELL correlates to having a learning disability, the system for students diagnosed with the latter could provide a readily transferable model for establishing such a system and center to identify, assess, and support ELLs and their needs. Just as institutions provide a clearly defined set of services for students with disabilities, they should adopt an analogous set of services for their ELL student population.

Addressing Faculty's Needs. Equally important, college and university administrators need to provide resources for their faculty to equip them with the necessary knowledge to address their ELLs' various needs and to enable them to build on their already existing practices of inclusive pedagogy and multicultural instruction. For example, one major challenge that faculty reported in this study was the lack of a system of identification and/or protocol to help them identify their ELL students in their courses prior to the beginning of each term. According to faculty, such a system would be a tremendous help for them to effectively prepare and revise their instructional materials ahead of time in a way that is more readily adaptable to their ELL students' needs. Hence, higher education leaders should develop a system of auditing the ELL student demographic prior to each term if faculty are to embed responsive and inclusive teaching strategies that would target the needs of their ELL students. Furthermore, having such a system in place would allow faculty sufficient time to embed discipline-specific content with their ELL students in mind, thus lessening the likelihood of tension arising among faculty.

If faculty have the necessary support and professional learning opportunities in place so that they are adequately prepared to address the diverse range and needs of their ELLs— opportunities that are continuous and embedded in their content areas, and not just designed as

temporary and additive approaches that are at best a quick fix that avoids dealing with the real challenges—while, simultaneously, the needs of their ELLs are addressed, positive change can occur. However, for this change to materialize, higher education institutions need to commit to and invest in real structural changes. For example, if a striving comprehensive institution, like the site of my study, a designated research 2 institution, prides itself on serving diverse first-generation students, which includes ELLs as well, and on being a Hispanic serving institution, then it needs to move beyond the mission statement as "one of two Hispanic-Serving Institutions, serving more Latinx students than any other university in the state . . . [its] highly diverse students thrive in the university's supportive, welcoming environment" (Institution name Mission Statement) and assume the responsibility required to give meaning to these words. In general, institutions of higher learning need to acknowledge the critical role they play in providing their students and faculty with the necessary resources and support that both groups, as central to the mission, require to realize the mission.

To fundamentally change our misconceptions from within, without which there is no assurance that any such change will endure, we must develop the capacity for empathy so that we can try to understand others by seeing the world through their eyes, as refracted through their experience. Central to the effort of faculty to develop ideological clarity, an approach to multicultural education which combines both perspectives, that of student and faculty, could offer a means to potentially break the sometimes quite thick ice of discomfort and inhibition that often stands between well-meaning faculty and teaching practices that are informed by a greater awareness of and, hence, place a greater emphasis on the need for justice and equity. In other words, with the exception of those educators who—be it through their upbringing, life experience, or education—have attained a clear understanding of how power and privilege are

structured in society and who benefits from these structures, the pursuit of ideological clarity may lead some faculty to a serious confrontation with their own values and beliefs. And because such a confrontation can just as readily produce a reactionary response and a re-entrenchment of received ideas and assumptions, it is important to pursue ideological clarity with this understanding in mind, especially in our highly charged cultural and political climate. For a change in misconceptions rarely happens in a vacuum; and this is no less true for faculty, or adults in general, than it is for students.

Implications for Professional Development

The findings of my research indicated that my participants lacked professional training directly geared to ELL instruction. Participants reported that either they did not have opportunities to participate in such professional development or attended ones that they were superficial in nature and did not address their actual needs when it came to their discipline-specific areas. Furthermore, faculty reported the lack of engaging, meaningful, and continuous professional development that is relevant to the challenges they face when teaching ELLs. And lastly, the size and structure of the professional development were problematic, since the ones they had previously attended on various topics tended to be offered in larger groups and organized by administrators, and thus they did not feel the intimacy of a small professional community where they could freely exchange their ideas.

Thus, together, these findings offered a few recommendations that could ultimately prove to be useful for administrators and those interested in organizing professional learning communities for faculty in higher education pertaining to ELL-inclusive education. So what would faculty professional development would look like when attempting to adequately prepare faculty for their diverse students such as ELLs? Based on the findings of my study, the

implications for professional development are as follows: Higher education faculty are more receptive to professional development that is led and organized by their peers, and that are rooted in their own understanding of their professional needs based on their respective disciplines. Such professional development would likely be more meaningful to their practice than those offered by their institution but not especially relevant to their needs. So, designing and offering professional development with faculty's discipline specific needs in mind would ultimately result in more faculty engagement. For example, and according to my participants' responses, faculty need and would benefit from a professional training that would help them gain knowledge about second language acquisition which, in turn, is necessary for them to be able to comprehend how language is actually acquired and what are the challenges that their ELLs actually face as they acquire academic English proficiency. As the reviewed literature (Andrade et al., 2014; Bacquet, 2020; Bifuh-Ambe, 2014; Burgey et al., 2018; Hann et al., 2017; Villegas et al., 2018) and the findings confirmed, the lack of adequate knowledge and preparation pertaining to second language acquisition was one major gap in faculty's knowledge about teaching ELL students. Being cognizant of how languages are acquired, as well as how the various range of ELL first language literacy levels affect the process involved in such acquisition, would help faculty to have a better understanding of the diverse linguistic needs of the wide range of their ELLs. Therefore, designing professional development with both ELL students and their faculty's needs in mind would be effective and necessary, especially to help faculty tackle their ELLs' linguistic hurdles as they work on their academic language.

