Summer 8-11-2011

Understanding how ESOL Pre-Services Teachers' Prior Experiences and Background Shape their Processes of becoming L2 (Reading) Teachers

Eudes H. Aoulou
Georgia State University

ACCEPTANCE

This dissertation, UNDERSTANDING HOW ESOL PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' PRIOR EXPERIENCES AND BACKGROUND SHAPE THEIR PROCESSES OF BECOMING L2 (READING) TEACHERS, by EUDES HOUESSOU AOULOU, was prepared under the direction of the candidate's Dissertation Advisory Committee. It is accepted by the committee members in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in the College of Education, Georgia State University.

The Dissertation Advisory Committee and the student's Department Chair, as representatives of the faculty, certify that this dissertation has met all standards of excellence and scholarship as determined by the faculty. The Dean of the College of Education concurs.

_____
Joyce E. Many, Ph.D.
Committee Chair

_____
Caroline C. Sullivan, Ph.D.
Committee Member

_____
Ewa McGrail, Ph.D.
Committee Member

_____
John Murphy, Ed.D.
Committee Member

_____
Date

_____
Dana L. Fox, Ph.D.
Chair, Department of Middle and Secondary Education and Instructional Technology

_____
R.W. Kamphaus, Ph.D.
Dean and Distinguished Research Professor
College of Education

AUTHOR'S STATEMENT

By presenting this dissertation as a partial fulfillment of the requirements for the advanced degree from Georgia State University, I agree that the library of Georgia State University shall make it available for inspection and circulation in accordance with its regulations governing materials of this type. I agree that permission to quote, to copy from, or to publish this dissertation may be granted by the professor under whose direction it was written, by the College of Education's director of graduate studies and research, or by me. Such quoting, copying, or publishing must be solely for scholarly purposes and will not involve potential financial gain. It is understood that any copying from or publication of this dissertation which involves potential financial gain will not be allowed without my written permission.

_____

Eudes H. Aoulou

NOTICE TO BORROWERS

All dissertations deposited in the Georgia State University library must be used in accordance with the stipulations prescribed by the author in the preceding statement. The author of this dissertation is:

Eudes H. Aoulou
3801 Brockett Trl Apt G
Clarkston, GA 30021

The director of this dissertation is:

Dr. Joyce E. Many
Executive Associate Dean of Academic Programs
College of Education
Georgia State University
Atlanta, GA 30303 - 3083

Vitae

Eudes H. Aoulou

ADDRESS: 3801 Brockett Trl Apt G
Clarkston, GA 30021

EDUCATION:

Ph.D.	Georgia State University	Teaching and Learning/Language & Literacy
M.A	Georgia State University	Applied Linguistics/English as a Second Language
B.S. (C2)	Universite Nationale du Benin	English/American Studies

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE:

2009-present	Graduate Research Assistant Georgia State University, Atlanta, GA
2008-2009	Educational Consultant Institut Superieur de Management Adonai, Cotonou, Rep. of Benin
2006-2007	Adjunct ESL Instructor Atlanta Technical College, Atlanta, GA
1999-2004	(Business) English Teacher/Vice Dean Institut Superieur de Management Adonai, Cotonou, Rep. of Benin

PROFESSIONAL SOCIETIES AND ORGANIZATIONS:

2008	International Reading Association
2008- Present	Literacy Research Association

PRESENTATIONS AND PUBLICATIONS

Publications:

Many, J. E., Bhatnagar, R., Kim, J., & Aoulou, E. H. (in progress). The relationships between teacher preparation program design, assessments and teacher effectiveness: A feasibility study.

Ruiz, A., Many, J.E., & Aoulou, E**.** H.(In press). The prevalence or absence of attention to adolescent literature in the initial preparation of secondary content teachers. *Journal of the Southeast Regional Association of Teacher Educators.*

Wallace, F., Many, J. E**.,** Stanley, B., Howrey, S., Ponder, J., Fisher, T., & Aoulou, E. (2007). Literacy and literacy teacher education in grades 4-8. *Georgia Journal of Reading, 30 (2),* 10-26.

Presentations**:**

Aoulou, E. H. (2008). Use of Adolescent literature in Secondary Teacher Education: What do we know? Poster presented at the Conference on Literacy, Urban Issues, and Social Studies Education (CLUES), Atlanta, GA.

Many, J. E., & Aoulou, E. H. (2008, December). The prevalence or absence of adolescent literature in the preparation of English, math, and social studies secondary teachers. Poster presented at the National Reading Conference, Orlando, FL.

Many, J. E. & Aoulou, E. H. (Proposal Submitted). The role of scaffolding in literacy teacher education programs: understanding teacher educators' perspectives and practices. Proposal to the Literacy Research Association, Jacksonville, FA. (2011, December)

ABSTRACT

UNDERSTANDING HOW ESOL PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' PRIOR EXPERIENCES AND BACKGROUND SHAPE THEIR PROCESSES OF BECOMING L2 (READING) TEACHERS

by

Eudes H. Aoulou

We know little about how English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) preservice teachers' prior experiences and beliefs shape their learning process in teacher preparation programs, particularly in the area of second language (L2) reading instruction although research on preservice teachers' antecedents has offered insights into our understanding of how they learn to become teachers (Johnson, 1992, 1994; Wilson, Floden, & Ferrini-Mundy, 2001). This inquiry was designed to contribute to such knowledge.

The participants were nine ESOL pre-service teachers enrolled in an ESOL program of a large urban university in the southeastern region of the United States. Using modified versions of Language Teaching/Learning Beliefs Questionnaire (Brown & Rogers, 2002), of Multidimensional TESL Theoretical Orientation Profile (Johnson, 1992) and of the Theoretical Orientation of Reading Profile (Deford, 1985), reflective essays submitted during admission, observations, interviews, videotapings, and focus group, the study explored answers to questions regarding the influence of ESOL preservice teachers' antecedents on their learning in coursework and field experiences over three semesters. The inquiry stemmed from the framework of constructivism (Crotty, 1998), of introspection and retrospection (Scarino, 2005), and of *How People Learn* (Donovan & Bransford, 2005). Data were analyzed using grounded theory and constant comparative techniques (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Findings indicated that faculty used various strategies to address teacher candidates' background for conceptual change and development of professional dispositions. Programmatic decisions to select teacher candidates with specific background in learning an L2 were beneficial but teacher preparation programs may need additional instruments to tap candidates' entering beliefs more effectively. Although some aspects of the participants' prior experiences were not beneficial, these experiences generally contributed to their understanding of ESOL education, visions of L2 instruction, and the development of professional dispositions as related to culturally responsive and socially just teaching in important ways. Also, participants' views of reading, visions of reading instruction, reading instruction in field experiences, and their understanding of literacy theory and pedagogy were primarily influenced by their first language reading experiences. Finally, participants were less confident in articulating a vision of L2 reading instruction because of limited L2 reading prior experiences.

UNDERSTANDING HOW ESOL PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS' PRIOR EXPERIENCES AND BACKGROUND SHAPE THEIR PROCESSES OF BECOMING L2 (READING) TEACHERS

by

Eudes H. Aoulou

A Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of Requirements for the
Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
in
Teaching and Learning
in
the Department of Middle-Secondary Education and Instructional Technology
in
The College of Education
Georgia State University

Atlanta, Georgia
2011

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABBREVIATIONS

AYP	Adequate Yearly Progress. This is the yearly measure of progress indicated in the federal 2001 educational legislation No Child Left Behind
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELL	English Language Learners
ESOL	English Speakers of Other Languages. This is the name of the program which provides services, not the students themselves
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
P-12	Pre-kindergarten through 12th grade
SLA	Second Language Acquisition

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

As an international student enrolled in an American university pursing a Masters of Arts in Applied Linguistics and English as a Second Language (AL/ESL) with a personal background in English as Foreign language (EFL), I was offered an ESL teaching position where I taught adult ESL learners. I liked the position because it gave me the opportunity to draw on what I learned in my Masters' program. I was very passionate and enthusiastic about teaching the course. Congruent with that mood, I decided to use a teaching strategy that I had experienced as a student. The strategy consisted of using songs to teach some linguistic aspects of the English language. This was a technique I had learned while I was in middle school. When our English teacher used the technique then, it was usually a success; so I thought using it with the adult ESL students would be a success, too. To my great surprise, however, my students' responses were negative and the approach did not work with them. Instead of enjoying the lesson, the students had an annoyed look. Surprised, I asked them directly what was wrong. They answered me saying that singing was not in line with their cultural heritage and religion.

After a moment of frustration, embarrassment, and hesitation, I started thinking about the incident. I had thought that what worked for me as a student could be effectively used to teach the students I had been working with in my course. In other words, that prior experience I had as a second language (L2) learner developed into a belief of what I had thought was successful L2 teaching. The more I analyzed the situation, the more I became aware of the

potential influences my prior experiences and beliefs had on my instructional approach. Subsequently, I became curious about the role of prior experiences and beliefs in teachers' instructional decision-making process and classroom practices.

The incident described above pointed me in the direction of a research agenda focusing on teachers' prior language learning experiences or beliefs. In particular, I am interested in how ESOL (English to Speakers of Other Languages) preservice teachers' prior experiences/beliefs and personal background impact their learning process as they learn to become teachers, especially in the area of L2 reading instruction in P-12 classrooms in the United States.

As my interest in this area began to grow, I had the opportunity to work with ESOL preservice teachers for practicum and student teaching purposes in public P-12 classrooms as a university supervisor. One of the experiences I noticed that almost all of them displayed was a sense of frustration. They were frustrated because they wished they could impact their students' learning more effectively. The fact that they did not live up to their aspirations was not surprising. Research indicates that preservice L2 teachers hold unrealistic expectations as for how significantly they can impact their students' learning (Johnson, 1994). This frustration may be linked to an interaction between sociocultural factors (Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Milambiling, 1999) and personal background (Johnson, 1994; Pajares, 1992).

In addition to this general frustration, I noted that most of the ESOL preservice teachers I worked with then especially experienced their frustration when it came to implement reading instruction to their students. Consequently, I wondered how much their personal background prepared them to implement reading instruction to English language learners, that is, students

with whom they did not share the same frame of reference in terms of culture and language (use). Research has showed that reading teachers' views of themselves as readers make a difference in how they view reading instruction and implement instructional practices (Gerla, 1994; Theriot & Tice, 2009). It might then be interesting to understand ESOL preservice teachers' background as readers themselves whether in L1 reading or L2 reading in order to get a better sense of how they view L2 reading and L2 reading instruction.

In addition to looking at their background as readers themselves, looking at their epistemological views or beliefs of L1 reading and L2 reading might also provide insight into ESOL preservice teachers' instructional practices. Indeed, there is a growing body of research showing that the way people view knowledge, its source, and its acquisition influences their attitudes, learning behaviors or strategies, and views of teaching (Hofer, 2000; Hofer & Pintrich, 1997). Epistemological beliefs were also reported to play a major role in the field of L1 reading, reading instruction, and reading research (Cunningham & Fitzgerald, 1996). Furthermore, Deford (1985) showed that understanding teachers' theoretical orientation might offer significant insights into their instructional practices. In the field of L2 reading, our knowledge of how ESOL preservice teachers' beliefs and theoretical orientation shape their learning process to teach in P-12 classrooms, particularly in the area of L2 reading is still limited. Our cursory knowledge in this area of research is linked to the larger picture of the literature on L2 teacher education which actually began to expand only in the 1990s (Freeman, 1995; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Johnson, 1996; Richards, 1996).

Contemporary literature shows that ESOL/L2 teachers often lack adequate preparation to teach English Language Learners (ELLs) in P-12 schools (McKeon, 1985; Reeves, 2009; Reigle, 2007; Tellez & Waxman, 2004). As a result, many studies have called for

reconceptualization of the knowledge base of L2 teacher preparation and stress a strong knowledge base for ESOL/L2 teachers (Freeman & Johnson 1998; Kumaravadivelu 2001; Tarone & Allwright, 2005; Tedick & Walker, 1994). This call has been perceived as one of the major factors underlying educational reforms in the field (Connelly, Clandinin, & He, 1997); however, there seems to be a problem in how L2 teacher education is being reconceptualized.

Indeed, the literature shows that our knowledge of how sociocultural or cognitive constructivism is integrated into L2 teacher education is limited (Kumaravadivelu 2001; Tarone & Allwright, 2005). More specifically, we do not know enough about how ESOL/L2 teacher' prior experiences, beliefs, and knowledge are used in L2 teacher preparation and the conditions under which these experiences and beliefs shape their learning during their preparation.

Also, the literature reports that L2 reading is important for ELLs to improve their academic abilities in P-12 schools and to achieve academic success (Janzen, 2007). But our knowledge of how ESOL/L2 preservice teachers are prepared to implement L2 reading instruction, especially capitalizing on their prior experiences and beliefs or taking into account their background knowledge, however, is lacking.

Purpose Statement and Research Questions

Investigating how ESOL preservice teachers' prior experiences/beliefs and personal background shape their learning process in becoming ESOL teachers, particularly in the area of L2 reading instruction might provide some useful insights into L2 teacher knowledge and learning. Therefore, the purpose of my study was to examine how ESOL preservice teachers'

prior experiences/beliefs and personal background shape their learning process in teacher education programs, particularly in the area of L2 reading instruction.

In order to accomplish this goal, my study will address the following questions:

1- How can the prior experiences and knowledge of the ESOL preservice teachers in this program be described and how does the program address such antecedents?

2- How do ESOL preservice teachers' prior experiences and beliefs inform and shape their process of becoming teachers in teacher preparation programs, particularly in the area of L2 reading instruction?

Theoretical Frameworks

My theoretical framework stems from constructivist framework (Tracey & Morrow, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978; 1986), schema or cognitive load theories (Bransford, 1994; Paas, Renker, & Sweller, 2004), the framework of the National Academy of Sciences on How People Learn (Donovan & Bransford, 2005), and an introspection and retrospection framework (Scarino, 2005). The constructivism framework as used in this study encompasses both constructionism and constructivism as defined by Crotty (1998) or refers to both cognitive constructivism and sociocultural constructivism as defined by Cobb (2005). According to Crotty,

> It would be useful, then, to reserve the term constructivism for epistemological considerations focusing exclusively on ‘the meaning-making activity of the individual mind’ and to use constructionism where the focus includes ‘the collective generation [and transmission] of meaning. (p.58)

Constructivism and constructionism as used by Crotty, respectively, refer to cognitive constructivism and sociocultural constructivism as used by Cobb. In fact, according to Cobb,

> Two major trends can be identified in constructivist-based education research during the past decade. The first is the generally accepted cognitive view that students actively construct their ways of knowing as they strive to be effective by restoring coherence to the worlds of their personal experience … The acceptance of this brand of constructivism can be contrasted with a second trend that emphasizes the socially and culturally situated nature of activity. (p.39)

In this study, as mentioned above, my constructivist framework encompasses both the cognitive constructivism and the sociocultural constructivism. The only nuance is that I infuse recognition of the importance of schema theory (Bransford, 1994) into my cognitive constructivism. Schema theory and cognitive constructivism often share some significant tenets, and the drawing on the importance of prior knowledge as recognized in schema theory suited the needs of my study.

Within cognitive constructivism, learning is active and built upon background knowledge. Tracey and Morrow (2006) contend that "From a constructive viewpoint, learning occurs when individuals integrate new knowledge with existing knowledge" (p.47). Although Vygotsky (1978, 1986) assigned a primary role in learning to sociocultural constructivism, he did not neglect the role of individual mental processes either. In fact, Vygotsky argued that all learners have a zone of proximal development (ZPD). The concept of a zone of proximal development takes into account a learner's actual (or background) knowledge and potential

knowledge and how scaffolding is provided by more competent people in the learning environment to bridge the gap between the two types of knowledge.

Background knowledge helps the learner to connect old information to new information. It provides support for new learning to take place. The learner finds that material becomes easier to process when the learner can find support by making connections to the learner's existing knowledge. The existing knowledge, organized into mental structures called schemas, frees the working memory, which can then process additional or new information (Paas, Renkel, & Sweller, 2004). The better and more elaborated the schema about a topic is, the better the learner can comprehend new material about the topic.

Because my study was focused on the participants' prior experiences and beliefs, cognitive constructivism was a good fit to investigate how ESOL preservice teachers use such experiences and beliefs to make sense of what they learn during their preparation to become teachers. I contended their prior experiences and beliefs would shape their actual knowledge of L2 learning and instruction. Nonetheless, I recognized it was not sufficient to have background knowledge to comprehend learning materials or to learn new information. The quality of the background knowledge also plays a role in processing new information. For example, Anderson and Pearson (1984) contended that learners with highly elaborated schemas regarding a topic will do better when they come across that topic during their learning activities, compared to ones who were not familiar with the same topic. I wanted to understand how the ESOL teacher preparation program might endeavor to lead teacher candidates to potentially greater knowledge regarding ELL learning and instruction, using their background knowledge. The program coursework and field experiences could provide the context for potential scaffolding of these participants within their zone of proximal development. As a

result, I wanted to investigate how the participants' antecedents in my study may shape their experiences in different ways. Simply put, the study sought to understand how or if the quality of ESOL preservice teachers' prior experiences and beliefs facilitated or hampered their learning in their teacher education program.

In addition, other issues related to the participants' ability to draw on prior experiences might impact their learning. Research shows that simply having background in any given area is not sufficient in that a learner might fail to activate the appropriate aspect of the existing schemas to process new information (Bransford, 1994). Some learners might fail to activate the appropriate component of the existing knowledge to comprehend new learning materials or to process new information. Usually, this happens when the learner does not consider all the aspects of the information s/he has. Applied to my study, this aspect of cognitive constructivism helped me understand whether ESOL preservice teachers retrieved the correct or appropriate information from existing knowledge to build new knowledge.

