Education Dissertations and Projects

School of Education

2017

Case Study of the Classroom Culture that Impacts Teacher Efficacy of Secondary Level Teachers of English Language Learners

Connie Marie Davis Banks

Recommended Citation

Case Study of the Classroom Culture that Impacts Teacher Efficacy of Secondary Level
Teachers of English Language Learners

By
Connie Marie Davis Banks

A Dissertation Submitted to the
Gardner-Webb University School of Education
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Education

Gardner-Webb University
2017

Approval Page

This dissertation was submitted by Connie Marie Davis Banks under the direction of the persons listed below. It was submitted to the Gardner-Webb University School of Education and approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education at Gardner-Webb University.

_____   _____
Douglas Eury, Ed.D.   Date
Committee Chair

_____   _____
Bernard Frost, Ed.D.   Date
Committee Member

_____   _____
Timothy Hart, Ed.D.   Date
Committee Member

_____   _____
Stephen Krawczyk, Ph.D.   Date
Committee Member

_____   _____
Jeffrey Rogers, Ph.D.   Date
Dean of the Gayle Bolt Price School
of Graduate Studies

Acknowledgements

This study was made possible because of the encouragement and support of several individuals. I truly appreciate the words, compassion and guidance throughout the journey.

To Jesus Christ, my Lord and Savior—"Trust in the Lord with all your heart, and do not lean on your own understanding. In all your ways, acknowledge Him, and He will make straight your paths" (Proverbs 3:5-6). My path has always been through Him.

To my husband, Ken; my children, Erin, Nicholas, and Brandon; and my grandchildren, Cole and Banks—your endless love, care, and praise–plus words and actions–served as motivation when I needed to stick to the task even though I desired to throw in the towel of defeat. I am forever grateful and love you dearly! I am so happy I could burst!

To my mother and father—for creating in me the desire to learn something new every day, and to stick to the task to be certain the outcome is both "pretty on the inside and outside." As you look down from heaven, I hope I have made you proud!

To my best friend and daughter, Dr. Erin B. Davis—as you told me many times, this has been the journey of a lifetime and I am indebted to my Lord and Savior Jesus Christ for allowing us to journey together. You have been my soulmate and voice of inspiration as we have overcome odds, climbed mountains, and jumped hurdles we sensed as unsurmountable. I am touched beyond measure that you are my co-pilot! It is my hope that we inspire others to reach for the stars! Dream big…

To my dear friend, Dr. Heather Sellens—you inspired and encouraged me from the moment we met years ago. You spoke from the heart advocating for mainstream

teachers and ELLs. You suggested I study self-efficacy of teachers as you had years earlier and I am grateful for your insight. You listen and share visions for the future regarding ELLs as you continue to motivate and inspire everyone you meet! You are and always will be a dear and special friend!

To my dissertation chair, Dr. A. Douglas Eury—your guidance, patience, encouragement, words of wisdom, and expertise have shed light even when darkness prevented my optimism shine! You are a challenging man who tested my strength during this mission of endurance. I appreciate your stern attitude and swift kicks along the way.

To members of my committee: Dr. Bernard Frost, Dr. Stephen Krawczyk, and Dr. Timothy Hart—you provided the leadership, expertise, and input to assist me in growing my leadership skills for which I will be forever grateful. Each of your perspectives allowed me to view my writing, content, and reflections in a different manner. I am honored to work with each of you as educators. God bless you as you inspire children, parents, and educators to be the best.

To my friend and colleague, Dr. Carla Tucker—you provided constructive and supportive criticism. You are very dear to my heart and I love you as my "daughter from another mother." Through thick and thin, Erin and I will always be there for you.

To my cohort–the group of colleagues who have touched my heart as educators and leaders and have become my extended family—your words of encouragement, intellectual sparring, shedding of tears through sadness, frustration, and joy, and friendship for believing I had what it took to see this endeavor to the end. You ARE the wind beneath my wings. I am forever grateful to each of you and I desire to grow intellectually old with each of you!

To my administration—for allowing me the opportunity to study and share my research with you and my colleagues. The professionalism and chance to work with such colleagues is indescribable. I will continue to work and share my learning with you forever, my education family, who always place children first.

Abstract

Case Study of the Classroom Culture that Impacts Teacher Efficacy of Secondary Level Teachers of English Language Learners. Banks, Connie Marie Davis, 2017: Dissertation, Gardner-Webb University, Secondary ELL/Teacher Efficacy/Diverse Learners/ESOL Professional Development

Throughout the United States a dramatic shift in demographics is taking place, similar to the changes of the early 20th century, as thousands of immigrants cross the threshold of Ellis Island (Karathanos, 2009). Undergoing a greater makeover is the culture of classrooms and American teachers who have seen, firsthand, an increase of more than 60% of English language learner (ELL) students over the past decade (Ballantyne, Sanderman, & Levy, 2008). The purpose of this study was to develop a more in-depth understanding as to whether mainstream teachers from a school district located in upstate South Carolina perceived themselves to be able to effectively teach ELLs. The first of two research question addressed by the study asked about the identifiable differences in the perceived levels of self-efficacy of secondary mainstream teachers with ELLs pertaining to classroom culture. The second research question addressed the components of professional development for teachers with diverse classrooms have had the most impact on the classroom cultures that contain diverse learners.

A mixed methods research design was utilized to conduct the study. Quantitative data was collected and analyzed with the Teaching Efficacy for Teaching the English Language Learner (TETELL) scale (Yough, 2008). Qualitative data was collected using open-ended response questions added to the survey instrument as well as from a focus group of survey participants facilitated by the researcher. This allowed the researcher to gain a more in-depth perception of secondary mainstream teacher's self-efficacy regarding ELLs.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Statement of the Problem

Across the nation education is experiencing changes in what students should learn and how teachers should teach. English language learners (ELLs) are a group that demands consideration due to their increasing population in our nation's public schools and their low academic performance when compared to their native English speaking peers (Samson & Collins, 2012). Many states have adopted and implemented Common Core State Standards for grade levels K-12 as a result of updates to educational policies reflective of the priorities established by the U.S. Department of Education for Race to the Top funding: a) adoption of new standards and assessments to prepare students with college and career readiness skills , b) creation of a system to measure student growth and success allowing teachers and principals information to assist with improving instruction, c) recruitment, development, compensation, and retainment of effective educators, and d) to establish turnaround of low performing schools. Consequently, Samson and Collins (2012) emphasized this would be a test for Local Education Agencies (LEAs) seeking to improve academic performance for ELLs as to whether or not teachers are committed to leaving no child behind. Samson and Collins (2012) suggested these changes would grant opportunities for implementing initiatives to address educational needs for at-risk students, however they questioned whether teachers would be prepared to address the needs of a diverse population within the classroom.

The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES; 2016) estimated that public elementary and secondary schools would experience an enrollment of approximately 50.4 million students in the fall of 2016, which was slightly higher than the fall of 2015 when public school enrollment was 50.3 million students. Projections reflected that 35.4

million students would be enrolled in prekindergarten through grade eight with an additional 15 million students in Grades 9-12; a projection of 5.2 million students were anticipated to enroll in private elementary and secondary schools (NCES, 2016). The NCES (2016) estimated that 13.3 million of public school students would be classified as Hispanic; 2.7 million would be classified as Asian/Pacific Islander, and 0.5 million would be classified as American Indian/Alaska Native students. The NCES (2016) also predicted a decline of white students enrolled in public school, potentially through the fall of 2025, as the Hispanic and Asian/Pacific Islander student enrollments would increase.

The Office of English Language Acquisition (OLEA; 2016) estimated one in four children in the United States' population of school-aged children were from families of immigrants where the home language was not English. During the 2002-2003 academic year, NCES (2004) reported South Carolina had an ELL enrollment of 7,467 students compared to the enrollment 10 years later of 38,986 students. The Migration Policy Institute ranked South Carolina number one when describing states with fastest growth in the ELL student population as an 800% growth comparing 1997-1998 with 2007-2008 in K-12 public schools, thus resulting in a dramatic change within classroom cultures (Van Hook, 2010). As a result, many ELLs were failing and the achievement gap was continuing to broaden between ELLs and the total student population. With the rapid transformation of student body enrollees, MPI (2010) pointed out that LEAs and content teachers have found themselves ill-equipped to meet the challenge of providing equitable and adequate instruction for diverse students who were acquiring English language.

ELLs are greatly transforming schools particularly because many have experienced interruptions in their educational plan (Calderon & Minaya-Rowe, 2011; Goldenberg & Coleman, 2010; Hollins & Guzman, 2005). MPI (2010) also noted

secondary schools were being challenged to meet the needs of ELLs arriving in public schools who were acquiring English as an additional language and grade level content knowledge simultaneously. MPI (2010) pointed out dropout and low graduation rates as indicators of the challenges experienced by long-term English learners (LTELs), newcomer students, and other ELLs. These demographic changes within the classroom culture would demand the attention of community stakeholders and educational leaders due to high stakes accountability as indicated by the new provisions reflected in Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA; 2015).

Teachers have traditionally taught in classrooms with relatively homogeneous populations but are now seeing transformations culturally and linguistically within classroom populations (Kellogg, 1988; Ross & Smith, 1992; Tatto, 1996). Even though classrooms were becoming more diverse, most ELLs were being instructed by Caucasian classroom teachers from European descent (Larke, 1990; Schick, 1995) and in classrooms where English was the language of instruction (Cummins, 2000; Nieto, 2002). Nieto (2002) argued most instructors within the classroom remained unprepared to address the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students. The NCES conducted a survey in 1999 reflecting over 50% of the instructors who taught ELLs within the mainstream classroom with only 20% responding as being adequately prepared to meet the needs of the diverse students. Knowledge and statics from "Teacher Quality: A Report on The Preparation and Qualifications of Public School Teachers" (NCES, 1999) reflected most instructors felt "moderately" or "somewhat" prepared in classrooms while 17% of the instructors felt unprepared in addressing the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students.

The Southeast Center for Teaching Quality (SECTQ, 2002) published a policy

summary mentioning only 6% of instructors teaching ELLs in mainstream classrooms located in the Southeast, where dramatic increases in ELLs were being experienced, received eight or more hours of professional development to address the needs of the diverse population–even though 29% of the instructors reported having ELLs in the mainstream classroom. The summary further indicated bleaker numbers for the state of North Carolina, where 47% of instructors reported teaching ELLs in the mainstream classroom with only 6% having received professional development to address the needs of diverse students (SECTQ, 2002).

A teacher's efficacy, pedagogical theory and practices, and personal learning gained through professional development provided, have all been proven to impact an educator's ability to increase student achievement of culturally and linguistically diverse students (Zacarian, 2012). Zacarian (2012) emphasized a continuing need for professional development to address teacher efficacy and pedagogical theory and practices for ELLs drawn from the Learning Forward's Professional Learning Association definition of effective professional learning is "a comprehensive, sustained, and intensive approach to improving teachers' and principals' effectiveness in raising student achievement" (System Leaders, 2012, para. 1). ELLs are the "fastest growing segment of the preK-12 student population" according to Short and Boyson (2012, p. 1). The challenge to perform successfully in academics, as well as to graduate, is greater for ELLs than the challenge experienced by the general preK-12 population (Short & Boyson, 2012). Few teachers and administrators have received formal training to grow their ability to meet academic needs to teach ELLs (Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Ladson-Billings, 1995). Zacarian (2012) stated professional development as essential for mainstream teachers who work with ELLs within content areas, especially when teaching

beginning level ELLs who arrive from countries with no prior experience in English and are entering U.S. schools for the first time with limited or interrupted formal schooling.

With the rapid shift of South Carolina's public education population due to the great influx of ELL students, a need for continuous study directly related to ELL progress was substantiated.

Organization of the Study

A traditional five-chapter format was utilized for the study. Chapter 1 provides a description of the context and history of the accountability movement, beginning with the compliance work written in Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act and the Equal Education Opportunities Act of 1974. The research problem and questions are presented, as well as a rationale for the study, current research on the issue, and the significance of the study for the education profession. The chapter concludes with a description of the research design, a list of definition of terms, and a review of potential biases which may have impacted the outcomes of the study.

Chapter 2 outlines the literature related to the history of ELLs, impact of laws in regard to ELLs, theory of teacher efficacy, theory of language acquisition and pedagogical practices associated with ELLs, professional development for educators working with ELLs, ELL program design, the role of the instructor in language acquisition for ELLs, World-class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA) standards, and common threads throughout the literature. Close attention was given to Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), which was modified to Teacher Efficacy of Teaching English Language Learners (TETELL) by Yough (2008) to include ELL specifics as one of the tools used to gather quantitative data along with interview questions to solicit qualitative data in the research study.

Chapter 3 frames the procedure used to collect research. Included in the chapter is the setting of the study, the research design and rationale and research questions. The methodological procedures used for conducting the study are outlined to include the selection process of participants for the study as well as an overview of the quantitative and qualitative instruments used to gather data. The role of the researcher, procedures used in data analysis, prediction of foreseen validity threats, limitations of the study, and ethical procedures charted to ensure valid results were clarified by the researcher.

Chapter 4 reflects the researcher's findings and displays the organized data collection. Narrative explains the examination as the researcher sought answers to the research questions posed in the study. Data are displayed in tables with written narrative descriptive analysis for each component.

Chapter 5 discusses implications stemming from the results of the study along with recommendations from the researcher for future studies.

History of the Problem

As noted by Samson and Collins (2012), understanding of how to address and educate the ever-growing ELL population has not yet been attained, and as a result many districts are experiencing burdens in meeting the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students who fail to demonstrate academic success in content areas such as reading, writing, and math. ELLs present particular challenges due to federal mandates stated in ESSA (2015), which require all students receive access to curriculum that prepare students to be college and career ready. LEAs face demands from federal and state agencies for improving ELL performance with inadequately prepared educators and limited resources (Samson & Collins, 2012).

The research of Samson and Collins (2012) described how the gap between ELLs

and non-ELLs would widen due to educators not being trained to focus on and support oral and academic language development for ELLs in later grade levels. With a lack of focus on professional development driven by researched pedagogical practices for educators of ELLs, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) also predicted a continued trend of a growing achievement gap between ELLs and non-ELL peers (Samson & Collins, 2012). The study stated that emphasis is given to limited proficiency in English, while little emphasis has been placed on the role of systemic factors such as poverty, health status, parental resources, and inadequate school support to include limited language resources and inadequately trained educators (Samson & Collins, 2012). Samson and Collins' (2012) research indicated a high-quality educator with knowledge of the content and pedagogy required to teach content curriculum standards is essential, however they stated limited attention has been directed to the of training mainstream teachers with skills to effectively address pedagogy and second language acquisition for ELLs. Samson and Collins (2012) argued mainstream teachers lack an understanding of how to address the importance of second language development through the four domains (reading, listening, writing, and speaking), academic language, and cultural sensitivity. They pointed out these knowledge areas as most important for all teachers who teach ELLs and strive to close the achievement gap while preparing students for college and career readiness (Samson & Collins, 2012).

One means of improving academic achievement for ELLs would be through improving policies toward requiring educators to be trained in research based pedagogical practices through professional development (Samson & Collins, 2012). The study, conducted for the Center for American Progress, confirmed that many mainstream teachers were concerned with increased accountability regarding students' progress on

standardized achievement tests, especially in meeting the needs of ELLs. The need for required, appropriate professional development and training for educators in order to address language and content learning for ELLs to promote academic growth is strong, however many educators lack this training (Samson & Collins, 2012).

Samson and Collins (2012) indicated a lack of information as to what mainstream educators should know in order to meet the needs of ELLs within the classroom. The study exemplified how an undergraduate education candidate may be enrolled in courses in childhood development, math, social studies, English language arts, classroom and behavior management, art, and assessment–however they did not participate in courses related to the pedagogy of teaching ELLs (Samson & Collins, 2012). Without requirements for coursework related to cultural and linguistically diverse students, educators are inadequately trained to instruct ELLs properly (Zacarian, 2011). Zacarian (2011) pointed out that many states require undergraduate education students to pass a state teacher exam, which rarely assesses the teacher's knowledge or skills specific to instructing ELLs.

Short and Boyson (2012, p. 1) identified ELLs as the "fastest growing segment of the preK-12 student population" hence educators face challenges greater than the regular preK-12 population in order for ELLs to be successful and experience timely graduation. Education Statistics reflected more than 50% of ELLs attend schools where they are less than 1% of the student population (NCES, 2004) and multiple researchers noted most educators and educational leaders have received little professional development or training to teach ELLs (Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Ladson-Billings, 1995). Zacarian and Haynes (2012) stated professional development as crucial for educators and educational leaders and the research study conducted by Ross (1995) further supported teacher

efficacy was related to the quality of professional development provided to teachers as classroom cultures evolves. Their research aligned with research by Calderon and Minaya-Rowe (2011) that discussed the complexity of providing educators with high-quality professional development focused on ELLs. Calderon and Minaya-Rowe stressed the wide range of educator needs: from preparing undergraduate preservice educators who participate in teacher education programs, to supporting master teachers with numerous years of teaching experience and knowledge. The use of observation protocols was determined to be a vital part of professional development and was determined as helpful when identifying what works and what should be strengthened within the practice of teaching ELLs (Calderon & Minaya-Rowe, 2011; Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2004, 2008). According to Zacarian (2011) this type of professional development was proved to be effective when working with ELLs when combined with data-driven decisions, instructional and assessment planning, and increased parent-school engagement.

Learning Forward's Professional Learning Association definition of effective professional learning is "a comprehensive, sustained, and intensive approach to improving teachers' and principals' effectiveness in raising student achievement" (System Leaders, 2012, para.1). In keeping with the research of Zacarian and Haynes (2012), this definition serves as a foundation for the planning of professional development for all educators of ELLs. The researchers continuously stressed the importance of the definition to institutions of higher education to assist in preparing educators and educational leaders (Zacarian & Haynes, 2012).

Researchers expressed mixed reviews when discussing effective instructional strategies and pedagogical approaches for teaching ELLs. Goldenberg (2008) maintained that quality instruction and curriculum provided for native speakers would be sufficient

for ELLs. However other researchers do not share that point of view, (LaCelle-Peterson & Rivera, 1994; Meltzer & Hamann, 2004; National Council of Teachers of English [NCTE], 2008) while others specifically disagree citing formative assessment as a means to develop effective instructional plans (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Carr, Sexton, & Lagunoff, 2007). This view was further supported as training was defined as an ongoing process rather than an actual test administered to students and used by educators to adjust instruction for improving students' learning (Popham, 2008, 2009; Formative Assessment for Students and Teachers [FAST] 2008). Ongoing formative assessment is essential to effective instructional planning in addition to pedagogy for ELLs (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Carr et al., 2007). Black and Wiliam (1998) reflected that formative assessment improved student learning as educators reported the largest learning gains ever when compared to other interventions. Further noted by Zacarian (2011), ongoing assessment data are necessary to effectively plan for ELLs.

Numerous researchers stressed that teachers should demonstrate high expectations while creating challenges for students requiring high-level thinking and processing for language that require ELLs to complete an assortment of tasks (August & Shanahan, 2006; Coady, Hamann, Harrington, Pho, & Yedlin, 2008; Galguera & Hakuta, 1997; Meltzer & Hamann, 2004; Thompson, 2004). A primary challenge for ELLs lies in gaining knowledge academically while simultaneously acquiring English as an additional language (Goldenberg & Coleman, 2010). As a teacher interacts with students, develops instructional plans and assessments, and establishes relationships with students, his or her sense of self-efficacy would be influenced; influenced self-efficacy, in turn, influences teacher attitudes toward learners as well as toward his or her job as a teacher (Bandura, 1997).

The classroom teacher portrays a pivotal role in student achievement. Therefore, teachers of ELLs with high levels of teacher efficacy should exhibit high expectations for ELLs believing ELLs can achieve or surpass achievements within state standards (August & Shanahan, 2006; Coady et al., 2008; Meltzer & Hamann, 2004; Thompson, 2004). Goldenberg (2008) stressed educators must exhibit awareness of ELLs' backgrounds, be knowledgeable in content and pedagogy, and effectively modify instruction to consider the language limitations of ELLs (Callahan, 2005; Galguera & Hakuta, 1997; Marzano, 1998). Factors such as educational experiences, socioeconomic status, content knowledge, immigration status, personal life experiences, and culture should be considered as well (Freeman, Freeman, & Mercuri, 2003; NCTE, 2008). Research by the National Council of Teachers of English supported these considerations and modifications within classroom cultures as benefits to ELLs and native speakers alike (NCTE, 2008).

The Research Questions

In particular, two questions are addressed in this study.

1. What are the identifiable differences in the perceived levels of self-efficacy of secondary mainstream teachers with ELLs pertaining to classroom cultural components?

2. What components of professional development for teachers with diverse classrooms have had the most impact on the classroom cultures that contain diverse learners?

Definition of Terms

Throughout the research, various key terms occurred frequently. To ensure continuity throughout the study, the following terms are operationally defined.

1st generation. First generation ELLs are described as language learners who are foreign-born and often foreign-educated students (Cummins, 1981; Krashen, 1982)

2nd generation. Second generation ELLs are described as language learners born in the United States as children of immigrants (Cummins, 1981; Krashen, 1982).

Academic language. Academic language is defined as the language used within an academic subject needed to ensure a strong comprehension within the literacy and content structure of the subject being addressed (Cummins, 1981).

Accommodation. Accommodations are identified as changes and strategies utilized with assessments and assessment procedures in order for the content knowledge of ELLs to be measured more accurately. Examples of allowable accommodations are: setting, or timing and scheduling of the assessment; presentation, use of a word to word bilingual dictionary, and modification of materials; and protocols, or testing environments used to facilitate English language learner participation in assessments without compromising or undermining the test construct (Rivera & Stansfield, 2001).

Adequate yearly progress (AYP). The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 (2002) states each state must decide on this is a measure of accountability for schools and LEAs receiving Title I funds to reflect continuous and substantial growth established by NCLB (U.S. Department of Education [USDE] 2015).

Affective filter. The affective filter is used to describe an English language learner's attitudes that affect the success of second language acquisition such as the lack of motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety that may encumber language learning (Krashen, 1982).

Annual Measurable Achievement Objective (AMAO). AMAOs are a means of evaluating the growth of the English language acquisition of limited English learners as

mandated by the NCLB Act, Title III, and Elementary and Secondary Education Act for accountability efforts of individual states and LEAs (USDE, 2015).

Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS). BICS is often described as "playground English" or "survival English." It is the language first acquired and used for facec-to-face communication. Described as cognitively undemanding, it includes vocabulary, syntax, and known ideas, which are used in everyday communication and do not require a deep understanding or the rigorous cognition that academic language would require. Typically, an English language learner would be able to develop and master BICS within 1-3 years (Cummins, 1983, 2000).

Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). CALP academic language required for academic achievement within an academic setting. CALP is necessary for literacy and academic success, which enables ELLs to communicate in analytical conversations and obtain information, needed to create relationships, generate inferences, and come to conclusions. ELLs typically require 5-7 years to acquire CALP, which is considerably longer than the time required to acquire BICS (Cummins, 1983, 2000).

Comprehensible input. This language is accessible to an English language learner to assist the learner in a meaningful way. The input is modified through the support of visual and context clues, simple sentences depicting key vocabulary in both languages, as well as the avoidance of idiomatic language (Echevarria et al., 2004, 2008).

Culture. Culture is the way of life of people that includes norms, attitudes, and learned behavior patterns. It also encompasses traditions and customs–how people interact through behavior and feelings and how the apply social norms when perceiving, relating, and interpreting events of the world (Hamayan, 2012).

Culturally and linguistically diverse. Culturally and linguistically diverse is a

term associated with ELLs and often used as a reference with reference to the distinctive backgrounds of students (Nieto, 2002).

English as a Second Language (ESL). ELS is a method to instruct students who are acquiring English as an additional language (USDE, 2016).

English for Speakers of Other Language (ESOL). ESOL is a term used to identify students who are in the stages of acquiring English as an additional language. The learner is described as one who may not speak, comprehend, or write English at the same level as his or her peers because English was not their primary language within the home (USDE, 2016).

English Language Development (ELD). ELD is the development of the receptive and production language of people who speak a language other than English (USDE, 2016).

English Language Learner (ELL). And ELL is any student who acquired a language other than English as their primary language and is in the process of acquiring English as an additional language (USDE, 2016).

English Language Proficiency (ELP) assessment. The ELP assessment is described as a test utilized to measure the growth of English language through oral, reading, and writing skills of ELLs. An ELP assessment is required by Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (reauthorized as the NCLB Act of 2001) for all local education agencies served within a state educational agency in each state (USDE, 2016).

Home Language Survey (HLS). The HLS is a form completed by all students or a parent or guardian of the student during the student initial registration process to attend schools in the United States and is mandated by the federal government. It conveys

information to the school personnel about the student's language background and must be on file for all students registered to attend school in the United States (USDE, 2016).

Language 1 (L1). L1 is the primary language of the student (Cummins, 1981; Krashen, 1982).

Language 2 (L2). L2 is a secondary language of the student (Cummins, 1981; Krashen, 1982).

Language acquisition. Language acquisition is the process of acquiring a language without direct instruction; it is described as acquiring a language without awareness as one interacts with the environment (Cummins, 1981; Krashen, 1982).

Language proficiency. Language proficiency is the level determined when a student is able to communicate in the domains of speaking, listening, reading, and writing in basic communication tasks as well as in academic setting through the usage of the newly acquired language (Hargett, 1998). LEP levels of language proficience are generated through the administration of an oral, listening, reading, and writing assessment administered annually for federal and state accountability purposes.

Limited English Proficiency (LEP). LEP is a term used by the United States Department of Education when referring to ELLs who are enrolled or registering for enrollment in elementary or secondary schools who have an insufficient level of English proficiency to meet the state's English requirements. There are three identified levels of proficiency: a) NES–Non-English Speaker, b) LES – Limited English Speaker, and c) FES–Fluent English Speaker. LEP replaced the term limited English speaking (LES) which was used in the first authorization of the Bilingual Education Act (Title VII of ESES, prior to NCLB) in 1968 (USDE, 2016). The term ELL is currently replacing the term LEP, to clarify and eliminate the implication that a nonnative-English-speaking

student is deficient (NCTE, 2008).

Linguistically and culturally diverse. The term 'linguistically and culturally diverse' is generally used to characterize communities where English is not the dominant language used for communication, even though there maybe bilingual or monolingual English speakers within the community (Ariza, 2006).

Local Education Agency (LEA). An LEA is a public board of education or other public authority within a state who has administrative control for public or secondary schools in an area within state (USDE, 2016).

Long-term ELL. A long-term ELL is a student who has participated in U.S. schools for more than 6 years and continues to struggle academically due to limited English proficiency (Calderon & Minaya-Rowe, 2011).

Mainstream classroom. The term mainstream refers to regular education classroom setting where most children learn. Accommodations may be implemented for diverse populations as part of the general education program (Zacarian, 2011).

Metacognition. The process of 'thinking about thinking' defines metacognition. For example, when good readers identify and clarify a purpose for reading during the preview of the text to be read, they are using metacognition (Marzano, 1998).

Modification. Modifications are adjustments made in academic instructional plans, assignments, and assessments necessary to ensure comprehensible input is feasible and attainable for ELLs (Freeman et al., 2003).

Multilingualism. Multilingualism is defined as an individual who has the ability to speak more than two languages and possibly possess proficiency in many languages Ladson-Billings, 1995).

Native language. Native language is defined as the primary or first acquired

spoken language of an individual (Krashen, 1982).

Native-born nonnative speakers. Native-born nonnative speakers are students who are born in the United States and reside in communities where a language other than English is the dominant language (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982).

Natural approach. The natural approach is based on Krashen's (1982) theory of language acquisition. It is assumed that speech emerges in four stages: a) preproduction, b) early production, c) speech emergence, and d) intermediate fluency (Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

Newcomer program. A newcomer program is a program designed for ELLs who are new immigrants to the United States. Programs are typically located in middle and secondary schools addressing the needs of ELLs who have limited or interrupted schooling in their native countries. The goal of a newcomer program focuses on language acquisition, growing core academic skills, and acculturation to the United States educational system (Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders, & Christian, in press).

Non-English Proficient (NEP). NEP students are characterized as students with minimal or no proficiency in English (USDE, 2016).

No Child Left Behind (NCLB). The NCLB Act is federal legislation passed in and encompasses nine titles with Title III specifically addressing language acquisition programs for Limited English Proficient students (NCLB, 2002; USDE, 2016).

Parachute kids. Parachute kids are classified as ELLs who come to the United States to reside with extended family and enroll in elementary and secondary schools. This term may exhibit a pejorative connotation (Roberge, 2003).

Pedagogical beliefs. Pedagogical beliefs are a specific set of beliefs reflecting a teacher's comprehension and understanding of teaching (Goldenberg, 2008).

Primary language. Primary language is the first acquired spoken language or native language of an individual (USDE, 2016).

Pull-out ESL. A program model where ELLs depart from their mainstream classrooms and receive language acquisition instruction in a separate setting. The program can be implemented individually or with a small group with an ESL certified educator who follows a specific language acquisition curriculum based on student language and academic needs, or utilized the state standards with modifications to drive the instructional plan (USDE, 2016).

Push-in ESL. Push-in ESL is a program model where an ESL certified educator goes into the mainstream classroom to work with the ELLs (USDE, 2016).

Scaffolding. Scaffolding is defined as the assistance provided to an ELL by a teacher to assist with the task he or she would otherwise be unable to perform without scaffolds or supports. The aim of scaffolding is to foster the student's ability to achieve success independently in the future (Echevarria et al., 2008).

Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP). SIOP is a method used to deliver academic instruct to ELLs within an academic setting where the focus of instruction centers on language and content objectives (Echevarria et al., 2008).

Social language. Social language is the language often referred to as BICS when referring to an ELLs. It associated with face-to-face interactions and speech used in social gatherings, which may include school and classroom settings (Cummins, 1983).

Specially Designated Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE). SDAIE is method of delivering instruction within the academic content that incorporates the special needs of ELLs through the fostering of student participation, social interaction, oral and written communication, use of authentic books and activities, and the building of

background knowledge essential to master academic concepts (California Department of Education, 1993).

State Education Agency (SEA). An SEA is an agency assigned the responsibility for the state supervision of elementary and secondary public schools (USDE, 2016).

Teacher efficacy. Teacher efficacy refers to "the teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplishing a specific task in a particular context" (Tschannen-Moran, Wolfolk-Hoy, & Hoy, 1998, p. 233). Bandura (1997) indicates three context levels to assess self-efficacy: domain general level, domain specific level, and task level.

Teacher knowledge. Teacher knowledge focuses on master or naïve teachers' personal capacity of information, skills, strategies, and background experiences related to the process of teaching; the term is based on Alexander, Schallert, and Hare's (1991) definition of knowledge, "an individual's personal stock of information, skills, experiences, beliefs, and memories . . . whether or not it is verified in some external or objective way" (p. 317).

Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL). TESL refers to teacher training programs in ESL.

Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). TESOL is a professional organization of teachers, administrators, researchers, and other personnel who focus concern on promoting and strengthening instruction and research in the field of teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL, 2017).

Title III. A part of legislation of the NCLB Act of 200 enacted to guarantee that LEP students, along with immigrant children and youth, develop proficiency in English

and meet the same academic content standards of achievement expect of all students (USDE, 2016).

Total Physical Response (TPR). TPR is a language-learning approach and strategy based on a relationship between language and a physical action or representation. It is used to stimulate student engagement in a meaningful learning opportunity to demonstrate, connect, and build background knowledge of academic vocabulary and concepts (Asher, 2003).

WIDA ACCESS Placement Test (W-APT) screener. The W-APT screener is the tool used for identifying potential ELLs and is typically administered only to students who are new to the English language (World-class Instruction Design and Assessment [WIDA], 2007).

World-Class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA). WIDA is a consortium of states dedicated to an equitable educational opportunity for ELLs with high standards of design and implementation with the assistance of a federal grant (WIDA, 2007).

Significance of the Research

The research study sought to establish a connection between the self-efficacy of secondary mainstream teachers and ELLs. Teachers who exhibit resilient feelings tend to face challenges with perseverance and believe they are able to impact student outcomes (Bandura, 1996). A great deal of research reflected how self-efficacy of a teacher was connected to other variables such as teacher preparation and experience in addition to pedagogical practices for language acquisition centered ELLs. Hence, the study focused on cultural components within the mainstream classroom that impact teacher efficacy when faced with challenges to prepare secondary level students who are culturally and

linguistically diverse, specifically ELLs.

There is a growing desire to comprehend how the presence of ELLs with cultural and linguistic needs might affect teacher efficacy. Therefore, the study examined personal and contextual factors related to a teacher efficacy within diverse secondary mainstream classrooms with ELLs with cultural and linguistic needs.

Role of the Researcher

The researcher is a certified teacher in the state of South Carolina and with certifications in English as a Second Language (ESOL) as well as elementary and secondary administration. The researcher serves as an ESOL instructional coach and lead teacher with 16 years of experience as a mainstream classroom teacher, 10 years of experience as an ESOL teacher ranging from kindergarten to adults, and 3 years of experience as an instructional coach and lead teacher. The researcher actively participates in professional development at the local, state, regional, and national levels and continuously provides professional development for educators focusing on ELLs.

An increase of diverse students, specifically ELLs, entering South Carolina mainstream classrooms during the late 1990s, the researcher faced challenges to address the needs of diverse students. With limited professional development to address classroom diversity, the researcher experienced a disability in providing an equitable and adequate education for ELLs. As a growing number of diverse students continued to enter mainstream classrooms, it became evident to the researcher a need for additional research and resources for teachers to teach in a diverse classroom (Zacarian, 2011). An influx of culturally and linguistically diverse students caused state and local education agencies to recognize the need to prepare teachers to address strengths and weaknesses of diverse students, specifically ELLs, when preparing for college and career readiness

(Zacarian, 2011).

Researcher Assumptions

An objective point of view was demanded of the researcher throughout the study, however, since the researcher works as an ESOL instructional coach and lead teacher it remaining objective during the process may introduced opportunities for natural bias. Therefore, an acknowledgement of possible bias and subjectivity was provided by the researcher prior to the study. Background experiences and relationships were built over time molding the researcher's philosophy as an educator; the reflections and experiences of the researcher, could possibly create bias, therefore, the researcher elected to acknowledge a means to "disclose to their readers where self and subject became joined" (Peshkin, 1988, p. 17).

The researcher is employed as an ESOL instructional coach and lead teacher in a local education agency who has experienced student growth over the past 10 years in diverse populations, specifically ELLs. Administration recognized the population increase of ELLs and encouraged educators to address the needs of all students in mainstream classrooms. Understanding the challenges teachers face in serving diverse students, specifically ELLs in mainstream classrooms provided the researcher with a subjective opinion regarding differentiation and implementation of researched pedagogical practices.

The researcher completed required ESOL certification coursework studying pedagogical theory and language acquisition focused ELLs and continued to broaden her educational knowledge through administration certification. Professional organizations such as Carolina TESOL, Southeast Regional TESOL, and TESOL International provided an avenue to volunteer, learn, collaborate, and organize conferences for

educators of diverse students, specifically ELLs. The researcher collaborated with others to formulate ideas to assist and train mainstream teachers challenged with diverse classroom, specifically with ELLs in classes. As an ESOL coach and lead teacher, a coach's mentality was demonstrated when researching pedagogical theory, professional development, and teacher self-efficacy in addition to discussions on implementation of researched pedagogical practices for ELLs.

The researcher understood the need for all students to be college and career ready–including diverse populations, specifically ELLs. It was also essential the researcher understood how teachers perceived their self-efficacy in a culturally and linguistically diverse classroom. Therefore, it was important teachers understood their role in the researcher's study i/n order to gather data.

Limitations of the Study

The study sought to investigate and illicit a new perspective on teacher self-efficacy and how it is impacted by an evolving secondary mainstream classroom culture which is becoming more linguistically and culturally diverse, specifically when discussing ELLs. Despite efforts to avoid shortcomings, the proposed study was not without limitations. The pool of participants relied heavily on voluntary participation and participants in the research might teach within a specialized area related to ELLs and/or language acquisition, which could influence the data collection.

An area of concern for data collection centered on participating teachers instructing within different grade levels–which could reveal altered levels of teacher self-efficacy (Soodak & Podell, 1997). To avoid potential conflicts, the participants targeted were secondary mainstream teachers located in an upstate South Carolina school district who experienced growth within the culturally and linguistically diverse population,

specifically with ELLs.

In addition, efforts were made to gather qualitative data through focus group to reflect pedagogical practices and knowledge measurements the teachers were utilizing in their secondary mainstream classroom with diverse populations, specifically ELLs. The researcher explored the impact on teacher self-efficacy when connected to factors such as teacher preparation and experience as well as knowledge of pedagogical practices for second language acquisition of ELLs.

Another limitation of the study was demonstrated knowledge of working with ELLs from induction teachers with less than 3-5 years of classroom experience, which are not uncommon when measuring pedagogy and knowledge for naïve or inexperienced teachers (Alexander, Jetton, & Kulikowich, 1995).

Lastly, the theories studied focused on cognitive knowledge required to teach ELLs and did not address external factors such as socialization powers within the school environment for teachers, collective efficacy, or school climate. Even though external factors maybe important and may impact teachers' efficacy, knowledge, and pedagogical beliefs, the study sought to clarify relationships centered on teacher self-efficacy, knowledge and pedagogical beliefs, and professional development as it pertained to linguistically and culturally diverse secondary mainstream classroom, specifically mainstream classrooms with ELLs.

Delimitations of the Study

This study was limited to secondary certified mainstream teachers in Grades 9-12 within a school district located in upstate South Carolina. The data sample presented in this study is only relatable to the school district where the data were gathered. However, other school districts of similar diverse populations, may find the results applicable to

their school district.

The timeframe of the study was conducted during the spring semester of the school year for secondary mainstream teachers, which may have affected their responses on self-efficacy. Data were collected over a 7-day period at the beginning of the spring semester as some teachers may have had an opportunity to participate in specialized training for teaching ELLs earlier in the school year.

Significance of the Study for Leadership

As diverse populations in K-12 public schools in the United States increase, specifically in upstate South Carolina, this research study may offer data for supporting training for educators in an effort to help them feel more effective and confident (Flynn & Hill, 2005) as they instruct ELLs. Yilmaz (2011) pointed out the importance of teachers' belief in and awareness regarding the quality of their work. Bandura (1997) also stressed teachers' self-efficacy sets the stage for improvement and effectiveness regardless of the area of work where they are engaged. The study may impact educational leaders with knowledge and insight related to teacher self-efficacy when preparing diverse populations, specifically secondary ELLs located in upstate South Carolina, for college and career readiness.

As national accountability standards increase the study is significant due to the impact teacher self-efficacy could have on school performance regarding college and career readiness when addressing culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms, specifically classes with ELLs. NCLB legislation emphasized that all sub-groups, including ELLs, exhibit academic growth during their education (Perez & Holmes, 2010). Study results could provide administrators and educational leaders with data to assist in decision-making pertaining to teacher self-efficacy, knowledge and pedagogical beliefs,

and professional development for linguistically and culturally diverse mainstream classrooms, specifically mainstream classrooms with ELLs.

Summary

As schools in upstate South Carolina are faced with challenges to prepare students in secondary mainstream classroom who are culturally and linguistically diverse, specifically ELLs, for college and career readiness, the role of mainstream teachers will be vital to success. The self-efficacy of teachers will impact how challenges are confronted and how secondary mainstream teacher perceive their ability to instruct ELLs to be college and career ready.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

A Brief History of ELLs

Zacarian (2012) points out deficiencies in the cultural and linguistic experiences and backgrounds between the ELL population and their educational providers. In addition, Zacarian stressed a shortage of teacher knowledge regarding pedagogy of ELLs through teacher preparation programs and professional development to enhance teacher efficacy; and issue which continues to challenge LEAs and educators of ELLs. The National Education Association (NEA, 2011) states that public school populations reflect most ELLs begin schooling in kindergarten and first grade, however, approximately 43% of ELLs of immigrant parents enroll in a U.S. school as middle and high school aged students. Seventy percent of ELLs are educated in five states: Arizona, California, Texas, Florida, and New York. However, states in the southeast–North and South Carolina, Arkansas, Tennessee, and Georgia–have recorded tremendous growth in public school enrollment of ELLs and immigrants despite that the majority of ELLs are not immigrants. The Migration Policy Institute indicates that 84% of ELL were born in the United States (Van Hook, 2010).

The Education Secondary Elementary Act, Title III, defines an immigrant student as being between the age of three and twenty-one who was not born in the United States and has not been in enrolled in or attended a U.S. schools for more than 3 years. The Pew Hispanic Center (2008) published a report stating that ELLs and immigrants are the subgroup in the United States with the most rapid growth of students (Velasco & Dockterman, 2008). The report stated that one in ten students in classrooms in 1990 were ELLs, in 2005 the number was one in eight, and the projection is one in four by 2020 (Pew Hispanic Center, 2008). With more than 460 languages noted in the report, a

majority–76%– of ELLs speak Spanish at home (Velasco & Dockterman, 2008).

As the classroom culture in the United States evolves, the question presented by the NEA (2011), "how well are general education teachers prepared to teach ELLs?" becomes a concern (p. 2). A survey of general education teachers conducted by Ballantyne, Sanderman, & Levy (2008) found 29.5% of teachers confirming the need for increased opportunities for professional training in order to be equipped to meet the needs of ELLs within the general education classroom. The study also discovered only twenty states in the United States require new teachers to receive preparation for instructing ELLs Ballantyne et al., 2008). Furthermore, Parsad, Lewis & Farris (2001) reported survey findings from the NCES that less than 27% of the teachers polled stated they were "very well prepared" to instruct ELLs while 12% indicated they were "not at all prepared."

Teachers acknowledged a lack of preparedness to meet the needs of ELLs within the secondary general education classroom in a 2006 survey of more than 1,200 teachers; the survey reflected 57% of the teachers identified with the need for training to respond more effectively to the needs of ELLs (Reeves, 2006). Reeves (2006) pointed out the following challenges teachers faced with when working with ELLs: a) lack of pedagogy to address ELLs, b) need for assessments to effectively measure linguistic and academic needs as well as determine ELL learning, c) the broad range of English language and academic skills of ELLs, d) need for better communication between students, teachers, parents/guardians, and community, and e) absence of professional training opportunities.

Darling-Hammond, French, and Garcia-Lopez (2002) state research established a need for professional training opportunities to enhance student learning and outcomes to include ongoing teacher training aimed at providing teachers time to collaborate on ideas

and strategies, as well as time to voice concerns and support each other in meeting the needs of ELLs within the evolving culturally and linguistically diverse classroom. Through collaborative training sessions, Darling-Hammond, et.al (2002) argue teachers need the chance to identify and embed strategies in content curriculum where ELLs may encounter challenges. As the number of ELLs in mainstream classrooms continues to grow, Short and Fitzsimmons (2007) continue to stress the difficulty general education teachers will face in providing academic content instruction while building effective second language literacy for ELLs. Samson and Collins (2012) stress the key to closing the achievement gap between native English speakers and ELLs is through the provision of professional training to educators in order to build teacher efficacy to better meet the needs of ELLs. The study identified the inconsistencies across the United States as to what is necessary knowledge and skills for teachers of ELLs (Samson & Collins, 2012). Samson and Collins (2012) cite five states, Arizona, California, Florida, Pennsylvania, and New York, that require specific courses for certification to address ELLs' needs; while this is viewed as positive overall, even these requirements do not provide enough background knowledge and pedagogy for teachers to effectively teach ELLs. Samson and Collins stress the majority of states have few requirements in place for teacher preparation and professional development pertinent to ELL instruction, particularly for mainstream teachers.

The intention of this review is to establish a theoretical background exploring the impact of identifiable factors in diverse classrooms contributing to the self-efficacy of teachers including components of professional development and pedagogical training as it relates to planning, implementing, and assessing for classrooms with diverse populations, specifically ELLs. Through the constructs of this study, numerous

theoretical studies and articles focusing on teacher efficacy or the self-efficacy of teachers were targeted for analysis.

The Theory of Teacher Efficacy

A teachers' sense of efficacy refers to "teachers' situation-specific expectation that they can help students learn" (Ashton & Webb, 1986, p. 3). Pajares (1992) defined a teacher's sense of efficacy as "beliefs about confidence to affect students' performance" specifically targeting the education canopy as "educational beliefs" (p. 316). Ashton (1985) said teachers' efficacy is "their belief in their ability to have a positive effect on student learning" (p. 145). Many definitions of teacher efficacy are found in research. The history of teacher efficacy is stemmed from the research of Rotter's (1966) theory of locus of control and the social cognitive theory of Bandura (1977). From the roots of Rotter's locus of control and Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory, Gibson and Dembo (1984) sought to build a link between the understanding of teacher efficacy based on the work of Rotter and Bandura.