As the findings disclosed, one major challenge faculty participants reported as significant to their level of tension pertained to ELL assessment. Tension was detected among faculty when they attempted to assess their ELL students based on their content area. The wide range of ELLs,

coupled with the different levels of their English proficiency, made assessment a very

challenging task for faculty from various disciplines. Professional development on assessment

embedded in faculty's discipline-specific needs would also be very valuable in this area, as it

would better prepare them to modify their ELL instruction. Therefore, the need for professional

development that specifically address how to assess a diverse student population, such as ELLs,

would be extremely effective and much needed to better equip faculty with the skills and

pedagogies needed to tackle this challenge.

Additionally, higher education leaders need to be invested in adapting a more supportive

role when facilitating professional development, one that aims to involve faculty in the decision-

making process. According to the findings, faculty are also more likely to attend professional

learning opportunities if they are invested in the decision and implementation process. Faculty

need to have professional development that is self-designed and led based on their specific

pedagogical needs, and thus professional development that is imposed rather than informed by

faculty's needs are less likely to have the anticipated outcomes. For instance, and according to

the findings of this study, professional development where faculty can decide themselves its

content so that it best addresses their knowledge gaps pertaining to ELL instruction would likely

be more productive and effective. Equally important, higher education administrators need to be

cognizant of faculty's workload and other academic responsibilities and take them into

consideration when implementing decisions pertaining the scheduling, facilitation, and

implementation of professional development.

In a similar vein, the findings also revealed that faculty's prior educational experiences

and misconceptions, if left undetected, can greatly influence their instructional decisions and

practice in general, and hence need to be addressed when considering the implications for

professional development. Higher education administrators and faculty need to consider the complex nature of faculty's identity construction and the misconceptions they might hold, and the ongoing and transformative process involved in changing the latter when teaching diverse students, including ELLs. Implementing sustained and inquiry-based professional learning communities and identifying ways in which faculty and administrators can collaborate to develop more democratic practices in the classroom are salient implications for future professional development. Such preparation promotes transformational strategies to help faculty articulate their misconceptions and make them explicit, which is essential to clarifying misconceptions that can often be multifaceted and abstruse, especially when they are connected to faculty's practice. To better examine faculty's misconceptions and deficit thinking, professional development should be geared to help faculty to reflect on their dispositions while teaching diverse students and to engage in a reflective process where they embrace being in an uncomfortable zone during the critical self-reflective process. It is only when they immerse themselves in such a space that faculty can eventually connect their misconceptions to the existing theories and hence attempt to apply it in their practice. What can be done to better enable faculty to make their misconceptions more explicit and how faculty's agency and transformational reflection are explored should be the focus of future professional development. The recognition of faculty's misconceptions is neither immediate nor final; rather, it is part of a transformative process (Bartolome, 2002; 2004). And hence awareness *alone* cannot bring change, but it can be the first step towards a positive shift in beliefs.

Implications from a Researcher's Lens

As I reflect on my research process and how it shaped my perspective of the larger issue that my study attempted to address, I came to the understanding that my research question

pertaining to how faculty reflect and understand their experiences when teaching ELLs in higher education was far more complex than I anticipated based on my own experience as both a prior ELL student and a current educator. My decision to enroll in a doctoral program in education and to focus my research on ELLs in particular was informed by my own position as an ELL and as someone who has lived the experience of an ELL student in U.S institutions. Conscious of the impact of my background and educational experience on the person, the educator, and the researcher I am today (Chavez, 2008; Collins & Bilge, 2016), I made a concerted effort to maintain certain ethical considerations for my research. I acknowledged my biases in my study—the potential influence of my background in relation to my interest in and reasons for conducting this study. However, my perception of the world and how I understand myself within it is an essential part of who I am as an individual. Thus, my upbringing and prior experiences are a big part of my identity and cannot simply be effaced and/or conveniently replaced with a new disposition. Rather, my identity can be used as a lens to reflect on how my teaching practice is also an extension of those perceptions. Understanding the self is thus essential to understanding our practice and how and why our instructional decisions materialize.

As part of this self-understanding, and through this research process, I reflected on how I long held a certain resentment about my learning experiences in U.S. institutions of higher education. At times, I felt my professors could have done simple things to make my learning experience somewhat easier or less daunting. For example, I recall quite vividly how anxious I would get when my professors would talk at a fast pace during a class lecture, such that it would make it virtually impossible for me as an undergraduate trilingual ELL student to understand what they were saying. And then, racing at the end of class to tell the students what we needed to read and write for the next class without clear, written instructions often made homework far

more confusing than it needed to be. For professors to slow their pace when lecturing and to provide clear written instructions for classroom work and homework was very important to my learning then, not to mention that it would have spared me much of the anxiety I experienced taking lecture notes or trying to include myself in classroom discussion—simple things that I thought did not require much effort from my professors or any kind of institutional support.

Furthermore, as a graduate student I experienced other exclusionary practices in the classroom which left their imprint in my memory and exacerbated this resentment, which now spread beyond individual professors to the institution as a whole, which seemed to make no room or have no consideration for my story, for my experience as I lived it, and not as they perceived it to be. I questioned the purpose of my education within this context, whether my story and experience mattered; at times I questioned if I were even visible in the classroom. My resentment, as such, can still resurface at moments, especially when I face, implicitly or explicitly, an instance of exclusivity, be it a specific incident or through the curriculum itself.