My constructivist framework also included attention to sociocultural components as these are related to how human beings learn as a result of sociocultural interactions (Vygotsky (1978, 1986). This author argued that we learn as we take part in social activities. Teacher education programs offer opportunities for social activities and interactions. When teacher candidates enter teacher preparation programs, they enter into a social world in which they interact with mentors, faculty, peers, and with students. Through such interactions, they learn to construct meaning by making sense of course activities and teaching events. Such interactions and activities shape what preservice teachers bring to their teacher preparation program one way or another. Any learning or knowledge acquired in the teacher preparation program may be partially the product of those socialcultural interactions and may be situated in

a historical perspective. They learn as they take part in the activities of their social world or what is going on around them, the social world, itself, being molded by culture and implicit cultural knowledge (Tomasello, 2000; Vygotsky, 1986). This learning may take into account past and current information.

The importance of sociocultural constructivism has been particularly stressed by Au (1993). Sociocultural constructivism postulates that literacy development is related to the social and cultural environment the literacy activities and tasks take place in. Au explained this pattern well:

> Teachers need to be conscious of the ways that power relations tend to condition typical school views of the place and value of the home languages of students of diverse backgrounds. The changing nature of the American population … makes it more important than ever for schools to accept, build upon, and celebrate the diversity in students' languages. (p.140)

In the same vein, Moll (1994) implicitly pointed to this importance of sociocultural influence in any effective teaching. He explained that one of the reasons why Hispanic students perform poorer in literacy is that practice of school literacy does not provide a support to their home literacy practices. This failure in taking into account students' cultural background and other related factors explain why pre-service teachers' learning cannot escape sociocultural influences. They should be daily engaged in sociocultural interactions in order to learn.

The National Academy of Sciences presented a framework describing the learning process (Donovan & Bransford, 2005), in the *How People Learn* Framework, the first of the

three fundamental and well-established principles of learning stipulates that students [*whether children or not, emphasis mine*] come to the classroom with prior knowledge that must be addressed if teaching is to be effective (Donovan & Bransford, 2005). In the same vein, Wilson, Floden, and Ferrini-Mundy (2001) reported that entering beliefs and knowledge of prospective teachers act as powerful predictors of what they learn in education courses.

With the framework of my study described, it is worth pointing out that this study was a naturalistic study using a grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) for analysis purposes and to generate a new theory. Indeed, within this framework, the researcher used the data gathered to generate a new theory or knowledge. Grounded theory is used to describe and explain a phenomenon. The primary data collection within grounded theory framework consists of in-depth interviews and a data analysis approach involving open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. Open coding is done when the first wave of data is collected. The researcher looks at these data and identifies emerging themes. These themes guide subsequent interview questions. When second wave of interview data has been gathered, the researcher looks again at themes and identifies how these themes form categories and the relation between categories (axial coding). This step leads or might lead to subsequent questions. Data collected at this level provide a more global and clearer picture for developing a theory to explain or inform the phenomenon under investigation.

In relation to my study, I wanted to investigate and explain how ESOL preservice teachers' prior experiences/beliefs and personal background shaped their journey as preservice teachers in teacher education programs, what meaning they constructed as part of the interaction between their antecedents and learning experiences in the programs. Based on the nature of my research questions and derived from my theoretical frameworks, I used the

following methodological techniques. First, I used both questionnaires and in-depth interviews to collect data related to the amount and the nature of the ESOL preservice teachers' prior experiences and beliefs. Because questionnaire and interviews items, alone, could not help me capture how participants were using their prior experiences as they were learning to become teachers, I followed up with observations during their summer and fall course experiences on campus. Then, across the fall practica and spring student teaching, I used a videotaped recall stimulus technique for individual reflection and as focus group strategy. This approach made it possible to elicit information on some teaching decisions and actions that teachers went through as they (learned to) teach.

Significance of the Study

Some studies have reported that teacher education programs have little impact on preservice teachers (Lortie, 1975; Peacock, 2001; U.S. Department of Education, 2002). This suggests that teacher learning does not improve as a result of the intervention of such programs. However, when we consider both the cognitive and sociolcultural constructivist frameworks which stipulate that knowledge is actively constructed by building on prior experiences or that knowledge is also the product of sociocultural interactions (Au, 1993; Moll, 1994; Tomasello, 2000; Tracey & Morrow, 2006; Vygotsky, 1978, 1986), we have good reason to believe that if teacher education programs engage preservice teachers' prior experiences and beliefs appropriately, preparation experiences might help the latter improve significantly. One of the contributions of this study was to shed light on how teacher education programs draw on ESOL preservice teachers' prior experiences and beliefs.

Equally important, the study provides us with a better understanding of ESOL preservice teachers' prior experiences/beliefs and personal background and how these affect their learning process. More interesting, the study helps gain a better understanding of which areas of those experiences and beliefs shaped their learning. We gain a better understanding of whether preservice teachers are able to retrieve appropriate information from existing knowledge to build new understandings.

Furthermore, this investigation held potential for contributing to the critical awareness and critical pedagogy of ESOL pre-service teachers in particular. Indeed, the study sheds light on invisible webs of beliefs that unconsciously influence the way preservice teachers view the teaching and learning process and how they translate this view into instructional practices. Knowing these invisible influences might help develop more critical perspectives as educators.

Finally, the study contributes to the knowledge-base of the field of ESOL teacher education in relation to L2 (reading) instruction. My research helps update and expand our understanding of how ESOL preservice teachers are prepared to deliver L2 (reading) instruction. More specifically, we gain a better understanding of how the participants drew on their background to acquire the body of knowledge necessary for L2 (reading) instruction.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Second language preservice teachers often hold beliefs that affect their expectations and subsequently how they learn to become teachers (Johnson, 1994). In addition, L2 teacher candidates have some ideas about how language is learned and taught even before entering teacher education programs (Reeves, 2009). Investigating the formation of these beliefs and how they impact the whole process of learning to become teachers (in the L2 reading in particular) might offer us significant insights into ESOL preservice teachers' learning and development. I have thus proposed to gather information about ESOL teachers' preparation, prior experiences/beliefs and personal background in their learning process and development, and the pedagogical interventions that engage those experiences/beliefs and background, particularly in relation to L2 reading instruction.

My literature review specifically focused on the following areas: (a) background and rise of ESOL issues in P-12 education, (b) L2 teacher education, (c) the role of prior experiences and beliefs on teaching practice, (d) the role of ESOL preservice teachers' prior experiences/beliefs and personal background in their preparation, (e) preservice teachers' beliefs/views and reading instruction, and (f) ESOL/L2 teacher education and L2 reading instruction. I organized my literature review around these areas because they offer a coherent framework for a better understanding of the field and the research problem under investigation. Each of the first three sections provided a theoretical or conceptual framework for my research, and the three last sections focus on studies directly relevant to my study.

Background and Rise of ESOL Issues in P-12 Education

P-12 classrooms in the United States are more and more populated with non-traditional students. In fact, the new trend observed now in these classrooms is that the number of minority students is growing faster than traditional ones (Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Moussu, 2006; Roseberry-Mckibbin, 2005). According to Gonzales and Melis (2000), "In 1990 there were fewer White children under age fifteen than in 1980, but there were 6.1 percent more African-American children" (pp.6-7). Also, there is an increase in the number of English language learners in the U.S. P-12 classrooms. Because of the long immigration tradition of the United States of America (i.e., issuance of green cards), the number of foreign-born population in the U.S. has increased rapidly (Moussu, 2006; Sharkey, 2004). In fact, due to political instability, wars, natural disasters, and hard economic situations in other parts of the world, many immigrants seeking asylum, better living conditions, and peace came in the United States. Gonzales and Melis (2000) contend that "the 1980s saw increased immigration to the United States. Newcomers fled troubled areas of the world and became refugees in this country" (p.8).

With all these waves of immigrants, the number of P-12 students in the United States speaking a language other than English has increased dramatically. Roseberry-McKibbin (2005) found that in most states, there are growing numbers of English language learners (ELLs) in public schools. Hollins and Guzman (2005) also reported that the percentage of 5- to 24-year olds who spoke a language other than English at home increased 118% and the percentage of those who spoke English with difficulty by 110% from 1979 to 1999. With the increasing number of these students in American P-12 classrooms, the nature of U.S. classrooms is changing rapidly, creating unprecedented challenges to teachers. In the majority

of the cases, the P-12 classroom teachers are rarely prepared to teach these students (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Hollins & Guzman, 2005). This situation, naturally, creates a certain number of problems in terms of P-12-education and teacher education.

The increasing number of English as Second Language (ESL) students or English language learners (ELL) has made more complex the instructional situation in the P-12 classrooms. Until recently, P-12 teachers have typically taught students with whom they share the same frames of references in terms of culture and language use (Banks et al., 2005). Basically, teachers and students often used to share the same culture and language, thus facilitating both teaching and learning. But now with increasing number of ELL students involved, teaching has become more complex even with teachers who express the commitment to impact their students' learning (Hollins & Guzman).Teachers often do not know the language(s) their ELL students speak at home and what their culture might be. Some teachers do not know what to do about these students (Personal Interview, ESL Instructor, June 2007). As a result, the performance of ELL students is generally lower compared to that of their White or American peers. The results of Criterion-Referenced Competency Test (CRCT) (Cox, 2006) in Georgia, for instance, indicated that these students are lacking critical skills to perform well in classrooms and are lagging behind their peers: in 2006, English language learners scores in reading and English Language Arts (ELA) were 46 and 49, respectively, while the scores for all students were 81 and 85, respectively. While some of them only lack the literacy skills in English to perform academically well, others have not fully developed the literacy skills in their own native language and it is commonplace to see such students perform poorly in English Language Arts (Janzen, 2007) or other subjects. Because of the density of vocabulary in content areas and lack of relevant background knowledge on part of ELL students, they are

often unable to perform at level, whether it is academic language proficiency or functional language use (Brown, 2007; Cohen, 2007; Duff, 2001).

The poor performance of ELL students seems to be linked to many factors. Some studies found that there is a shortage of ESOL teachers (Antunez, 2002; Lenski, 2007). Indeed, the growing number of ELL students in public schools is not accompanied by the creation of teacher preparation programs for ESOL teaching at the same rate. Many schools have been obliged to resort to the services of paraprofessionals (Lenski, 2007) who may lack skills/professional development to work with ELLs. Other studies have found that practicing ESOL teachers lack adequate preparation and barely know how to implement responsive instruction for their students (McKeon, 1985; Reeves, 2009; Reigle, 2007; Tellez & Waxman, 2004). All these studies suggest that most ESOL teachers either do not have adequate preparation in their preparation programs or enter the profession through alternative ways with a cursory knowledge characterized by a lack of language, culture-history, and professional preparations. Altogether, these studies point to the need for effective ESOL or L2 teacher preparation. But before drawing such a conclusion, intellectual probity and courtesy require that we take a look at the current state of ESOL or L2 teacher preparation. In order to do this, I focus on some major works on the subject.

L2 Teacher Education

The literature on L2 teacher education really began in earnest in the 1990s although there were some significant studies before that period. The reason might be that before the 1990s, the issue of ESOL teaching was not as acute as it became in the 1990s (Gonzales & Melis, 2000). For practical reasons, I will focus most on seminal works in this section and I

will focus on the empirical studies in the sections directly related to my study. While discussing these works or studies, I will weave in my research focus or discuss the ways my study was connected to the extant literature.

Tedick and Walker (1994) first explained the reasons why change is needed in L2 teacher education. The reasons included the increasingly diverse makeup of the nation's schools and the context of global, economic, and political change while preparation programs remained almost unchanged. For these authors, in order to achieve the purpose of L2 teacher education reconceptualization, L2 teacher education should be part of the larger educational reform movement while at the same time it must be recognized that it is inherently different. Also, reconceptualization of L2 teacher education, for these authors, should be based on the understanding of, and internalization of, the complex sociocultural elements involved.

Tedlick and Walker (1994) suggested three steps to effect the change needed. First, L2 teacher education should take the example of the larger teacher education educational reform, that is, what is going on in the field of education in general. Secondly, L2 teacher education should examine problems unique to L2 teacher education and third, L2 teacher education should plan how to implement needed changes. Next, Tedlick and Walker identified some problems impeding progress. First, they found that the field failed to recognize the interdependence between L1 and L2 and between L1 and L2 cultures. Secondly, they noticed fragmentation and isolation in the field of language arts. Thirdly, they noted that language is treated as object. Fourthly, they contended that the field is too focused on methods. Fifthly, they stressed that there is continued failure to reflect in practice, and lack of consideration culture/language connections.

Finally, Tedlick and Walker also identified challenges to change in the field. These included people's beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors as well as change at global levels. They argued that lasting changes in practice are the reflection of fundamental changes in people's beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors and that change needs to occur at all levels (i.e., classroom; teacher education, and others). This challenge at the macro level of changing L2 teacher education might also become a factor at the micro level of my study. The participants in my study might hang on to teaching practices to which they were exposed as learners when faced with alternatives which would challenge their personal beliefs and/or attitudes. Although these authors did not mention explicitly prior experiences and beliefs, one can infer that they were probably making an allusion to such experiences. People's beliefs cannot change without consideration of their background knowledge. The primary clients of teacher preparation programs (that is, preservice teachers) need to be aware of this and of how they can consider critically their own theoretical and epistemological beliefs.

Tedlick and Walker (1994)'s work focused on why change is needed L2 teacher education and the problems hindering the advent of such a change. The works I discussed below address some of the issues addressed by Tedlick and Walker. But they focused more on L2 teacher knowledge, epistemological issues in L2 teacher education, and the reconceptualization of L2 teacher education.

Freeman (1995) contended that specific types of questions need to be asked within the L2 teacher education realm or pointed to the areas that teacher education research should focus on. This author contended that teacher education should not be imposed from the outside or based on observable behaviors. For him, important questions in L2 teacher education should address three categories: practice, knowledge, and understanding.

The first category addresses teacher thinking, that is, how teachers see what they do in classrooms and how they explain it. His justification for this category is that emic (inside) examination is more important than etic (outside) perception and offers tools for critical analysis in L2 teacher education. In other words, how L2 teacher educators and teachers make sense of their environment and experiences is more important than how outside agents perceive L2 teaching and teacher education.

The second-category questions address the types of knowledge that inform teachers' thinking and how this knowledge develops. Here, Freeman (1995) speaks of disciplinary and professional knowledge, personal and practical knowledge, and content pedagogical knowledge, a combination of which leads to teaching expertise, promulgated as the result of collaboration between researchers and teachers or simply within the professional community.

The third category of questions is more complex and addresses how teachers know and learn what they know. This category addresses more epistemological issues and tackles how teaching is learned and how teacher education contributes to that.

The last category, how teachers come to understand, to learn, to know, and to grow as professionals, covers my research topic. I am interested in how ESOL preservice teachers learn and know what they know using their prior experiences/beliefs and personal background. Also, my research focuses on how these teachers or teacher education programs use either their biographies, defined as prior knowledge or antecedents developed before teacher preparation programs (Reeves, 2009), to acquire knowledge and to grow as educators.

Johnson (1996) mostly addressed Freeman’s first category. This author argued that teaching is both a socially-constructed and an interpretative task. Because of this nature of

teaching, Johnson argued that phronesis (perceptual knowledge or the knowledge teachers acquire as the result of their own practices) should receive preeminence. Indeed, for theory (theoretical or conceptual knowledge or the knowledge teachers acquire as the result of their preparation in teacher preparation program) to be useful, Johnson (1996) recommended that teacher education programs implement case-based methods in order to capture teaching complexities and help teacher candidates reflect on how theory might address such complexities. Also, Johnson stressed that Professional Development Schools (PDS) should be used to help novice teachers ground theory learned in teacher education programs. Finally, she argued that (portfolio) assessment is a very effective way for teachers to demonstrate how they make sense of teaching, with such assessments taking into account theory application as well.

Basically, Johnson (1996) emphasized that L2 research should be field-based to develop more accurate theoretical knowledge that can be useful to L2 teachers. My study addresses such a concern through my attempt to explore how preservice teachers learn and develop not only through their coursework but also through their field experiences. In addition, my study went beyond and emphasized how teacher candidates' antecedents shaped their instructional practices in field experience situations.

Connelly, Clandinin, and He (1997) addressed the issue of teacher knowledge, too. But the authors emphasized the holistic nature of teacher knowledge. Indeed, for them, teacher knowledge is not just what is learned in teacher preparation programs. Knowledge is also shaped by personal, social, societal, curricular, and official ideological considerations. Connelly et al. investigated a Chinese female teacher who was educated in a Western university. They found that the instructional judgments and decisions of the participant in their study were based on her professional preparation, personal life, and sociopolitical factors. In

the initial stage of teaching, she was very concerned about teaching according to what she learned in her preparation program. But she quickly realized, through discussions with her daughter and with her students, that her preparation in the teacher education program, alone, would not make her teaching effective and responsive to her students' needs. She had to contextualize her knowledge if she wanted to be effective, thus showing the role of social and contextual factors on teacher knowledge.

Connelly et al.'s study informed my study in that I realized that my participants' personal background might be crucial in the ways they learned the teaching profession. This realization was instrumental in the way I framed my research questions, emphasizing prior experiences and personal background. But I was interested in learning how my participants' prior experiences and personal background played out in both coursework and field experiences.

Freeman and Johnson (1998), two pioneers of L2 teacher education reconceptualization, contended that language teacher education should no longer be viewed as developing in teachers a set of observable behaviors supposed to represent effective teaching. Rather, emphasis should be placed on the teacher as s/he learns to teach and on the sociocultural contexts in which the teaching takes place.