RAND Corporation researchers initially developed a teacher efficacy measure using Rotter's (1966) research on locus of control, which was later expanded on by Ashton, Olejnik, Crocker, and McAuliffe (1982), Guskey (1982, 1988), and Rose and Medway (1981) who maintained the focus and measurement close to the origins. However, an additional theme emerged from the research of Bandura (1977, 1986) known as social cognitive theory with a concept of self-efficacy embedded; this established a basis for the research of Ashton (1984), Gibson and Dembo (1984), and a number of other researchers. From the research grounded by foundational theories of these researchers developed a theory of efficacy, which continues to change as researchers seek to comprehend its meaning and role within the teaching experiences.

The theory of teacher efficacy has grown from two areas of research, Rotter's (1966) locus of control theory and the social cognitive theory of Bandura (1977). Teacher efficacy initially was employed by RAND (Armor et al., 1976) researchers in a large-scale survey, which included two items reflecting the locus control theory of Rotter (1966). Locus of control is defined, as the degree individual believes the supposed cause of an anticipated conclusion are within his or her control (Rotter, 1966). This is when the person believes the outcome of the event(s) is determined by their actions (Parkay, Greenwood, Olejnik, & Proller, 1988). Since teacher efficacy was understood in terms of locus of control, efficacy was the magnitude in which teachers' believed factors under their control, impacted teaching results greater than the environment (Tshcannen-Moran et al., 1998), leading some original RAND researchers to define efficacy as "the extent to which the teacher believed he or she had the capacity to affect student performance" (McLaughlin & Marsh, 1978, p. 84). RAND researchers armed this evidence on locus of control and teacher's perceived effectiveness on student outcomes regardless of environmental elements, added two items to the survey to assess the impact of teacher beliefs. The combined score of these two items results in the first assessment of teacher efficacy.

RAND researchers used the combined score of the two items to generate a single overall efficacy score. The first item question: "When it comes right down to it, a teacher really can't do much because most of a student's motivation and performance depends on his or her home environment" (Berman, McLaughlin, Bass, Pauly, & Zellman, 1977, p. 137; McLaughlin & Marsh, 1978, p. 85) displayed an external orientation drawing on the powerlessness teachers face regarding a students' home experiences. The second item question: "If I try hard, I can get through to even the most difficult or unmotivated

students" (Berman et al., 1977, p. 137; McLaughlin & Marsh, 1978, p. 85) conveyed an internal orientation, focusing on the teacher's power and ability to reach and motivate students regardless of environmental factors (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

The items focusing on efficacy embedded in the RAND research study were linked strongly to reading achievement (Armor et al., 1976), through student outcomes, teacher behaviors identified to nurture student outcomes, teacher's ability to adapt and implement innovative instructional techniques and strategies (Berman et al., 1977). This belief held by teachers became one of the most influential factors observed by RAND researchers involving teacher characteristics and student learning (Armor et al., 1976).

Others have utilized Rotter's (1966) definition and interpretation of teacher efficacy in their research to construct additional assessment measures of efficacy. Rose and Medway (1981) and Guskey (1981) proposed the Teacher Locus of Control (TLC) scale, which required teachers to assess responsibility for student outcomes as seen within or out of control of the teacher. In the same way, Guskey (1981) designed the Responsibility for Student Achievement (RSA) scale, which incorporated elements of Weiner's (1979) attribution theory to the locus of control framework.

Stemming on the RAND research and Rotter's (1966) theory, Guskey (1981) designed a 30-item instrument known as Responsibility for Student Achievement. Utilizing this scale, efficacy was determined as "a teachers' belief or conviction that he or she can influence how well student learn, even those who may be difficult or unmotivated" (Guskey, 1987, p. 41). Hence, self-efficacy came to be understood as what an individual can do. Guskey's (1987) instrument measured the degree of responsibility a teacher felt for student outcomes in general, as well as in addition to the degree of responsibility experienced by the teacher due to student success or failure.

Weiner's (1979) four causes for success or failure to teaching were implemented by Guskey in the instrument. The four causes were recognized as teaching abilities, teaching effort, difficulty of teaching task, and luck. Weiner (1979) anticipated these causes to represent various consequences of stages of constancy and controllability. In this study, teaching abilities were identified as internal, steady, and controllable factors for success or failure at teaching. The effort of teaching was seen as internal, unsteady, and controllable. Teaching task difficulty and luck reflected as external and uncontrollable, in addition teaching task difficulty seen as steady and luck unsteady. Scores from Guskey's (1982) assessment reflected the measurement of responsibility teachers accepted for student outcomes based on success and failure to be synonymous with the meaning of efficacy as "perceptions of personal control on the part of teachers" (p. 70).

Efficacy understanding, as described by these researchers, is deeply embedded in attribution theory (Weiner, 1979, 1992) as well as the origins of locus of control (Rotter, 1966). Both theories mirror an individual's disposition to respond based on supposed degrees of control over consequences identified as successful student outcomes regardless of external elements such as one's home environment. This understanding is different from theoretical inquiry based on Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory.

Additional research on teacher efficacy stems from a result of Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory where Bandura instructed the idea of self-efficacy as the prime force of motivation behind an individual's actions. Bandura (1977) explained self-efficacy as "the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce outcomes" (p. 193). More recently, Murphy and Alexander (2001) stress self-efficacy is seen as the most consistent factor used in research involving motivation.

Bandura (1977) identified a discrepancy between self-efficacy and locus of control. Locus of control, according to Bandura (1977), was seen as an "outcome expectancy" or "a person's estimate that a given behavior will lead to certain outcomes" (p. 193). Thus, outcome expectancies, or locus of control, characterizes an individual's appraisal of a likely conclusion based on an individual's behavior within a particular situation (Bandura 1977, 1986). Bandura explained, alleged self-efficacy is "a judgement of one's capability to accomplish a given level of performance, whereas outcome expectation is a judgment of the likely consequences such behavior will produce" (p. 391). Therefore, efficacy beliefs encompass individuals and their beliefs in regards to their ability to execute actions, whereas outcome expectancies center on the belief performance action of a specific skill level will influence the outcome.

Bandura (1997) notes there is a temporal connection among efficacy beliefs and outcome expectancies whereas an individual has established efficacy beliefs surrounding the ability to perform a known behavior and based on those beliefs stems an outcome expectation. Bandura stressed it is illogical to try to reverse the order of temporal process and advocated for measurement of efficacy beliefs independently instead of combining with outcome expectancies. He argued outcome expectancies are generated by an individual within context and provide limited if any information beyond what is derived from the measurement of an individual's efficacy beliefs (Bandura 1997).

According to Bandura (1977) efficacy beliefs originate from four sources: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal. Mastery experiences are defined as occurrences where an individual performs the act under question; for example, when individual teachers gain experience in teaching, or provide tutoring for students, these are occurrences whereas perspective or performing

teachers utilize resources to form and enhance their efficacy beliefs (Bandura 1977).

Bandura (1977) identified an additional source of efficacy beliefs as vicarious experiences where individuals observe others to gain insight and information to grow efficacy beliefs. A vicarious experience depends on the familiarity of the model observed by the observer as well as the actions observed (Bandura, 1977).

Verbal persuasion is the third source of efficacy beliefs and is supported by researchers in attempts to accept and finish tasks (Bandura, 1997). Feedback from colleagues, students, parents may be perceived as positive or negative.

The final source of efficacy beliefs is physiological cues where Bandura (1997) points to the human body to provide input to the individual of emotions, which may not be present on the surface. For example, sweaty palms stemming from emotions when an individual performs a mastery experience is perceived as a negative preceptor whereas another individual may experience an adrenaline rush confirming positivity during a mastery experience (Bandura, 1977).

Self-efficacy beliefs developed through the four sources of efficacy beliefs serve as motivational forces within the cognitive system, which is theorized by Bandura (1986) as self-efficacy is perceived as the central mediator of effort thus resulting is higher efficacy beliefs which will lead to higher levels of performance and persistence. In regard to teachers, researchers have documented a correlation between teachers' efficacy and persistence which challenged with difficulty (Dembo & Gibson, 1985; Tuckman & Sexton, 1990; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). Other researchers support the relationship established between teachers' efficacy and teacher performance utilizing instructional practices deemed to foster student outcomes and academic achievement (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Berman, et al., 1977).

Raudenbush, Rowan, and Cheong (1992) expanded the dialogue centering on self-efficacy as a potential mediator of knowledge and practice but forewarned against assuming because an individual possesses knowledge and skills they will be effective teachers. The researchers sided with Bandura's (1986) theory acknowledging a connection between self-efficacy as a mediator between knowledge and practice. The researchers spotlighted a teacher's beliefs and motivation in teaching academic content as vital, however they recognized having knowledge and skills required to implement and perform actions would not guarantee the teacher would initiate and implement the action effectively.

In theory, self-efficacy beliefs are viewed as a vital element in the field of teaching as illustrated through the review of literature of numerous researchers who refer to teachers' sense of self-efficacy for teaching as teacher's ability to demonstrate practices necessary to teach (Greenwood, Olejnik, & Parkay, 1990; Guskey, 1982; Lee, Dedrick, & Smith, 1991; Newman, Rutter, & Smith, 1989; Raudenbush et al., 1992; Ross, 1994; Smylie, 1988). Other researchers stress a specific nature of self-efficacy relevant to teaching (Ashton & Webb, 1986; McLaughlin & Marsh, 1978; Tschannen-Moren et al., 1998) identified as teaching or teacher efficacy.

Educators who believe in inspiring and motivating students promote positivity and academic success in students according to Brophy (1983), Brophy and Good (1986), and Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) where teacher efficacy is defined as the beliefs in one's capabilities to perform a specific task. In other words, how people behave, think, and feel towards a specific situation (Bandura, 1994). Ross (1995) pointed out people with levels of high efficacy are organized and participate actively during the learning process. Hence, when selecting activities, one's efficacy guides the behavior and

development of thoughts, feelings, and actions within the learning environment (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Understanding teacher efficacy as it relates to mainstream teachers working with culturally and linguistically challenged students is significant.

Over the last several decades, research has focused on the educator's perception of efficacy as an influence of instructional effectiveness (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Denham & Michael, 1981; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Guskey, 1987; Rose & Medway, 1981). Ashton and Webb (1986) included quantitative and qualitative methods in their study to describe the high sense of teacher efficacy of productive educators. The study reflected educators who performed highly on this construct demonstrated greater positive behaviors that engaged and enhanced student learning. The educators in this study engaged in setting long- and short-term goals for students, utilized researched pedagogical practices, and created a positive learning environment for students which promoted student engagement (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Educators within the study reported a sense that all students are capable of learning no matter what the family or ethnic background is of the student. However, low scoring educators in the study reflected ethnicity and family background as crucial pieces and might hinder a student's ability to learn (Ashton & Webb, 1986).

Gibson and Dembo (1984) reported finding data in their study of educators that was consistent with the research of Ashton and Webb (1986). They compared educators demonstrating high and low efficacy expectations (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Gibson and Dembo (1984) also discovered that educators who scoring high demonstrated a more positive and productive learning environment than educators who scored low. Results from these studies substantiate the importance of having educators in the classroom who

exhibit high levels of teacher efficacy (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Educators with confidence in their ability to utilize pedagogical practices will enhance student learning. A teacher's ability to motivate student learning is how Gibson and Dembo (1984) defined teacher efficacy. Their research showed that a teacher with a high sense of self-efficacy is more likely to ignite and stimulate learning than a teacher with a low sense of efficacy according to research (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Therefore, teachers exhibiting high levels of self-efficacy towards learning can move efficiently toward goals such as language acquisition for ELLs (Bandura, 1994).

Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy recognizes that "efficacy expectations determine how much effort people will expend and how long they will persist in the face of obstacles and aversive experiences" (p. 194). Bandura further explains people have a tendency to "avoid threatening situations they believe exceed their coping skills, whereas they get involved in activities and behave assuredly when they judge themselves capable of handling situations that would otherwise be intimidating" (p. 194). For over 30 years, the concept of self-efficacy which drives concepts of teacher efficacy, has been at the forefront of educational research. The theory of self-efficacy is attributed to the work of Bandura (1977) and is framed within social cognitive theory. Social Cognitive theory hypothesizes people have human agency which functions within the process of *triadic reciprocal causation* (Bandura, 1977, 1997). This method proposes that human agency results in behavior which is influenced by three factors which include environmental factors, individual behavior, in addition to cognitive, affective, and biological factors making up internal personal factors (Henson, Bennett, Sienty, & Chambers, 2000). These three factors combine with one another to impact individual perceptions, choices, and behavior. How people behave is effected by what one thinks, believes, and feels

(Bandura, 1986; Bower, 1975). Also noted by Bandura (1986), social influences convey and activate information and emotional reactions stimulating instruction, modeling, and socialization from human expectations and beliefs as well as emotional and cognitive thoughts. Difference in reactions stimulated from social environments such as age, size, race, sex, ethnicity, and physic are evoked, ultimately impacting what one says and does (Lerner, 1982). Snyder (1981) points out that people activate reactions subject to demand of the environment and their role such as a teacher who may exhibit changes in the sense of self-efficacy within a diverse classroom culture.

Bandura (1986) implies a relationship between every day behavior such as that of a teacher and an environment such as a classroom, can alter the environment as well as behavior be altered by the environment. Social environments, such a teacher's classroom of individuals, may change whether an individual teacher likes it or not, however most environments do not change unless an appropriate behavior is activated. Bandura (1997) utilizes the illustration of a hot stove whereas the stove will not burn unless it is touched thus explaining the concept that an environment will only modify based on the actions of the individual(s) within the actual environment, thus people are both the products and producers for the said environment. People determine the status of the environment through personal and creative situations depending on preference and competencies (Bandura & Walters, 1959; Emmons & Diener, 1986). Based on actions, people will create and select environments whether the environment be hostile or friendly (Raush, 1965). Bandura (1982) argues that people are products of interactions stemming from internal and external forces in addition to past and present actions. Backed up by decades of research, Bandura proposes that an individual's belief in his or her abilities affect behavior, motivation, and conquest or disappointment on specific tasks (Bandura, 1982,

1986, 1993, 1996, 1997).

Hoy, Sweetland, and Smith (2000) analyzed the RAND report and agree that teacher efficacy, defined as a teacher's confidence in his or her ability to promote students' learning, is linked to variables of significance such as student motivation, ability to adopt and implement innovation, teacher evaluation, classroom management, time dedicated to teaching certain content, and identification and referral for special needs students. In another RAND analysis by McLaughlin and Marsh (1978), self-efficacy was identified as the greatest attribute of a teacher. Mclaughlin and Marsh (1978) and Ashton and Webb (1986) reflect that effective teachers take ownership for students' academic success, establish effective short- and long-term instructional plans, provide an environment of support for learning, utilize numerous instructional strategies as well as best practices to promote student participation and engagement, as well as demonstrate a belief that all students will achieve academic success regardless of their ethnicity or socioeconomic background. Echoed by Gibson and Dembo (1984), plainly stated, teachers exhibiting high sense of self efficacy provide more effective instruction.

Pedagogy and Theories of Language Acquisition

According to Lewin (1951) "there is nothing so practical as good theory" (p. 5). Theory is the basis of process thinking necessary in the educational practices. Muss (1996) states it is important to recognize commonalities as well as the particular humanistic characteristics which steer teaching, learning, and teacher self-efficacy in relationship to theory when educating ELLs. "Theories must seek connections - the patterns of causality, relatedness and dependency that exist among its components" (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1995). For better teaching and learning within the mainstream classroom for ELLs, pedagogy must be addressed now and in future as we seek to

prepare pre-service and/or in-service teachers to fulfill the needs of mainstream teachers of ELLs. Educators "need to become students of their students - their cultural metaphors, languages and linguistic understandings, learning styles - to recognize them as resources for learning" (Holmes Group, 1990, p. 41).

Recent studies of language acquisition have been heavily influenced from the fields of linguistics and psychology in the United States. Second language acquisition (SLA) is a relatively new area of study that relies on theories and methodologies from a number of disciplines (e.g., psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, social psychology, and neurolinguistics) and utilizes them to comprehend the process of instruction and non-instruction as it pertains to second and foreign language acquisition (Valdes, 2001).

Within the theory of SLA emerges the grammar-translation method which is one of the most traditional means for acquiring a second language. Originating in the late nineteenth to early twentieth centuries, the grammar-translation method was used to direct the teaching of classical languages and literature such as Latin and Greek (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005). The method was derived to improve the written language without addressing the oral production of the second language. Reflected in the studies of Omaggio (1986), this method stemmed from "the view of faculty psychologists that mental discipline was essential for strengthening the powers of the mind" (p. 89). Thus the grammar-translation method used for the production of the second language gave little concern to the production of oral language required for social communication.

The focus of the grammar-translation method targeted grammar rules of the second language in order for students to become proficient. Second language vocabulary was taught through translations from the mother language creating a learning environment based in the native language with limited use of the targeted language.

"Traditionally, listening was not taught in language classes" (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005, p. 4). Word lists were generated and taught in isolation with instruction incorporating the vocabulary into sentences according to the rules of grammar with great emphasis. Incorporation of higher level reading commenced early on in this method but centered on grammatical analysis instead of text content. Exercise drills existed in translating sentences from the new language being acquired to the native language as well as from the native language to the new language with limited practice to pronunciation (Omaggio, 1986).

The behaviorist theories of Skinner (1974) believed that "when a behavior has the kind of consequence called positive reinforcement; such behavior is more likely to occur again" p. 52). Early during the 20th century Skinner's theories led to the audio-lingual teaching method and are seen in many mainstream classrooms today in the United States. The audio-lingual method was founded on the principles of behavioral psychology. New language was presented orally or through repetitive drills. From the foundational principle that language learning is created through the formation of habit, fostering a dependence on copying language of others, plus memorizing phrases. Language structures were taught in a sequential format one at a time. Repetitive drills were practiced to learn language patterns through the sequential skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Vocabulary teaching was extremely limited. Teaching objectives were determined by linguistic analysis between first language (L1) and second language (L2). Visual aids and language laboratories were used to assist language development. Explicit native-like pronunciations were emphasized to prevent language learner errors. Focus with the new language tended to omit comprehension (Brown, 2015).

Skinner (1974) recognized cognitive and social domains as vital elements to the

development of language proficiency. "How a person speaks depends upon the practices of the verbal community of which he is a member" (Skinner, 1974, p. 99). From Skinner's (1974) studies and observations developed a need to integrate language and cognition due to the connection between language acquisition and how it effects on people as a self as well as others.

Methods founded on theories of behaviorism were disputed by Chomsky (2000) who led the "cognitive revolution" of the 1970s through the 1980s (p. vi). "It is only about twenty-five years since psychology shed the shackles of behaviorism and allowed researchers to indulge in speculations and theories that included constructs such as mind" (Bialystok, 1991, p. 5). Acquiring a language is impossible for humans when it is driven by repetition and reinforcement according to Chomsky (2000). He states that children do not acquire language utilizing this method but through the mimicking of the language of adults, creation of their own sentences, and uttering of phrases never heard (Chomsky, 1954). Children make errors as they are learning language and no amount of correction will cause them to stop. Language is not learned but is generated again and again. "The normal use of language is, in this sense, a creative activity" (Chomsky, 1986, p. 100).

Chomsky (1956) ignited a revolution with his theory stating people have a predisposition founded in genetic and environmental factors that allows for understanding of the grammar system within a language which assists in language acquisition which referred to as the Language Acquisition Device (LAD). His belief focused that children learn from what they hear, discover, and make sense of from what people in their surroundings say and do. Children utilize skills such as hypothesizing and inferring to interpret positions or situations in order to gain language knowledge. Armed with knowledge from the non-oral actions of others, children are able to apply this knowledge

to oral language which stimulates cognitive and emotional growth (Nahir, 1979).

Krashen and Terrell (1983) provide a link between acquisition and the learning process with cognition appearing throughout the process of language acquisition. Dulay et al. (1982) allude to cognitive process when they state, "conscious processing may also underlie a learner's use of his or her first language structure to formulate second language sentences in particular situations" (p. 59). Cognitive processes within second language acquisition are critical as well as how the process impacts the teaching within mainstream classrooms (Bialystok, 2001); therefore, many facets to language acquisition and/or learning are uncertain unless consideration is given to several factors surrounding language development such as cognition. "Learning a second language can be exciting and productive… or painful and useless… the difference often lies in how one goes about learning the new language and how a teacher goes about teaching it" (Dulay et al., 1982, p. 3), thus it is the task of educators of language to make certain the second does not conquer the first.

Researchers within the studies of second language acquisition theory follow closely the stages of language proficiency which are observable. "Language development is usually marked by linguistic behaviors of complexity" (Kottler & Kottler, 2002, p. 47). Dulay et al. (1982) stated, "Researchers have found that most people, whether their first language is Hindi or French, acquire a working knowledge of certain structures in English in a fairly set order" (p. 5). There is agreement among researchers of language acquisition that the progress of native language development tends to follow a predictable sequence… "children who are learning their first language during early childhood use similar kinds of verbal constructions and make the same kinds of grammatical mistakes … Second language researchers need to catch up with first

language research" (pp. 7-8). Through the analysis of students' language acquisition proficiency levels educators will comprehend and visualize as well as internalize characteristics in order to generate accommodations and modifications for instructional and assessment plans to address the needs of ELLs.

Researchers share universal knowledge that the progression of SLA is developmentally comparable to that of the native language. Krashen, a prominent researcher of linguistics who specializes in SLA theories at the University of Southern California, has contributed in the areas of SLA through research and teaching since the 1980s. His theory of SLA is driven by the following: a) the Acquisition-Learning hypothesis; b) the Monitor hypothesis; c) the Natural Order hypothesis; d) the Input hypothesis; and e) the Affective Filter hypothesis (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, pp. 27-47).