I felt the struggles I went through could have been avoided if someone had taken a stand and invested in my experience as worthy of inclusion in their instructional decisions. However, doing the research and implicitly going through this reflective process myself with my participants—as both an ELL and an educator—I realized how much I was involved in a transformative process myself. Through this research process I learned that holding to our own perceptions and perspectives, without questioning and comparing them to those that differ and even oppose them, can further cement our views and continue to perpetuate a kind of cognitive numbness that can disable any chance of a reflective experience. As such, hearing and reflecting on my participants' responses and findings led me to a better understanding of the challenges faculty face, even if they are conscious and willing to attempt to modify their instructions to fit

their ELLs' needs, and all the more so for those who do not reflect on this complex endeavor. In retrospect, I can see now how the challenges are far greater than what I referred to as the "simple" accommodations I required. For example, prior to conducting this research, my thinking about the subject of ELLs in higher education and how to best address their needs was to a great extent informed by my own experience as an ELL and the biases I developed as consequence of that experience, and equally by my experience as a trilingual educator who taught in higher education as well. Until I conducted this research, I used to think: What does it take for faculty to teach ELL students? If faculty were really committed to their students, then they would find a way? How hard could it really be? But during the reflective process, that I indirectly engaged in through my study, I realized that I did not come to this research as an empty slate, that I brought my lived experiences and biases with me. I was made cognizant of the actual complexity of my researcher's lens that was not, by any means, objective, but rather subjective in nature.

It is this dual perspective described above, however— the one acquired as a student, the other acquired as an educator/researcher—that affords me a vantage point not typically available to native English-speaking educators, and thus gives me the opportunity to play what I see as an important mediating role in this issue. While faculty reflect on addressing their ELL students' needs from one perspective, I can shift between their perspective and the perspective of the students they are teaching. As such, I can relate in an analogous sense to the shift between the "not knowing" and "not being able" dispositions that my faculty participants experienced as they reflected on their degree of responsibility when attempting to adapt to their ELLs' needs. This, in turn, indicates the complexity of negotiating such parameters.

As I unpack this complexity, it suddenly hit me that the reflective process that faculty engaged in allowed me implicitly to reflect on the term shift, which, as the literature suggests and with which I concurred, is often perceived as a contradiction. However, as I reflected on my findings, I came to realize that contradiction is a misleading term for what faculty actually experienced. "Contradiction" seems too simplistic and reductive of a means to conceptualize an emotional response that is, in reality, far more complex and primarily rooted in institutional constraints. In other words, it is not a simple matter of faculty seeming to pay lip service to the importance of addressing ELL needs. Rather, institutional constraints in the context of a reform fatigue, hyper-accountability, and a standardization culture that further uproot faculty from any potential reflective ground create the conditions for that aforementioned shift in faculty's responses and thus leads not to a contradiction but to a distinct tension. As I wrestled with these terms and their implications during the analysis and in the interpretive phase in my conclusion, it became apparent to me that "tension" is a more accurate description of the complexity of faculty's emotional response, as they shifted between these two dispositions.

My decision to add the Listening Guide and, with it, the I-poems to my initial theoretical framework, critical pedagogy, was a deliberate one precisely to capture this nuanced emotional resonance in my participants' stories which otherwise would have been lost. And, in an analogous way—as I alluded to above in reflecting on the shift in my own perspective as both an ELL student and an educator—the inclusion of the Listening Guide method into my theoretical framework also enabled me to overcome my own ethical tension in the representation of my participants, and thereby places my study on a firmer ethical ground. And it is only from such ground that authentic efforts to address the needs posed by the new demographic imperative can be generated. As such, my research offers insight and implications for both faculty and

researchers in a twofold way: first, that our disposition as researchers is profoundly informed by our personal experience; and second, that my positionality as researcher, informed by my experiences as an educator and a former ELL student, let me to an epiphany which fundamentality shifted my own disposition with respect to future research. However, despite such dual positionality, I still had blind spots, and I wonder whether all researchers do and what that implies for their practice. How do we as educators ensure that our blind spot and biases, directly or not, are not blinding us from seeing what we should or should not see? For those researchers who do not share my dual positionality, I hope my study offers a way to begin to unpack and interrogate the vulnerable selves in our practice as an essential part of the process of self-discovery.

Final Thoughts

In closing, I would like to circle back to a passage from Freire (1970) that I quoted earlier in this study on the naming of the world and its critical relevance to teaching all students, including ELLs. I return to this quote now because his words are the most fitting on which to conclude.

> The naming of the world cannot be an act of arrogance . . . How can I dialogue if I always project ignorance onto others and never perceive my own? How can I dialogue if I regard myself as a case apart from others--mere 'its' in whom I cannot recognize other 'I's? . . . How can I dialogue if I start from the premise that naming the world is the task of an elite? (p. 90)

The short and obvious answer to the series of question that Freire (1970) posed is that dialogue is in fact impossible if we operate under this set of misguided conceptions. Implied in Freire's words is the understanding that we as educators, like our students, are unfinished, incomplete,

engaged in a process of becoming, a process whose completion is contingent on the other: for the student, the teacher; for the teacher, the student. Students understand this only too well. It is the educators that have the power, however circumscribed by institutional structures and constraints, to shift this paradigm by acknowledging their own unfinishedness and enacting that understanding in their daily classroom practice. When Freire (1970) underscored the need for dialogue, he is alluding to an understanding of language as power in the context of social class analysis. But in the context of this study and the demographic imperative that informs it, language as power takes on a more immediate and literal sense from a linguistic perspective, given the primacy of language as the basic means of communication and learning. For without discounting the significance of the correlation between social class and academic success, ELL students of whatever class already find themselves at a disadvantage vis-à-vis the language of instruction. And thus, the need for dialogue and all that Freire's notion of dialogue implies in the context of adapting to the new demographic imperative becomes itself that much more imperative.