Freeman and Johnson went further and identified three domains for reconceptualizing the L2 teacher knowledge-base: (a) the teacher-learner, (b) the social context, and (c) the pedagogical process. Four foci are addressed within the teacher-learner domain. These include the role of prior knowledge and beliefs in learning to teach, the ways in which teacher's knowledge develops, the role of context in teacher learning, and the role of teacher education

in these areas. The authors clearly pointed to the necessity of teacher educators' engagement of preservice teachers' prior knowledge if teacher educators and researchers want to discuss L2 teacher education, seriously.

For Freeman and Johnson, the social context is important as well. They contended that this domain emphasizes schools and schooling as entailing social, cultural, and historical factors that can facilitate or inhibit teacher teaching and learning. Schools are not just places where educational practices are enacted. Rather they are places where some values and norms are held in high esteem whereas others are simply ignored. L2 learning and teaching as well as L2 teacher education should take into account such parameters. Again, pre-service teachers' antecedents are alluded to because teacher candidates have some background that might guide the ways they position themselves in how they might relate to their school values or to their students.

The third domain distinguishes between grounded and a priori analyses or between experiential knowledge and received/conceptual knowledge. The former reflects knowledge gained from personal and practical experience whereas the latter encompasses facts, theories, concepts, research findings, and the related specialized vocabulary that make up the intellectual content of a discipline (Flowerdew, 1998). For Freeman and Johnson, the new knowledge-base needs to encourage, through reflective practices, experiential knowledge even if it is complex and challenging to study. Also, language learning should not be just seen from Second Language Acquisition (SLA) perspectives which are more individualist and narrower. Language learning should be construed from a constructive perspective, socially negotiable. An analysis of the two types of knowledge mentioned here reveal prior knowledge as their component. Even if Freeman and Johnson dissociate these, we cannot really talk about

constructive perspective without (prior) experiences and beliefs. The same thing can be said of received knowledge.

Kumaravadivelu (2001) shared many of the analyses of Freeman and Johnson and termed the reconceptualization process as post-method pedagogy, stressing the necessity to pass by broad-based methods. For example, he argued that post-method pedagogy suggests that relevant L2 teaching and teacher education needs to be three-dimensional and should include a focus on particularity, practicality, and possibility. Particularity refers to the notion that L2 teaching and teacher education need to take in account the sociocultural, sociopolitical, and sociolinguistic factors influencing the teaching context. Practicality refers to the notion that teachers need to develop their own theories out of practice and that they need to know how they can adapt professional theories to their personal classroom situations in order to sort out what works and what does not. Possibility refers to the notion that effective L2 teaching needs to include not only functional linguistic assets but also needs to help learners explore issues of identity formation and social transformation.

As an L2 teacher educator, Kumaravadivelu argued that the post-method teacher educator is the one who recognizes that prospective teachers are not atheoretical clean slates. Post-method L2 teacher educators recognize and value the voices and visions that preservice teachers bring to teacher education programs. L2 teacher education programs need to engage teacher candidates in constant dialogue to help them shape their voices and visions and think critically. L2 Teacher educators need to help them understand how professional knowledge can be used in particular conditions and how it can shape or be shaped by personal knowledge. Here, Kumaravadivelu is clearer on what should happen to preservice teachers' prior knowledge; however, we do not know how this is/can be done empirically. This lack of

knowledge provided a rationale for my study. One of my objectives was to look at how teacher education programs draw on teacher candidates' personal background to develop professional knowledge.

While sharing some of the conceptual frameworks offered by the seminal works mentioned above, Tarone and Allwright (2005) disagreed with Freeman and Johnson (1998) in how they treated received knowledge and experiential knowledge. For Tarone and Allwright, Freeman and Johnson place too much emphasis on experiential knowledge. They qualify this attitude as a non-interface fallacy. Indeed, placing teachers in classroom without any firm conceptual knowledge is as dangerous as educating teachers purely with theories without any linking to practice, which they call academic fallacy.

In addition, Tarone and Alright contended that Freeman and Johnson downplayed the role of SLA theories. Indeed, while Tarone and Alwright agreed that SLA theories place the stress more on individuals and seem to lack the social constructivist perspective, they argue that these theories offer opportunities for classroom application (i.e., semantic acquisition; error correction) and even take into account the constructivist aspect of language learning. They then concluded that SLA theories should also be integrated into the knowledge-base of L2 teacher education.

An analysis of all the seminal works cited so far indicates that the need to clearly define the knowledge-base of L2 teacher education is crucial to the processes of L2 teacher education. Many of these theoretical pieces point to the necessity to give priority to the experiential knowledge of L2 teachers (i.e., Flowerdew, 1998; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Kumaravadivelu, 2001), arguing that this knowledge is the most important to the teacher. While this is true to a

certain degree, like Tarone and Allwright, I argue that placing teachers in classroom without any firm theoretical or conceptual knowledge is dangerous.

The development of L2 teacher theoretical/conceptual knowledge is important for L2 teachers to make a better sense of her/his classroom experiences. Without such knowledge, teachers can run into issues that can paralyze their instructional decisions and actions, thus leading to frustrations at the teacher's level and student's level as well. For instance, an L2 teacher might find that some of her students consistently place "s" at the end of all plural nouns. She corrects them but they continue to make such a mistake. She might get frustrated. But if she has the theoretical or conceptual knowledge that some persistent student errors might be linked to the interference of their L1, or due to interlanguage development issues, and she knows how to address such errors or when to address them, she can then design and implement appropriate instructional activities. But, if a teacher lacked knowledge of the origins of such errors, any instructional decisions and activities could be problematic with frustrating effects.

While theoretical/conceptual knowledge and experiential knowledge are crucial, emphasis should be placed on the ways the two types of knowledge can be developed during teacher preparation or education. Apparently, L2 teacher education programs tend to omit the cognitive and sociocultural constructive view of teacher learning or they often fail to integrate preservice teachers' antecedents, prior knowledge, biographies, and prior experiences into teacher education (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Reeves, 2009) or fail to do so appropriately. Attention to backgrounds and to prior experiences/beliefs is a new development in L2 teacher education (Tarone & Allwright, 2005). These authors contend that studies should pay attention to preservice teachers' prior experiences and knowledge. My study took into account such a recommendation. Before discussing ESOL preservice teachers' prior

experiences and beliefs, I will discuss in the following section how mainstream preservice teachers' prior experiences and beliefs impact the way they learn to become teachers.

The Role of Prior Experiences and Beliefs on Teaching Practice

The research on the ways mainstream teachers' (prior) beliefs influence their teaching is substantial and has yielded significant findings on how they learn. In general, prior experiences and beliefs influence the way preservice teachers understand and act (Pajares, 1992). Summarizing the literature on teachers' beliefs in the mainstream or general education, Johnson (1994) contends that it sheds light on three basic assumptions.

First, teachers' beliefs influence their perceptions and judgments. In other words, beliefs guide and shape how teachers see things and events and how they interpret information. Second, these beliefs play a critical role in how preservice teachers learn to teach, that is, individuals acquire their ways of representing information to students and of understanding students' behaviors and acts. Finally, beliefs shape how teachers improve their practices and how teacher preparation programs improve as well. In other words, teacher improvement depends upon how much they examine and understand their beliefs. Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005) argued that teachers need to let go of some of their beliefs in order to adopt more appropriate practice. Clearly, these assumptions show how teachers' beliefs shape their professional knowledge and subsequent learning. Of critical importance is the necessity to know about teachers' beliefs and how they are formed, that is, their origin.

Pajares (1992) contributed to this knowledge and to our understanding of teachers' beliefs formation. He explained that teachers' beliefs constitute a substructure of their beliefs in general and are the fruit of their cultural learning, that is, how they learned to see themselves

and to understand the world. He went on to explain that teachers' beliefs are particularly the result of being students themselves, that is, the kinds of experiences they lived as students shape their understanding of teaching and learning.

How lived experiences as learners shape understanding of teaching and learning was particularly stressed by Lortie (1975). He explained that teachers' beliefs came from their apprenticeship of observation as students. In other words, what they saw their teachers do in classrooms constitutes a substantial reservoir of knowledge that informs their own practices. Darling-Hammond (2006) explained in detail the problems that can result from an apprenticeship of observation.

One of the problems that Darling-Hammond describes is that one can develop a mistaken idea of good teaching. In effect, upon observing a good teacher, one may feel that teaching does not seem difficult at all. However, what is seen is just the visible part of the iceberg. In good and effective teaching, a lot is going on underneath. Darling-Hammond put it this way:

> While well-educated people may have the advantage of having some good teachers whom they can seek to emulate in their own classroom, the underlying work of teaching is typically invisible to students. What looks easy from the students' vantage point – giving gripping lectures, holding scintillating discussion, assigning challenging tasks, providing insightful feedback – is a function of behind-the-scenes planning, resting on many bodies of knowledge about learning, curriculum, and teaching. (p.30)

An analysis of this statement suggests that students are not usually privy to and savvy concerning what kinds of assumptions, theories, and philosophies guide what they perceive as good and effective teaching. Because of this, future teachers need opportunities to come to understand and be aware of prior experiences they bring to the table of teacher education. Although Darling-Hammond (2006) does not mention explicitly the importance of the sociocultural context, it plays a critical role in any good and effective teaching. What one learned as a student is context-bound (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005). Because of this, future student teachers need to think critically of the influences of their own assumptions about teaching.

Another problem raised by Darling-Hammond (2006) is related to the degree to which an individual's prior learning in a subject was easy or difficult. If one has been a good student with a history of easier learning in a particular subject, learning may appear to be a simple process and one of transmission of information or knowledge. From this vantage point, one can make quicker and shallower assumptions about students, teaching, and learning. These assumptions, in turn, inform and guide one's own teaching or how one learns to become a teacher. From constructivist perspectives, knowledge or learning is more complex and individual differences play a critical role in the process as suggested by Darling-Hammond and Bransford.

As can be seen in this literature, the weight of teachers' prior experiences as students plays an important role in the formation of their beliefs and subsequent learning and teaching practices (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Lortie, 1975; Pajares, 1992). This is what we know about how preservice teachers and even in-service teachers' prior experiences and beliefs in general are formed. We cannot, however, simply assume that this applies to ESOL preservice teachers.

Given the importance of ESOL issues and the L2 learning component involved, I will focus next on research exploring ESOL or ESL preservice teachers' prior experiences and beliefs and their teacher preparation.

The role of prior experiences and beliefs in ESOL teacher preparation. Two principal reasons render particularly necessary the examination of ESOL or ESL preservice teachers' prior experiences and beliefs. First, studies on ESOL preservice teachers' prior experiences and beliefs are relatively new, compared to similar studies on mainstream classrooms (Tarone & Allwright, 2005). So this territory is still under exploration. Secondly, given the fact that ESOL involves an L2 learning component and that L2 learning theories are succeeding one another (Schmitt, 2000), it appears particularly important to study ESOL preservice teachers' prior experiences/beliefs and personal background. More specifically, since prior experiences/beliefs and personal background involve, to a great extent, what one learned as a student, it comes as no surprise that the theories that informed practices when one was a student might fade out, might become inaccurate, or deemed no longer relevant when one becomes a teacher. Considerations like the ones evoked above thus render particularly necessary the study of ESOL preservice teachers' prior experiences and beliefs.

Two studies have found that ESL teachers hold theoretical orientations that shape the methodological approaches they use in classrooms and that their personal practical knowledge is partially influenced by their prior knowledge as learners (Golombek, 1998; Johnson, 1992). Golombek, in particular, found that teacher personal practical knowledge is shaped by prior knowledge as learner or other identities before actual teaching. This knowledge, the author argued, is more moral and emotional-driven and is developed in response to situational and contextual cues and tensions. Although the teachers investigated in these studies are inservice

ones, these findings indicate that ESOL or ESL teachers hold beliefs that are dated back to their experiences as learners. Other studies clearly investigated ESL preservice teachers' beliefs.

For example, Johnson (1994) found that formal language learning experiences have powerful impacts on ESL preservice teachers. The study took place during a 15-week practicum course in an American university. The participants were enrolled in an M.A. program in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL). They were placed in a university-level ESL course designed to prepare international students for academic requirements of American Universities. The courses focused on all language skills (i.e., reading and writing).

Johnson (1994) found that when the participants' experiences were positive, they wanted to replicate them. But when these experiences were negative, they rejected them and wanted to implement better instructional practices. What this finding implies is that these teachers adopted practices seen from their former teachers provided that their experiences were positive. While individuals have been found to have adopted what they have observed from others (Bandura, 1997; Meltzoff, 1998), the conditions that can facilitate effective and appropriate implementation of such observations should be critically considered. In effect, what these preservice teachers lived as positive language learning experiences might no longer hold for today's classroom in regard to current research and practices (Hinkel, 2006) and/or because of the role of context in teaching. Furthermore, what one observed as a student might not represent the whole picture of what one's teacher was trying to accomplish because expert teachers are making internal instructional decisions while teaching, based on context and emerging needs of students (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005).

Johnson's (1994) most striking finding was that language preservice teachers were obliged to adopt practices they did not agree with when faced with complex classroom situations where alternatives or valid models were not available. This may have occurred because the teachers might not have been knowledgeable about the conditions which would have been necessary for some of the approaches they had experienced to be effective or how to implement them. The implication of all these findings is that some language preservice teachers might be going into classrooms with imperfect notions of how L2 is best taught or of how certain instructional principles, learned as students, work.

Peacock (2001) found that ESL preservice teachers hold misconceived beliefs about language learning and teaching. The study was conducted in City University of Hong Kong with 146 preservice teachers involved. They were enrolled in a 3-year BA TESL program with the purpose to become ESL teachers in secondary schools.

Peacock found that there was a mismatch between ESL preservice teachers and inservice ones. They discovered that ESL preservice teachers held beliefs that were not in line with effective and practical L2 teaching. Of more concern were the findings that the participants held misconceived beliefs that were resistant to change and detrimental to their own learning and to that of their students. For example, they believed that L2 learning is about acquiring substantial vocabulary knowledge and developing sound syntactical knowledge. Although vocabulary and syntactical knowledge are crucial to L2 learning (Grabe, 1991), the belief that the preservice teachers investigated here held about the role of vocabulary and grammar in L2 learning is not supported by current research and not in line with what we know about L2 learning, which emphasizes more communicative competence in L2 learning (Hinkel, 2006; Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Schmitt, 2000).

In the same vein, Peacock (2001) found that preservice ESL teachers' beliefs changed little during their teacher education. While this suggests that teacher preparation programs do not have any significant impact on preservice teachers' beliefs, we do not know whether this is actually the case or whether the problem lies in the way these programs engaged and valued pre-service teachers' beliefs or their background.

In contrast to Peacock, Milambiling (1999) found that preservice teachers' prior knowledge or personal background can advance their learning as teachers. In her study, she interviewed both students and faculty about the role of being native or non-native English speakers in effective English teaching. Both types of participants were either native or non-native speakers of English. Milambiling found that L2 teachers' background knowledge played a decisive role in their teaching. Participants argued that preservice teachers who were non-native English speakers or if preservice teachers had experiences learning an L2 before entering teacher preparation programs, they had some advantages over their native peers or those who had never gone through the process of learning an L2. Firsthand experiences about how an L2 is learned was seen as helping teachers to anticipate students' difficulties, facilitating effective teaching and teachers' own learning. Milambiling also found that non-native speakers of English can notice the subtleties in the target language lexicon, semantics, and others.

Although Milambiling only interviewed her participants about the role of being a native or non-native speaker in effective L2 teaching, the study suggests that having L2 learning experiences contributes to how one anticipates students' difficulties and designs instructional techniques to meet students' needs. This also suggests that such experiences constitute a vital

asset that teacher preparation programs can build on. The literature on how this is or can be done is, however, scant.

Flowerdew (1998) provides insight into our understanding on how teacher preparation programs might accomplish this goal. He conducted a study in City University of Hong Kong. With increasing economical development, the need to train teachers who can assume responsibility for their own professional growth as well as the necessity to assume leadership roles in curriculum development and educational reform arise. In order to achieve these goals, Flowerdew explained that a reflective approach was adopted in the local teacher preparation program. Participants in the program and in the study were thus asked to choose an L2 that they would try to learn and reflect on the learning experiences while learning to become teachers. This was done during a course, Language Learning Experience.

Flowerdew found that having second language learning experiences shapes how one learns to become a teacher during a preparation program. The participants in the course, all preservice teachers, reported that that experience had an influence on how they learned to become teachers because it provided some insights into how they might teach their future language learners better. They experienced the difficulties involved in L2 learning and were able to perceive complex aspects of L2 learning and teaching.

Flowedew‘s study clearly showed how previous L2 learning experiences can have critical impact on preservice teachers’ perspectives. Nonetheless, the difference here is that the language learning experience of the participants in the study took place during the teacher preparation program. So the chance that it could have been shaped by theoretical/conceptual knowledge being acquired in the preparation program was very high.

Reeves (2009) reported similar findings, albeit from a different angle. This longitudinal study was focused on the linguistic knowledge for ESOL teaching of future ESOL teachers. The participants were two L1 English speaking ESOL teachers engaged in an ELL certification program at a state university in the United States. One was male and the other female. The researcher followed the participants throughout their teacher preparation program and particularly focused on their student teaching.