According to Krashen (1982) the Acquisition-Learning hypothesis is the most important of all hypotheses in his theory. He states there are two independent parts the *acquired system* or *acquisition* and the *learned system* or *learning* (Krashen, 1982). The *acquisition* derives from the subconscious process comparable to course used by children as they develop their initial language; it is driven by meaningful experiences and interactions where communication is not based on utterances. Formal instruction creates the *learning* which stems from conscious language knowledge, for example knowledge of grammar rules. Krashen (1982) asserts that *learning* is not as important as *acquisition*.

The monitor hypothesis reflects the relationship derived from acquisition and learning and indicates that support for the learning is influenced by acquisition thus the monitoring function results from learned grammar. In keeping with Krashen (1982), *acquisition* serves as the utterance initiator and *learning* serves as the 'monitor' for planning and editing depending on whether the ELL has process time, thinks about the

correct usage, and understand the grammar rules. Krashen (1982) also suggests ELLs who utilize the monitor hypothesis are over-users known as introverts and perfectionists lacking self-confidence; the under-users, normally seen as extroverts or optimal users, are those who use monitoring appropriately.

The input hypothesis focuses on *acquisition* not *learning* and accounts for how Krashen (1982) explains the learner acquires a second language. This hypothesis focuses on improvements and progressions as the learner obtains second language 'input' one level above the present level of linguistic competence. This is when ELLs are learning at a level but are exposed to comprehensible input within the second language they are not able to generate but understand. This allows for the use of supports beyond words to create meaning constituting the learning experience.

The natural order hypothesis is derived from research (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Fathman, 1975; Makino, 1980) and is cited by Krashen and Biber (1988). The research proposes a predictable natural order existed in the acquisition of grammatical structures. Some of the grammatical structures may be acquired early in the acquisition of language while other arrive later. The natural order would depend on the ELL's age, fluency in first language, as well as language experiences (Krashen & Biber, 1988).

The fifth and final hypothesis is the affective filter hypothesis reflecting Krashen's (1982) view that affective variables such as motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety play a role in promoting SLA. Krashen (1982) asserts ELLs, who are highly motivated and confident with little anxiety, are more successful in SLA. Whereas ELLs with less motivation, low self-esteem, and high levels of anxiety develop a mental block with comprehensible input preventing it as a use for acquisition. As the affective filter increases there is interference with SLA.

Vygotsky (1978) and Krashen's (1982) theories surrounding language and second language acquisition influence the learning of today. The zone of proximal development (ZPD; Vygotsky, 1978) focuses on supporting the learning as ELLs can gain experience, knowledge, and skills as they engage in activities just beyond their identified language developmental level recognized as 'i' which aligns with the arguments of Vygotsky (1978) and Krashen (1987) known as 'comprehensible input' and 'i+1'. Both theories propose the learner is presented language at the stage 'i', but in order to generate rigor, learning is presented 'i'+1 to gain maximum language acquisition growth. Recent research on the stages of language acquisition are evident when exploring the levels of proficiency through the WIDA Consortium which classifies the levels as *Entering, Emerging, Developing, Expanding,* and *Bridging* (Gottlieb, Cranley, & Cammilleri, (2007). The levels represented in WIDA are aligned with Krashen and Terrell's (1983) Natural Order Acquisition hypothesis.

Brown, (2000) focused research on the stages of second language development through a number of articles and books on second language acquisition and pedagogy. Brown proposed that the stages a learner uses for language development influences the progression of the learners' linguistic development as they attempt to produce the language system they are seeking to learn. The first stage, *presystematic,* is portrayed by limited knowledge of the proposed new language, accompanied by the next stage, emergent, where the learner acquires linguistic production and comprehension; the third stage, *systematic*, involves the learner being able to generate a greater consistency with oral production prior to evolving to the mastery stage, *stabilization/postsystematic*, where the learner exhibits fluency with meanings and comprehension not be problematic.

Stemming from the research of Bialystok (2001) comes a focus on bilingualism as

the embryonic cause for increasing mastery of identified intellectual processes in children who are literate in more than one language. Bialystok (2001) does not concentrate on any specific description of language acquisition levels or stages but does explore the idea of *learning latency*–the time when the stimulus and response occur. Bialystok inquired as to "how long should it take children to acquire a level of proficiency that allows them to function and thrive in an academic environment?" (p. 230). A study conducted by Hakuta, Butler and Witt (2000), and referenced by Bialystok (2000), discusses the length of time needed to grow English language when compared to native English speakers. The conclusions from the study reflect it requires time for second language acquisition to occur and is dependent upon age of the learner and peer referenced norms for acquiring English, "Being that the first two or three years are a time of rapid growth with the curve rising at a slower pace from there on" (Bialystok, 2001, p. 232).

The research of Krashen and Terrell (1983) considers the approximate time span within the stages of SLA. The stages are periods of time normally used when exploring language development and are not necessarily relative to the learner's biological age during the process of second language acquisition. The time span of each stage or level is generally twelve months which is similar to the time span of language development within a native language.

Through the observation of indicators such as the *Can Do Philosophy* and *Guiding Principles of Language Development* utilized through the WIDA Consortium (2007), teachers are able to engage learners in activities cultivating comprehensible input as depicted in Krashen's (1982) input hypothesis 'i+1'; the hypothesis utilizes the scaffolding approach above whereas i=actual level and i+1= target growth in new language being acquired (Krashen & Terrell, 1983). Krashen's hypothesis proposes the

learner will progress to the next stage of second language acquisition when the proposed

input or learning includes elements and structures of the next level with supports to

inspire the learner to use language associated with a more advanced level of language.

The language proficiency chart is provided from the research Krashen and Terrell (1983)

to assist stakeholders with an understanding of various levels associated with second

language acquisition. The chart (see Table 1) provides educators a framework for

making instructional based decisions for ELLs while scaffolding instructional plans to

meet linguistic needs within the mainstream classroom (Krashen, & Terell, 1983).

Table 1

Language Proficiency Chart

Level I - Pre-production	0-12 months	"no-verbal production"
Level II - Early production	12-24 months	"telegraphic speech"
Level III - Speech emergence	24-36 months	"some errors in speech"
Level IV - Intermediate fluency	36-48 months	"produces connected narrative"
Level V - Near proficiency	48-60 months	"close to native proficiency"

Level I–pre-production–is the stage which correlates to the linguistic behaviors of

an infant, ages 0-12 months; pre-production is characterized as the silent period. During

this stage of SLA the production of words begins depending on the student's literacy

within their native language. The pre-production level, often referred to as the silent

period, is a time when ELLs are acquiring comprehension within the new language and

the majority of the communication is centered on actions and gestures. Pre-production

focuses the instruction on reception-listening comprehension, with ELLs demonstrating

evidence of their language growth through silent performance indicators such as pointing, moving, drawing, matching, and circling. Their comprehension is evident by "showing" through their actions and not through oration. For example, an elementary Level I ELL could demonstrate comprehension of the water cycle using an illustration sequencing of the step even though they are unable to produce oral language proving their understanding. A secondary Level I ELL could reflect understanding of timelines or scientific knowledge through a visual presentation as a means to demonstrate rigorous comprehensible input (Krashen, 1987). Krashen (1985) points out educators would need to understand Level I of language proficiency in order to instruct and assess students appropriately. The early work of Krashen and Terrell (1983) demonstrates how educators could provide scaffolding within instruction and assessment plans with little to no focus on oral production while simultaneously maintaining the rigorous standards required for college and career readiness.

Level II–early production–is centered on telegraphic speech resembling the writings found in telegrams structured with simple nouns and verbs (Brown & Fraser, 1964). Brown and Fraser (1964) stress the student's speech production is to be based on function words needed to communicate information. Communication at this level is demonstrated with simple two-word sentences. Bloom (1970) identified this age to be approximately 18-36 months and is present in languages around the world, not just in English-speaking cultures. Krashen and Terrell (1983) found around the age of two or during Level II of SLA, an ELL enters the telegraphic or two-word stage of speech which consists mostly nouns and verbs, placed in an order that makes sense to the ELL. Krashen and Terrell (1983) describe this level as the area of acquisition where an ELL would be able to produce pre-production English as a second language. The ELL's

understanding would be reflected through expressions such as: pencil, book, or bathroom to demonstrating comprehension through telegraphic speech which is short and sweet and presented in the process of language acquisition of native English speakers as well as ELLs.

Level III–speech emergence–is identified by the WIDA Consortium known as emerging, stresses the use of the Features of Academic Language involving the three levels of language acquisition as described by Krashen and Terrell (1983) to drive receptive and productive language within the four domains of literacy: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. The features of academic languages within the WIDA standards are: a) discourse level which focuses on linguistic complexity; b) sentence level which focuses on language forms and conventions; and c) word/phrase level which focuses on vocabulary usage. Through the use of performance definitions and model performance indicators educators are able to generate engaging instructional plans through academic content to support ELLs as they acquire English as a second language.

Level IV–intermediate fluency–is the stage, according to Vygotsky (1978), when an ELL begins to use the new language acquired for thinking purposes promoting opportunities for an ELL to use the language for problem-solving as well as other metacognitive activities. This is the level where ELLs enter what is described by Vygotsky (1986) as the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) allowing the ELLs the language ability to transfer functions from the social plane to the cognitive plane. It is described as the time between the child's developmental level as determined by the independent problem-solving and the higher level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978).

Level V–near proficiency–in keeping with Cummins (1983, 2000) may require 4-7 years, as the level an ELL has acquired language needed to progressed in the development of some specialized content material and vocabulary and are able to engage in grade-level instruction even though occasional supports and scaffolding may be required. ELLs communicate utilizing grammar and vocabulary comparable to a native English speaker of the same age. It is at this time when some ELLs exit SLA programs and are fully mainstreamed into educational systems, however their cognitive language may continue to need accommodations and supports from their teachers. Secondary ELLs may continue to require differentiation and supports due to content knowledge demands as they become college and career ready (Cummins, 1986, 2000). Cummins (1986) describes two types of language demanded for academic success: Basic Interpersonal Communicative Language (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). ELLs have BICS secured when they exit SLA programs, whereas CALP will still require further development as they move to become college and career ready (Cummins, 1986).

Krashen and Terrell's (1983) early research provides a simulated time frame for SLA stemming from pre-production through near proficiency correlating with the WIDA Consortium framework which provide educators with guidance to formulate instruction and assessment plans. Armed with Vygotsky's (1986) ZPD–the area where an ELL is able to function linguistically at the moment and the place you want the ELL to reach next–enables an educator to scaffold language through supports as ELLs grow in SLA (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994); hence, educators are able to predict what modifications and accommodations within instruction and assessments are necessary for ELLs when they understand the sequence of stages within second language acquisition.

As school populations change due to the increasing number of diverse students with cultural and linguistic challenges, teachers who responded to a survey and the results published by the NCES (2002) reflected 42% of the teachers had ELLs in their classes with only 12.5% indicating recorded more than eight hours of professional training related to ELLs. Moss and Puma (1995) point out a growing gap between language groups as well as an educational climate being driven by inclusionary practices verse specialized programs. With this educational climate change, it is necessary to provide professional development and teacher preparation allowing teachers to probe the pedagogy, knowledge, and skills required to be able to effectively work with ELLs (Echevarria et al., 2004).

Research along the path of teacher dispositions and efficacy led to two lanes of research from the studies of RAND researchers (Armor et al, 1976) who utilized the work on Rotter's (1966) locus of control theory which refers to a person's belief when addressing control over events within their life (Findley & Cooper, 1983) thus providing the following understanding of efficacy where teacher disposition focuses on the ability to control and provide student outcomes in a positive manner no matter the circumstances surrounding the teacher or school (McLaughlin & Marsh, 1978). Findley and Cooper (1983) state some people shoulder the responsibility on an internally where as others perceive outcomes within their lives are generated by forces they cannot control and are labeled externals. Locus of control can be seen as relative when viewing dispositional characteristics (Findley & Cooper, 1983). The research utilized the self-efficacy theory proposed by Bandura (1977, 1993, 1997) where research moved across both theories to derive a meaning for teacher efficacy.

Gibson and Dembo (1984) targeted a means of accommodating theses perceptions

through a bi-variant measure reflecting both conceptualizations efficacy. The measure

encompassed the following: a) personal teaching efficacy, b) reflection of control beliefs,

and c) self-efficacy reflection centered on teaching beliefs. However, the measure

discovered broad usage among researcher striving to comprehend efficacy meaning and

its scope; therefore, debate appeared. The debate charge was led by Guskey and Passero

(1994) against the comprehension of teacher efficacy proposed by Gibson and Dembo

(1984). Guskey and Passero (1994) claimed that differences between the two perceptions

of teacher efficacy may also stem from internal and external control as discussed in

Weiner's (1979) attribution theory. This claim led to revived conversation centered on

the meaning of teacher efficacy.

From Tschannen-Moran, et al. (1998) came a considerable analysis of the

framework of teacher efficacy centered on the development of teacher efficacy and the

impact of theories utilized to understand this framework. Evidence was presented by

Tschannen-Moran, et al. (1998) stressing emphasis of the measures utilized in evaluating

efficacy reflected in the analysis. This analysis ended with a framework demonstrating

Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy theory which is grounded in his cyclical nature of a

teacher efficacy model (see Figure 1).
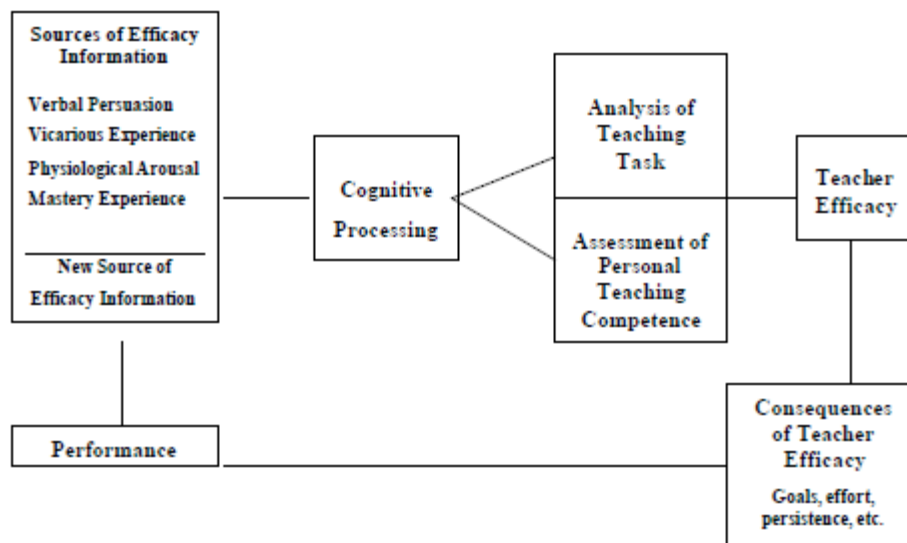
Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk-Hoy, & Hoy (1998, p. 228)

Figure 1. The Cyclical Nature of Teacher Efficacy.

The Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) framework stressed an importance of verbal

persuasion, vicarious experiences, physiological arousals, and mastery experiences as

influences on cognitive processing as well as teacher efficacy. The framework also

implied the cyclical nature of teacher efficacy served as a belief to assist in growth of

development. However, it was unable to supply definitive knowledge as to scope of

efficacy sources that might serve to impact beliefs and consequences associated with

efficacy. In other words, within the content and frameworks of verbal persuasion,

vicarious experiences, physiological arousals, and mastery experiences as influences on

cognitive processing as well as teacher efficacy, affect the actions of a teacher in a

positive manner?

Raudenbush et al. (1992) proposed that teacher efficacy serves as a mediator in

regards to the connection between knowledge and action which is echoed through the

Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) framework. This framework hinged on ordinary sources

of efficacy instead of establishing the relevance of the content of the sources in developing a teacher knowledge foundation which could impact efficacy and, from this impact influence the decisions and behaviors of the teacher. Often seen independently, teacher efficacy and teacher knowledge need to be considered as partners (Raudenbush, et al., 1992). Therefore, when the mediator is teacher efficacy between knowledge and action, we need to understand more about what teachers know and how it affects efficacy.

As Bell and Bogan (2013) point out the methods being utilized to prepare teacher within the traditional teacher preparation programs provide little to no guidance within the curriculum to address second language acquisition in the realm of teaching and learning and stress the challenges teachers face as they are ill-equipped with pedagogy for teaching ELLs. As the numbers of ELLs increase, LEAs receiving them are faced with the unsurmountable task of closing the achievement gap with teachers who lack preparation for addressing the needs of ELLs (Bell, 2010; Futrell, Gomez, & Bedden, 2003). Agencies who are accredited with programs to prepare teachers have been calling for incorporation of course work related to diversity population for in excess of 10 years (National Association for the Education of Young Children, 2009). However, specifically designed preparation techniques which would provide high quality teaching for ELLs is very limited (Bell, 2010; Pica, 2000).

Gillanders (2007) explains being unable to communicate is just as frustrating for teachers as it is for ELLs. Content areas teachers of ELLs assume ELLs will be taught English by another person. Short (2002) records the following from a recent study of content area teachers, "I believed that was someone else's job" (p. 21). Secondary teachers focus on content mastery with little attention given to the language demands in which learning takes place. In order to effectively build second language acquisition,

teachers should integrate language and content objectives (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000; Echevarria et al., 2004). For example, teachers developing language and content objectives the modeling of passive voice through the steps of a science lesson or experiment or using discourse markers–words or phrases of cause and effect in a social studies lesson. Teachers use graphic organizers to reflect concept relationships but also as a scaffolding technique to assist with language acquisition and being able to produce written or oral language focusing on the concept relationships (Tang, 1992). It is through comprehension of the language demands of the content area, teachers are able to purposefully address the language of their content for ELLs (Short, 2002). There is more to language acquisition of English than vocabulary and grammar (Cummins, 1979, 1980, 1981; Snow, 1992). In addition, Futrell et al. (2003) noted teachers expressed they were not prepared to address challenges presented in the classroom and the integration of skills for successful ELL learning.

With the lack of teacher preparedness and necessary skills to work with ELLs as they acquire English as a second language, Cummins (1980) highlights the possibility of misdiagnosis of ELLs within social settings leading teachers to believe the ELL is proficient in English. The research of Renner (2011) supports the need for teachers to be trained to teach ELLs, comprehend an ELL's cognition as related to academic instruction, and relate effective pedagogy within multiple content areas promoting academic growth. This is greatly significant since the ELL population across America has skyrocketed especially in the southeastern states (National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition, 2011; Renner, 2011). As referenced in a report by the President's Advisory Commission on Educational Excellence for Hispanic Americans (2002) there is a lack of educators, both teachers and administrators, capable of effectively engaging with the ELL

population.

Schools may be seen as part of the problem due to crowded classrooms, insufficient educational resources, and unresponsive school climate when addressing failures experienced by minority subgroups such as ELLs (Han & Bridglall, 2009). Each state is equipped with national standards to follow, however, states are provided autonomy with interpretation and procedures related to identifying and teaching ELLs (Benavides, Midobuche, & Kostina-Ritchey, 2012) which has created a scenario of varied services provided by state and local education agencies.

The ELL service models further agitates the problem for ELLs as explained by Bell and Bogan (2013). The three models of choice used throughout the United States are: a) ESL pull-out, b) Transitional Bilingual, and c) Dual Language.

The ESL pull-out model is most widely used program model even though it is depicted as the least effective and cost effective (Benavides et al., 2012). This model requires additional teachers with ESL credentials to remove students from core academic classes to meet thirty to 45 minutes or more per day to address SLA needs. The ELL is deprived of instruction within general core curriculum being presented by the general education teacher. Benavides et al. (2012) highlights the lack of collaboration time between the ESL and content teacher for instructional planning and individualization for the ELL thus limiting the integration of content which is emphasized when addressing the teaching and learning for ELLs.

The Transitional Bilingual model allows for ELLs to receive content curriculum instruction within their native language in addition to English as a second language where its focus is assist the ELL in transferring to English. Typically, ELLs are served through this model for a span for 2-3 years which is not seen as sufficient when preparing

students for college and career readiness. The framework of the transitional bilingual model is perceived as remedial and segregated (Benavides et al., 2012).

The Dual Language model is portrayed to stimulate the engagement ELLs with their native language in addition to the English language through the setting of an inclusive environment. Core curriculum is presented in both languages to stimulate the target language–English while continuing to solidify the content of the curriculum. Native English speakers are seen as partners in the teaching process and help ELLs acquire the core curriculum through English. The success rate is reliable and cost efficient for this model. (Bell & Bogan, 2013).

Pica (2000) points out that the outcome of ELL academic learning is effected due to the delivery of the instruction, time constraints, language used, and the population being served. Challenges faced by ELLs impede learning within the general education setting. Highlighted challenges related to educating ELLs are academic, social, teacher efficacy and preparation, and school responsiveness which have a tremendous impact on pedagogy of ELLs (Bell & Bogan, 2012). Teachers must be able to differentiate for a variety of learner needs requiring specialized training and skills in order to be effective before the untrained teacher senses frustration and contributes disconnection between a learner's need and pedagogy; therefore, teacher preparation should be supported with differentiated teacher practices and provide pedagogy to meet the needs of ELLs (Bell & Bogan, 2012).

Teacher preparedness for ELLs is limited (Bell, 2010) and with the majority of ELLs in mainstream classrooms with ill-equipped teachers for meeting the needs of ELLs, it is vital for teachers to receive professional development who see themselves as inadequately trained to teach ELLs (Cho, 2011). It is essential for teachers to understand

the process of SLA, the social-cultural aspects associated with SLA, as well as the technical phases of language and language development (Cummins, 1979, 1980, 1981; Hakuta, 1986). Cho (2011) suggests specific training within the core content curriculum for teachers in order to work with ELLs in classrooms.

Teachers who employ "cultural characteristics, experiences, and perspectives of ethnically diverse students will serve as conduits for teaching them more effectively" (Gay, 2002, p. 106). Gay (2002) further explains that a teacher's ability to contribute "cultural scaffolding" necessitates teachers have more than a generic cultural comprehension of similarities and differences. Gay (2000) stressed these important areas of focus for ELLs within cultural differences are: a) ELLs bring an educational background from their native country, and b) prior learning experiences which will serve to build relationships with ELLs who in turn will develop a sense of worth within the classroom.