And just as Freire's concept of dialogue assumes certain restrictions on the agency of both the student and the teacher—that neither is an autonomous subject free of the oppressive structures of a class society—it may well be the case in the context of this study that the restrictions on faculty agency imposed by the institution offer a point of entry into such a dialogue—with themselves, with their colleagues, and with their students. And it is in that dialogue, rooted in the mutual vulnerability of its participants, that lies the hope and possibility for collective recognition of the need for action that would lead to *real* emancipatory structural changes.

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Appendix A- Optional Focus Group Reflective Reading List

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Appendix B- Faculty's Interview Questions

The interview questions were partially informed by Reeves (2006, pp. 140–141).

I first would like to thank you for participating in this study, and to remind you that you will be audio recorded during this interview and that your participation is completely voluntary. You can skip any questions you do not feel answering and opt out of the interview at any time. You will be asked to answer various questions based on five categories.

As part of this study, it is okay to audiotape me during the interview and inquiry group meetings:

Please initial: _____ Yes _____ No

Category 1: Faculty's Reflection on ELLs Inclusion in their Mainstream Classrooms

1. In what subject area are you currently teaching?

2. For how long have you been teaching in this area in this university?

3. On average, how many ELLs do you have in your classes each semester?

4. In what way does ELL inclusion impact the progress of the class and your practice in general? Please explain.

5. Would you agree with the statement that ELL students should not enroll in general education courses until they attain a minimum level of English proficiency?

6. How long do you think it roughly takes ELL students to acquire English proficiency within a university setting?

7. To what extent do you think time allows for faculty in general subject areas to attend to ELL needs in mainstream classrooms?

8. Would you consider modifying your course assignments for your ELL students enrolled in your content area classes? Why or why not?

   Probing Questions:

   a. Is it a good practice to lessen the quantity of coursework for ELL students?

   b. Is it a good practice to allow more time for ELL students to complete coursework?

Category 2: Faculty's Level of Comfort and Preparedness When Teaching ELLs

1. How comfortable are you teaching ELLs?

2. Do you feel prepared to teach diverse students with various linguistic and cultural needs?

3. Overall, how prepared are you to identify and address the academic needs of your ELL students?

4. Do you think it is your responsibility to address your ELL students' academic needs? Whose responsibility is it in your opinion?

5. Do you feel that your ELL students have needs that are different from your other students? In what way?

Category 3: Faculty's Sources of Tension and Resistance When Teaching ELLs

1. How do you feel about ELL inclusion in your classrooms?

2. Do you feel sometimes that your lack of knowledge and preparedness to teach ELLs causes tension for you and your students?

3. If so, do you think that such tension is present in other faculty's classroom as well?

4. If you experience such tension, could you identify the cause(s) of it?

5. How would you describe your emotional state when you have ELLs in your mainstream classroom whose learning needs you do not necessarily have the expertise to address?

6. Can you recall what it was like when you had ELL students for the first time in your mainstream classroom?

Category 4: Faculty's Knowledge about Their ELL Students and Their Learning Needs

1. How would you describe your teaching philosophy?

2. Does your teaching philosophy incorporate consideration of diverse students such as ELLs? If so, in what ways?

3. Do you believe it is necessary to know your ELL students in order to teach them? Please explain.

4. How much knowledge do you have of your ELL students' linguistic and cultural background?

5. How knowledgeable are you about Second Language Acquisition?

6. Do you feel you have the necessary knowledge to address your students' linguistic and cultural needs in your classroom?

7. What is your self-confidence and comfort levels when teaching students whose first language is not English?

8. How comfortable are you asking and receiving assistance from ESL professionals and staff in your institution when teaching ELLs?

9. How often do you conference with colleagues that have knowledge and expertise about ELL instruction?

10. What teaching strategies do you employ when instructing ELLs in your classroom?

11. To what extent does your course curriculum include and connect ELL students'

backgrounds to your academic content area?

12. To what extent does your department curriculum incorporate and accurately represent

other cultures?

Category 5: Faculty's Challenges When Teaching ELLs and Institutional Support

1. Do you fell challenged when teaching ELL students? In what way(s)?

2. Can you describe specific challenges you face when teaching ELLs in your mainstream

classroom?

3. What could be done differently that would help overcome such challenges?

4. What are the first predictors that help you identify ELL students' struggles in your class?

5. What would you do differently to help ELLs perform better in your class?

6. Do you feel it is your responsibility to modify your instruction to adapt to the needs of

your ELL students?

7. If you were to consider modifying your instruction for your ELL students, what would

you do differently?

8. How do you understand your responsibility as an educator for your ELL students?

9. Do you feel you have adequate training to teach ELL students? Please explain.

10. Would you be willing to engage in professional learning opportunities that would help

you to better address your ELL students' learning needs?

11. What professional learning opportunities does your institution provide?

12. What formal or informal professional development opportunities have you initiated on

your own that are relevant to teaching ELLs?

13. What changes would you like to see take place in your classroom/department/program/ and institution with respect to teaching ELLs?

14. In what areas when you teach ELLs do you typically struggle? What support would you wish to have in place to address your struggle?

15. How would you imagine your ELL instructional experience to be in the future?

16. Is there anything you would like to add that I did not address in my questions and that you think is relevant to this study?