She found that spontaneous understanding of English was largely invisible to conscious inspection for pre-service teachers, native speakers of English. As a result, these teachers could not explain forms and rules accurately. This finding suggested these preservice teachers might assume that students might not need to struggle to learn the English language, thus oversimplifying L2 teaching. They failed to grasp the complexities involved in the whole process. Reeves emphasized:

> L1 English speaking ESOL teachers without second language learning experiences embody the linguistic hegemony of English because, as speakers of a dominant language, they do not need other languages to communicate. Speakers of non-dominant languages must, instead, learn English. L1 English speakers' L2 learning experiences may be one avenue for opening a window onto linguistic hierarchies that may otherwise be invisible to them (Reeves, 2009, p.113).

Also, Reeves found that the participants in her study rarely drew on their L2 experiences. One of the participants conjectured that this inability to draw on prior language learning experience might be related to the teaching style of his foreign language teacher or to

the fact that he might not have been motivated enough when he was learning Spanish. This suggested that the quality of L2 learning experiences also play a crucial role in how one might draw on these experiences.

Finally, Reeves (2009) found that the preservice teachers in her study employ a rule-of-thumb approach to grammar teaching. Such an approach, the author argued, represents a non-scientific view of language and language teaching because it presents how language is used in one context but not necessarily how language is used across situations. Furthermore, lack of L2 learning experiences makes it difficult to anticipate learners' difficulties and the understanding of L2 learning processes, which leads to instructional paralysis. She then concluded that teacher education programs need to take into account preservice teachers' backgrounds. "Teachers 'biographies, including their experiences as language learners, shape their knowledge base for teaching English to speakers of other languages (ESOL) (Reeves, 2009, p.109)". This author's work reinforced my interest in understanding how ESOL preservice teachers' prior experiences are used or addressed in ESOL teacher preparation programs.

Another advantage of having L2 learning experiences is related to cultural competence. Milambiling (1999) argued that when English non-native speaker ESOL teachers including both preservice and inservice ones and their students share the same cultural background, this often facilitates their knowledge of students because they have common elements of reference. This is especially true when considering the fact that language and culture are intricately linked (Hoff, 2009).

Rymes (2002) also found similar patterns with her participants. The purpose of her study was to discuss innovations in curricula and ESOL preservice teachers' beliefs and

pedagogical values which emerged and changed in learning contexts. This researcher used her university-based course to explore such innovations and changes in beliefs. Her ESOL preservice participants (both native English speakers and international non-native English Speakers) went through an experience that was unique in nature. The majority were required to visit a neighboring community composed of Mexican immigrants in order to teach adult learners.

In the initial stage, the participants felt like outsiders both linguistically and culturally (albeit this was not the case for non-native participants). The native English speakers did not know how to engage their students because nothing in their background prepared them for such daunting tasks. As a result, they were obliged to learn their students' culture and language to some extent. That experience allowed the native English-speaking preservice teachers to gain access to their students and to gain their perspectives before being able to teach them English. Most of the participants reported personal transformation and changing pedagogical values and argued that the experience gave them a more accurate picture as for how they might better teach their students in the future.

All these studies indicate that ESL preservice teachers' prior experiences and beliefs or background or biographies (as defined by Reeves, 2009) deserve further investigation because these can facilitate or hamper their learning during preparation program, especially in light of the increasing diversity in U.S. P-12 classrooms. Of interest to me in this study is not only L2 teaching and learning in general or preservice teachers' antecedents, but L2 reading and reading instruction in particular. I was interested in how ESOL preservice teachers' antecedents informed and shaped their instructional practices in general and their L2 reading instruction in particular. This additional focus of my study compelled me to review the

literature related to L2 reading instruction. Before this review, I explored the literature on how mainstream preservice teachers' beliefs influence their view of reading and subsequent reading instruction.

Reading Teachers' Beliefs and Background in Relation to Reading Instruction and Professional Development

Research on beliefs and background in relation to reading instruction of mainstream reading teachers (preservice and inservice alike) is substantial and has yielded diverse and sometimes conflicting evidence about how or whether these beliefs influenced educators 'reading instruction or their learning in teacher preparation programs. Some studies have investigated the ways in which reading teachers' beliefs and background shape how they view reading and reading instruction (Duffy & Atkinson, 2001; Gallant & Schwartz, 2010; Gupta, & Saravanan, 1995; Many, Howard, & Hoge, 1998; McKool & Gespass, 2009; Scharlach, 2008; Theriot & Tice, 2009). Other studies have investigated the impact of teacher education programs on beliefs and views that reading teachers hold (Duffy & Atkinson, 2001; Gerla, 1994; Gupta & Saravanan, 1995; Many, Howard, & Hoge, 2002; Shaw, Dvorak, & Bates, 2007). This body of research provides the backdrop for my own investigation into how ESOL preservice teachers' beliefs and experiences might be related to their work as reading instructors for English language learners. In the following sections, I first review the literature on how reading teachers' background and beliefs shape their instruction. Next, I examine the relationship between such beliefs and reading teachers' professional development experiences.

Impact of reading teachers' beliefs and background on their views of reading/instruction. In this section, I discussed research on teachers' beliefs about reading

and reading instruction and research on views of themselves as readers. Since teachers' beliefs usually involve epistemological issues, I start my discussion, focusing first on epistemology and how differing epistemological views related to varying reading theories and approaches to the teaching of reading. Next, I move to discussing teachers' beliefs about reading and reading instruction and teachers' personal views of themselves as readers. In the literature, reading teachers' beliefs and views of themselves as readers are not necessarily dichotomic in nature (McKool & Gespass, 2009); in fact, they sometimes overlap. I have dissociated them here for clarity purposes in order to ensure a better understanding of how these factors may shape teachers' approaches to reading.

Epistemology and reading. The necessity to investigate and to understand the epistemological views people hold in the field of education in general and in the field of reading in particular has become a growing issue in the literature (Cunningham & Fitzgerald, 1996; Hofer, 2000; Hofer & Pintrich, 1997). The necessity to understand people's epistemological views is due to the fact that these views are related to how people view knowledge, its source, and its development. According to Hofer and Pintrich (1997), epistemological beliefs are "individuals' beliefs about knowledge and the process of knowing" (p.117). These authors contend that these types of beliefs have four dimensions in general including certainty of knowledge, simplicity of knowledge, source of knowledge, and justification for knowledge. Because these elements may directly inform my own participants' views in relation to how they approach L2 reading instruction or their views of the importance of new knowledge as encountered in their teacher preparation as opposed to their experiential knowledge, I will summarize each dimension briefly.

Certainty of knowledge and simplicity of knowledge are about the nature of knowledge. Some people believe that knowledge is certain, fixed, and attainable. People holding such a belief about knowledge may not be open to new ideas or innovations. On the other hand, other people believe that knowledge is uncertain, unattainable, and relative. This group of people believes that knowledge depends on contexts and situations and this group tends to be open-minded.

Simplicity of knowledge follows the same pattern, albeit from a different angle. Some people believe that knowledge is simple, that is, knowledge is about the collection of facts and concepts that one needs to master. Yet, others believe that knowledge is deeper than that. For this latter group, knowledge is about interrelated facts, ideas, and concepts usually exhibiting a complex nature.

The remaining two dimensions are about the nature or process of knowing. The source of knowledge is about whether knowledge resides inside the knower or outside the individual or both. Some people believe that knowledge is outside the knower and comes from authority (e.g., teacher). Others believe knowledge is inside the knower. In this case, the knower does not necessarily need an outside authoritative source to get knowledge. There is a third group of people who believe that knowledge comes from the interaction or transaction between the knower and known.

The last dimension, justification for knowing, has to do with how one provides a basis for what one knows. This includes the use of evidence, of authority, and expertise. This has implications for how one evaluates, critiques, and defends (the use of) knowledge.

These four dimensions have important implications for individuals' growth and epistemological development in fields of knowledge. Originally, these dimensions were reported to cut across domains (Hofer & Pintrich, 1997). Hofer (2000), however, found that these four dimensions are not the same or do not have the same degree in specific domains. Her findings indicated,

> students saw knowledge in science as more certain and unchanging than in psychology; were more likely to regard personal knowledge and firsthand experience as a basis for justification of knowing in psychology than in science, viewed authority and expertise as the source of knowledge more in science than in psychology; and perceived that in science, more than in psychology, truth is attainable by experts. (p.394)

These findings indicated epistemological beliefs are domain-specific although the four dimensions mentioned above cut across domains. How one views knowledge, knowledge development, and knowledge justification in a specific domain is a function of their epistemological stance. In the field of reading, reading research, and reading instruction, contrasting views of reading may be related to differing underlying epistemological views.

Cunningham and Fitzgerald (1996) clearly pointed out the weight of epistemological beliefs in how people perceive reading processes, reading research, and reading instruction. In order to provide a better feel of the influence of epistemological beliefs on reading theories, reading research, and reading instructional practices, the two authors provided an analytical outlook of two predominant views of reading. These are Rumelhart's (1994) interactive view and Rosenblatt's (1994) transactional view of reading. A detailed examination of these two

views and the accompanying epistemological underpinnings helps to provide a backdrop for how I might need to consider both theoretical views and epistemological beliefs in my own study.

Rumelhart's (1994) interactive view of reading accepted dualism, that is, meaning lies between the reader and text because Rumelhart's epistemological stance is most aligned with the hypothetico-deductive/formalism and realism/essentialism. This epistemological lens views knowledge neither residing in the (knowing) subject nor in the (known) object but between the two. The interactive view also emphasizes the use of both senses and mind in reading. Sensory data or information (reference to realism) is at the heart of this view of reading. Input or information from print is crucial for meaning making. Knowledge is both discovered and created within this view. Senses discover sensory knowledge and the readers' mind discovers non-sensory knowledge. The two types of knowledge interact with one another to create knowledge through meaning making. Also, hypothetic-deductive/formalism and realism/essentialism dictates how Rumelhart views meaning in reading- it is real and true. The text stands for and contains meanings that are real and true. This reason justifies why Rumelhart believes reading knowledge needs to be tested through correspondence. The truth corresponds to the intended message of the author of the text or to the information in the text.

On the other hand, Rosenblatt's (1994) transactional view of reading rejects dualism and emphasizes monism because there is no reader without text and there is no text without reader. The reader conditions the text and is also conditioned by the text. One exists in relation to the other. This view is totally in harmony of the contextualism/structuralism. This epistemological view also emphasizes knowledge as coming from the reading process, a position espoused by Rosenblatt. The reader transacts with text and meaning or knowledge is

created as the transaction takes place. This is the reason why creation of knowledge is emphasized over its discovery within the transactional view of reading. Truth is relative within this view, indicating its closeness to the contextualism/structuralism. Reading knowledge is tested through coherence. As matter of fact, Cunningham and Fitzgerald (1996) suggested,

> When reading is from an aesthetic stance, the test of knowledge of evoked meaning considers the internal consistency among the symbols prompted by print and the reader's response to those symbols. When reading from more of an efferent stance, the test considers the coherence of evoked meaning with its logic and references and with the response of a knowledgeable public. (p.54)

The epistemological beliefs as discussed by these two authors in relation to the field of reading are crucial to deeper and better understanding of theories, research, and instruction. Applied to the field of reading (research), epistemological beliefs are about how people in the field view reading and its development and by extension reading research and instruction. This body of research on epistemological beliefs has important implications for my own research. Indeed, our knowledge of ESOL preservice teachers' epistemological beliefs influence their perception of reading, reading instruction, and their professional growth is scarcely discussed in the literature. My study will look at the kinds of epistemological beliefs ESOL preservice teachers hold and how such beliefs shape their outlook and development in teacher preparation programs. In the following section, I will discuss research on teachers' beliefs about reading and reading instruction and their actual practices.

Research on teachers' beliefs about reading and reading instruction. Many researchers have investigated the epistemological views of reading teachers and how such views influence their actual instructional practices (Duffy & Atkinson, 2001; Gallant & Schwartz, 2010; Gupta & Saravanan, 1995; Many, Howard, & Hoge, 2002; Theriot & Tice, 2009). Reading teachers were found to have misconceptions and misunderstandings about the reading process and reading instruction and how such misunderstandings affect their instructional practices (Duffy & Atkinson, 2001; Gallant & Schwartz, 2010; Gupta & Saravanan, 1995). They were also found to adopt instructional practices in harmony with their epistemological beliefs and to experience tensions and conflicts in terms of how to implement their beliefs in classroom settings (Many et al., 2002; Theriot & Tice, 2009).

I focused on a few studies (Gupta & Saravanan; Many et al.; Scharlach, 2008) to explore these issues evoked above more deeply. I chose these studies because of their relevancy to my study. Although these studies did not investigate ESOL preservice teachers, they all focused on preservice teachers' epistemological beliefs, influences, and uses in teacher education programs, especially in practicum settings. Understanding mainstream reading teachers' epistemological beliefs and their potential influences informed the design of my study and helped me to focus the study.

Gupta and Saravanan investigated how old beliefs may impede student teacher learning of reading instruction. The participants were ninety-six (96) preservice teachers. The data were collected using ongoing questionnaires, a reading assignment, and concept maps. Gupta and Saravanan found that preservice teachers held beliefs about reading instruction that were tracked back to their own schooldays. The beliefs these candidates held about reading instruction were those favoring traditional reading instruction. For these preservice teachers,

reading comprehension development occurred when students read aloud/silently, discussed what they had read, and were tested. Instruction about skills and strategies was totally absent.

A significant finding in this study was that the beliefs that the preservice teachers held about reading instruction were resistant to change. Researchers posited this resistance was evident for a couple of reasons. First, the preservice teachers enjoyed the traditional reading instruction because it had worked for them as students. They did not find any problems with it and they accepted it uncritically. They did not envision the possibility that their own students might be different from them and could have differing needs. Secondly, the innovations in terms of strategies and skills to which the preservice teachers were exposed in their teacher preparation programs were unfamiliar to them. The candidates did not experience those strategies themselves and they did not judge that it was necessary to incorporate such strategies in their repertoire as far as reading instruction was concerned. Their own repertoire of strategies was limited and inarticulate. Their knowledge of the field of reading instruction was also fragmented. Interestingly, while these preservice teachers' views toward reading comprehension remained very traditional, the candidates' beliefs as related to vocabulary instruction changed dramatically. This dramatic change was due to the fact that they found gaps in the vocabulary instruction they were exposed to during their own schooldays.

In summary, Gupta and Saravanan's (1995) study showed that preservice teachers' epistemological beliefs prior to entering teacher education programs shaped their learning process in such programs, especially in terms of practices. It also showed the necessity for teacher educators to evaluate and understand the beliefs about reading instruction that teacher candidates bring to teacher education programs in order to help them examine critically such beliefs. Potentially, such critical examination would lead to the pre-service teachers' growth as

effective professionals in the field. Similar conclusions were reached by Many, Howard, and Hoge (2002).

Many et al. investigated how literacy preservice teachers' epistemological beliefs were related to their reactions to teacher education coursework and to their in field-based experiences. The participants were nineteen (19) preservice teachers enrolled in a literacy methods block. The courses focused on how to teach reading and language arts in grades 4 through 8. The participants spent six and ½ intensive weeks in coursework and 3 ½ weeks in field experiences.

Data were collected using interviews, surveys, observations, and participants' works in the methods courses and in the field. They also had a group debriefing session with the researchers. Results from the analysis of the data indicated that some participants held dualistic perspectives. Concurrent with this epistemological lens was an exogenic or interactive view of reading. Preservice teachers holding this view saw knowledge as external to the knower. They believed the teacher was the transmitter of knowledge and skills and the learners were passive receivers. Another lens used by some preservice teachers demonstrated a contextualized view of learning. From this perspective, preservice teachers indicated that the learner constructs knowledge and the role of the teacher is to facilitate the student' knowledge construction. Participants with a constructive epistemology learned better from the course and field experiences. They knew how "reading and writing instruction should be organized in school … They learned from their reading and from their writing of authentic pieces". (p. 308)

In terms of a possible match between beliefs and practices, some participants in Many et al's study held predominantly consistent epistemological stance throughout data collection.

That is, their beliefs matched their practices. Others held conflicting epistemological stances evidenced in their comments and their observations in field works. This latter group experienced tensions in terms of beliefs implementation in practicum settings.

These findings indicated that preservice teachers' epistemological beliefs influenced how they learned to become teachers in the area of reading instruction and what they might want to implement as instructional practices in their future classrooms. The instructional tensions, decisions, and judgments made were mediated by their epistemological beliefs or perspectives. Subsequent instructional practices derived from such decisions and judgments. Because of the influences of preservice teachers' epistemological beliefs on their learning and growth in teacher education programs, the researchers recommended that teacher educators need to understand the kinds of epistemological beliefs their teacher candidates hold. This understanding could help teacher educators in providing an appropriate scaffold to teacher candidates who can then reach a greater understanding of their profession.

The importance of examining and understanding preservice teachers' (epistemological) beliefs was also shown in Scharlach (2008)'s study. Scharlach was interested in preservice teachers' beliefs about teaching struggling readers. In substance, the following research questions guided her study: (a) What are the preservice teachers' beliefs about teaching reading in general and to struggling readers in particular?, (b) How do such beliefs influence their expectations for struggling readers?, (c) How do such beliefs influence their instruction for struggling readers?, and (d) How do such beliefs influence their evaluation of struggling readers?

The participants were six (6) preservice teachers who tutored struggling readers. Data sources included participants' background information sheet, their autobiographies, interviews with them, their observation while tutoring, and their written evaluations of struggling readers.

The analysis of the data revealed that four of the six participants did not believe that they could be able to teach all their students to read, especially those with a reading disability. They believed that struggling readers' learning to read was not their sole responsibility. These beliefs significantly influenced the preservice teachers' expectations for their students, their instructional practices, and their evaluations of students. For example, the four participants held low expectations for their students because they did not believe that their students would ever read at or above grade level. As a result, their instructional practices reflected those of suppliers in the classroom. In fact, during the tutoring sessions, they supplied all the answers for their students and did not allow space for application and practice. Their students were passive. In terms of evaluation of learners, they found that students had behavioral problems and motivational issues interfering with their ability to learn to read. As a result, post-evaluations instruction would not have any significant effect on the students' learning to read.