Many cultures from which ELLs come view teachers as the final authority and questioning is seen as disrespectful. ELLs may be less likely to share their knowledge (or lack of knowledge) publicly through questioning or answering sessions within a large group. (Au & Carroll, 1997; Philips, 1983; Vogt, Jordan, & Tharp, 1987). Along a similar avenue, ELLs may not be accustomed to debating or collaborating with their peers. Clayton (1996) points out ELLs may be unaccustomed to basic American school routines, such as snack, lunch, "dressing out for gym", or appropriate means to address staff (e.g., saying 'teacher' instead of the teacher's actual name). Learning about ELL student's cultural background and experiences allow teachers to respond to cross-cultural variations. Clayton stresses the need for teachers to avoid making judgements based on their personal cultural norms regarding behavior. It is important to know that like native

English speakers, an ELL's background knowledge is grown through cultural experiences and will influence learning of concepts and language acquisition (e.g., reading comprehension; Carrell & Eisterhold, 1988; Johnson, 1981, 1982; Steffenson, Joag-Dev, & Anderson, 1979). Mainstream teachers build upon prior knowledge of students through the use of a variety of methods and strategies, such as using a 'K-W-L chart' that seeks what do you Know, what do you Want to know, what have you Learned (Ogle, 1986). While this is a recommended strategy, modifications will be need in order for ELLs to effectively use the KWL chart. Collecting knowledge through the development of an ELL profile, educators will access information of the ELL's family, home, and community which will assist teachers in building a relationship to incorporate into instructional plans to focus on content objectives and language acquisition (Hornberger & Skilton-Sylvester, 2000).

The professional organization, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE; 2008), which monitors teacher preparation programs provides this definition of dispositions: "Professional attitudes, values, and beliefs demonstrated through both verbal and nonverbal behaviors as educators interact with students, families, colleagues, and communities" (p. 89-90). These positive behaviors support student learning and development (NCATE, 2008). Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) characterize teacher efficacy as the capacity a teacher believes they hold to affect the outcomes of students. Ghaith and Shaaban (1999) describe teacher efficacy as the expectation the teacher holds that he/she will be able to direct actions that will foster students' learning. Samson and Collins (2012) as well as Daniel and Friedman (2005) state when teachers are adequately prepared with pedagogy of ELL theories and strategies ELLs will receive more effective instruction.

Currently, Samson and Collins (2012) indicate in the study the lack of information as to what mainstream educators should know in order to meet the needs of ELLs within the classroom. The study exemplifies, for example, that an undergraduate educator candidate may be enrolled in courses in childhood development, math, social studies, English language arts, classroom and behavior management, art, and assessment, however they are not participating in courses related to the pedagogy of teaching ELLs. Without requirements for coursework related to cultural and linguistically diverse students, educators will be inadequately trained to instruct ELLs properly. Many states require undergraduate education students to pass a state teacher exam which rarely assesses the teacher's knowledge or skills significant to instructing ELLs.

As Short and Boyson (2012) identified ELLs as the "fastest growing segment of the preK-12 student population" educators are faced with challenges greater than the normal preK-12 population in order to be successful and graduate on time (p. 1). Education statistics reflect more than 50% of ELLs attend schools where they are less than 1% of the student population (NCES, 2004). Multiple researchers have noted most educators and educational leaders have received little professional development or training to teach ELLs (Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Ladson-Billings, 1995). Zacarin and Haynes (2012) stress professional development is crucial for educators and educational leaders and the research study conducted by Ross (1995) further supports that teacher efficacy is related to the quality of professional development provided to teachers as the classroom cultures evolves.

Learning Forward's Professional Learning Association definition of effective professional learning is "a comprehensive, sustained, and intensive approach to improving teachers' and principals' effectiveness in raising student achievement"

(System Leaders, 2012, para.1). In keeping with the research of Zacarian and Haynes (2012), this definition serves as a foundation for the planning of professional development for all educators of ELLs. The researchers also stressed the importance of the definition to institutions of higher education as they are preparing educators and educational leaders (Zacarian & Haynes, 2012).

Researchers have expressed mixed reviews when discussing effective instructional strategies and pedagogical approaches for reaching ELLs and Goldenberg (2008) maintains that quality instruction and curriculum provided for native speakers should be sufficient for ELLs. However, other researchers do not share this point of view, (LaCelle-Peterson & Rivera, 1994; Meltzer & Hamann, 2004; NCTE, 2008) citing research drawing on formative assessment as a means to the most effective instructional plan (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Carr et al., 2007). This view is supported furthered as an ongoing process rather than an actual test administered to students and used by educators to adjust instruction for improving students' learning (Popham, 2008, 2009; FAST, 2008). Ongoing formative assessment is essential to effective instruction and pedagogy (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Carr et al., 2007). Black and Wiliam (1998) reflected it improved student learning when they reported the largest learning gains ever when compared to other interventions.

Numerous researchers stressed teachers should demonstrate high expectations while creating challenges for students requiring high-level thinking and processing for language to complete an assortment of tasks (August & Shanahan, 2006; Coady et al., 2008; Meltzer & Hamann, 2004; Thompson, 2004; Galguera & Hakuta, 1997). The primary challenge for ELLs is gaining knowledge academically while simultaneously acquiring English as an additional language (Goldenberg & Coleman, 2010). Teachers

with high senses of efficacy and confidence in students (Freeman & Freeman, 1989) will

exhibit high expectations for ELLs and believe ELLs will achieve or surpass

achievements within state standards (August & Shanahan, 2006; Coady et al., 2008;

Meltzer & Hamann, 2004; Thompson, 2004). Goldenberg (2008) stressed educators must

be knowledgeable and effectively modify instruction and take into account language

limitations of ELLs, plus exhibit awareness of ELLs' backgrounds (Callahan, 2005;

Galguera & Hakuta, 1997; Marzano, 1998), such as, educational experiences,

socioeconomic status, content knowledge, immigration status, personal life experiences,

and culture (Freeman et al., 2003; NCTE, 2008). Research supports these modifications

will benefit ELLs as well as native speakers as classroom cultures diversify (NCTE,

2008).

Professional Development

　　　　With increasing ELL numbers in the United States such as the 447.422% increase

in South Carolina since 2002, there is a need for mainstream teachers to be better

equipped with language acquisition training as ELLs are mainstreamed into general

education content classes as they learn content mastery for college and career readiness.

It is time to determine if ELL programs in the United States as well as their ability to

ensure accountability of the ELL program is utilized by educators and research continues

to address concerns regarding the value of what is being studied, reviewed, and evaluated

such as teacher preparation to address diverse populations like ELLs (Fitzpatrick,

Sanders, & Worthen, 2004). Stufflebeam (2004) stated, "Evaluation's most important

purpose is not to prove but to improve" (p. 262).

　　　　Self-efficacy refers to one's belief in his or her capabilities to perform a given

task or skill (Bandura, 1997). While many studies have focused research on teacher's

perceived sense of efficacy as an influential tool on instructional effectiveness (Aston & Webb, 1986; Denham & Michael, 1981; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Guskey, 1987; Rose & Medway, 1981), few studies have reflected research on teacher self-efficacy of diverse students. Teachers with a high sense of self efficacy are more likely to experience academic success with students than teachers with a low sense of self efficacy. With the population of diverse learners increasing over the past few decades, educators need to have a better understanding of teacher self-efficacy in order to prepare diverse students for college and career readiness.

The context in which individual teachers view themselves is an important factor in comprehending self-efficacy with the educational setting and are more likely to respond to students with differing educational needs (Hashweh, 2003). Through teacher reflection teachers with high self-efficacy will examine and adjust teaching practices and knowledge required to motivate learners. The reflection process is seen as a positive relationship between student and teacher motivation which has been established in many studies (Atkinson, 2000; Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009; Williams & Williams, 2011) resulting in increased teacher motivation which increased student motivation hence providing greater job satisfaction for the teacher and positive learning outcomes for students. As the population of diverse learners continues to expand, school populations across the nation must evolve to reflect a more culturally and linguistically diverse nation (Nieto, 2000, 2009; Igoa, 1995). According to the U.S. Department of Commerce Economics and Statistics Administration, U.S. Census Bureau (2011), 308.7 million people resided in the United States on April 1, 2010, of which 50.5 million (or 16%) were of Hispanic or Latino origin; more than half of the growth in the total population of the United States between 2000 and 2010 was due to the increase in the Hispanic population.

The focus on preparation is especially evident for states located in the Southeast that have been severely impacted with a dramatic increase in immigrant populations of non-native English speakers in the published policy brief from SECTQ (2002) which showed only 6% of teachers who taught students acquiring language as a second or additional language within the mainstream classroom in the Southeast received eight or more hours of training with a focus of instructing and assessing ELLs, even though mainstream classrooms reflected a 29% population of ELLs makeup. North Carolina's teacher preparation was weaker, where 47% of the mainstream teachers taught ELLs in their classrooms with only 6% having received training to work with this diverse group of students (SECTQ, 2002). LEAs with increased numbers of ELLs elect to provide professional development for mainstream teachers focused on effective instruction for students. Extreme gaps have surfaced between qualified teachers and the growing number of ELLs.

Opportunities for professional development are vital no matter what the profession and are essential to grow efficiency and abilities required to compete in a global economy (Walker, 2010). Kaplan and Owings (2004) indicate teachers of high quality provide students with excellent opportunities to become successful learners and college and career ready and is supported by the research of Vogel (2006) with professional development for educators as having a greater impact on student outcomes than increased teacher salaries and decrease student-to-teacher ratios. The purpose of professional development is to impact teacher efficacy which in turn will impact student learning, outcomes, and achievement (Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009; Jakes, 2006; Walker, 2010; Wenglinsky & Silverstein, 2006). Investment in professional development of educators will bring transformation and stimulate quality education and

learning (Kaplan & Owings, 2004; Linn, Gil, Sherman, Vaughn, & Mixon, 2010).

From the work of Causton-Theoharis and Theoharis (2008) student outcomes reflected improvements when areas of policy and procedures and curriculum and instruction were adjusted to support all learners, including culturally and linguistically diverse learners within populations. Walker (2010) notes professional development as a means for teachers to enhance their pedagogical theories and practices while striving to add instructional strategies to support learning. Ongoing professional development supporting mainstream teachers as well as teachers of special areas is essential to instruction and inclusive practices to grow positive teacher efficacy (Schlauch, 2003; Worrell, 2008).

According to Sallee (2010), there is a direct correlation between professional development and best teaching practices through descriptors of schools achieving distinguished status. Schools recognized as distinguished provided professional development opportunities targeting analysis of instructional practices, use of student data, teacher collaboration, instruction strategies, and encouraged evaluative feedback from participants. Weiner (2003) states, "Schools and districts should challenge each teacher to develop, apply, and reassess beliefs and knowledge gained in professional development in the content of their own classrooms so that attitudes, knowledge, and practice are truly integrated" (p. 18). This is mirrored in Bandura's (1997) research of self-efficacy through two of the four sources of self-efficacy, mastery and vicarious experiences.

"Research confirms that teacher and teaching quality are the most powerful predictors of student success. The more years that students work with effective teachers, the higher their measured achievement" (Kaplan & Owings, 2004, p. 1). Hence

continuous training and professional development of teachers is essential in strengthening

an educational system. As pointed out by Schleicher (2011) traditional approaches to

professional development has reflected ineffective and teacher education programs are

insufficient to prepare teachers for all of the challenges teachers may encounter in their

career.

Professional development over decades has been presented through workshops

resulting in few opportunities to implement and apply new pedagogical practices to

instruction while receiving support and feedback to ensure effectiveness of the new

material; therefore, professional workshops have little effect on participants or students

(McLeskey & Waldron, 2002b; Rebora, 2008). Ineffectiveness of workshops is related to

the vast amount of information disseminated during presentations along with minimal

time for practice within classrooms with supportive feedback (Hunzicker, 2011) which

stems from participants' ability to transfer acquired knowledge to produce behavioral

changes (Braden, Elliott, Huai, & White 2005; Choy, Chen, & Bugarin, 2006; Linn et al.,

2010). Vicarious experiences like these are essential in building self-efficacy whereas

mastery experience is deemed most beneficial when impacting self-efficacy (Bandura,

1997).

Schleicher (2011) indicates professional development has not met the needs of

teachers throughout history. During 2007-2008 the Teaching and Learning International

Survey was conducted by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and

Development; in this study two million teachers from twenty-three countries were

represented with participants indicating deficiencies in preparation to instruct

heterogeneous learning classes as well as other challenges (Schleicher, 2011). A

movement is underway to provide a more interactive approach to professional

development as "the most useful professional development emphasizes active teaching, observation, and reflection rather than abstract discussion" (Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009, p. 46). Studies from Holmes, Singer, and MacLeod (2011) suggest effective professional development be research based, and collaborative, occur throughout the year, and engage participants around instruction within the context of learning of the academic curriculum.

Professional development is seen as most effective when it occurs through collective participation with content focused on curriculum needs; researched based; correlated to school wide goals; extends over time allowing for active learning and practice; coaching follow-up and feedback from participants to guide additional development opportunities (Lyndon & King, 2009; Snow-Renner & Lauer, 2005). Characteristics of this nature are located in mastery experiences indicated to positively impact self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) which is in contrast to one-day workshops traditionally used; sustainable professional development opportunities over time will most likely impact teacher behavior and implementation of teacher and student needs (Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Yoon, 2001), thus research supports schools and LEAs including teachers in the designing of professional development as teachers identify their needs and collaborate to meet goals (Chauvin & Eleser, 1998; Jenkins & Yoshimura, 2010; McLeskey & Waldron, 2002b; Nieto, 2009).

McLeskey and Waldron (2002a) state, "The most effective strategy to ensure continued improvement is to provide ongoing professional development" (p. 169). Wiliam (2007b) spoke of formative assessment when he suggested student learning might increase at a more rapid pace if a reform strategy is implemented beyond benchmark data and used as a supplement to direct instruction and further professional development

opportunities. The monitoring of data from students and teachers providing possible

links for future professional development, implementation, teacher capability and

enhanced teacher self-efficacy, and the success of students (Casale, 2011).

Six principles of professional development were identified for sustainability for

new teaching practices: practical and concrete practice, established guidelines for clarity,

feedback on teaching performance, collaboration time on data, as well as support for

teachers (Stephenson, Carter, & Arthur-Kelly, 2011). Guskey (2009) pointed out

increased time on professional development singularly does no increase the quality of the

training; effective professional development must be organized and structured to meet

district and school needs while conveying purposed to participants (Casale, 2011;

Guskey, 2009). The professional development content and types of training presented

impact teacher knowledge and instructional practices, thus mastery and vicarious

experiences such as "hands-on work that enhanced teachers' knowledge of the context

and how to teach it produced a sense of efficacy-especially when that content was aligned

with local curriculum and policies" (Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009, p. 47).

According to Kaplan and Owings (2004) the most effective predictor of

educational success is the teacher and quality of instruction provided. Schleicher (2011)

states the traditional workshop style of professional development of teachers is proven

ineffective; workshops have disseminated depths of information over a brief span of time

and allowed for minimal, if any, application time (Braden et al., 2005; Choy et al., 2006;

Linn et al., 2010). Research emphasizes engagement of participants, evaluation of

student and teacher data, as well as reflection and evaluation (Holmes et al., 2011) which

are important characteristics contributing to teacher effectiveness necessitating additional

resources like time and money. Teacher input in the designing of professional

development is essential for administrators in addition to understanding and overcoming challenges to professional development (Chauvin & Eleser, 1998; Jenkins & Yoshimura, 2010; McLeskey & Waldron, 2002b; Nieto, 2009).

Schlauch (2003) states institutions of higher learning armed with educating preservice teachers have the responsibility of creating a collaborative relationship for delivering educational services to students. LEAs should continue professional training to support educators and meet professional development mandates of NCLB. The research of Snow-Renner and Lauer (2005) necessitate a minimal of 160 hours of professional development is needed before a substantial change occurs in teacher behaviors.

From teachers surveyed little incentive to participate in efforts to reform (Schleicher, 2011). Lyndon and King (2009) report implementation time, administration support, and cost are challenges to continuous professional development in addition to school culture. With most teachers accustomed to working in isolation, there exist limitations on a teacher's knowledge, experience, and ability to implement best practices (Guskey, 2009; Jolly, 2007) who suggest enhanced partnerships between LEAs and institutions of higher learning and more collaborative opportunities within schools as a means of support of educators. "By locating opportunities for professional development within a teacher's regular work day, reform types of professional development may be more likely than traditional forms to make connections with classroom teaching, and they may be easier to sustain over time" (Garet et al., 2001, p. 921). As Walker (2010) points out powerful teacher and student improvements may impact change when implemented throughout the year.

Professional learning communities (PLCs) are a new means of professional

development addressing teacher learning and influence teacher behavior through collaboration and reflection in real time when implementing new practices and are proving to be an effective method of professional training (Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009; Wiliam 2007a). PLCs are described a small group within a school where each participant identifies a plan of change for his or her classroom practice. The group meets routinely and supports participants in pursuing and grooming their plan of change (Wiliam, 2007a). Traditional methods of professional development may stimulate teacher knowledge of best practices and enhance curricular, hence contributing elements for discussion and refinement within PLCs throughout the year (Chappuis, Chappuis, & Stuggins, 2009). "The most promising strategy for sustained, substantial school improvement is developing the ability of school personnel to function as professional learning communities" is stated by DuFour and Eaker (1998). Adopting a new structure like PLCs where teacher have time to collaborate, observe, mentor, review data, and implement new strategies (Casale, 2011; Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009) will require LEAs to move from industrial foundations to a new method of operation and learning for educators and students. Graham (2006) states professional development with a content focus, active learning, and comprehensible demonstrated resilient, constructive relationships to teachers' change in knowledge and skills needed to impact student learning. Schools are urged to use teacher expertise to enhance leadership and growth through the building and use of PLCs (Jakes, 2006).

Emerging from Bartolome (2004) is the need to recognize mainstream teachers must be equipped to effectively teach the increasing number of culturally and linguistically diverse students entering classrooms within the United States. Bartolome states this often occurs "without examining teachers' own assumptions, values, and

beliefs" which informs their perceptions when working with culturally and linguistically diverse students within the mainstream classroom (p. 97). Darder, Torres, and Baltodano (2002), say that it is necessary to comprehend ideology is deeply embedded in the psychological makeup of an individual's personality which is created through past experiences; which guide each person's individual perception of needs, desires, and future ambitions in society.

Ariza (2006) reveals most educators feel inadequately prepared when faced with instructing and assessing ELLs, students who are placed within the mainstream classroom who are culturally and linguistically challenged. Mainstream teachers are ill-equipped to teach academic content to ELLs. "Teaching through English to native speakers of the language has no relation to teaching through English to those who are learning English...We cannot compare ELLs with native English Speakers" (Ariza, 2006, p.xiii). With a focus on college and career readiness standards and curriculums matching high stakes assessments comes an exchange of good teaching for test preparation thus divorcing students' background information and needs. "If there is no agreement about what is included in language proficiency, then any explanation that attempts to probe some the more profound mysteries of language will be incomplete" (Bialystok, 2001, p. 14). This may drive many students to drop or abandon school and flood the labor force with student who are not college and career ready which ends the self-fulfilling prophecy for a better education and life.

Adopting a new structure such as PLCs, where teacher have time to collaborate, observe, mentor, review data, and implement new strategies (Casale, 2011; Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009) will require LEAs to move from industrial foundations to a new method of operation and learning for educators and students. Graham (2006)

states professional development with a content focus, active learning, and comprehensible demonstrated resilient, constructive relationships to teachers' change in knowledge and skills needed to impact student learning.

Webber and Robertson (2004) defines teaching as a decision making process. The effective teaching of ELLs, if not singularly focused on teaching and learning English, requires the educator and ELLs to continuously engage in reflection through the language acquisition process to master content knowledge and progress through mandated standardized state and federal assessments.   The NCLB Act of 2002 attempted to address the issue:

> Most educators and policymakers felt that it was up to diverse students, not the LEAs, to assimilate into U.S. society which would include adjustments linguistically, culturally, and cognitively. When many of the diverse students experienced academic difficulties, their culture and language were frequently identified as the problem. The academic failure for the diverse students was popular among social scientists. Consequently, LEAs tended to forgo responsibility for creating culturally and linguistically appropriate classroom practices. (Ovando, 2003, p. 6)

Through the NCLB Act of 2002, accountability was implemented for diverse populations in the U.S. and through the examination of policies conducted by Garcia (2005), we are able to see the discriminatory outcomes of present and past U.S. educational policies. New regulations from NCLB, force LEAs to address academic achievement of ELLs in order to comply with federal mandates.

> When addressing the possibility of an increased diverse population and more ELLs attend schools who are receptive to this changing clientele within the

mainstream classroom, academic barriers for these students will crumble giving

forth to social and academic success. This would allow a policy arena

addressing language distinctions for success within society which is a highly

optimistic point of view. (Garcia, 2005, p. 98)

Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction

This study explored the perception of secondary mainstream teachers' levels of self-efficacy based on identifiable factors in classrooms in addition to the components of professional development and pedagogical approaches related to instructional planning, implementation, and assessment in relationship to a classroom culture containing diverse learners, specifically ELLs. This chapter describes the methods and research design to be utilized during this research study and how data were collected and analyzed. A description of the setting where the data were collected, the research questions, the research design and rationale, as well as the role of the researcher during the collection and data analysis is included. The issues of validity, reliability, and possible limitations to the study have also been identified.

As classroom cultures become more diversified, along with sweeping changes in what students are expected to learn and how teachers are to teach, ELLs are a group demanding consideration due to their increasing population. The total number of ELLs in South Carolina schools boasted a population of 29,907 in 2007-2008 with data from 2014-2015 reflecting 40,575 ELLs in South Carolina schools coupled with low academic performance when compared to their native English speaking peers within public schools (Samson & Collins, 2012). From the research of Bandura (1986) there is evidence that teacher efficacy and academic achievement are linked. As said by Brooks, Adams, and Morita-Mullaney (2010) the ESOL teacher was previously perceived as the primary teacher of ELLs, however with increased accountability standards and shifting roles for the mainstream teacher, classroom teachers are now responsible for the academic achievement of their ELL students (Zacarian, 2012).

Setting of the Study

The setting of the study is upstate South Carolina where a district has experienced an increase in their ELL population, especially in secondary mainstream classrooms. The district participating in the study serves Grades K-12 with a total of approximately 12,000 students, with an ELL student population of approximately 2,000 or 17% of the total district student population. As of the 45-day count, approximately 400 ELL students were identified in Grades 9-12, equating to approximately 20% of the total ELL population at the secondary level. The district has approximately 130 certified secondary mainstream teachers and three certified ESOL teachers at the secondary level.