Appendix C- Observation Check List & Model

I used Merriam and Tisdell's (2016) observation check list while drawing on the Sheltered

Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) which is a research-based instructional model designed

specifically for ELL students that links content objective to language objective (Center for

Applied Linguistic, 2018).

Merriam and Tisdell's (2016, p. 141) observation check list

1. The physical setting
2. The participants
3. Activities and interactions
4. Content of conversation
5. Subtle factors (informal activities, symbolic and connotative meaning of words, nonverbal communication, unobtrusive measures-physical clues, and what does not happen)
6. Own behavior (your role as a part of the scene observer)

Additional Resources:

Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP)

SIOP Model Observation Check List- University Sample

SIOP Model Useful Sources:

Integrating Content and Language Instruction

Implementing the Common Core for English Language Learners

SIOP Model Check List

Appendix D-Survey Instrument

The following survey was informed and adopted from Martin (2018)

Faculty Demographic and Professional Background

The following final two sections relate to the collection of information about you and your

background. The collection of this data will make it possible to analyze the data collected from

participants in terms of biographical and professional details.

Faculty Background

This section is about you and your background as of the time that you are taking this survey.

What is the highest degree that you currently possess? Mark only one oval.

o Professional Degree (D.V.M, J.D., M.D., etc.)

o Doctoral Degree

o Post-master's Certificate

o Master's Degree

o Post-baccalaureate Certificate

o Bachelor's Degree

o Associate's Degree

In what discipline/areas/specializations is your highest degree? (Choose all that apply). Check all

that apply.

o Business

o Computer Science

o Divinity/Religious Studies

o Design

o Education

o Engineering

o Environment and Natural Science o Food or Agriculture

o General Education

o Health Science

o Humanities

o Interdisciplinary

o Journalism

o Law

o Language

o Mathematics

o Medical/Dental/Pharmacy

o Political Science

o Public Affairs/Policy

o Nursing

o Science

o Visual and Performing Art

o Other: _____

How old are you? Mark only one oval.

o 18-19 years old

o 20-29 years old

o 30-39 years old

o 40-49 years old

o 50-59 years old

o 60-69 years old

o70-79 years old

o 80+

What gender do you identify with? Mark only one oval.

o Female

o Male

o Gender Non-Binary

o Choose not to say

o Other_____

What is your ethnicity? Mark only one oval.

o Asian or Asian American

o Black or African American

o Hispanic or Latino

o Native American or Alaska Native

o Hawaiian or Native Hawaiian

o Pacific Islander

o White

o Two or more races

o Choose not to say

o Other: _____

When I WAS GROWING UP, my family spoke _____ at home. Mark only one oval.

o only English

o primarily English and another language

o equally English and another language

o primarily another language and English

o only a language other than English

CURRENTLY, my family speaks _____ at home. Mark only one oval.

o only English

o primarily English and another language

o equally English and another language

o primarily another language and English

o only a language other than English

Have you ever studied a foreign or second language beyond the intermediate level? Mark only

one oval.

o Yes

o No

Did you spend most of your childhood growing up in the U.S.A.? Mark only one oval.

o Yes

o No

Where did you primarily grow up? Mark only one oval.

o North America

o South America

o Central America

o Europe

o Russia and the former Soviet Republics

o Southern Asia (examples: Afghanistan, India, Nepal, etc.)

o East Asia (examples: China, Korea, Japan, Mongolia)

o Southeast Asia (examples: Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand, etc.)

o Middle East (examples: Jordan, Saudi Arabia, Turkey, etc.)

o Northern Africa (examples: Morocco, Libya, Egypt, etc.)

o Western Africa (examples: Nigeria, Mali, Liberia, etc.)

o Central Africa (examples: Angola, Chad, Cameroon, etc.)

o Eastern Africa (examples: Ethiopia, Kenya, Zimbabwe, etc.)

o Southern Africa (examples: South Africa, Namibia, etc.)

o Australia

o Pacific Region

o Other: _____

Have you ever resided outside of the U.S? If so, how much collective time did you live outside

of the U.S? Mark only one oval.

o No. I have lived in the US my entire life.

o Less than 1 year

o 1-4 years

o 5-9 years

o 10-14 years

o 15-19 years

o 20-24 years

o 25-29 years

o Other: _____

If you have ever resided outside of the United States, what was your main purpose in doing so?

Choose all that apply. Check all that apply.

o Not applicable

o An expatriated worker

o Short-term study abroad (examples: semester abroad, summer abroad, etc.)

o Long-term study abroad (examples: study abroad for an academic year, or receiving degree

from abroad, etc.)

o Living abroad not associated with school or work

o I am a citizen of another country and was living abroad.

o Other: _____

Approximately how long have you been teaching at the college/university level? Mark only one oval.

o Less than 6 months

o 6 months to 1 year

o 1-4 years

o 5-9 years

o 10-14 years

o 15-19 years

o 20-24 years

o 25-29 years

o Other: _____

Complete the following sentence: "I primarily teach..." Mark only one oval.

o in a non-degree professional program (example: cosmetology, medical assisting, welding, etc.)

o in a community college.

o at the undergraduate level.

o at the graduate level.

o Other: _____

Complete the following sentence: "I primarily teach..." Mark only one oval.

o on campus.

o online.

o equally on campus and online.

o Other: _____

Do you have tenure? Mark only one oval.

o Yes, I am tenured.

o No, but I am on a tenure track.

o No, I am not on a tenure track, but my institution does offer tenure.

o No, my institution does not offer tenure.