On the other hand, the two participants who believed that they could teach all their students held high expectations for their students. These participants believed that all their students could learn to read. As a result, their instructional practices reflected those of coaches although only one of them is full-time coach. They provided instruction that allow student application and challenged students to apply new strategies and skills at higher levels. Their students were active and engaged. Although they evaluated that their students had behavioral problems and motivational issues, they indicated that post-evaluations instruction could still benefit the students.

In addition to studies investigating reading teachers' epistemological beliefs, other studies were clearly interested in their theoretical orientation and corresponding instructional practices (Deford, 1985; Many, Howard, & Hoge, 2002; Shaw, Dvorak, & Bates, 2007). While epistemological beliefs and theoretical orientation certainly overlap, the former is generally broader and more abstract in nature (Cunningham & Fitzgerald, 1996) and the latter is more concrete (Deford). Specifically, theoretical orientation as discussed in this research is about the set of beliefs or approach that reading teachers hold about reading and that dictate their reading instruction.

Deford was concerned about the best way to assess the relationship between reading teachers' beliefs and their instructional practices. She contended that the best way to achieve this purpose was to develop a measurement instrument. This contention led her to develop and validate the Theoretical Orientation of Reading Profile (TORP).

The TORP consists of a set 26 statements that discriminate the three main theoretical orientations people in the field of reading and reading instruction hold. These include phonics, skills, and whole language approaches. Phonics specifically focuses on word decoding, letter-sound correspondence, phonemic awareness, and word identification/recognition to a lesser degree, etc. The skills approach focuses on word recognition, building up enough sight vocabulary, stresses less phonemic awareness and use of story. Whole language approach focuses more on meaning, the use of authentic literature and stories as a means of developing reading, downplays the role of building up sight vocabulary, and rarely emphasizes letter-sound correspondence.

Deford (1985) contended that if researchers and teacher educators succeed in identifying the kind of theoretical orientation that reading teachers hold, they could be able to predict their instructional practices and the effectiveness of teacher preparation programs. In this regard, Many, Howard, and Hoge (2002) used TORP "to flesh out [the] general perceptions toward literacy instruction" (p.306) of the preservice teacher participants in their study. While these researchers found that some of the participants in their study held consistent theoretical orientation from coursework to field work, they also found that the theoretical orientation of other participants was inconsistent. This finding alerted the researchers to the tensions some pre-service teachers might go through as they try to implement their theoretical orientation and the necessity on the part of teacher educators to address such tensions. The detection of these tensions was made possible through the use of TORP.

Shaw, Dvorak, and Bates (2007) used the TORP in their study, too. The use of the TORP allowed them to track changes in theoretical orientation of participants in their study at the beginning of, and during, the coursework, and in the field work. This track of changes and subsequent attempts to understand such changes revealed that preservice teachers theoretically changed because of how coursework is designed and especially due to of field experiences.

The last three studies discussed showed how it is important to investigate and know preservice teachers' theoretical orientations. At least, such investigation and knowledge allowed understanding the tensions and potential factors that might lead to changes in preservice teachers' conceptual knowledge. While these findings directly affect mainstream literacy teachers, they also open the windows to understanding potential influences of theoretical orientation in ESOL teacher preparation, particularly in the area of reading instruction. We do not know whether ESOL preservice teachers go through the same processes

as mainstream teachers do or if their experiences in teacher preparation are unique. Lack of such knowledge justifies the focus of my study. In the following section, I turned to research on views of self as readers. Like the research on teachers' beliefs toward reading instruction, understanding the literature on how teachers view themselves as readers and how these views may impact their approaches to reading may offer important guidance in the design of my inquiry.

Research on views of self as readers. Many studies have focused on reading teachers' views of themselves as readers and how such views influence their instructional practices (Gerla, 1994; Gupta & Saravanan, 1995; Many, Howard, & Hoge, 1998; McKool & Gespass, 2009). When reading teachers view themselves as readers and examine their views, they are likely to gain insights into the reading process and may be able to anticipate their students' reading experiences and struggles. In her study about preservice teachers' perceptions of themselves as readers and writers, Gerla (1994) found that the participants "believe they know how their students are feeling when they are asked to read or write because they went through the process themselves" (p.190). Having a sense that they understand their students might increase their self-efficacy and lead to subsequent improvement or effectiveness of instructional practices (Scharlach, 2008). Boost of self-efficacy and subsequent effectiveness of instructional practices might be the fruit of reflections on past experiences as readers (Daisey, 2009). Daisey stresses,

> Preservice teachers could gain insights about beliefs and teaching intentions by reflecting upon their past reading experiences by comparing the positive and negative aspects. Preservice teachers need to realize that

> they often cite high school teachers, the position they are preparing to fill, as a negative influence on them as readers. (p.172)

Having positive reading experiences, however, does not necessarily imply that one can implement effective reading instruction. For example, Many et al. (1998) unexpectedly found that preservice reading teachers who were avid readers did not necessarily bring this capital to their teaching. On the other hand, some preservice teachers who had a poor background as readers implemented instructional practices that could take their students to higher and better levels than in their own cases when they were students. In addition, some preservice teachers who enjoyed their reading experiences as students held on to some beliefs that have been deemed less relevant in today's classroom (Gupta & Saravanan, 1995).

One recent study by McKool and Gespass (2009) in this area which did not involve preservice teachers has, nevertheless, retained my attention and helped shape my understanding of the importance of understanding teachers' backgrounds as readers. The findings of this study might offer some deeper insights into our understanding of why preservice teachers might hold some beliefs about reading and reading instruction.

McKool and Gespass were interested in the relationship between teachers' personal reading habits and their instructional practices. Four research questions guided the study: (a) Do reading teachers engage in reading as a leisure time activity?, (b) Do teachers who read for pleasure use more instructional strategies associated with best practices?, (c) Is there a difference between teachers who value reading and those who do not?, (d) Is there a difference between teachers who read for pleasure and those who do not in terms of how they motivate students to read?

The participants were sixty-five (65) inservice teachers selected in three states including New Jersey, Florida, and Texas. Twenty-three (23) participants taught at the fourth grade level, twenty-six (26) at the fifth grade level, and sixteen (16) at the sixth-grade level. Their average teaching experience was ten (10) years.

The results indicated that the majority of teachers valued reading as a leisure time activity but only about half of them read for a pleasure on a daily basis for at least ten (10) minutes. Although this might be surprising, the results also indicated that the participants' reading daily frequency was constrained by their professional responsibilities and requirements (i.e. grading, planning lessons, other schoolwork, etc) and by their family lives. Teachers who read more than 30 minutes per day use a greater number of best practices strategies. Teachers who valued reading the most tended to share insights from their own personal reading. Teachers who read for pleasure for more than 45 minutes per day used intrinsic types of motivation.

These findings implicitly indicated that the teachers' personal backgrounds as readers themselves shaped their beliefs. Indeed, what one does and practices is often influenced by one's beliefs (Brathwaite, 1999). This study also particularly pointed to the influence of the epistemological beliefs, indirectly, in one's reading instructional practices. That the participants who read more than 45 minutes per day used intrinsic types of motivation showed that they believed that reading knowledge and development were linked to intrinsic factors.

In general, reading teachers' personal background as readers has several implications. These implications concern their views of reading, reading instruction, reading development, self-efficacy, reflection on self as readers, and quality of instruction. The necessity to

investigate reading teachers' personal background as readers is empirically addressed in the studies above. Such knowledge, however, is very limited in the field of ESOL teacher preparation. One interesting question might be to know whether/how ESOL preservice teachers draw on their background as L1 readers or as L2 readers or both and the difference these different backgrounds make in their attempts to learn to provide reading instruction. Below attempting to answer this question, I focused of teacher preparation programs on teachers' views and beliefs.

Impact of teacher preparation programs on reading teachers' views and beliefs. One recurrent question that comes up in the research community is whether teacher preparation programs can influence and/or alter preservice teachers' beliefs and prior knowledge (usually resulting from views on self as readers). Some research reports (i.e., Peacock, 2001; U.S. Department of Education, 2002) indicate that teacher preparation programs hardly have any impact on preservice teachers' beliefs and learning to teach effectively. Other studies, however, have found teacher education programs matter in that they can alter or, at least, influence teacher candidates' beliefs and how they learn to teach (Duffy & Atkinson, 2001; Gupta & Saravanan, 1995; Many et al. 2002; Shaw, Dvorak et al., 2007). For instance, Duffy and Atkinson (2001) found that preservice teachers improved in their abilities to integrate personal, practical, and professional knowledge to inform their actual or intended reading instruction and that they decreased in their misunderstandings surrounding reading instruction principles, practices, and terminology. In the same vein, Gupta and Saravanan found that the preservice teachers in their study changed their views and beliefs about vocabulary instruction as a result of their preparation in teacher education programs. Shaw et. al offer a deeper insight into how teacher education programs might influence preservice teachers' beliefs.

Shaw, Dvorak, and Bates (2007) were interested in the identification of literacy knowledge, beliefs, and self-efficacy of elementary preservice teachers before and after a reading method course. The following research questions guided their study: (a) What beliefs do the participants have in the beginning of the semester?, (b) Do these beliefs change over the course of a semester?, (c) To what degree does their self-efficacy change over the course of a semester?, (d) What knowledge do they possess about reading development and instructional strategies and skills before and after a method course?, and (e) Do they utilize the same instructional practices as reflected in their beliefs of how reading should be taught?

The participants were fifty (52) preservice teachers who were majoring in elementary education. Data collection sources included three assessment instruments and participants' observation. Two of these instruments were previously validated and one was a questionnaire designed by the researchers themselves.

The analysis of the data revealed that teacher education programs can influence their teacher candidates' beliefs. For example, almost half of the participants changed their beliefs in phonics instruction and adopted skill-oriented instruction and vice versa in order to better meet their students' needs.

Shaw et al. (2007) were particularly interested in what program features led to changes in beliefs. They found that field-experiences played a crucial role. In fact, when the preservice teachers were engaged in teaching events, the necessity to meet their students' needs led them to adopt more responsive instruction in light of their coursework in teacher preparation programs, thus altering their beliefs. This also led to a mismatch between beliefs and instructional practices. For example, in theory, the majority of the participants believed in

word-sounding strategies to help students with unknown words. In practice, however, only two of them used such strategies. The rest of them used contextual cues.

This finding about the impact of field experiences on teacher candidates' beliefs during teacher preparation programs confirmed previous research (Many et al., 2002). Teacher educators thus need to design carefully-guided field experiences to help teacher candidates consider critically their beliefs and grow as professionals. Field experiences, however, were not the single factor. The quality of the methods course also played a major role, as alluded to above. After their method course, the participants' self-efficacy increased. Also, the participants increased in knowledge recording how they would teach children to read or to learn unknown words and exhibited a larger variety of specific strategies to help their students.

In general, the studies mentioned above illustrate how mainstream preservice teachers' beliefs about literacy in general and reading in particular shape how these teachers learn in teacher preparation programs. They also demonstrated the impact of personal background on instructional practices. Furthermore, the studies found that teacher education programs can alter preservice teachers' beliefs.

For teacher education programs to influence preservice teachers' beliefs/views, field experiences should be carefully designed and guided. In addition, if methods courses are well-designed and well-taught, they can impact teacher candidates' beliefs. This is what we know about mainstream preservice teachers' beliefs in relation to literacy or reading instruction.

Nonetheless, we do not know whether ESOL preservice teachers exhibit the same or similar patterns. Our uncertainty is justified by the fact that ESOL preservice teachers have to deal even more with language and sociocultural issues. We do not know what kinds of beliefs,

theoretical orientations, and views of self as readers they hold about reading and reading instruction in light of these linguistic and sociocultural issues. This is the reason why my study was designed to look at ESOL preservice teachers' theoretical or epistemological beliefs in relation to their reading instruction. The need for my study was also justified by methodological considerations. Many of the studies above focused on elementary preservice teachers and inservice teachers, and some used only a survey instrument. My study was focused on middle school and secondary preservice teachers. Also, my data sources included not only surveys but also interviews, document analysis, observations, videorecording, individual reflections, and a focus group discussion. In the following section, I will explore the literature dealing with ESOL teacher preparation in general and ESOL preservice teachers' beliefs and personal background in particular in relation to L2 reading instruction.

ESOL/L2 teacher education and l2 reading instruction. Research on ESOL teachers in relation to L2 reading instruction has been conducted; however, the number of these studies focusing on preservice education is limited (Grabe, 1991; Graden, 1996; Janzen, 2007; Johnson 1992; Knudson, 1998; Tercanlioglu, 2001). I am obliged to include data on inservice teachers to inform our knowledge of L2 reading instruction within ESOL teacher preparation programs. Prior to discussing specific research, I began with attention to Grabe's work (1991) which provides an overview of the field until the beginning of the 1990s.

Grabe (1991) did not specifically investigate ESOL preservice teachers and how they are prepared to implement L2 reading instruction. Rather, he provided an overview of the findings of L2 reading research and offered insights into future developments in the field. He found that there are differences in L1 and L2 reading. Vocabulary knowledge, grammar knowledge, discourse knowledge, and sociocultural knowledge contributed to the differences

between L1and L2 reading. These differences need to be taken into account when delivering L2 reading instruction. For L2 reading instruction to be effective, Grabe (1991) argued that the stress is now being put on bottom-up processes with the understanding that reading should also be understood as a language process. It is found, however, that it is better to adopt an interactive approach in L2 reading instruction.

As far as future perspectives are concerned, Grabe (1991) identified the following promising areas for L2 reading research: schema theory, vocabulary and syntactic knowledge, bottom-up processing and automaticity, L2 reading and vocabulary acquisition, comprehensive strategic instruction, and reading/writing connections. In terms of curricular and instructional practices, the following are recommended: content-centered reading instruction, integrated skills instruction, reading lab to provide instruction on skills and strategies. According to Grabe's review, sustained silent reading needs to be encouraged and reading instruction should be designed to activate background knowledge. Finally, depending on the sociocultural and instructional contexts, some specific skills and strategies needs to be taught and cooperative learning need to be encouraged.

While this overview of the field offers useful insights into our knowledge of L2 reading research and what L2 researchers might need to investigate in the future, Grabe (1991) did not tell us how L2 teachers learn or how L2 teacher preparation/development programs can promote content-centered reading instruction, integrated skills instructions, especially how L2 (reading) teachers should be prepared. A few empirical studies contribute to such an understanding.

Johnson (1992) examined the relationship between ESL teachers' theoretical beliefs about L2 learning and teaching and their instructional practice during literacy instruction to non-native speakers of English. The participants were 30 ESL inservice teachers from both urban and suburban areas of upstate New York. They were contacted through school districts, continuing and higher education programs, and social service organizations. The study was conducted in two phases.

In Phase I, a multidimensional TESL Theoretical Orientation Profile was designed to gather information about all the participants' theoretical beliefs across three separate measures. These included a descriptive account of what each participant believed to constitute an ideal ESL instructional environment, the selection of what each teacher believes to be an appropriate instructional lesson plan, and an inventory of theoretical and pedagogical statements which reflect each participant' theoretical beliefs.

The results of Phase I indicated that 60% of the participants clearly defined theoretical beliefs which consistently reflected one particular methodological approach toward L2 teaching. Function-based approach (emphasizing the functions of English language) was the most chosen, probably because of its popularity in ESL teachers at the time of the study. These results also indicated participants' theoretical beliefs reflected the instructional approach in place when they started teaching.

Phase II was designed to specifically investigate the relationship between the participants' beliefs and their actual practices. Three participants were chosen here, based on having differing clearly dominant theoretical orientations and the fact that they were currently

teaching at secondary level. These participants were then observed on eight different occasions.

The results of Phase II indicated that ESL teachers have theoretical orientations that reflect the methodological approaches they use in classrooms. In other words, their beliefs are consistent with their instructional practices. The study clearly demonstrated theoretical beliefs or prior knowledge have an influence on teacher knowledge development; however, we are not sure of the extent to which this might be true of preservice ESOL teachers. The participants in this study were inservice teachers.

Graden's investigation (1996) also examined the inservice teachers' espoused beliefs about effective L2 reading instruction and how these beliefs are consistent with their classroom instructional practices. The participants were six (6) foreign language teachers teaching either Spanish or French. They were inservice teachers with extensive teaching experiences at secondary level. They were selected from urban, suburban, and rural schools. Two questions were examined in the study: (a) what contextual factors mediate teachers' beliefs about reading and instructional decisions? and (b) Are there inconsistencies between teachers' espoused beliefs and classroom practices?

Graden found that teachers' beliefs about reading and reading instruction matched. But when compared with observational data, inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and classroom instructional practices were identified in three key areas: (a) teachers actually believed that providing students with frequent reading opportunities would help them, (b) they also believed that the use of the target language is beneficial, and finally (c) they believed that oral reading interfered with the reading comprehension.

The major reason for not holding to beliefs, Graden (1996) explained, was due to students' considerations (i.e., unpreparedness and low proficiency) and contextual factors (i.e., time constraint and quality of materials). The students lacked motivation and the teachers were frustrated. Teachers contended that students came to class unprepared and their proficiency was too low to implement challenging instructional practices. Other reasons were time constraints and materials. The teachers lacked enough time to implement what they believe to be effective instruction and instructional materials were also irrelevant for students. As a result, they resorted to practices that were less beneficial and less effective.