Research Design and Rationale

The data were collected from a school district in upstate South Carolina. A mixed methods approach, developed by Creswell (2005), was used to gather and analyze data. The researcher determined combining quantitative and qualitative methods for research would increase the validity of the research results (Creswell, 2003). The mixed methodological approach used for this study is described as a "portrait" by Mertens (2005, p. 5). Participants were questioned using the TETELL Survey (see Appendix A) instrument which was modified by Yough (2008) from the TSES developed by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001). This modification to TSES created the TETELL survey which allows for collection of quantitative data consisting of teacher's responses to a variety of task items aligned to teachers' self-efficacy, pedagogical approaches, and components of professional development as they are as related to ELLs.

Additionally, demographic and qualitative data were gathered to allow for triangulation and increased validity and reliability of the results (Creswell, 2009; Yough, 2008). By strengthening of each type of data collection, the researcher was able to

identify possible themes in order to frame qualitative questions for deeper study with a focus group. Since the researcher elected to utilize a mixed methodological approach by incorporating a qualitative questionnaire segment and focus groups, the researcher was able to listen and analyze recordings collected from participants for the purpose of "understanding and describing an event from the point of view of the participant" (Mertens, 2005, p. 240). This process allowed the researcher to gain a comprehensible amount of input related to the posed research questions to draw conclusions.

Research Questions

A review of the literature encompassed teachers' self-efficacy, ELLs, pedagogy, and professional development as it related to classroom culture of secondary mainstream teachers. The review was expansive and included decades of relevant research however, the last two decades focused has been on diverse populations, specifically ELLs. With the increasing numbers of diverse learners, specifically ELLs entering educational institutions, there was a vital need for research on the impact of diverse learners on classroom culture. In Chapter 1, the researcher crafted two questions based on themes which emerged during the literature review discussed in Chapter 2. The focus of this study sought to answer these questions:

1. What are the identifiable differences in the perceived levels of self-efficacy of secondary mainstream teachers with ELLs pertaining to classroom cultural components?

2. What components of professional development for teachers with diverse classrooms have had the most impact on the classroom cultures that contain diverse learners?

Hypothesized Results

The researcher surmised secondary mainstream teachers who are provided increased training in pedagogical approaches through professional development would perceive themselves to have a higher sense of self-efficacy when tasked with preparing ELLs. An increase in a teacher's self-efficacy means more confidence when utilizing pedagogical approaches gained though professional development designed to stimulate and grow language acquisition for ELLs within the mainstream classroom.

Methodology

For this study the researcher used a mixed methodological approach to collect data using Yough's (2008) modified TETELL survey to explore a teacher's self-efficacy and the impact it had on pedagogical approaches from professional development, specifically for teaching ELLs (Creswell, 2007). The TETELL survey collected both quantitative and qualitative data; six questions gathered demographic data; 31 questions gathered quantitative data specifically related to teacher efficacy, ELLs, pedagogy, and professional development; and two open-response questions gathered qualitative data to gain further insight into a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. Data collection took place in two segments. Participants submitted their responses through a Google Form, whereby the TETELL survey was recreated verbatim. This allowed the researcher to gather responses while minimizing the number of coding errors during the data collection process. The researcher was then be able to analyze the quantitative data and a portion of the qualitative data to determine additional qualitative questions to be asked during an informal focus group setting to gain deeper insight into the teacher's perspective (Mertens, 2005). The data gathered both quantitatively and qualitatively provide a holistic point of view in order to assist the researcher in formulating a conclusion for each

of the posed research questions (Creswell, 2005).

Participant Selection and Logic

The school district selected for this study was based on the convenience for the researcher to be able to gather data as well as the increased growth in their ELL population. The selected district satisfied the requirements for research due to the increasing number of ELLs entering secondary schools and was willing to participate in the research study. Upon approval to conduct research from the university's internal review board, the researcher contacted the district superintendent for formal approval to gather research. Secondary mainstream teachers were invited to participate in the study through formal email from the district administrator chosen for dissemination. The email, composed by the researcher, included the purpose and rationale for the study, confidentiality policies and procedures, and personal contact information. The target date to begin research was early January 2017 with specific dates noted during the research process. Responses were gathered by means of a Google Forms survey link. Participants were given a voluntary option to include their typed name if they wished to be a member of the focus group.

According to the Uniform Electronic Transactions Act, electronic signatures are defined as the person's typed email address or name, which are legal in 46 states. For electronic signatures to be identified as valid documents, the electronic transaction must be agreed to by both parties (National Conference of State Legislatures, 2015).

Instrumentation

According to Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) the initial development of the TSES began through a survey of performing teachers who were enrolled in a self-efficacy seminar on teaching and learning at the graduate level; researchers assembled task

statements reflecting vital components of the teaching process for participants to respond to. From numerous tested statements a final set of items were determined to be valid and reliable items in the assessment of teachers' efficacy. Two versions of the TSES were generated based on the researchers' work—one 12-item short form and a 24-item long form. The TSES 24-item long form was modified as the TETELL (see Appendix A) which will allow for collection of quantitative data consisting of teachers' responses to a variety of task items aligned to teacher's self-efficacy, pedagogical training, components of professional development as related to ELLs, in addition to demographical data supplied by participants (Yough, 2008). Yough's (2008) items prompt participants to focus on insights and outlooks of mainstream teachers of ELLs through various related topics in subscales which include instruction, assessment, classroom management, student motivation and engagement, and social cohesion (Yough, 2008). Participants are able to rate the degree of each item on the TETELL based on a Likert scale represented as follows: 1–Nothing, 2–Very Little, 3–Some, 4–Quite a Bit, and 5–A Great Deal (Yough, 2008).

According to the research of Fink (2009), well-designed surveys add overall validity and reliability to the instrument. The TETELL instrument reflected inter-item reliability based on Crobach's *a* and principal components analysis using varimax rotation to identify various factors operative within the instrument thus establishing a need to review content validity (Yough, 2008). Content validity is described as the relationship of items on the survey, or the degree the instrument measures the directed content capacity; therefore, the content validity for the TETELL was established when multiple professionals utilized TETELL along with two other measures: multicultural efficacy and efficacy when teaching students with disabilities (Yough, 2008).

As referenced earlier, TETELL was designed to quantitatively and qualitatively measure a teacher's self-efficacy and the impact of professional development and pedagogical approaches in relation to secondary classrooms with ELLs.

The researcher regenerated the TETELL survey instrument using Google Forms in a digital web-based format. Within the survey instrument, there were 39 items for participants to respond, six items are related to demographics of the participant, eight items addressed classroom management, three items addressed instruction and planning, eleven items focused on motivation and student engagement, three items addressed assessment, and four items addressed professional development. Items targeting classroom management and instruction and planning were designated to measure teachers' self-efficacy when instructing, and managing classrooms with ELLs (Yough, 2008). Items addressing motivation and engagement, and assessment allowed for a measurement of a teacher's self-efficacy to create an ELLs value to learning and preparation for high stakes assessments along with items related motivation and engagement to measure a teacher's perceived ability to motivate ELLs to engage with native English speakers (Yough, 2008). Lastly the two open-ended response items were used to gather qualitative data to further explain participants' perceived ability to reach ELLs in the secondary mainstream classroom.

Procedures for Participation and Quantitative and Qualitative Data Collection

For this study, the participation occurred at the beginning of the second semester of the district's 2016-2017 school calendar. The TETELL survey was available to participants 24 hours per day for five days. The Google Form online link allowed the researcher to monitor and document survey submissions plus collect the electronically submitted consent forms from participants. The collection site was password protected

and only accessible to the researcher for the sole purpose of analyzing data. The data collected were analyzed in a method to assure reliability (Creswell, 2005).

Quantitative Components

Creswell (2003) pointed out a survey design methodology grants windows to collect informational data centered on attitudes, behaviors, and practices of participants. The quantitative data gathered through the TETELL survey utilized a five-point Likert scale for the purpose of self-evaluation by participants allowing them to represent their perceived ability in a situation as: 1–Nothing, 2–Very Little, 3–Some, 4–Quite a Bit, and 5–A Great Deal.

Qualitative Components

After conducting the literature review centered on self-efficacy, ELLs, pedagogy, and professional development, and after additional conversation with the researcher's chair, two open-ended response questions were added to the TETELL survey for this study. These qualitative questions provided participants an opportunity to convey and expand on their personal experiences involving ELLs as well as the components of professional development that could impact their teaching of ELLs within a secondary mainstream classroom.

As mentioned earlier, a focus group was comprised of voluntary participants solicited through the Google Form as part of the TETELL survey. The researcher conveyed to the focus group that the session would be recorded to allow for transcription and evaluation of data. Participants were allowed to depart at any time if they desired. The responses to questions during the focus group allowed the researcher to gather a deeper understanding of the secondary mainstream teachers' experience. These responses were aligned with the data generated through the TETELL survey. From

qualitative data transcribed, the researcher was able to examine results to locate commonalities among survey responses, open-ended responses, and dictation derived from the focus group.

Role of the Researcher

The role of the researcher in the study was to solicit participants to complete the online survey for collection of quantitative and qualitative responses as well as to lead discussions within the focus group of voluntary participants to gather additional qualitative data.

The researcher was employed by the district participating in the study and researches types of professional development needed for mainstream teachers with diverse classrooms; thus, the possibility of ideas and opinions related to effective training practices for addressing ELLs may arise. The researcher understood the need to be passive and objective in the exploration to eliminate bias. However, the gained knowledge of the researcher through personal experiences and continued educational courses have created the foundation for conducting the study for the future benefit of administrators, educators, students, parents, and legislators.

Data Analysis

Quantitative data from this study was summarized utilizing descriptive statistics, which will allowed opportunities for the researcher to see the data in multiple ways: measures of central tendency (mean, median, and mode), variability (standard deviation), or relative standing (percentiles). Since the researcher elected to use the TETELL survey, which utilizes a five-point Likert scale, she decided to group "nothing" and "very little" into a percentile of negative responses. The same method was decided for grouping of the positive responses by combining "quite a bit" and "a great deal" together

to create a percentile. Likert scale 3 "some" was gathered but not utilized as negative nor positive for the inferred conclusions made during the data analysis. Data from the positive and negative responses were analyzed and represented numerically in a table followed by a narrative to increase comprehension.

Transcription was necessary to simplify the responses collected qualitatively during the focus group and from the open-ended questions, which allowed to researcher to locate threads of information, which led back to the research questions, thereby producing themes from the participant's responses. This allowed the researcher comprehend how secondary mainstream teachers perceived their ability to teach ELLs (Creswell, 2003). The qualitative data assisted the researcher in exploring, interpreting, and explaining the quantitative results as Creswell (2003) describes within mixed methodological design as sequential explanatory.

Transcription of the data generated within the focus group will be necessary in order for the researcher generalize and analyze the qualitative data supplied. Through the transcription of the recorded focus group session, the researcher will be able to locate threads of information to link to specific research questions to assist in identifying themes generated from participants thus allowing the researcher to gain a better understanding of a secondary mainstream teacher's perception when preparing ELL students for college and career readiness.

Threats to Validity

As participants agree to participate in the focus group relative to the qualitative segment of the research, the researcher will ensure the possible candidates are not related to the researcher personally to prevent a potential threat to the study's validity. Creswell (2009) states that if the participant believes he or she knows the researcher they may feel

obligated to respond to questions in a manner pleasing to the researcher. Maxwell (2005) stresses the importance of the researcher's reactions to the participant's responses during the interview segment within the focus groups and that care should be exercised when formulating open-ended questions so as not to be suggestive of a "right answer." This process assisted the researcher toward remaining neutral as the qualitative data were collected from participants and to focus on research for the study. With the researcher demonstrating procedure for soliciting participants, purposeful questions aligned to quantitative results in addition to explanation of qualitative results, the threats to the validity and reliability of the study findings should be eliminated.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to secondary mainstream teachers from a school district located in upstate South Carolina. The study was limited by the willingness of secondary teachers to participate and those electing to be a part of the focus group to share experiences related to secondary mainstream classrooms targeting ELLs. The researcher petitioned the district superintendent to support the study due to the increasing number of secondary level ELL students enrolled in the district. An additional area seen as a possible limitation was the extent that the information provided by participants in the survey is accurate. The researcher acknowledged quantitative research methods provide a clearer picture of data than qualitative and may lead to unequal weighing o significance as a result. In recognizing these limitations, the researcher sought to overcome possible interference when conducting this research.

Delimitations to the Study

The researcher recognized a possible delimitation in the study as limiting the study to secondary mainstream teacher in Grades 9-12. Another delimitation was that the

data were relatable only to the school district where it was gathered. Recognizing these delimitations, the researchers strived to prevent them from interfering in conducting the research.

Ethical Procedures

Survey participants were given information explaining their role in the study as well as the purpose of the study and methods to be used in collecting data (Creswell, 2007). Each participant had an option to withdraw from the study at any time they expressed the desire to discontinue. All responses were confidential and no names were recorded on any documents within the study. In the event the researcher used a direct quote from a participant, the said person was identified through the use of an alias. All data collected were stored on a password-protected device and in an online cloud storage server. Upon completion of the analysis for the study, all informational data were deleted from memory on devices it was stored and from the cloud server.

The researcher strictly adhered to the Gardner-Webb University institutional review board guidelines as the study involved educators from a school district located in upstate South Carolina. The researcher obtained permission from the school district's superintendent after being granted permission by the university to proceed.

Summary

Chapter 3 provided a detailed description of the methodology the researcher used when conducting research that stemmed from identifiable factors that influence teachers' self-efficacy; impact of pedagogical training as related to instruction, assessment, and classroom management; and components of professional development of secondary mainstream teachers in preparing ELL students for college and career readiness. The researcher described the setting in which the research took place, identified the research

design methods and rationale, stated research questions to be addressed and answered, and outlined the role of the researcher. The chapter also included methodology details: research instruments for collecting data, process and analysis procedures for data collection, possible threats to the study's validity, study limitations and delimitations, and ethical procedures that were adhered for the duration of the research study.

Chapter 4 reflects the researcher's findings and displays the organized data collection. Narrative explains the exploration and examination as the researcher sought answers to the research questions posed in the study. Data are displayed in tables with written narrative descriptive analysis for each component.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to develop a more in-depth understanding as to whether secondary mainstream teachers from a school district located in upstate South Carolina perceived themselves to be able to teach ELL. Presented in this chapter are results and a statistical analysis of the data collection for the purpose of the research study. Two questions directed this study in a quest for greater comprehension surrounding secondary mainstream teachers' perceived ability to address the needs of culturally and linguistic students, specifically ELLs, within the classroom.

Research Questions

The following two research questions guided the study.

1. What are the identifiable differences in the perceived levels of self-efficacy of secondary mainstream teachers with ELLs pertaining to classroom cultural components?

2. What components of professional development for teachers with diverse classrooms have had the most impact on the classroom cultures that contain diverse learners?

To make sure the researcher was able respond to each research question, a mixed methods approach was employed to gather data (Creswell, 2009). The TETELL survey (Yough, 2008) was used to gather both quantitative data along with a segment of qualitative data. This instrument was deemed valid and reliable when Yough (2008) utilized Cronbach's a to determine inter-item reliability. Additional qualitative data were gathered from two open-response questions added to TETELL survey and during a focus group comprised of six certified secondary teachers. Pre-approved qualitative interview

questions stemmed from quantitative data collected and analyzed from the TETELL survey items and were linked to the research questions used during the focus group of teachers. Mertens (2005) stated an addition of qualitative questions provides deeper insight into teachers' perspective. Therefore, data collected from the TETELL (Yough, 2008) survey on secondary mainstream teacher beliefs and experiences with ELLs in the classrooms provided a broader understanding into the components of professional development and pedagogical approaches utilized to preparing ELLs for college and career readiness. According to Creswell (2005), both quantitative and qualitative data provided a holistic point of view assisting the researcher to formulate conclusions to the research questions.

This chapter outlines the statistical analyses used for the study and provides the results of the analysis. A brief description of methodology explains the survey instrument, the TETELL (Yough, 2008), used to collect both quantitative, qualitative, and demographics data. The data collection was used to analyze identifiable differences in the perceived levels of self-efficacy of secondary mainstream teachers with ELLs pertaining to classroom cultural components and professional development. The research questions addressed the perceived self-efficacy levels of secondary mainstream teachers pertinent in preparing ELLs and their relationship to the literature review, and a brief summary of the data results.

Methodology

The collection of data for this research study took place during the spring semester of 2017 at a school district in upstate South Carolina. Research centered on teachers' perceived ability differences in self-efficacy of teachers of ELLs reflected through the survey instrument, TETELL (Yough, 2008) and a focus group. Participants

in the study were certified teachers of specific content areas teaching within a high school setting.

Participants were invited to complete the TETELL (Yough, 2008) via a Google Form distributed by email with the approval of the school district superintendent; the convenience of soliciting targeted participants in this manner minimized the possibility for errors with data (Dillman, 2007). At the conclusion of the survey items, participants were invited to participate in a focus group which allowed the researcher to gather qualitative data to gain a deeper insight into participants' perspective (Mertens, 2005) which then added to the quantitative data collected, providing a holistic point of view to assist the researcher in formulating conclusions to researcher questions (Creswell, 2005).

Instrument Description

It is important to note that the TETELL survey instrument was modified (Yough, 2008) to include items based on the TSES (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). As mainstream secondary teachers progressed through the survey instrument, the TETELL (Yough, 2008), they responded to questions related to demographics, self-efficacy, training and professional development, pedagogical approaches, and personal experiences addressing culturally and linguistic diverse secondary mainstream classrooms, specifically ELLs.

The TETELL survey instrument consisted of three sections. Section one solicited demographic information such as number of years teaching, certification(s) area(s), educational background, ethnicity (optional), and whether the participant had received specialized training to teach ELLs. The researcher also provided an opportunity for participants to reflect on the inclusion of ELLs in their classes.

Section two of the TETELL (Yough, 2008) was comprised of quantitative items,

which asked the participants to rank their perceived ability on a Likert scale from one to five. The Likert scale range from one being "Nothing" to five being "A Great Deal" in rating their ability to close the gap between an ELL and native English speaking peers in the areas of reading, writing, listening and speaking. Questions within the quantitative section focused on a teacher's belief and ability to address pedagogical approaches such as: a) classroom management, b) instruction and planning, c) motivation and engagement, and d) assessment when instructing ELLs within the classroom.

The final section of the TETELL survey instrument included two open-response questions (Yough, 2008) which allowed the researcher to collect perspectives of secondary mainstream teachers focused on components of professional development and personal experiences when teaching ELLs within a classroom. Mertens (2005) stated a valuable purpose of research is "understanding and describing an event from the point of the participant" (p. 240). Creswell's (2009) research design of mixed methods used for the study allowed the researcher to gain a better understanding of the various viewpoints of participants when preparing ELLs.

After reviewing the quantitative data collection in section two, the researcher drew on the sequential steps for qualitative data analysis of Miles and Huberman (1994) to search for themes within the participants' responses which were analyzed for commonalities which structured questions used during the focus group.

Participants

For this study approximately 120 secondary mainstream teachers from a school district located in upstate South Carolina were invited to participate in the research. Sixty-five mainstream secondary teachers responded to the TETELL (Yough, 2008) survey items. Data were gathered from participants via email correspondence using the

school district's email address book to identify secondary mainstream teachers that met the criteria for the study.

The Central Bureau of Statistics (2015) stressed the importance to collect basic information from participants when addressing purposes such as planning, development, and improvement, which allows organizations to plan for services and find solutions for existing issues. The Central Bureau of Statistics also points out school systems use demographic data to forecast needs for student population.

The demographic data collected from participants are outlined in Table 2.

Table 2

Demographic Data

Demographic variable	N	Percentage
Gender		
Male	15	23.1%
Female	50	76.9%
Total	65	100%
Years Teaching		
1-5	6	9.5%
6-10	22	28.6%
11-15	14	22.2%
16-20	12	20.6%
More than 20	11	19.%
Total	65	100%
Level of Education		
Bachelor's Degree	6	9.2%
Bachelor's Degree +18	3	4.6%
Master's Degree	36	55.3%
Master's Degree +30	15	23%
Educational Specialist's Degree	2	3.1%
Doctorate	3	4.6%
Total	65	100%
Certification Area		
English/Language Arts	22	33.8%
Mathematics	8	12.3%
Sciences	7	10.7%
Social Studies	7	10.7%
Foreign Language	7	10.7%
Fine Arts	4	6.1%
Physical Education	4	6.1%
Computer Sciences	2	3%
Special Education	6	9.2%
ESOL	12	18.5%
Administration	2	3.1%
Other	12	18.5%
Total	65	100%
Ethnicity (Optional)		
White	57	89%
African-American	5	7.8%
Asian	0	0%
Middle-Eastern	0	0%
Native American	0	0%
Hispanic/Latino/Spanish	1	1.5%
Eastern European	1	1.5%
Other	0	0%
Total	64	100%

Demographic information collected by the researcher from the participants presented a reliable picture of the secondary mainstream teacher population within an upstate school district in South Carolina. Of the total participants, 76.9% of the teachers indicated they were female, and 89% noted they were white. Results reflected 86% of the participants held a master's degree or higher. An additional 39.6% indicated they taught for more than 16 years. Noted in the data is the level of experience pertinent to future studies to be addressed in Chapter Five.

The survey results showed 54% of participants had not received specialized training in teaching ELLs, and 46% stated they had received specialized training to teach ELLs. Zacarian and Haynes (2012) pointed out the importance of professional development when addressing the needs of ELLs.

Organization of the Data Analysis

Themes identified related to the research questions are displayed in tables followed by a narrative description of the statistical results. Qualitative results gained from the open response items on the TETELL (Yough, 2008), along with responses from the focus group, were utilized to gain a better understanding of the quantitative data. Qualitative findings expanded upon the quantitative data, which provided themes and allowed the researcher to explain the results more accurately. Emerging themes from the data collection were cataloged according to each research question.

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 asked: What are the identifiable differences in the perceived levels of self-efficacy of secondary mainstream teachers with ELLs pertaining to classroom cultural components?

The quantitative and qualitative both were associated with Research Question 1.

The researcher examined 28 quantitative data survey items from the TETELL (Yough, 2008) linked to Research Question 1.