What best describes your rank or title at the college/university in which you teach: Mark only

one oval.

o Professor

o Associate Professor

o Assistant Professor

o Visiting Professor

o Lecturer

o Instructor

o Adjunct Faculty

o Full-time Faculty

o Part-time Faculty

o Teaching Administrator

o Other: _____

In a typical semester, how many total students on average do you have in a single course? Mark only one oval.

o 1-5

o 6-10

o 11-15

o 16-20

o 21-25

o 26 or more

In a typical semester, how many ELLs on average do you have in a single course? Mark only one oval.

o 1-5

o 6-10

o 11-15

o 16-20

o 21-25

o 26 or more

Do you have specific training or experience working with ESL students? Mark only one oval.

o No

o Yes, experience, but no formal training.

o Yes, formal training, but no experience.

o Yes, both formal training and experience.

Understanding the Needs of English Language Learners

The following are self-selection questions. If you answer "NO" to any questions below, you are encouraged to exit the survey. If you select "NO", but still complete the survey, your results may not be used in the current study but may be used in future studies. Useful Definitions: For the purpose of this study, the group of students of interest are adult international students pursuing university degrees in the United States dealing with sophisticated academic language use. These language learners are users of English as an additional language (i.e., English is not the student's first language). The term English language learner (ELL) will be used throughout this survey to reference this population of students. For questions that follow, an ELL can include a student who already completed an ESL program and is currently taking courses in their content area. An ELL can also include a student who is currently taking ESL courses in addition to courses in their content area. This definition may be repeated later in this survey to aid in recalling this definition.

Are you a current or senior instructor/faculty member in higher education?

(If you cannot clearly answer "yes" or "no", please describe your situation under "other"). Mark only one oval.

o Yes

o No

o Other: _____

Can you confirm that you are NOT a specialist in teaching English as a second language, linguistics, or language acquisition? (If you cannot clearly answer "yes" or "no", please describe your situation under "other"). Mark only one oval.

o Yes

o No

o Other: _____

Do you now have, or have you ever had students whose first language is not English (i.e., ELLs) in your course(s)? Mark only one oval.

o Yes

o No

o Not sure

Please respond to the following questions about your perception of the needs of the ELLs in your course(s). The following questions ask you to respond to a statement on a scale from 1 to 5. Unless otherwise noted, respond with 1 being strongly disagree, 3 being neutral, and 5 being strongly agree. Optionally, space is provided at the end of this section for any comments or concerns that you might wish to elaborate on with respect to any of your responses.

Respond to the following statements: "The ELL students in my courses are well-equipped to _____ common in academic settings." Mark only one oval per row.

	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (neutral)	4	5 (strongly agree)
comprehend lectures	O	O	O	O	O
take accurate notes	O	O	O	O	O
deliver presentations	O	O	O	O	O
understand varying rhetorical styles in speech	O	O	O	O	O
read technical writing	O	O	O	O	O
understand abstract language	O	O	O	O	O
write at the expected academic level	O	O	O	O	O
contribute to in-class discussions	O	O	O	O	O

Respond to the following statements: "The ELL students in my courses are well-equipped with the skills required for an academic program relative to their abilities in_____" Mark only one oval per row.

	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (neutral)	4	5 (strongly agree)
grammar.	O	O	O	O	O
sentence structure.	O	O	O	O	O
pronunciation.	O	O	O	O	O
general oral skills.	O	O	O	O	O
word choice.	O	O	O	O	O
academic vocabulary.	O	O	O	O	O
academic writing.	O	O	O	O	O
reading skills.	O	O	O	O	O
developing strategies for improving their English.	O	O	O	O	O
making connections between their first language and English.	O	O	O	O	O

Respond to the following: "I UNDERSTAND what the academic setting is like IN THE HOME COUNTRIES of my ELL students in terms of _____." Mark only one oval per row.

	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (neutral)	4	5 (strongly agree)
the style of education employed (examples: student centered, constructive, etc.)	O	O	O	O	O
the kind of work expected (examples: papers, essays, projects, quizzes, etc.)	O	O	O	O	O
the amount of work required in a typical semester	O	O	O	O	O
the grading system	O	O	O	O	O
interactions that students have with instructors in class	O	O	O	O	O

interactions that students have with one another in class	O	O	O	O	O
expectations of the instructor	O	O	O	O	O

Respond to the following statements: "ELLs..." Mark only one oval per row.

	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (neutral)	4	5 (strongly agree)
need additional time to complete their coursework.	O	O	O	O	O
need more time to complete their coursework than their non-ELL peers.	O	O	O	O	O
should receive less coursework than other students.	O	O	O	O	O
should have more simplified coursework.	O	O	O	O	O
should be permitted to use their native language in my course among other ELLs.	O	O	O	O	O
should be provided materials in their native language(s).	O	O	O	O	O
should be graded differently than their non-ELL peers.	O	O	O	O	O
require more of my time than other students.	O	O	O	O	O

Complete the sentence: "Relative to their own personal academic abilities, _____ can be successful in my course with normal effort." Mark only one oval per row.

	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (neutral)	4	5 (strongly agree)
a NON-ELL who, even with significant effort, finds it difficult to pass most classes	O	O	O	O	O
a NON-ELL who, even with effort, is generally able to pass most classes	O	O	O	O	O
a NON-ELL who, with little effort, is generally able to pass most classes	O	O	O	O	O

an ELL who, even with significant effort, finds it difficult to pass most classes	O	O	O	O	O
an ELL who, even with effort, is generally able to pass most classes	O	O	O	O	O
an ELL who, with little effort, is generally able to pass most classes	O	O	O	O	O

Optionally, are there any comments that you would like to add to any of your responses from this section? Fill in the textbox.