Graden argued that while the teachers tried to use encouragement to keep students learning, there was a problem in how the teachers were prepared to meet the demands of such unexpected classroom problems. The analysis of her interviews and observational data led her to conclude that FL preservice teachers received little preparation in how to deliver L2 reading instruction. She then argued that teacher education programs should provide more theoretical grounding and effective models in L2 reading processes and development. Finally, she argued that teacher education programs should take into account the necessity to acknowledge the presence of a multitude of competing and conflicting beliefs in teachers' repertoire. Because of this, consciousness-raising strategies should be implemented in preparation programs in order to design and implement effective L2 reading education.

Although Graden (1996) investigated teachers' beliefs and reading instruction and provided us with significant insights into why there might be mismatches between these beliefs and practices, the study still left us with the question of how preservice ESOL teachers are prepared to deliver L2 reading instruction. The nature of the participants (all inservice teachers) and the nature of subject (Spanish/French as foreign language) did not provide us

with how ESOL preservice teachers learn to become L2 (reading) teachers. The studies investigated so far used inservice participants. However, the next one investigated preservice teachers.

Knudson (1998) used almost the same research procedures as Johnson (1992) to investigate the relationship between preservice teachers' beliefs and practices during literacy instruction for non-native speakers of English. The difference was that in addition to L2 preservice teachers, she also included mainstream and special education teachers. She used a Beliefs Inventory, a Lesson Plan Analysis Task, and an Instructional Protocol to achieve her research objectives. The participants were 106 preservice teachers from different programs within one university. Forty-six (46) participants who taught multiple subjects were included.

As in Johnson's investigation, two phases were featured in Knudson's study. Knudson found that participants with strong theoretical orientation implemented instructional approaches consistent with their theoretical orientations. She also found that participants who implemented instructional practices consistent with their theoretical orientation for non-native English speakers were predominantly L2 preservice teachers. Most of these teachers preferred function-based approaches to literacy instructions. She also found that participants with consistent theoretical orientation did not change, at least during the investigation.

While Knudson (1998) shed light on L2 preservice teachers' beliefs and their literacy instruction, she did not inform us as for how those beliefs were related to their prior experiences or knowledge before entering teacher preparation programs, particularly as L2 learners. Indeed, the beliefs her L2 preservice teachers expressed appeared to be more in line with their theoretical or conceptual knowledge, that is, what they learned in their preparation

program. She found that the bilingual and ESL teacher education programs had some significant effects on the L2 preservice teachers' beliefs; but the whole area of these preservice teachers' prior experiences and knowledge prior to entering these programs was still left unexplored or partly so.

Tercanlioglu (2001) also used L2 preservice teachers but in relation to foreign language reading instruction, a counterpart of ES(O)L reading instruction. The study investigated Turkish English preservice EFL teachers' perceptions as Turkish or English readers and their perceptions as future EFL reading instructors. The participants in the study were preservice teachers who wish to teach English in secondary schools. They were full-time undergraduate students in a 4-full years TEFL program at a Turkish University.

The study found that the participants were not very confident in terms of their capabilities as effective readers. They suggested that future EFL reading instructors should, first, be good readers. The participants who viewed themselves as good readers were the ones who wanted to become future EFL reading instructors. While these findings are very interesting, the study did not clearly investigate prior L2 reading experiences or beliefs; rather, it investigated preservice teachers' self-efficacy. We might conjecture that teachers' self-efficacy as investigated here might be related to their prior experiences or beliefs as L2 readers. But the study did not make this clear. Also, we do not know whether those with reported high self efficacy were so in Turkish or English. This question warrants further explanation.

The last couple of studies discussed above (Knudson, 1998; Tercanlioglu, 2001) showed how L2 teachers were being educated in teacher preparation programs in relation to L2 reading instruction. We know, however, little about the concrete content of how L2 reading

teachers are being prepared, that is, the curriculum that informs L2 reading instruction. Janzen (2007) looked at this area of the field.

Janzen (2007) was specifically interested in the preparation of L2 reading teachers. Her longitudinal study was conducted in a small school district in the Midwest of the US. The community served by the district was experiencing a demographic shift with increasing numbers of ELL students. The participants in the study were six of the seven inservice ESOL teachers who solely worked with the ELL students. They were interviewed and observed in their classrooms.

The following issues, with implications for L2 reading teacher education, are considered. These practicing L2 reading teachers identified the following issues as those which should be addressed in L2 reading teacher education programs: (a) work with a range of learner proficiencies; (b) the use of materials, instructional practices in the area of decoding skills, vocabulary, writing and thematic teaching; (c) develop students' love of reading; (d) coping with mainstream teachers and school demands; and (e) working with students with limited proficiency or schooling in L1. This study shed light on what the participants considered as important in L2 reading teacher education in terms of curriculum or curricular decisions.

All the studies cited in this section have addressed L2 teacher preparation to varying degree. They addressed ES(O)L prior knowledge to some extent and the issue of L2 literacy or reading instruction as well. However, they do not specifically inform us recording the conditions under which preservice teachers’ prior experiences and beliefs can facilitate or hamper their learning, especially in regard to L2 reading instruction. Equally important is the fact that we do not know how L2 teacher education programs make productive use of their

teacher candidates' biographies or prior knowledge and whether/how the instructional strategies employed by these programs are effective and the conditions under which they are effective. My study was designed to explore these questions and to contribute to our understanding of how ESOL preservice teachers' prior experiences shape their learning and of how these experiences may be drawn on in teacher preparation programs, particularly in the area of L2 reading.

In the next chapter, I will discuss the methodological strategies I used to explore and to answer my research questions. I will also discuss the context of the study, the participants, my role as researcher, the research design, the data collection techniques, data analysis, data management, and the timeline for the study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of my study was to examine how ESOL preservice teachers' prior experiences and beliefs shape their learning process in teacher education programs, particularly in the area of L2 reading instruction. My research questions were:

1- How can the prior experiences and knowledge of the ESOL preservice teachers in this program be described and how does the teacher preparation program address such antecedents?

2- How do ESOL preservice teachers' prior experiences and beliefs inform and shape their process of becoming teachers in teacher preparation programs, particularly in the area of L2 reading instruction?

Context of the study. The context of the study focused on ESOL preservice teachers in a graduate level initial preparation program for teachers of English speakers of other languages. Offered by a large urban research university in the southeast of the United States, this ESOL teacher preparation program is a nontraditional 4-semester program that prepares P-12 ESOL teachers for teaching primarily in urban and suburban high-need schools. These schools are situated in one of the highly diverse cities of the United States and its metropolitan area. The four-semester preparation is not at the undergraduate level but at the graduate level where the preservice teachers have already obtained a content area degree or an academic preparation at the undergraduate level and are seeking a Masters of Arts in Teaching.

Generally, many of these teacher candidates are mid-career professionals, that is, people who have already had some other career but desire to enter the teaching profession.

The program admits prospective teachers in cohorts and offers a Masters' degree leading to initial teacher certification in ESOL and a reading endorsement. The cohort takes a sequence of blocked education courses in the major (i.e., reading, ESOL) beginning in a summer term; however, prospective teachers can be admitted into the program any semester and enroll in courses in social foundations, educational psychology, research, or applied linguistics.

The program is delivered in collaboration with faculty from the P-12 schools in the urban or suburban surroundings of the university. Most of these schools serve as sites for field experiences or are formal professional development schools and often recruit most of the teacher candidates who complete the program successfully. In addition, the program is committed to placing interns in high-need schools with diverse populations of students.

Participants. The study focused on two types of participants. These include preservice teacher participants and faculty participants. Below, I describe the participants and the role each type of participants played. I also give a brief description of some of the courses taken during the Phase I of this study. I describe those courses because they served as observation sites or settings.

Preservice teacher participants. In order to choose the participants, I identified a course where most of the cohort members (ESOL preservice teachers) were enrolled. I emailed course instructors about my research and one of them allowed me to come and talk to the potential participants. After describing my research project, eleven (11) preservice teachers of

the program agreed to participate in the study and signed the consent form. About two weeks into the study, two participants withdrew from the study, one for health reasons and the other for personal reasons. The nine (9) remaining participants continued in the study until the choice of key informants for the second phase.

The nine (9) participants were all females including eight (8) Caucasians and one (1) African-American. The average age of the participants was about 30 with the oldest being 51 and the youngest being 22 at the beginning of the study.

All of the participants were college-educated people with a degree in ESOL-related fields (i.e., applied linguistics, linguistics, teaching English as a second language) or other fields (i.e., business). Except the 22-year-old participant, they were all mid-career professionals who were seeking initial teacher certification in ESOL. All of them had developed some expertise in their former professions or jobs and some had achieved leadership roles in such positions. Greater details are provided in subsequent sections.

All of the participants but two included members of the cohort that started in summer 2010. The other two participants had started in spring 2010. At the beginning of the study in summer 2010, the program offered two courses on campus, one in cultural understandings for the bilingual/ESOL teacher and the other in theory and pedagogy of reading. All the participants, except one, were enrolled in both of these two courses. One participant was enrolled in the cultural course and in an online course focused on special education but was not enrolled in the reading course. In addition to the two education sequence courses (culture and reading methods), most of the participants were enrolled in general linguistics, a course offered

by the Department Of Applied Linguistics in the College of Arts and Sciences at this university.

Faculty participants. To recruit faculty participants**,** I emailed language and literacy education faculty who were directly involved in working with the ESOL teacher preparation program. Most of them invited me to their office to talk about my research project. I met one of them in a coffee shop on campus. Four faculty members agreed to participate in the study. They were all female and had an earned doctorate. Of these four (4) participants, one was a tenured associate professor. Primarily involved in ESOL teacher education, this faculty participant had been teaching in the program for seven (7) years. There was also another tenure-track faculty member who was primarily involved in ESOL teacher education who was appointed two years ago. She was an assistant professor at the time of this study. At the beginning of the study in summer, neither of these full-time ESOL faculty participants taught the courses in which the pre-service teachers were enrolled.

The two remaining faculty participants were part-time instructors. One was a part-time assistant professor. Previously, she had been teaching in the program as a clinical assistant professor for seven (7) years and was a literacy teacher educator. At the beginning of the data collection for this study, she taught the cultural understanding course for this cohort. The other part-time faculty member was a literacy teacher educator, too. She was also an assistant principal in an elementary school. At the time of the study, she taught the reading course.

Brief description of courses observed. The idea of observing some courses stemmed from the fact that I needed to observe the preservice participants in order to understand the ways in which they made sense of coursework using personal background knowledge. I also

needed to understand how faculty drew on preservice teachers' personal background and prior knowledge. In summer 2010, I observed two courses including "Theory and Pedagogy in the Study of Reading" and "Cultural Issues for Bilingual/ESL Teachers". In fall 2010, I extended my course observation, observing a course entitled, Methods and Materials for the Bilingual/English as a Second Language Teacher. These courses are outlined below.

Theory and pedagogy in the study of reading. This literacy methods course was taught by the part-time faculty who was also an assistant principal. The course description reads as follows:

> Theory and Pedagogy in the Study of Reading. This course addresses methodologies and materials used in developmental reading programs. Students analyze strategies, materials, and organizational designs for teaching reading to all students including those representing diverse cultural and linguistic communities. (Theory and Pedagogy, Course syllabus, summer 2010)

In the course, preservice teachers were exposed to a large repertoire of theories of reading. They also learned instructional practices associated with these reading theories. Major class activities, tasks, and assignments included classroom discussions, reflective journals, teaching videorecording analysis, presentations, and personal reading histories.

Cultural issues for bilingual/ESL teachers. This course was taught by the other part-time faculty who agreed to participate in this study. The course description reads as follows:

> The purpose of this course is to equip teachers with the knowledge and skills they need to provide an effective learning environment for culturally

> diverse students who are learning English as an additional language. Course participants will explore issues related to the intercultural communication process. We will consider the important role of context (social, cultural, and historical) in intercultural interactions and examine the complex relationship between culture and communication. (Cultural Issues for Bilingual/ESL Teacher, Course syllabus, summer 2010)

Major activities, tasks, and assignments were course readings, class discussions, presentations, reflective journals, and literacy instruction to small groups of L2 learners. Also, the need to elaborate on the literacy instruction to small groups of L2 learners was stressed.

The course instructor taught the course in a high-school that offers literacy support to L2 learners during the school break in summer. The course was thus school-based. The first part of the class time in the course was usually dedicated to course readings, lectures, class discussions, and presentations. The second half was then used to teach small groups of L2 learners. Each preservice teacher had the opportunity to teach a small of group of at least four (4) L2 learners. This strategy of integrating coursework with practice or direct experience made it possible for the participants in the course to explore and apply concepts learned in the course.

Methods and Materials for the Bilingual/English as a Second Language Teacher. This course was taught in fall 2010 by the tenured, associate professor. The course description reads,

> This course familiarizes students with current second language classroom research and with effective methods and materials with an emphasis on

> adapting these methods and materials to a specific classroom setting. (Methods and materials for the bilingual/English as a second language teacher, course syllabus, fall 2010).

Participants in the course developed an awareness and knowledge of the history, research, and current best practices in ESL. They also developed an understanding of the approaches and techniques in developing curriculum and instruction to promote students' language development and content area learning. Major activities, tasks, and assignments include course readings, discussions, presentations, curriculum planning and design, modeling of ES(O)L best practices in whole class sessions and in groups, reflections, and responses to case studies.

Role of the Researcher. I was the principal investigator of this research. I observed the participants in my study in the three courses mentioned above and in the course of the observations I interviewed each participant. In these different types of roles, I was cognizant of a certain number of things. The first was about my knowledge of my participants' culture, especially the patterns of social interactions necessary to get through the research process. Most of the participants are Caucasians while I am black and from a foreign country. For this reason, I continually ensured that I developed the cultural competence needed. My conception of cultural competence is well-expressed by Bourdieu:

> One can say that the capacity to see (voir) is a function of the knowledge (savoir), or concepts, that is, the words, that are available to name visible things, and which are, as it were, programmes for perception. A

> work…has meaning and interest only for someone who possesses the cultural competence, that is, the code, into which it is encoded. (1984, p.2)

Therefore, I was aware of and I tried to understand the explicit and implicit ways the participants viewed the world, acted, and interacted with people. While I remained cognizant of my cultural differences, one advantage I did have was that I had been here in the United States for over four years. In that time I had extensive opportunities to learn about American culture in general and the American academic culture in particular. I used those experiences productively by drawing on my understanding of how American students act and interact in educational settings. The most important thing I needed was to be aware of potential misunderstandings or misinterpretations due to cultural influences and to adopt a constantly reflective approach while proceeding through the research process (Corbett, 2003). Being aware and reflective helped me more clearly understand how cultural differences may be impacting the data I was collecting, my analyses, and interpretations. I worked as much as possible to avoid strong cultural bias (Corbett) in terms of the way in which I perceived the participants.

An important point to note is that, although I was of a different culture than the participants, I shared the advantage of being a student in the same department. This connection suggests an emic position (Bodgan & Biklen, 2007; DeWalt & DeWalt, 2002). The advantage of coming from the same department is that I get a better picture and inner understanding of the preservice teachers' experiences. One instance is when one participant was talking about an issue, connected to the program design. I was able to make sense of the participant's comment because of my personal understanding of the program. DeWalt and DeWalt (2002) contended that the emic position provides the researcher with an internal, holistic, and organic

understanding. I could relate to departmental parameters that could escape a person with an etic (an outsider) view. My history in the department and with this program allowed me to gain better understanding of the participants and the context of the research. For example, one of the participants in the study was not placed in practicum. I was able to advise and direct her to the people in charge of the field placements. Such experiences helped me build a better rapport with that participant.

Having an emic stance, however, can have negative effects, too. First, the researcher can overlook some relevant information because s/he can take for granted what s/he already knows and they might go without conscious examination. Also, the researcher can fall in the danger of excessive subjectivity and develop a biased stance or opinion. The combination of these factors has negative impact on the researcher's objectivity or data interpretation (DeWalt & DeWalt, 2002). In order to avoid such pitfalls, I thought that it was crucial to strike the necessary balance to avoid too strong biases that might be due to an emic stance. I remained aware of the advantages and drawbacks of the emic position and made efforts to avoid the latter as much as possible through my own reflections in a researcher's log and by discussing this issue with a peer debriefer.

Finally, another important element of my background that shaped my role as a researcher conducting this inquiry was the fact that I taught English as Foreign Language in Benin for five years and English as a second language to adults for two years in the United States. These relevant life experiences assisted me in the research process because this study involved second language education. For example, during my interviews with some participants, my expertise in the field shaped how I understood their answers. Although P-12 ESOL education in the United States was still relatively new to me, I did have some

experiences with P-12 ESOL teaching in this country as well. I had been the university supervisor of ESOL preservice teachers in P-12 classrooms for two semesters. In that position, I learned how students in this program drew on their coursework to implement relevant knowledge in the classroom. Those experiences guided me as I collected data for the study. Although the cohorts I supervised were different from my participants' cohort and although schools/contexts for field experiences were different, I compensated for these differences with what I learned and through reflective practices. I made productive use of my experiences as a former ESOL supervisor. For example, one of the participants in my study was placed in a school I supervised some years ago. It was not difficult for me to get to the school and to navigate more appropriately.

Research Design and Methods

This study was conducted from the perspective of the naturalistic paradigm (Bodgan & Biklen, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In naturalistic studies, the investigator focuses on settings and contexts where participants' thinking and actions take place in order to gain a better understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. Bodgan and Biklen (2007) contend that words, gestures, and actions cannot be divorced from context. The investigator tries her/his best to enter the realm of her/his participants in order to collect data that are relevant or reflect the phenomenon under investigation. Gaining participants' perspectives is very important. Because of this, participant observation and interviewing are some of the key characteristics of naturalistic studies; therefore in this inquiry I observed ESOL preservice teachers in the settings in which their learning takes place. These settings included both coursework on university campuses and field experiences. In this way, I gained a clearer sense of the context of their learning and I was able to make sense of their thinking and actions.