A teacher's sense of efficacy refers to "teachers' situation-specific expectation that they can help students learn" (Ashton & Webb, 1986, p. 3). Pajares (1992) defined a teacher's sense of efficacy as "beliefs about confidence to affect students' performance" specifically targeting the education canopy as "educational beliefs" (p. 316). Ashton (1985) said teachers' efficacy is "their belief in their ability to have a positive effect on student learning" (p. 145).

The researcher's quantitative data derived from the TETELL (Yough, 2008) survey items 1, 5, 9, 12, 14, 26, 27, and 30 addressed teachers' perceived ability to manage students, specifically ELLs. Percentages for responses to these survey items are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Classroom Management

Survey Item	Nothing	Very Little	Some	Quite A Bit	A Great Deal	Percent Negative	Percent Positive
Q1-Disruptive behavior	0%	1.6%	15.9%	57.1%	25.4%	1.6%	82.5%
Q5-Bullying of ELLs	0%	12.7%	41.3%	34.9%	11.1%	12.7%	46%
Q9-Follow classroom rules	0%	0%	19%	42.9%	38.1%	0%	81%
Q12-Calm disruptive behavior	0%	1.6%	38.1%	47.6%	12.7%	1.6%	60.3%
Q14-Establish procedures	0%	4.8%	25.4%	46%	23.8%	4.8%	69.8%
Q26-Classroom behavior expectations	0%	4.8%	31.7%	55.6%	7.9%	4.8%	63.5%
Q27-Classroom acceptance of ELLs	0%	6.3%	28.6%	65.1%	0%	6.3%	65.1%
Q30-Disruptive behavior due to academic gap	0%	12.7%	50.8%	31.7%	4.8%	12.7%	36.5%

Quantitative results in table (Table 3) indicates how secondary mainstream teacher believed they are prepared in classroom management for ELLs in their classroom. Addressing disruptive behavior was rated 82.5% positively and 1.6% negatively. Bullying of ELLs was rated 46% positively and 12.7% negatively. Getting ELLs to follow classroom rules was rated 81% positively and 0% negatively. Being able to calm a loud or disruptive ELL was rated 60.3% positively and 1.6% negatively. Being able to establish classroom procedures for a group of ELLs was rated 69.8% positively and 4.8%

negatively. Being able to convey expectations for classroom behavior to ELLs was rated 63.5% positively and 4.8% negatively. Being able to assure acceptance of ELLs by native English-speaking peers was rated 65% positively and 6.3% negatively. Being able to control the disruptive behavior of an ELL who is unable to read or write in their native language was rated 36.5% positively and 12.7% negatively.

Qualitative data collected in open-response question two added to the TETELL (Yough, 2008), and responses from the focus group provided even more insight as to how secondary mainstream teachers viewed their ability to manage a class with ELLs. A positive response stated, "It's amazing when ELLs talk about their different cultures with other students." A negative response included, "It is difficult to manage an ELL who acts out in class or acts as a class clown. It is unfair to the rest of the students in the classroom when so much time is spent on behavior."

During the focus group, participants provided additional examples related to classroom management related to ELLs. A positive response expressed, "It's important to build relationships with ELLs and to draw on their culture." Another stated,

> It is difficult to communicate with students who do not speak English. I had a
> situation where a student was disruptive in class and I had to call the parents. It
> was difficult to know if the parents understood why his behavior was
> unacceptable.

Overall, the researcher concluded secondary mainstream teachers perceived themselves positively when managing a class with ELLs. The quantitative and qualitative responses support this conclusion.

Lovat (2003) defined pedagogy as "a highly complex blend of theoretical

understanding and practical skill" and accentuated that a teacher is "a highly developed

autonomous professional, with a requisite professional knowledge base and practitioner

skills which could stand alongside the equivalent in medicine, law, and engineering" (p.

11). Likewise, Luke and Freebody (1999) argued an approach to teaching requires a

range of procedures to be able to differentiate for communities of students and effective

teachers understood the need. Lovat (2003) also pointed out that effective teachers

> have a rich understanding of the subject they teach and appreciate how knowledge
>
> in their subject is created, organized, linked to other disciplines, and applied to
>
> real-world settings. While faithfully representing the collective wisdom of our
>
> culture and upholding the value of disciplinary knowledge, they also develop the
>
> critical and analytical capacities of their students. (p. 12)

Therefore, pedagogy is a collection of strategies and models used to teach.

Krashen (1987) and Cummins (2000) exemplified pedagogical practices as a

necessary element when addressing second language acquisition. "Learning a second

language can be exciting and productive…or painful and useless…the difference often

lies in how one goes about learning the new language and how a teacher goes about

teaching it" (Dulay et al., 1982, p. 3); thus, it is the task of educators of language to make

certain the second does not conquer the first.

The researcher's quantitative data derived from the TETELL (Yough, 2008)

survey items 8, 16, and 31 addressed teachers' perceived ability to use pedagogical

approaches related to planning and instructing within classes with ELLs. Table 4 outlines

survey items relating to pedagogical approaches, planning, and instruction of ELLs.

Table 4

Instruction and Planning

Survey Item	Nothing	Very Little	Some	Quite A Bit	A Great Deal	Percent Negative	Percent Positive
Q8-Craft good questions	0%	4.7%	28.6%	39.7%	27%	4.7%	66.7%
Q16-Differentiate instruction	1.6%	4.7%	28.6%	42.9%	22.2%	6.3%	65.1%
Q31-Implementation of strategies	3.2%	27%	33.3%	25.4%	11.1%	30.2%	36.5%

Quantitative results in Table 4 indicate how secondary mainstream teachers believed they are prepared for planning and instructing for ELLs in their classroom respectively. Crafting good questions received a positive rate of 66.7% and 4.7% negative rate. The area of differentiation for instruction received a 65.1% positive rate and 6.3% negative rate. Finally, implementation of strategies received 36.5% positive rate and 30.2% negative.

Qualitative data revealed from participants through open-response items included in the TETELL (Yough, 2008), and the focus group provided further insight into secondary mainstream teachers' perceived ability to use pedagogical approaches related to planning and instructing when teaching ELLs. A participant responded, "Students need appropriate modifications and accommodations in order to learn the academic content." Another participant stated, "The use of repetition and establishing a routine are beneficial." Another positive respond indicated, "I like to make connections to students' background and it is imperative to modify, monitor, and adjust your instructional plan."

A negative response stated, "It's difficult to know if they understand assignments. I lack training and do not understand how to deal with newcomers at the secondary level." Another participant stated, "Too much is expected of teachers with ELLs. We are expected to fix them and they should not be in a mainstream class until they are able to speak, read, and write in English."

Overall, the researcher concluded secondary mainstream teachers perceived themselves positively when planning and instructing a class with ELLs. The quantitative and qualitative responses support this conclusion.

The researcher's quantitative data derived from the TETELL (Yough, 2008) survey items 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 10, 13, 19, 20, 22, 23, 24, 25, and 29 addressed teachers' perceived ability to motivate and engage students, specifically those with ELLs. Table 5 outlines survey items related to engagement and motivation.

Table 5

Motivation and Engagement

Survey Item	Nothing	Very Little	Some	Quite A Bit	A Great Deal	Percent Negative	Percent Positive
Q2-Motivation	0%	9.5%	36.5%	46%	7.9%	9.5%	53.9%
Q3-Motivation to interact	0%	4.8%	46%	36.5%	12.7%	4.8%	49.2%
Q4-Envoke self-esteem	0%	3.2%	33.3%	49.2%	14.3%	3.2%	63.5%
Q6-Value learning	0%	6.4%	38.1%	46%	9.5%	6.4%	55.5%
Q7-Sense of belonging in school	0%	4.7%	34.9%	42.9%	17.5%	4.7%	60.4%
Q10-Motivate engagement	0%	9.5%	44.4%	42.9%	3.2%	9.5%	46.1%
Q13-Encourage to participate	0%	11.1%	52.4%	25.4%	11.1%	11.1%	36.5%
Q19-Empathy for ELLs	0%	11.1%	44.4%	42.9%	1.6%	11.1%	44.5%
Q20-Assest families of ELLs	1.6%	31.7%	39.7%	23.8%	3.2%	33.3%	27%
Q22-Stand up for themselves	0%	15.9%	58.7%	23.8%	1.6%	15.9%	25.4%
Q23-Sense of belonging outside class	7.9%	23.8%	47.6%	20.6%	0%	31.7%	20.6%
Q24-Stand up for themselves on bus	12.7%	23.8%	49.2%	12.7%	1.6%	36.5%	14.3%
Q25-Sense of belonging in class	0%	6.4%	25.4%	61.9%	6.3%	6.4%	68.2%
Q29-Academic expectations for ELLs	0%	21.2%	51.5%	22.7%	4.6%	21.2%	27.3%

Quantitative results in Table 5 indicate how teachers perceived their ability to motivate and engage students in a class, specifically ELLs. A total of 53.9% of participants felt positive in motivating ELLs who demonstrated low interest in schoolwork while 9.5% felt negative. A positive response of 49.2% was recorded when motivating ELLs to interact with native English speakers in the classroom, and 4.8% responded negatively. A positive response of 63.5% was noted when motivating ELLs to believe they can do well in school and 3.2% negatively. A positive response of 55.5% was indicated when motivating ELLs to value learning and 6.4% negatively. A positive response of 60.4% felt they could instill a sense of belonging in school and 4.7% negatively. A positive response of 46.1% felt they could motivate and engage shy ELLs and 9.5% negatively. A positive response of 36.5% felt they could encourage ELLs to join an extracurricular activity, and 11.1% responded negatively. A positive response of 44.5% was recorded when motivating native English-speaking students to have empathy for ELLs and 11.1% negatively. A positive response of 27% was reflected when in assisting families whose language is other than English in helping their children to well in school and 33.3% negatively. A positive response of 25.4% felt they could assure ELLs stand up for themselves in social settings at school and 15.9% negatively. A positive response of 20.6% was reflected when assuring acceptance of ELLs by native English-speaking peers outside of classroom and 31.7% negatively. A positive response of 14.3% was indicated when assuring ELLs would stand up for themselves on the bus to and from school and 36.5% negatively. A positive response 68.2% felt they could in assure acceptance of ELLs by native English-speaking peers inside the classroom and 6.4% negatively.

Qualitative data revealed from participants through open-response question two

added at the end of the TETELL (Yough, 2008) along with responses from the focus group provided further insight into how secondary mainstream teachers perceived level of self-efficacy in motivating and engaging ELLs. A positive response stated,

> I think it is so amazing when my students talk about their different cultures in conversations among themselves. I love hearing them teach each other new words and phrases in both languages. I think this really helps to build a sense of community within the classroom and it helps to strengthen relationships between students.

Another participant responded, "Students want to learn, you just need to meet them at their starting point. Students are willing to help others while I worked with ELL students." One participant explained, "Language is sometimes a barrier to learning. Student translators are great but then, said student misses instruction." Another responded, "Math is universal, so my ELLs can be successful by knowing key words that let them know what math needs to do." One participant stated, "There are many times where my ELLs outperform native English speakers. They become leaders, teachers, and earnest learners." Another comment stated, "A small amount of success can motivate them to do better." Another participant stated, "Fear, pride, overwhelmed, but ultimately blessed by the whole ELL interaction."

A negative response stated, "It can be extremely difficult working with multiple languages in one class. In my school, we have Russian, Spanish, Chinese, and many others. How do I teach, motivate, and encourage all of them?" Another negative response recorded from a participant stated,

> For the most part, my ELL students have been willing learners and work hard to

try to do what they can. I had a student who was defiant and /or resistant to working in the classroom setting, causing me to be frustrated because I didn't feel like I had a course of action.

Another participant responded, "I struggle with parent communication."

Overall, the researcher concluded secondary mainstream teachers perceived themselves positively when motivating and engaging a class with ELLs. The quantitative and qualitative responses support this conclusion.

The researcher's quantitative data derived from the TETELL (Yough, 2008) survey items 11, 15, and 32 addressed teachers' perceived ability to assess students, specifically those with ELLs. Table 6 shows assessment responses.

Table 6

Assessment

Survey Item	Nothing	Very Little	Some	Quite A Bit	A Great Deal	Percent Negative	Percent Positive
Q11-High stakes testing	0%	27%	46%	27%	0%	27%	27%
Q15-Assessment strategies	1.6%	3.2%	22.2%	38.1%	34.9%	4.8%	73%
Q32-Alternative assessment strategies	6.4%	25.4%	33.3%	27%	7.9%	31.8%	34.9%

Quantitative results in Table 6indicate how secondary mainstream teachers perceived their ability to assess and prepare ELLs for high-stakes testing. Being able to prepare ELLs for state-mandated and standardized testing 27% was rated positively and 27% negatively. Being able to use a variety of assessment strategies was rated 73%

positively and 4.8% negatively. Being able to use alternative assessment strategies was rated 34.9% positively and 31.8% negatively.

Qualitative data collected in open-response questions added to the end of the TETELL (Yough, 2008) and responses from the focus group provided even more insight as to how secondary mainstream teachers viewed their ability to prepare assessments for ELLs as well as help them in preparing for high-stakes assessments. One participant responded,

> It is exciting to challenge myself to teach and assess a student who may speak English fluently. My pacing needs to be slower and utilize pictorial representations with vocabulary when instructing and as part of my assessment. This allows me to grade what they have learned.

Another participant expressed, "I am overwhelmed. How to I alter my assessments to get grades? Also, will state tests be altered to allow the student to demonstrate the content I taught?" Another participant stated, "I am frustrated. It is extremely difficult to assess students who do not speak English."

Overall, the researcher concluded secondary mainstream teachers perceived themselves somewhat positively when assessing and preparing students for high-stakes testing, specifically for ELLs. The quantitative and qualitative responses support this conclusion.

Research Question 2

What components of professional development for teachers with diverse classrooms have had the most impact on the classroom cultures that contain diverse learners? The quantitative and qualitative data both were associated with Research

Question 2. The researcher determined four quantitative survey items from the TETELL (Yough, 2008) linked to Research Question 2.

Learning Forward's Professional Learning Association definition of effective professional learning is "a comprehensive, sustained, and intensive approach to improving teachers' and principals' effectiveness in raising student achievement" (System Leaders, 2012, para.1). In keeping with the research of Zacarian and Haynes (2012), this definition serves as a foundation for the planning of professional development for all educators of ELLs. The researchers also stressed the importance of the definition to institutions of higher education as they are preparing educators and educational leaders (Zacarian and Haynes, 2012).

The researcher's quantitative data derived from the TETELL (Yough, 2008) survey items 17, 18, 21, and 28. The survey items addressed teachers' perceived level of impact from professional development components when teaching classes who have ELLs. Table 7 outlines survey items related to professional development.

Table 7

Professional Development: Impact on Classrooms with Diverse Learners

Survey Item	Nothing	Very Little	Some	Quite A Bit	A Great Deal	Percent Negative	Percent Positive
Q17-Adopt new instructional techniques	0%	7.9%	34.9%	46%	11.1%	7.9%	57.1%
Q18-Impact peer's approach with ELLs	3.2%	8%	57.1%	27%	4.7%	11.2%	31.7%
Q21-Implementation of alternative strategies	0%	6.4%	25.4%	49.2%	19%	6.4%	68%
Q28-Adopt new policies and procedures	4.8 %	38.1%	33.3%	20.6%	3.2%	42.9%	23.8%

Quantitative results in Table 7 indicate how teachers perceived their ability was impacted by components of professional development when teaching students, specifically ELLs. Being able to adopt new instructional techniques revealed 57.1% positive and 7.9% negative results. Being able to impact a peer's instructional approach reflected 31.7% positively and 11.2% negatively. Being able to implement alternative strategies reflected 68% positively and 6.4% negatively. 23.8% felt positively and 4.2% negatively in their ability to impact policies regarding the education of ELLs.

The survey included a quantitative question, which asked for a yes or no response as to whether teachers had received specialized training to address needs for ELLs located in the demographic section. Results showed 54% of participants had not received specialized training while 46% stated they had received specialized training to teach ELLs. Zacarian and Haynes (2012) pointed out the importance of professional

development when addressing the needs of ELLs.

Qualitative data revealed from participants through open-response questions added to the TETELL (Yough, 2008) along with responses from the focus group provided further insight into how secondary mainstream teachers perceived their ability to be impacted by components of professional development when addressing the needs of ELLs. A positive response was recorded,

> ESOL courses provided through USC Upstate were beneficial as well as being able to attend my first TESOL conference. The knowledge I gained was invaluable as well as being able to collaborate with teachers and experts in the field of ESOL.

Another stated, "ESOL certification classes provided me with a comprehensive approach to teaching ESOL students." A participant expressed, "Graduate level courses that target specific language skills such as pronunciation have been helpful."

A negative response stated, "I need to learn how to modify assessments and my instruction. How do I get help with?" Another response reflected, "How do I differentiate my instruction without watering down the content?" One participant questioned, "How do I personalize learning for ELLs? I need training in how to differentiate the curriculum standards for newcomers who to not read or write in English or their native language." Another response asked, "What am supposed to do for ELLs who have never been in school but are placed in my biology class? How do I adapt assignments to make their learning more feasible for their abilities?"

During the focus group, participants provided examples related to components of professional development. One participant pointed out, "SIOP training would be great

for all teachers because it meets the needs of all students not only ESOL students."
Another participant stressed, "Attending TESOL conferences helped me to connect with experts in the field of ESOL and to network with other teachers who have ELLs in the secondary mainstream classrooms." One participant stated, "I have received very little training on working with ESOL students. I have four ESOL students in my science class-two are newcomers who have never been in school-how do I prepare them for an EOC?"

Overall, the researcher concluded secondary mainstream teachers perceived themselves divided almost equally when addressing the impact of components of professional development when addressing the needs of ELLs. The quantitative and qualitative responses support this conclusion.

Summary

Chapter 4 detailed descriptions of the mixed method results collected by the researcher using both the TETELL (Yough, 2008) as well as qualitative data collected during a focus group. The categorization of results, according to their relevance to each research question, allowed for the researcher to draw conclusions from the data (to be discussed in Chapter 5).

In summary, the TETELL (Yough, 2008) allowed the researcher to collect both quantitative and qualitative data. Through open-response questions and a focus group, the researcher received an opportunity to gain further insight into the quantitative data collected.

Research Question 1 asked, "What are the identifiable differences in the perceived levels of self-efficacy secondary mainstream teachers with ELLs pertaining to classroom cultural components?" A total of 28 survey items were categorized and presented in

tables, along with a narrative description of statistical data from the quantitative and qualitative results, which assisted the researcher in drawing a conclusions for the research question.

Research Question 2 asked, "What components of professional development for teachers with diverse classrooms have had the most impact on the classroom cultures that contain diverse learners?" A total of four survey items presented in table six assisted the researcher in drawing a conclusion for the research question.

While examining the results of the qualitative responses from questions within the TETELL (Yough, 2008), the researcher noted certain words emerged from the qualitative responses. The researcher noted the words training and professional development would accompany the words difficult, frustration or frustrating, and communicate 37 times. Also noted was the connection of the words strategies, instruct and plan, accommodate, and assess; the connection of these terms was noted 22 times. This led the researcher to conclude mainstreamed secondary teachers perceived themselves to have a high positive level of self-efficacy in their ability to address strategies, instruction, planning, and assessment. However, a negative level of self-efficacy in their perceived ability and experience in how to adjust these areas for ELLs, especially ELLs who were illiterate in their native language or had experienced interrupted schooling.

Finally, the data gathered both quantitatively and qualitatively through the TETELL (Yough, 2008) and a researcher-guided focus group, provided results in gaining understanding and insight into participants' perceived ability to teach within a secondary mainstream classroom with diverse learners, specifically ELLs.

An outline of the researcher's conclusion for each of the research questions, in

addition to possible implications of this study, is located in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Conclusion

Introduction

The purpose of this study stemmed from a desire to examine how the presence of ELLs with cultural and linguistic needs affects teacher self-efficacy within a secondary mainstream classroom. Hence, the study examined personal and contextual factors related to a teacher efficacy within secondary mainstream classrooms with diverse learners, specifically ELLs.

The researcher sought to determine if there was a connection between the identifiable differences in the perceived levels of self-efficacy of secondary mainstream teachers with ELLs pertaining to classroom cultural components. The researcher also sought to examine teachers' perceived ability to use components of professional development to impact their students, specifically ELLs.

Previous research reflected teachers who exhibit resilient feelings tend to face challenges with perseverance and believe they can affect student outcomes (Bandura, 1996). A great deal of research reports teacher self-efficacy being impacted by other variables such as pedagogical approaches and professional development (Zacarian & Haynes, 2012). Therefore, this research focused on cultural components within the secondary mainstream classroom which impacted teacher self-efficacy as they faced challenges regarding ELLs.

Two research questions guided this study in examining the identifiable differences in the perceived levels of self-efficacy of secondary mainstream teachers with ELLs and their perceived level of impact from professional development components have had the most impact on classroom cultures, specifically ELLs.

Methodology

Using the TETELL survey (Yough, 2008) as well as a voluntary focus group, the researcher gathered a combination of quantitative and qualitative data to implore a mixed methodological approach to her research study (Creswell, 2009). Quantitative data were displayed in tables according to each of the research questions along with a narrative description of the results. The researcher chose to group negative responses together and positive responses together to better illustrate the findings quantitatively. Additionally, the researcher included in the narrative statistical description, qualitative responses gathered through the open-ended responses survey items as well as during the focus group.

According to Creswell (2009), a deeper understanding of the quantitative results is supported by the qualitative responses given by the participants. Participants were invited to participate in a focus group which allowed the researcher to gather qualitative data to gain a deeper insight into participants' perspective (Mertens, 2005) which then added to the quantitative data collected providing a holistic point of view to assist the researcher in formulating conclusions to researcher questions (Creswell, 2005). This approach towards research allowed the researcher to gain knowledge into participant's perceptions towards their perceived ability to address the needs of ELLs in a secondary mainstream classroom.

Summary of Research Question 1

Research Question 1 asked, "What are the identifiable differences in the perceived levels of self-efficacy of secondary mainstream teachers with pertaining to classroom cultural components ELLs?" A total of 28 survey items were categorized and presented

in tables which assisted the researcher in drawing a conclusion for the research question along with a narrative description of the quantitative and qualitative results.