_____

Faculty's Perceptions of Their Level of Preparedness & Responsibility When Teaching ELLs

Please respond to the following questions about your beliefs about teaching the ELLs in your courses. The following questions ask you to respond to a statement on a scale from 1 to 5. Unless otherwise noted, respond with 1 being strongly disagree, 3 being neutral, and 5 being strongly agree. Optionally, space is provided at the end of this section for any comments or concerns that you might wish to elaborate on with respect to any of your responses. Recall that an ELL is a student who learned English as an additional language (i.e., English is not the student's first language).

Respond to the following statements: "I have a good understanding of...." Mark only one oval per row.

	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (neutral)	4	5 (strongly agree)
the processes involved in learning a second language.	O	O	O	O	O
how long it would take someone to learn a second language to be able to succeed in university courses.	O	O	O	O	O

Respond to the following statements on a scale from 1-5 (with 1 being "An ELL is completely responsible" and 5 being "I am completely responsible."): "Who is responsible for…" Mark only one oval per row.

	1 (An ELL is completely responsible.)	2	3 (The ELL and I are jointly responsible.)	4	5 (I am completely responsible.)
the success of ELLs in my courses?	O	O	O	O	O
helping ELL students adjust to the US-based higher education experience?	O	O	O	O	O
assisting ELLs in improving their LANGUAGE skills?	O	O	O	O	O
assisting ELLs in improving their ACADEMIC skills?	O	O	O	O	O
assisting ELLs in improving their knowledge of COURSE CONTENT?	O	O	O	O	O

If you had to describe your role with respect to working with ELLs, what phrases come to mind? Fill in the textbox.

_____

Complete the sentence: "If I were to encounter issues with abilities of ELLs in my courses, I WOULD BE COMFORTABLE ADDRESSING my ELL students' needs by helping them better..." Mark only one oval per row.

	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (neutral)	4	5 (strongly agree)
comprehend lectures.	O	O	O	O	O
take accurate notes.	O	O	O	O	O
deliver presentations.	O	O	O	O	O
understand varying rhetorical styles in speech.	O	O	O	O	O
read technical writing.	O	O	O	O	O
understand abstract language.	O	O	O	O	O
write at the expected academic level.	O	O	O	O	O
contribute to in-class discussions.	O	O	O	O	O

Complete the sentence: "IT IS MY RESPONSIBILITY to help ELLs improve their ability to..."

Mark only one oval per row.

	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (neutral)	4	5 (strongly agree)
comprehend lectures.	O	O	O	O	O
take accurate notes.	O	O	O	O	O
deliver presentations.	O	O	O	O	O
understand varying rhetorical styles in speech.	O	O	O	O	O
read technical writing.	O	O	O	O	O
understand abstract language.	O	O	O	O	O
write at the expected academic level.	O	O	O	O	O
contribute to in-class discussions.	O	O	O	O	O

Complete the sentence: "If I were to encounter issues with abilities of ELLs in my courses, I WOULD BE COMFORTABLE ADDRESSING my ELL students' needs in terms of their..." Mark only one oval per row.

	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (neutral)	4	5 (strongly agree)
grammar.	O	O	O	O	O
sentence structure.	O	O	O	O	O
pronunciation.	O	O	O	O	O
general oral skills.	O	O	O	O	O
word choice.	O	O	O	O	O
academic vocabulary.	O	O	O	O	O
academic writing.	O	O	O	O	O
reading skills.	O	O	O	O	O
developing strategies for improving their English.	O	O	O	O	O
making connections between their first language and English.	O	O	O	O	O

Respond to the following statements: "IT IS MY RESPONSIBILITY to help ELLs improve their..." Mark only one oval per row.

	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (neutral)	4	5 (strongly agree)
grammar.	O	O	O	O	O
sentence structure.	O	O	O	O	O
pronunciation.	O	O	O	O	O
general oral skills.	O	O	O	O	O
word choice.	O	O	O	O	O
academic vocabulary.	O	O	O	O	O
academic writing.	O	O	O	O	O
reading skills.	O	O	O	O	O
developing strategies for improving their English.	O	O	O	O	O
making connections between their first language and English.	O	O	O	O	O

Respond to the following statements. Mark only one oval per row.

	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (neutral)	4	5 (strongly agree)
I welcome the inclusion of ELLs in my courses.	O	O	O	O	O
The inclusion of ELLs in my courses creates a positive educational atmosphere.	O	O	O	O	O
The inclusion of ELLs in my courses benefits all students.	O	O	O	O	O
ELLs should be required to attain a minimum level of English proficiency before being included in my courses.	O	O	O	O	O
The inclusion of ELLs in my courses increases my workload.	O	O	O	O	O

Respond to the following statements: "IT IS MY RESPONSIBILITY to help ELLs improve their..." Mark only one oval per row.

	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (neutral)	4	5 (strongly agree)
grammar.	O	O	O	O	O
sentence structure.	O	O	O	O	O
pronunciation.	O	O	O	O	O
general oral skills.	O	O	O	O	O
word choice.	O	O	O	O	O
academic vocabulary.	O	O	O	O	O
academic writing.	O	O	O	O	O
reading skills.	O	O	O	O	O
developing strategies for improving their English.	O	O	O	O	O
making connections between their first language and English.	O	O	O	O	O

Respond to the following statements. Mark only one oval per row.