Because observations alone were not sufficient, I also interviewed them in order to collect data about their perspectives on the phenomenon under investigation.

I used cross-method triangulation involving integration in the analysis and interpretation phases with a qualitative emphasis (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). This research strategy made it possible for me to use both qualitative and quantitative methods to conduct my investigation with the purpose of collecting data in all their complexity and accuracy. My inquiry was set within the naturalistic paradigm and I was seeking to understand participants in a particular context rather than to generalize to a broader population. Collecting both types of data have been instrumental in answering my research questions.

Data collection. Data collection and analyses began on the first day of the study, were simultaneous, and made it possible to answer emerging questions. My data collection was comprised of several different steps. First, Step 1 consisted of collecting demographic data on the participants' personal backgrounds in general and both prior experiences with L2 learning and L2 reading and prior beliefs about L2 teaching and learning. Step 2 consisted of collecting data on how pre-service teachers' personal backgrounds were used and addressed as they progressed in their program coursework. Step 3 contributed to the purposeful selection of key informants who became the primary focus for data collection in field experiences.

The objective of using key informants was to collect in-depth and rich data about the participants' backgrounds and prior knowledge and their role in the pre-service teachers' learning process during field experiences. Hence, I focused on key informants selected based on their background knowledge, demographic profiles, and any changes observed in their perspectives of the importance of their prior knowledge. Particular emphasis was placed on

understanding the ways the key informants' backgrounds shaped their instructional decisions in their field experiences. Further details are provided below.

As mentioned above, the first step in Phase I data collection focused on gathering information related to pre-service teachers' demographic profile and to their personal backgrounds and establishing rapport with the faculty/ participants through initial interviews. To do this, I administered the demographic and background survey (see Appendix A) and the Language Teaching/Learning Beliefs Questionnaire (see Appendix B). The demographic and background survey was designed to collect data about the participants' background information as related to L2 learning (and teaching) experiences and the length of exposure to such experiences. Also, it was used to gather any background information in L2 reading the participants may have.

As for the Language Teaching/Learning Beliefs Questionnaire (Brown & Rogers, 2002), this instrument was used to collect information related to the kind of beliefs the participants held about L2 teaching and learning before entering teacher preparation programs. The questionnaire addresses areas such as the role of linguistic knowledge in L2 teaching, the four (4) language skills, vocabulary, grammar, communication aspect of L2 teaching and learning, role of L2 teacher, errors in L2 teaching and learning, and pronunciation.

In addition, documents submitted during the teacher candidates' interview process such as reflections on prior experiences learning an L2 were obtained from the program coordinator and from one of the ESOL faculty. The information in these documents was used to supplement or to confirm the information collected through the administration of the

demographic and background survey and through the Language Teaching/Learning Beliefs Questionnaire.

All the data in Step 1 served the purpose to gather information about the preservice teachers' amounts of exposure to L2 learning and reading experiences and about prior beliefs and experiences. More specifically, the survey and questionnaire instruments were used to understand variations within the cohort and were valuable in making decisions as to key informants.

Step 2 was when I started fieldwork in coursework and I also conducted interviews with faculty and preservice participants. This step consisted of attending two courses in the summer two times a week for 2-3 hours each time. When sitting in on those courses, I took field notes on the interactions taking place in class. In addition, I collected course artifacts. Such artifacts included course assignments and course projects relevant to my research interests. The objective here was to understand how the participants' backgrounds and prior knowledge shaped their understanding and learning in their teacher preparation and how teacher educators drew on students' backgrounds. Also, analysis of data from these sources allowed me to design interview questions to follow up or clarify what I learned from class attendance and course artifacts.

During interviews, I sought to understand faculty and students' perspectives on the use of background and prior knowledge in the teacher preparation program (see sample questions in Appendix C). The faculty interviews took place in person for 45 to 60 minutes and consisted of eliciting information about their opinions and impressions of their students' personal backgrounds, L2 prior experiences, and beliefs. Another purpose of these interviews was to

elicit information about how the faculty members felt that they accessed in these experiences and beliefs during class sessions or through course assignments which they felt would be most beneficial to my inquiry. Finally, through these interviews, I tried to collect information on the conditions of use of candidates' prior experiences and beliefs.

As far as the preservice participants were concerned, in interviews with these participants I asked questions about how they felt their background knowledge was engaged throughout courses and how they thought that this knowledge shaped what they had been learning. After each interview, I transcribed the interview and analyzed it. The duration of the interviews ranged approximately from 22 to 47 minutes and occurred near the end of the summer semester.

After analyzing all the data collected in Steps 1 and 2, I selected key informants. Criteria for selecting key informants included (a) learning experiences in P-12 education, (b) academic and professional background, (c) participants' experiences teaching an L2, (d) experiences with and views of reading, and (e) beliefs about L2 teaching and learning.

The key informants selected were Ruth, Elizabeth, Rosaline, and Shekinah. After selecting the key informants, I emailed some of them and/or talked to others in person. I told them that I selected them as key informants based on the above criteria. Then, I asked them whether I could collect and use their field experiences data. They agreed and signed the consent form for field experiences.

With the key informants, I observed three steps with various data collection techniques. Data collected provided more in-depth information and enabled me to focus on the impact of

these candidates' prior experiences on their instructional decisions in the field, particularly in the area of L2 reading instruction.

The first step consisted of administering a modified version of the Multidimensional TESL Theoretical Orientation Profile survey (see Appendix D) validated and used by Johnson (1992) and Knudson (1998). The purpose of the instrument was to identify what kinds of approaches the key informant had to reading instruction for English language learners (i.e., functional approach). Modifications were made to the original document because of the need to take into account ELL students in P-12 classroom.

However, I later used and administered the Theoretical Orientation of Reading Profile (TORP, Appendix D) (Deford, 1985). This questionnaire was used to more completely understand the theoretical orientation of some of the key informants and also because of some errors I had noted in the modifications introduced in the TESL survey. The major reason for using Deford's TORP was that as I proceeded with data collection, my working hypotheses regarding the theoretical orientations of the participants when I started collecting field-experiences data led me to try to more clearly describe these orientations. I also used the Beliefs Questionnaire (Appendix B) for triangulation purposes, given the fact that this questionnaire shared some content with other instruments.

The second step of data collection with the key informants was focused on field experience data, directly. Once the key informants were selected and their theoretical orientations identified, they were asked to videorecord themselves (see appendix F for videorecording protocol details) as they provided reading instruction to English language

learners in fall 2010 and spring 2011. So the videorecording of each key informant stood provided one type of the data documenting their field experience instructional practices.

The field experiences data, however, consisted of not only what the key informants did in the school as found on their videorecordings, but also lesson plans and individual and focus group reflections in the form of introspection and retrospection data (See Appendix G). My uses of videorecording and of the various types of debriefing discussions are in line with the introspection and retrospection framework suggested by Scarino (2005) and with the focus group framework suggested by Coady (2007). In the introspection and retrospection framework, the introspection process involves looking and searching inside oneself to make visible one's thinking about an issue or phenomenon. It is an active process of meaning construction. The key informants were engaged in the introspection process as they were asked to make visible what guided some specific instructional decisions and actions. They were asked to make visible the underlying thinking that guided them in instructional procedures.

As for the retrospection aspect within the introspection and retrospection framework, this process involves looking back "in the rear mirror" to reflect on experiences lived. Retrospection is an active construction of knowledge but based upon past events. The participants were engaged in a retrospection process in their reflections on field experiences and during a focus group because they looked back to identify any historical factors and background knowledge that informed their instructional thinking and practice. Collection of their reflective journals written while they watched their own videorecordings were part of this process.

I also had a focus group study with the participants. The participants were invited to share segments from their videorecordings with each other and to participate in discussion of their perceptions of how prior experiences may or may not have shaped their second language reading instruction. The focus group served the purpose of a debriefing session and was in line with a social constructivist framework (Coady, 2007; Vygotsky, 1978, 1986). Coady contended that teachers bring knowledge, beliefs, perceptions, and assumptions to new experiences and construct new knowledge or refine previous understanding to gain meaning and participation in a focus group offers teachers an opportunity to bring such understanding to the surface.

As related to my inquiry, the key informants in the focus group watched the videorecorded segments of one another and reflected on what they saw. Before the focus group, I emailed the participants and clarified the guidelines for the focus group. Each of them was given eight minutes to present a segment from their videorecording. I explained them that each videorecording was like a case study through which they analyzed a scenario of L2 teaching/learning in general and L2 reading instruction in particular. The author of each video segment was invited to start the discussion and the peers followed. This process made more visible the participants' thinking about L2 teaching and learning and how such thinking was connected to prior experiences. Their learning process using their background was made more visible.

The focus group discussion was audiorecorded and transcribed. Any references to the actual names of schools or P-12 students which may be made during the debriefing session were changed to pseudonyms. When we met for the focus group, each participant presented and discussed her video segment. After the presentation and discussion of the video segments, I asked some questions for clarification purposes. The questions concerned the ways the

participants used or drew on their background or prior knowledge to provide reading instruction and whether school context shaped their prior beliefs or experiences. Each of the participants was given the opportunities to answer each question posed.

As the focus group neared the end, I told them I might send follow-up questions when I needed clarifications. They indicated agreement and we concluded the discussion. I also collected lesson plans and videorecording from some key informants. It is worth noting that Shekinah did not provide any videotaping data for spring 2011 because of some problems with her field placements. As a result, the only data I could get from her were those of fall 2010. This did not prevent her from attending and participating in the focus group. On the contrary, she was able to provide invaluable insight during the focus group as the data analysis revealed.

In order to understand the key informants' instruction during field experiences, I decided to offer a brief description of the school where they taught in fall and spring. Reason for providing such a description was that research has shown that school context can influence teachers' beliefs and theoretical orientation (Dooley & Assaf, 2009).

Shekinah's placement. Shekinah's fall 2010 practicum experience took place in Excellence Middle School. The school was located in a suburban area of an affluent school district. But the school is a Title I school serving a diverse student population, 80% of which received reduced or free lunch. Yet, the school met Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) requirements the year before I started my study.

All the characteristics of the school indicated that it was a high-needs school. In Georgia, schools with higher percentages receiving reduced or free lunch (50% or more) and

with higher percentages of minority students (at least, 60%) are classified as high-needs school. Excellence Middle School met these criteria, making it a high-need and Title I school.

High-needs schools generally have problems such as teacher turnover, low quality instruction, under-prepared teachers, scarce resources, a higher percentage of English language learners, and many others problems (Swars et al., 2009). As a matter of fact, during my research in the school, I experienced one instance of teacher turnover. Shekinah's cooperating teacher left between my first and second observations. Also, there were 132 English language learners in the school, that is, 7.2% of the student population. Although 7.2 % might appear insignificant, one may more easily appreciate how significant it might be when I come to key informants who served in more affluent schools.

In spring 2011, Shekinah did not provide videorecording because of problems with her placements in field experiences sites. Because of those problems, there was no need to provide information on the school where she taught in spring.

Ruth's placements. Ruth's practicum experience in fall 2010 took place in Builder High School. The school was located in a school district less affluent than Shekinah's but the school was not a Title I. Builder High School met AYP requirements, Builder High School was a minority-majority school where seventy-four percents of the students were Black. Forty-nine percents of the students received reduced or free lunch. Also, only 3.5% of the student population were English language learners. Of the 1, 404 students enrolled in the previous academic year, only 49 students were English language learners.

Unlike her fall 2010 placement, Ruth was placed in spring 2011 in Eagle Elementary, a high-needs school. The school was a Title-I school with 90% of the school population being

economically disadvantaged. English language learners constituted 24% of the school population and only 8% of the school population were Caucasian. However, the school did meet AYP the year before this study.

Elizabeth's placements. Liberty Middle school was located in a school district more or less affluent. The school was a non-Title I school. Fifty-one percents of the student population were Caucasian. Thirty-five percents of the students received reduced or free lunch. English language learners constituted only 5.4% of the student population. All these statistics indicated that Liberty Middle School was not a high-needs school, at least at the time of this research. The school met the AYP requirements that year.

Like Ruth, Elizabeth was placed in a high-needs school in spring 2011. Lion Elementary was a Title-I school where 95% of the students were economically disadvantaged. Demographics of the school indicated that more than half of the students (57%) were English language learners and only 4% of the student population were Caucasian. Nonetheless, the school met AYP the previous year.

Rosaline's placements. Tenacity Elementary was a school of 978 students. The school was located in a suburban area of an affluent school district. Only 11% of the students received reduced or free lunch. Unsurprisingly, the school was not a Title I school. The number of English language learners was only 35 (3.6% of the school population). The school met AYP requirements the year before my study. All these characteristics indicated that Tenacity Elementary School was not a high-needs school. The minority student population in Tenacity Elementary School was larger than the number of Caucasian students. For example, 42% of the

students in the school were African-American. At the same time, only 35% of the student population were Caucasian.

In spring, Rosaline was placed in a high-needs school: Talent High School where 82% of the students were economically disadvantaged. Of the school population, 19% were English language learners and only 5% were Caucasian. The school was a Title-I school but it met AYP the previous year.

The final step then followed. This step consisted mainly of member checks (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998) conducted via email or by phone conversation. I shared with both the faculty and the student participants information regarding the notes I made, the categories formed, and the interpretations made. This step allowed me to receive input from the participants and to refine my interpretations.

Data analysis. As mentioned above, I started collecting and analyzing data from day one. The participants were administered the demographic profile survey (Appendix A) and the language teaching/learning beliefs questionnaire (Appendix B) simultaneously. The instruments were administered in a paper-and-pencil format. The participants were allowed to take these instruments home and were asked to return them two days after administration. Some of the participants respected the deadline but others took longer.

The demographic survey was self-designed but the Language Teaching/Learning Beliefs Questionnaire was published in a textbook (Brown & Rogers, 2002) used in the only research class I took when I was pursuing my Masters in Applied Linguistics and English as a Second Language. When I decided to use the instrument, I contacted the two authors to learn more about the validity and reliability of the instrument.

Dr. Rogers (Personal communication, July 2010) said that the instrument was based on many other previously validated instruments. Unfortunately, he could no longer locate or retrieve information related to the specific validity and reliability of the instrument. With permission from both authors, I decided to use the instrument although Dr. Rogers and Dr. Brown could not communicate the reliability and validity information. The reason I decided to use the instrument despite the lack of such vital information was that we used the same instrument in the course I mentioned above. We believed that the instrument represents the beliefs that people in general can hold about L2 teaching/learning.

The problems I personally identified with the instrument is that although it covers many areas it still omits important ones such as the role of motivation in L2 learning. Also, I felt that some items lack depth in coverage. Nonetheless, I am convinced that these two problems really threaten the validity and reliability of the instrument as language learning and teaching encompasses so many areas that covering all of them and in depth is practically impossible on a single instrument.

While administering the two instruments, I asked the participants whether they gave me permission to use the reflective essays they submitted during the process of their admission into the program. I requested the use of these documents because they were supposed to contain reasons why they enrolled in the program, information related to their backgrounds, and why they felt that they would be able to meet the program requirements. My intent of analyzing and using these documents was to triangulate data sources for credibility purposes (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

All the participants agreed and gave me their consent to use the reflective essays. So I contacted the ESOL program coordinator and one ESOL faculty. They were able to give me the reflective essays of all the preservice teachers enrolled in the program since they did not know who my participants were. However, as I perused the documents of my participants, I found only the reflective essays of five (5) of the participants in my study, one of whom would later withdraw from the study for health reasons. I again contacted the faculty about the missing reflective essays of the other study participants. They said that the reason might be linked to the fact that some prospective teachers were admitted after the regular admission process began. As a result, those who were admitted later might not have submitted reflective essays.

While awaiting the return of the demographic profile survey and of the language teaching/learning beliefs questionnaire, I started observing the participants in their courses. At the same time, I started analyzing each reflective essays using constant-comparative analysis and line-by-line open coding, thus generating numerous categories (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). After reading and analyzing carefully all the reflective essays, I retained categories related to participants' backgrounds and prior knowledge (See Appendix J for complete data analysis strategies used to arrive at themes/subthemes). Based on these categories and on my ongoing observations, I started formulating interview questions for the preservice participants.

During my observations, I took notes. I wrote down the statements and comments made by participants and classmates during coursework as much and as quickly as possible. As part of my observations, I collected handouts and course assignments. As my observations continued, I continued analyzing the data, looking for patterns that emerged on a consistent

basis from day to day and week to week. Meanwhile, the participants returned the demographic profile survey and the language teaching/learning beliefs questionnaire.

As I started analyzing the data related to the demographic survey and the beliefs questionnaire based on grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), I started to identify patterns (opening coding) confirming some categories in the reflective essays (i.e., significance of background). At the same time, the observational data confirmed some categories found in the reflective essays (i.e., immersion). So the data collection and analysis became interactive and iterative leading to the identification of meaningful relationships between categories (i.e., nature or type of prior L2 learning experiences associated with preference for immersion) across data sources (Glaser & Strauss) using constant-comparative technique (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Relationships between concepts and categories were clarified or refined- axial coding (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) through my working hypotheses and questioning during summer interviews with the preservice participants, using the data previously collected and analyzed. More details about this process are provided in subsequent sections as the process is iterative, recursive and cyclical (Borg, 1998).