Table 2 allowed the researcher to draw from the demographic data supplied by the participants. Demographic information collected by the researcher from the participants presented a reliable picture of the secondary mainstream teacher population within an upstate school district in South Carolina. A total of 76.9% of the teachers indicated they were female, and 89% noted they were white. The results lead the researcher to conclude that even though classroom cultures are diversified, the make-up of the teachers who are instructing ELLs has not changed.

This is supported by researchers who point out teachers have traditionally taught in classroom with relatively homogeneous populations were now seeing transformations culturally and linguistically in classroom populations (Kellogg, 1988; Ross & Smith, 1992; Tatto, 1996). Even though classrooms were becoming more diverse, most ELLs were being instructed by white classroom teachers of European descent (Larke, 1990; Schick, 1995) and in classrooms where English was the language of instruction (Cummins, 2000; Nieto, 2002).

Survey results reflected 86% of the teachers had a master's degree or higher and an additional 39.6% indicated they had taught for more than 16 years. The researcher concluded from the demographic results that teachers with higher degree levels and years of teaching experience have received training and professional development (Nieto, 2002). However, Nieto (2002) argued that most instructors within the classroom remained unprepared to address the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students.

The NCES conducted a survey in 1999 that revealed over 50% of instructors taught ELLs within the mainstream classroom but only 20% responded as feeling

adequately prepared to meet the needs of the diverse students. Statistics from "Teacher Quality: A Report on The Preparation and Qualifications of Public School Teachers" (NCES, 1999) reflected most instructors felt "moderately" or "somewhat" prepared in classrooms while 17% of the instructors felt unprepared in addressing the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students.

Table 3 reflected the results of eight survey items focused on classroom management. Six of the eight items indicated more that 50% of the participants perceived themselves to be able to manage ELL students within the classroom. However, 36% of the participants indicated they felt least prepared to address disruptive behavior due to an academic gap and 46% reflected not being prepared to address bullying of ELLs. According to Charles (2002), there is a serious problem in schools, creating mayhem on teaching and learning—and the problem is misbehavior. Classroom are diverse with students with various types of disabilities, ELLs, in addition to students with attention issues and disruptive behavior; therefore, teachers without the ability to manage and control students are ineffective in content instruction (Charles, 2002).

Table 4 consisted of three survey items focused on instruction and planning for ELLs within the academic content. Two of the three survey items reflected more than 50% of the participants perceived themselves to be able to plan and instruct ELLs within their classes when crafting good questions and differentiating instruction. A total of 30.2% of the participants perceived themselves as being least prepared when implementing strategies for ELLs, which was supported with qualitative responses from the participants. The use of observation protocols was determined to be a vital part of instructional plans and was determined helpful when identifying what works and what

should be strengthened within the practice of teaching ELLs (Calderon & Minaya-Rowe, 2011; Echevarria et al., 2008). According to Zacarian (2011), this type of instructional plan was proven effective when working with ELLs when combined with data-driven decisions, instructional and assessment planning, along with increased parent-school engagement.

Goldenberg (2008) stressed educators must be knowledgeable and effectively modify instruction and take into account language limitations of ELLs, plus exhibit awareness of ELLs' backgrounds (Callahan, 2005; Galguera & Hakuta, 1997; Marzano, 1998), such as educational experiences, socioeconomic status, content knowledge, immigration status, personal life experiences, and culture (Freeman et al., 2003; NCTE, 2008). Research supports these modifications will benefit ELLs as well as native speakers (NCTE, 2008) as classroom cultures diversify.

Table 5 consisted of 14 survey items focused on teacher's ability to motivate and engage ELLs within classes. Four of the survey items reflected 50% or more of the participants perceived their ability in a positive manner specifically in the areas of motivation, evoking self-esteem, value of learning, and sense of belonging when discussing ELLs within their classes. A total of 46.1% of the participants perceived their ability positively when engaging ELLs in their classes; however, less than 30% of participants perceived their ability negatively in being able to engage ELLs outside of their classes.

Krashen (1982) pointed out affective filter when describing an ELL's attitude, which affects the success of second language acquisition. He describes affective filters to be motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety that may encumber language learning (Krashen, 1982). Numerous researchers stressed teachers should demonstrate high

expectations while creating challenges for students requiring high-level thinking and processing for language to complete an assortment of tasks (August & Shanahan, 2006; Coady et al., 2008; Meltzer & Hamann, 2004; Thompson, 2004; Galguera & Hakuta, 1997). The primary challenge for ELLs is gaining knowledge academically while simultaneously acquiring English as an additional language (Goldenberg & Coleman, 2010).

Table 5 consisted of three survey items focused the teacher's ability to assess and prepare ELLs for high-stakes testing. Seventy-three percent of the participants reflected their perceived ability positively when utilizing assessment strategies with ELLs; however, 27% of the participants viewed their ability negatively when addressing high-stakes testing with ELLs. Thirty-four point nine percent of the participants felt positive in their ability to use alternative assessments with ELLs. Teachers with high senses of efficacy and confidence in students (Freeman & Freeman, 1989) will exhibit high expectations for ELLs and believe ELLs will achieve or surpass achievements within state standards (August & Shanahan, 2006; Coady et al., 2008; Meltzer & Hamann, 2004; Thompson, 2004). Research draws on formative assessment as a means to the most effective instructional plan (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Carr et al., 2007) and is supported furthered as an ongoing process rather than an actual test administered to students and used by educators to adjust instruction for improving students' learning (Popham, 2008, 2009; FAST, 2008). Ongoing formative assessment is essential to effective instruction and pedagogy (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Carr et al., 2007). Black and Wiliam (1998) reflected it improved student learning when they reported the largest learning gains ever when compared to other interventions. Teachers with high senses of efficacy and confidence in students (Freeman & Freeman, 1989) will exhibit high expectations for

ELLs and believe ELLs will achieve or surpass achievements within state standards (August & Shanahan, 2006; Coady et al., 2008; Meltzer & Hamann, 2004; Thompson, 2004).

The researcher concluded based on the quantitative and qualitative findings that secondary mainstream teachers perceived their ability to be highly positive when addressing the cultural components within the classroom when teaching ELLs. However, teachers perceived their ability negatively when making addressing strategies, instruction, planning and assessments for ELLs who have experienced interrupted schooling or are illiterate in their native language. This conclusion was supported by the research of Zacarian and Haynes (2012).

Summary of Research Question 2

Research Question 2 asked, "What components of professional development for teachers with diverse classrooms have had the most impact on the classroom cultures that contain diverse learners?" Four survey items presented in table six assisted the researcher in drawing a conclusion. Two of the four survey items conveyed a positive perception toward professional development for ELLs. However, when participants were asked if they believed their professional development could be relayed to their peers, a much smaller positive perception emerged. Also revealed in Table 7 was the participant's perception toward the adoption of policies and procedures for ELLs; 42.9% of participants expressed a negative perception on their ability to impact policies regarding the education of ELLs at their school. Qualitative responses provided by both participant comments from the open response questions and focus group supported the quantitative results displaying weaknesses in components of professional development for ELLs.

Learning Forward's Professional Learning Association definition of effective professional learning is "a comprehensive, sustained, and intensive approach to improving teachers' and principals' effectiveness in raising student achievement" (System Leaders, 2012, para.1). In keeping with the research of Zacarian and Haynes (2012), this definition serves as a foundation for the planning of professional development for all educators of ELLs. The researchers also stressed the importance of the definition to institutions of higher education as they are preparing educators and educational leaders (Zacarian & Haynes, 2012).

As Short and Boyson (2012) identified ELLs as the "fastest growing segment of the preK-12 student population," educators are faced with challenges greater than the normal preK-12 population in order to be successful and graduate on time (p. 1). Education statistics reflect more than 50% of ELLs attend schools where they are less than 1% of the student population (NCES, 2004). Multiple researchers have noted most educators and educational leaders have received little professional development or training to teach ELLs (Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Ladson-Billings, 1995). Zacarian and Haynes (2012) stressed professional development is crucial for educators and educational leaders, and the research study conducted by Ross (1995) further supports that teacher efficacy is related to the quality of professional development provided to teachers as the classroom cultures evolves.

In conclusion, numerous researchers stress teachers should demonstrate high expectations while creating challenges for students requiring high-level thinking and processing for language to complete an assortment of tasks (August & Shanahan, 2006; Coady et al., 2008; Galguera & Hakuta, 1997; Meltzer & Hamann, 2004; Thompson, 2004).

The primary challenge for ELLs is gaining knowledge academically while simultaneously acquiring English as an additional language (Goldenberg & Coleman, 2010). Therefore, teachers with high senses of efficacy and confidence in students (Freeman & Freeman, 1989) will exhibit high expectations for ELLs and believe ELLs will achieve or surpass achievements within state standards (August & Shanahan, 2006; Coady et al., 2008; Meltzer & Hamann, 2004; Thompson, 2004). Goldenberg (2008) stressed educators must be knowledgeable and effectively modify instruction and take into account language limitations of ELLs, plus exhibit awareness of ELLs' backgrounds (Callahan, 2005; Galguera & Hakuta, 1997; Marzano, 1998), such as educational experiences, socioeconomic status, content knowledge, immigration status, personal life experiences, and culture (Freeman et al., 2003; NCTE, 2008). Research supports these modifications will benefit ELLs as well as native speakers (NCTE, 2008) as classroom cultures diversify.

The researcher concluded based on the quantitative and qualitative findings that secondary mainstream teachers perceived their ability to be highly positive when addressing the cultural components within the classroom when teaching ELLs. However, teachers perceived their ability negatively when making addressing strategies, instruction, planning and assessments for ELLs who have experienced interrupted schooling or are illiterate in their native language. Therefore, the researcher concluded based on the data analysis and the research of Zacarian and Haynes (2012), teachers perceived they have not been trained to address the needs of ELLs, specifically those with interrupted schooling or who are illiterate in their native language.

Limitations of the Study

The researcher designed this study to examine the perceived differences in self-

efficacy of teachers of ELLs. This study was limited to secondary certified mainstream teachers in Grades 9-12 within a school district located in upstate South Carolina. The data sample presented in this study is only relatable to the school district where the data were gathered. In addition, the study was limited by the willingness of the participants to complete the survey and/or participant in the voluntary focus group. The researcher sought assistance in motivating participants from secondary administration as well as the district superintendent. A participant's willingness to convey accurate and thorough information when responding to survey items or questions during the focus group could potentially be a limitation. Recognizing these limitations, the researcher was able to work to overcome their potential impact on the research results found in this study.

Delimitations of the Study

This study was limited to secondary certified mainstream teachers in Grades 9-12 within a school district located in upstate South Carolina. The data sample presented in this study is only relatable to the school district where the data were gathered. However, other school districts of similar diverse populations may find the results applicable to their school district.

The timeframe of the study was conducted during the spring semester of the school year for secondary mainstream teachers, which may have affected their responses on self-efficacy. Data were collected over a seven-day period at the beginning of the spring semester. Also noted, some teachers may have had an opportunity to participate in specialized training for teaching ELLs earlier in the school year.

Implications from the Study

The implications from this study provide direction in the area of perceived levels

of self-efficacy of secondary mainstream teachers who teach ELLs, which will provide guidance for professional development needs. Two areas of concern highlighted by teachers focused on their perceived inability to communicate with families and parents of ELLs, plus how to meet the needs of ELLs illiterate in their native language.

Considerations from the Study

The results of this study are only applicable to school district where the research was conducted. This research adds to the ever-growing body of knowledge surrounding pedagogical approaches, professional development, and teacher self-efficacy towards teaching in a secondary mainstream classroom with diverse learners, specifically ELLs. This research, while only related to the single school district where data were collected, provides descriptive statistical data which may be applicable to other educational institutions with similar diverse populations.

According to the results and literature review, the researcher recommended the following plan of action.

1. Increase opportunities for secondary mainstream teachers gain knowledge about assessing ELLs and preparing them for high-stakes testing; therefore, addressing the achievement gaps related to federal and state accountability,

2. Expand time for teachers to collaborate with their peers and experts within the field of second language acquisition within academic content and educational policy related to ELLs, and

3. Allow time to build relationships with families of ELLs in order to convey expectations for behavior and academic growth (Bell & Bogan, 2013; Samson & Collins, 2012; Zacarian, 2011; Zacarian & Haynes, 2012).

Recommendations for Future Studies

The research suggests replicating this study at multiple locations within a geographic region to broaden the generalizability of the study's results. Additionally, the researcher believes it would be beneficial to expand the study to include additional grade bands from both elementary and middle level teachers.

Furthermore, the researcher believes that conducting a longitudinal study will aide in school districts with data for strategic planning as they address the needs of diverse populations, specifically ELLs. An example of this would be to conduct this study over a 5-year span allowing the researcher to compile data and possibly establish a trend when planning professional development for teachers.

With the 39.4% of secondary mainstream participants having 16 plus years of experience teaching, another possibility for additional research relates to undergraduate teacher preparation programs, specifically preparing pre-service teachers to address ELLs.

Summary

The researcher sought to design this study to address the perceived differences in self-efficacy of teachers of ELLs. Two research questions were developed to examine this topic within a school district located in upstate South Carolina. The researcher concluded overall teachers perceived their ability positively when addressing identifiable differences in their perceived levels of self-efficacy pertaining to classroom cultural components. Those components were classroom management, planning and instruction, motivation and engagement, and assessment.

Lovat (2003) defined pedagogy as "a highly complex blend of theoretical

understanding and practical skill" and accentuated that a teacher is "a highly developed autonomous professional, with a requisite professional knowledge base and practitioner skills which could stand alongside the equivalent in medicine, law, and engineering" (p. 11). Luke and Freebody (1999) argued an approach to teaching requires a range of procedures to be able to differentiate for communities of students, and effective teachers understand the need. Lovat (2003) pointed out effective teachers

> have a rich understanding of the subject they teach and appreciate how knowledge in their subject is created, organized, linked to other disciplines, and applied to real-world settings. While faithfully representing the collective wisdom of our culture and upholding the value of disciplinary knowledge, they also develop the critical and analytical capacities of their students. (p. 12)

Therefore, pedagogy is a collection of strategies and models used to teach.

Krashen (1987) and Cummins (2000) exemplified pedagogical practices as a necessary element when addressing second language acquisition. "Learning a second language can be exciting and productive…or painful and useless…the difference often lies in how one goes about learning the new language and how a teacher goes about teaching it" (Dulay et al., 1982, p. 3), thus it is the task of educators of language to make certain the second does not conquer the first.

Learning Forward's Professional Learning Association definition of effective professional learning is "a comprehensive, sustained, and intensive approach to improving teachers' and principals' effectiveness in raising student achievement" (System Leaders, 2012, para.1). In keeping with the research of Zacarian and Haynes (2012), this definition serves as a foundation for the planning of professional

development for all educators of ELLs. The researchers also stressed the importance of

the definition to institutions of higher education as they are preparing educators and

educational leaders (Zacarian & Haynes, 2012).

A teachers' sense of efficacy refers to "teachers' situation-specific expectation

that they can help students learn" (Ashton & Webb, 1986, p. 3). Pajares (1992) defined a

teacher's sense of efficacy as "beliefs about confidence to affect students' performance"

specifically targeting the education canopy as "educational beliefs" (p. 316). Ashton

(1985) said teachers' efficacy is "their belief in their ability to have a positive effect on

student learning" (p. 145).

Secondary mainstream teachers of ELLs believe their strengths within the

classroom culture to be classroom management, planning and instruction, motivation and

engagement, and assessment. However, the teachers of ELLs believe those identifiable

differences also exhibit weaknesses in their abilities to teach ELLs. Teachers perceived

themselves negatively in the areas of classroom management, instruction and planning,

motivation and engagement, and assessment of an ELL who is illiterate in their native

language. They also felt they lack the ability to communicate with the families and

parents of ELLs. Therefore, they communicate a need for professional development and

training to build their confidence in meeting the needs of ELLs with interrupted

schooling and low levels of literacy in their native language.

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Appendix A

TETELL Survey

Survey of Teacher Efficacy of Teaching English Language Learners (TETELL)

This survey is part of a research study designed to gain understanding of a teacher's sense of self-efficacy when instructing students within a diverse classroom, specifically classrooms with English language learners (ELLs). The survey is divided into three sections: section one focuses on demographics, section two focuses on teacher perceptions, and section three allows participants to reflect and share personal experiences which focus on teaching ELLs. No information gathered from the survey will identify a district, school, or teacher in anyway except as a subject participant. The researcher appreciates your participation.

* Required

Section One: Demographics

This section of the survey will assist the researcher in gathering information about each research participant. All information obtained from the survey is confidential and will be deleted at the conclusion of the survey window.

1. **1. How many years have you been teaching or in the field of education? ***

   Mark only one oval.

   1-5

   6-10

   11-15

   16-20

   more than 20 years

2. **2. What is your current role in the education system? ***

   Mark only one oval.

   ESOL/ELL teacher

   Administrator

   High School 9-12 teacher

   Other

3. **3. What curriculum area(s) are you certified?** *

Check all that apply.

      English/Language Arts

      Mathematics

      Sciences

      Social Studies/Geography/History/Civics/Political Sciences/Economics

      Foreign Languages

      Art/Band/Orchestra/Chorus/Drama

      Physical Education/ROTC

      Computer Sciences

      Special Education

      ESOL

      Administrationr

      Other

4. **4. Educational Degree** *

Mark only one oval.

      Bachelor's Degree

      Bachelor's Degree plus 18

      Master's Degree

      Master's Degree plus 30

      Educational Specialist's Degree

      Doctorate

      Other

5. **5. Ethnicity (Optional)**

Mark only one oval.

      White

      African-American

      Asian

      Middle-Eastern

      Native American

      Hispanic/Latino/Spanish

      Eastern European

      Other

6. **6. Gender** *

Mark only one oval.

      Male

      Female

7. **7. Have you received specialized training in teaching ELL students?** *

Mark only one oval.

Yes

No

8. **8. Please include additional comments you may have regarding ELL students within the mainstream secondary classroom.** *

Section Two: Quantitative Survey Questions:

Directions: The intent of the survey is to provide researchers with a better understanding of challenges encountered when teaching English language learners (ELLs) as a mainstream teacher in the classroom. Please rate how certain you are that you can do each of these things described below. Please answer based on you ability today. Your answers are confidential and anonymous.

9. **1. How much can you do to control the disruptive behavior of your ELL students in the classroom?** *

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

10. **2. How much can you do to motivate ELL students who show low interest in school work?** *

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

11. **3. How much can you do to get your ELL students to interact with native English speakers in the classroom? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

12. **4. How much can you do to get your ELL students to believe they can do well in school? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

13. **5. How much can you do to assure that your ELL students will inform you if they are being picked on or bullied by a classmate? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

14. **6. How much can you do to help your ELL students to value learning? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

15. **7. How much can you do to instill in your ELL students a sense of belonging in school? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

16. **8. How much can you do to craft good questions for your ELL students?** *
   Mark only one oval.

   Nothing

   Very Little

   Some

   Quite a Bit

   A Great Deal

17. **9. How much can you do to get your ELL students to follow classroom rules?** *
   Mark only one oval.

   Nothing

   Very Little

   Some

   Quite a Bit

   A Great Deal

18. **10. How much can you do to engage an ELL student who is excessively shy?** *
   Mark only one oval.

   Nothing

   Very Little

   Some

   Quite a Bit

   A Great Deal

19. **11. How much can you do to in a single year, to prepare ELL students to take state-mandated, standardized achievement tests?** *
   Mark only one oval.

   Nothing

   Very Little

   Some

   Quite a Bit

   A Great Deal

20. **12. How much can you do to calm an ELL student who is loud or disruptive in class?** *
   Mark only one oval.

   Nothing

   Very Little

   Some

   Quite a Bit

   A Great Deal

21. **13. How much can you do to encourage your ELL student to join an extracurricular activity? ***
Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

22. **14. How much can you do to establish a classroom management system with each group of ELL students? ***
Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

23. **15. How much can you do to use a variety of strategies in assessing the performance of your ELL students? ***
Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

24. **16. How much can you do to provide an alternative explanation or example when ELL students are confused? ***
Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

25. **17. How much can you do to adopt new instructional techniques for ELL students that local or state administration wants you to implement? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

26. **18. How much can you do to influence/impact the instructional approach your peers take toward ELL students? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

27. **19. How much can you do to motivate your native English-speaking students to understand what it is like to live in an environment where their language is not the language predominantly spoken? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

28. **20. How much can you do to assist families whose native language is other than English in helping their children do well in school? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

29. **21. How much can you do to implement alternative strategies in classrooms in which you have ELL students? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

30. **22. How much can you do to assure your ELL students will stand up for themselves in social settings at school? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

31. **23. How much can you do to assure that your ELL students will be accepted by their native English-speaking peers outside of the classroom? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

32. **24. How much can you do to assure that your ELL student will stand up for themselves on the bus or on the way to or from school? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

33. **25. How much can you do to assure that ELL students will be accepted by their native English-speaking peers inside the classroom? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

34. **26. How much can you do to convey expectations for classroom behavior to an ELL student who is excessively shy? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

35. **27. How much can you do to assure that your ELL students will be accepted by their native English speaking peers in the classroom? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

36. **28. How much can you do to have an impact on which policies are adopted regarding the education that ELL students receive at your school? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

37. **29. How much can you do to convey your expectations for academic performance to ELL students who have arrived to the U.S. with no previous formal education? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

38. **30. How much can you do to control the disruptive behavior if an ELL student who is unable to read or write in his or her native language? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

39. **31. How much can you do to implement strategies for ELL students who are unable to read or write in their native language? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

40. **32. How much can you do to assess the performance for ELL students who are unable to read or write in their native language? ***

Mark only one oval.

Nothing

Very Little

Some

Quite a Bit

A Great Deal

Section Three: Qualitative open-ended questions(2)

During this section of the survey participants are asked to respond to two open-ended questions to assist the researcher in gathering qualitative data. All information obtained from the survey will be confidential and will be deleted at the conclusion of the survey window.

Open Response Questions

For the following two questions, please write any response that comes to mind regarding your experiences with ELL students. Please be open and honest with your answers.

41. **What components of professional development for you have made the most impact on your teaching within a diverse classroom specifically addressing the needs of ELLs? ***

42. **Describe some of your experiences when teaching in a diverse classroom, specifically involving ELLs. ***

43. **Would you be interested in participating in a focus group? If so, please provide personal contact information to the researcher. All responses gathered during the focus group will be kept confidential. Comments, thoughts, or ideas used in the study will be described using an alias to protect the identity of the participant. ***