	1 (never)	2	3 (not more than other students)	4	5 (all of the time)
I allow ELLs additional time to complete their coursework.	O	O	O	O	O
I allow more time for ELLs to complete their work than their non-ELL peers.	O	O	O	O	O
I give ELLs less coursework than their non-ELL peers.	O	O	O	O	O
I simplify coursework for ELLs.	O	O	O	O	O
I allow ELLs to use their native language(s) with other ELLs in my course.	O	O	O	O	O
I provide materials for ELLs in their native language(s).	O	O	O	O	O
I grade the work of ELLs differently than their non-ELL peers.	O	O	O	O	O
I give ELLs more of my time than other students.	O	O	O	O	O
I have enough time to deal with the needs of ELLs.	O	O	O	O	O

Optionally, are there any comments that you would like to add to any of your responses from this section? Fill in the textbox.

_____

Professional Learning Needs Working with English Language Learners

This section asks about possible professional learning needs that you may have/wish to have in terms of working with ELLs in your courses. The following questions ask you to respond to a statement on a scale from 1 to 5. Unless otherwise noted, respond with 1 being strongly disagree, 3 being neutral, and 5 being strongly agree. Optionally, space is provided at the end of this

section for any comments or concerns that you might wish to elaborate on with respect to any of

your responses.

Respond to the following statements. Mark only one oval per row.

	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (neutral)	4	5 (strongly agree)
I have the necessary skills and abilities directly related to addressing the specific/unique needs of the ELLs in my courses.	O	O	O	O	O
I have adequate training or support to TEACH to the specific needs of ELLs.	O	O	O	O	O
I would like more training or support to TEACH to the specific needs of ELLs.	O	O	O	O	O
My institution provides the necessary training or support to TEACH the specific needs of ELLs.	O	O	O	O	O
I have adequate training or support to ASSESS the specific needs of ELLs.	O	O	O	O	O
I would like more training or support to ASSESS the specific needs of ELLs.	O	O	O	O	O
My institution provides the necessary training or support to ASSESS the specific needs of ELLs.	O	O	O	O	O

In the past 12 months, have any of the following resources been made available to you at your place of work related to working with ELLs? Mark only one oval per row.

	Yes	No	I'm not sure
ELL specialists	O	O	O
An experienced peer to offer informal advice	O	O	O
Text resources (examples: books/brochures/flyers made available from your institution on teaching these students)	O	O	O
Web resources available on your institution's website	O	O	O
Trainings/Workshops/Professional development about ELLs	O	O	O
A formal professional learning community or other similar group	O	O	O
A faculty development office (at the university, but not specific to my department/division)	O	O	O
A faculty development office (in my department/division)	O	O	O

If you could change three things about the professional development options at your college/university, what would they be?
Fill in the textbox.

_____

Optionally, are there any comments that you would like to add to any of your responses from this section? Fill in the textbox.

_____

In the past 12 months, did you participate in ANY FORM of professional development related to working with ELLs? Mark only one oval.

o Yes

o No

How many hours of professional development related to working with ELLs did you engage in offered by your institution over the last 12 months? Mark only one oval.

o 0 hours

o 1-5 hours

o 6-10 hours

o 11-15 hours

o 16-20 hours

o 21-25 hours

o Other: _____

In the past 12 months, did you participate in any form of professional development offered by

any professional organization related to working with ELLs? Mark only one oval.

o Yes

o No

How many hours of professional development did you engage in related to working with ELLs

from a professional organization over the last 12 months? Mark only one oval.

o 0 hours

o 1-5 hours

o 6-10 hours

o 11-15 hours

o 16-20 hours

o 21-25 hours

o Other: _____

How do you primarily gain knowledge about your DISCIPLINE/CONTENT AREA? Mark only one oval per row.

	Yes	No
Resources from professional organizations about my discipline	O	O
Taking courses related to my discipline	O	O
Attending conferences or workshops about my discipline	O	O
Reading books related to my discipline/content area	O	O
Reading academic publications about my discipline	O	O
From my own research about my discipline	O	O
Engaging with colleagues about my discipline	O	O
Work experience	O	O
Searching on the internet about my content area.	O	O

	Yes	No
Reading academic publications about teaching	O	O
From my own research about teaching	O	O
Engaging with colleagues about teaching	O	O
Actual teaching experience and personal reflection	O	O
Searching on the internet about teaching.	O	O

How do you primarily gain knowledge about TEACHING SKILLS? Mark only one oval per row.

	Yes	No
Resources from professional organizations about teaching	O	O
Taking courses related to teaching	O	O
Attending conferences or workshops about teaching	O	O
Reading books related to teaching skills	O	O

Are you ever asked to provide input on the kind of training offered by your Institution? If so, how often are you asked? Mark only one oval.

o Yes, I am asked each semester that I teach to provide input.

o Yes, I am asked at least once per year, but not every semester. o No, I have never been asked.

Respond to the following on a scale of 1-5 (1 being strongly disagree and 5 being strongly agree): "My institution is actually open to implementing feedback on training given by the faculty." Mark only one oval.

o 1 (strongly disagree)

o 2 (disagree)

o 3 (neutral)

o 4 (agree)

o 5 (strongly agree)

Optionally, are there any comments that you would like to add to any of your responses from this section? Fill in the textbox.

_____

Thank you!

Thank you for your time! If you have any questions, please email ayaric@montclair.edu