At the end of the summer 2010, I interviewed the pre-service participants. After each interview, I began transcribing and analyzing data prior to the subsequent interview. I divided the transcribed interviews into units in order to form categories according to the constant-comparative analysis (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). This simultaneous analysis of the interview data allowed me to refine and drop some interview questions or to work on the ways I framed questions. Indeed, the way I framed some questions in the earlier stage seemed to be confusing as evidenced in the way interviewees asked questions for more clarification. So I

took into account such requests for clarifications on the part of interviewees to refine or reframe some questions.

After conducting and transcribing all the interview data, I started analyzing them for more depth. I identified more categories. For data reduction purposes, I started a second analysis to identify categories that had similar meaning or that were closely related in meaning related to my research interests. For example, in the first analysis, I identified the following categories: “Views of L2 reading”, “Similarities in L1 and L2 reading processes”, “Differences in L1 and L2 reading processes”. In my second analysis, I realized that the categories “Similarities in L1 and L2 reading processes” and “Differences in L1 and L2 reading processes” referred to or fell under a larger category “views of L1 and L2 reading”. So I collapsed and refined the categories in the first analysis in order to obtain categories more representative of meaningful units.

After analyzing all the interview data, I started analyzing the data across data sources (reflective essays, demographic survey, language teaching/learning beliefs questionnaire, observations, interviews). I used the interview data as a primary data source because these interviews were shaped by data from all the other sources. Thus, interview data integrated and reflected more the diversity of categories and concepts found in the other data sources. Other data sources were then used to triangulate findings which emerged from the interview analysis.

Subsequently, I added the course assignments data as an additional primary data source. These data were very useful as many of them were reflective pieces and showed how participants drew on personal background. Again, I applied a constant comparative analysis by breaking all the texts into units and analyzing them line-by-line. Such deep and intensive

analysis of course assignments data confirmed many of the previous categories and concepts from interview analyses but provided clarifications about relationships between categories. The course assignment analyses also revealed other important categories and concepts. Because additional categories and concepts emerged, I engaged in additional member checking and peer debriefing (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). I met with a peer debriefer and shared with her the categories identified during my data analysis. As a result of the peer debriefing, I again contacted the preservice participants via email to ask for clarification about some categories or themes that seemed to emerge.

After I had identified and collapsed categories to obtain more refined categories and concepts leading to themes (axial coding), I met again with a peer debriefer to discuss my categories, concepts, and themes. I explained to her the data collection and analysis procedures. After discussing and listening to each other, I engaged again in data reduction because I realized that some categories and themes were redundant while others needed expansion. This process led me to reorganize my categories and themes, resulting in the elimination and expansion of categories and in the refinement of themes.

The expansion or creation of categories and themes was also the result of member checking and the whole process was iterative and recursive. Indeed after I had identified new categories and themes in the course assignments data, I framed a set of questions to seek clarifications or to confirm these categories and themes. The participants and I sent one another correspondence for better clarification. I corresponded more with some participants than others depending on the understanding I was seeking.

After peer debriefing and member checking, I started elaborating on major categories and themes related to the categories and themes describing participants' general personal background and prior knowledge. After developing a full description of how participants differed, I was able to proceed with the selection of key informants. Basically, I selected the participants based on the following criteria or themes. These themes included (a) learning experiences in P-12 education, (b) academic and professional background, (c) participants' experiences teaching a second language, (d) experiences with and views of reading, and (e) beliefs about second language teaching and learning. I detailed these themes in Chapter 4 as part of the results or answers to my first research question.

Analysis of observational data (coursework and field experiences) also consisted of using constant comparative analysis leading to the development of grounded theory driven by the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In order to analyze the observational data, I divided the data into units of actions or of activities as part of the constant comparative analytical scheme (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Tashakkori and Teddlie explain that one of the processes to analyze qualitative data is to break the text into units of information that will serve as the basis for defining categories. After breaking the observational data into units, I examined each unit of action or of activity and the relationship among units.

As I analyzed each unit of action or activity, I looked for patterns showing the use of background, prior experiences and beliefs, or theoretical orientation in reading instruction to English Language learners. When I identified a pattern, I noted and compared it with data collected previously. As my analysis continued, I identified patterns where participants' prior experiences and knowledge shaped or influenced their reading instruction to English language

learners. After gathering these patterns, I reassembled them to generate ideas about themes or trends by using the relations among them.

The data collected and analyzed in fall 2010 were the thickest and shaped the ways I developed my working hypothesis questions for the rest of data collection. One of my working hypothesis questions was to know whether key informants' reading instructional practices matched with prior beliefs or theoretical orientation and why.

Throughout the data collection and analysis, I adopted persistent observation and triangulation techniques as described by Bodgan and Biklen (2007) and Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998). These techniques were used to ensure credibility and dependability of the research process. Persistent observation was focused on probing the working hypothesis in order to generate additional data, aiming thus at both scope and depth of information. According to Tashakkori and Teddlie, "The purpose of persistent observation is to provide "depth" for researchers by helping them to identify the characteristics or aspects of the social scene that are the most relevant to the particular question being pursued" (1998, p.90).

Triangulation is a research strategy that aims at collecting data from multiple sources, from multiple participants, using multiple methods, or multiple researchers to ensure credibility and dependability through fuller understanding. This idea was best captured by Bodgan and Biklen when they explain,

> Triangulation was first borrowed in the social sciences to convey the idea that to establish a fact you need more than one source of information… It came to mean that many sources of data were better in a study than a

> single source because multiple sources lead to a fuller understanding of the phenomenon you were studying. (2007, pp. 115-116)

I used both strategies in my data analysis. Persistent observation was ensured in my study by collecting and analyzing data throughout my research process and over time. Whenever I analyzed data and I did not understand a pattern, I generated additional questions to seek more understanding from the participants. For example, I used my working hypotheses generated by analyzing student teaching videorecordings in fall 2010 to frame debriefing interview questions during focus group. Triangulation was ensured from the use of various data collection techniques I mentioned above including surveys/questionnaires, interviews, observations, a focus group session, reflective journals, as well as data collected from across many of these data.

After analyzing the data, I returned to the participants, especially the key informants in order to share my analysis information with them for the purpose of ensuring credibility. The member checking was used to ensure that the participants agreed with or confirmed the analytic domains constructed or the interpretations I made as the investigator (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998).

For the most part, all the key informants confirmed the analytical domains I constructed and my findings about the reading instruction to ESOL students during field experiences, using prior knowledge. A couple of them clarified their comments and provided insights into their instruction. I incorporated their comments.

I also used peer debriefing. Peer debriefing is a process of "exposing oneself to a disinterested peer in a manner paralleling an analytic session and for the purpose of exploring

aspects of the inquiry that might otherwise remain only implicit within the inquirer's mind" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 308). Through the process, the investigator searches for questions from the peer to examine or reduce bias and clarify interpretations with the ultimate objective of increasing the research credibility.

Accordingly, throughout my research, I shared my data analysis processes and my interpretations with a peer. She asked me questions that led me to refine my data analysis and analytical domains. Thanks to the peer debriefing, I was able to redefine, delete, expand, and refine my categories and themes. The peer debriefing process also aided me in reflecting on my cultural lenses and subjectivities, as described earlier in this chapter in the section addressing the researcher's role.

These processes enabled me to engage in the creation of grounded theory in order to explain the phenomena I have observed. Glaser and Strauss (1967) explained, "Grounded Theory is a general methodology for developing theory that is grounded in data systematically gathered and analyzed" (p.273). I develop a grounded theory to explain the patterns which emerge through inductive analysis of my themes and categories (Chapter 5).

Data management. Data management is a crucial issue in all research processes. Hence, I developed the following strategies to manage the research data well. First, I assigned pseudonyms to all participants. This is very important for ethical reasons. Pseudonyms were used to protect my research participants. I generated a folder for each participant in order keep careful track of data collection in an organized fashion.

I entered the results of the questionnaires/surveys in an Excel file for careful management in terms of concepts/themes and profile identification. When I engaged in

fieldwork, I went with my laptop in order to generate field notes. As for the interviews and portions of the focus group (needed), I transcribed the relevant segments of the recorded data and filed them in light of the participants' pseudonyms and by date. I kept the audio recordings and their transcriptions safely in a locked suitcase in my apartment.

I used Microsoft Word to record relevant reflections at each step and throughout the whole process. My researcher's log included the codes and categories developed through open coding throughout the study, my working hypotheses generated through axial coding, and my reflections on relationships between categories as confirmed through selective coding. I also kept an audit trail. All the data were saved by date with a proper label indicating the data source. At times, I color coded categories and themes for better analysis. All the data will be shredded five years after completion of the study.

Research timeline. Below is the timeline for each phase of my data collection.

Table 1- *TimeLine of Data Collection*

Stage of Data Collection		Research Tasks	Dates
Coursework	Step 1	• Initial interview with faculty • Demographics Survey • Language Teaching/Learning Beliefs Questionnaire • Written reflection during admission interview	June 2010
	Step 2	• Field Observations in coursework	June/July

		• Interviews with Students • Collection of relevant course syllabi or assignments	2010
	Step 3	• Data Analysis • Selection of four 3-4 key informants	August 2010
Field Experiences	Step 1	• Modified version of The Multidimensional TESL Theoretical Orientation Profile • Field Observations in Coursework	Sept. 2010
	Step 2	• Field experiences videotaping • Administration of Theoretical Orientation of Reading Profile • Post-observation debriefing interviews • Faculty/supervisor interviews? • Collection of reflective journals	Nov. 2010 Jan. 2011 Feb. 2010
	Step 3	• Focus Group • Member checks	Feb. 2011 – March2011

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

In this chapter, I will report the findings as related to my research questions one and two. My first research question focuses on the ways participants' prior experiences and knowledge can be described and the ways their preparation program addressed such antecedents. The second research question focuses on how such prior experiences and personal background informed and shaped the ways the participants constructed knowledge in their program. In the section that follows, I describe the ways the participants' preparation program addressed their prior experiences and personal background.

Theme 1: ESOL Teacher Preparation and the Importance of Prior Knowledge

My first research question was to know how the participants' preparation program drew explicitly on their antecedents. This was the reason why I interviewed four faculty members of the program. In July 2010, I interviewed Dr. Hope, Dr. Wellborn, Dr. Allbright, and Dr. Goldenstar (pseudonyms). Dr. Hope was an associate professor in ESOL, Language, and Literacy. Dr. Wellborn and Dr. Allbright were part-time instructors in Language and Literacy. Dr. Goldenstar was an assistant professor in ESOL, Language, and Literacy.

My analysis of faculty interviews revealed two major themes: (a) ways of drawing on teacher candidates' prior experiences and (b) the reasons for drawing on such experiences.

Ways of drawing on teacher candidates' prior experiences and knowledge. The ways faculty in the program drew on teacher candidates' prior experiences and backgrounds

refer to any pedagogical processes that they used in connection with those prior experiences and backgrounds. The degree to which faculty drew on teacher candidates' prior experiences and beliefs varied. One faculty member drew on teacher candidates' backgrounds and experiences in systematic ways. The other faculty participants were also cognizant of the teacher candidates' prior experiences but made connections less systematically.

The faculty participants drew on teacher candidates' prior experiences by using various strategies. These strategies included scaffolding, classroom discussions, various reflective pieces, and course assignments. Some faculty participants used some of these strategies more than others.

Scaffolding. Scaffolding refers to a pedagogical process that provides support for a learner by connecting to prior experiences and backgrounds in a way that the learner becomes increasingly independent (Many et al., 2009). Most of faculty participants drew on teacher candidates' prior knowledge by using scaffolding. This was Dr. Hope's case in particular. The use of scaffolding to draw on teacher candidates' background was also prevalent in her instructional practices in the ESOL methods courses she taught. During the initial interview in July 2010 with Dr. Hope, she asserted,

> All the small steps on the way have the purpose to build up their knowledge as for the final project... What I really wanted was their learning through noticing, to support their learning… We have to model the kinds of practices we want them to take on… Teacher educators need to make it real and provide enough hands-on activities… One of the things I asked them to do is to compare the two groups of students. They have to

> teach in pair. One person is teaching and one person is recording… So when I am teaching, I am scaffolding, explaining the assignments slowly. I am giving them a lot of hints.

There were other faculty participants who used scaffolding as well. These participants were Dr. Allbright and Dr. Wellborn. During my initial interview with Dr. Allbright in July 2010, she commented,

> If you are teaching at their independent level, they are not learning anything. If you are teaching at their frustration level, they are not going to try. So you have to engage them in their zone of proximal development. You have to meet them where they are and guide and provide them with the necessary support so that they can reach the next level. That's how teaching should be. That's how I see scaffolding.

In this comment, Dr. Allbright provided a definition of scaffolding and described at the same time how she used scaffolding to connect to the learner's prior knowledge by underscoring, "You have to meet them where they are". Dr. Wellborn also used scaffolding. She explained that scaffolding is necessary for teacher candidates with fewer experiences. She argued, "I think that those who are shattered or who have fewer life experiences or who feel that their worldview is threatened are the most in need of scaffolding." When she wanted to provide scaffolding, she used feedback, request for elaboration, and encouragement as evidenced in the following excerpt,

> I think that I do provide some form of scaffolding during the weekly reflections. Usually, I do something like this: I am not sure of the point

> you are trying to make in a particular area or in relation to a specific issue or I want to see more depth here, just a way of encouraging them to put more depth in their responses.

Classroom discussions. During initial interviews and through my observations, I noticed that faculty in the program drew on teacher candidates' antecedents through classroom discussions. Faculty used classroom discussions to understand the entering perspectives that the teacher candidates held and to address such perspectives as well. For example, Dr. Allbright, who taught the reading method course, contended,

> We talk a lot about assumptions. I chose a set of pictures about people and I asked them to attribute a profession to the people based on their look. We all make judgments based on the appearances of people; we make a lot of assumptions. I remember one recent experience where I had to get the key for this room, the professor (a colleague) asked me to get the key from my instructor. I told him I am the instructor. So he did not associate me as being the instructor and having a Ph.D… So my first task is ask them to talk about biases as related to people and races. The reason is that your assumptions are going to drive your teaching. (Initial Interview, July 2010)

Dr. Wellborn who was the instructor of the cultural issues course concurred, "I also try to take them out of their comfort zone so that they can see things from different perspectives." (Initial Interview, July 2010)

The excerpts above, indeed, suggest that faculty used classroom discussions to understand their teacher candidates' worldviews and to address misconceptions and biases that might characterize them. Preservice teachers' data also confirmed such a pattern. During initial interviews, I asked many of them how faculty drew on their background and their responses indicated that classroom discussions were one of the ways faculty used. The following excerpts illustrated this trend.

> We have a lot of opportunities, especially in our cultural class, discussing our personal experiences and how that fits in theories. I learned other people's experiences and how their learning was affected by such experiences. (Ashley, Interview, July 2010).

Shekinah concurred, "Another way to use our personal background is through classroom discussions" (Initial Interview, July 2010).

Reflective pieces. Another important way faculty members drew on teacher candidates' prior experiences was through reflective pieces. Generally, teacher candidates either submitted a reflective essay in response to course readings or they wrote a reflective journal where they expressed feelings and understandings about particular issues. Two reasons seemed to guide the use of reflective pieces. One was that faculty used reflective pieces to help teacher candidates connect readings to personal experiences. For example, Dr. Allbright explained,

> When they read, I ask them to compose a double entry journal and to write down a quote that strikes them on one side. On the other side, they write connection text to text, text to self, and text to the world. In that, I am preparing to give them two articles. One particularly focused on the deficit

> view of language development among poor children. The other article will take them to look at sides, the advantages and drawbacks in each of them and whether they should favor one particular. (Initial Interview, July 2010).

Course assignments. Some faculty participants used course assignments to draw on teacher candidates' prior experiences. When they used course assignments, the faculty generally wanted the candidates to bring to conscious level their own experiences of learning to read or their experiences learning an L2. For example, in summer 2010, one of the course assignments in Theory and Pedagogy of Reading course was about the teacher candidates' personal reading history. The assignment read as follows:

> Personal Reading History – 120 points
>
> For this assignment, you will describe at least four episodes that you remember related to learning to read in school, at home, and/or in out-of-school learning environments. You will complete a CCC chart in which you summarize the following:
>
> *Capture* – you will capture the memory by describing what happened
>
> *Context* – you will describe the larger literacy and educational context in which this episode took place, connecting it to our book on literacy history and/or articles included in this class and other sources about that particular educational and/or literacy approach.

> *Critique* – you will critique the episode, discussing your thoughts about its effectiveness and its impact on you as a reader.
>
> The episodes should include two from elementary school, one from middle school, and one from high school. You will provide an overview CCC chart at the front of the paper, your four written pieces, and a 1 ½ to 2 page summary at the end explaining how the totality of these experiences shaped you as a reader and learner. On the designated day of class, you will bring one completed episode, along with an artifact that represents that memory to discuss with your assigned group.

Through this assignment, the teacher candidates not only brought the ways they learned to read in P-12 education to conscious level by selecting critical reading episodes. The teacher candidates also had to use those episodes to connect to literacy approaches and their effectiveness. To make better sense of the assignment, I asked the course instructor, Dr. Allbright, about the rationale behind it. Here is her comment,

> I think that it is a good assignment because it is related to how the preservice teachers view reading and how they learn to read. Usually, when preservice teachers come to your class, whether it is theory or strategies, they tend to think of reading as the printed text. It goes beyond that and literacy encompasses listening, talking, writing, viewing and so on. So talking about their literacy history forces them to see things that make them as readers. Some of them are obliged to call their parents so that they can get more details and artifacts. One lady, for

> example, called her mom and asked whether she still has some of her writing pieces. The mom gave her some of her writing. This gave her some emotion. I think this provides a link as to how their students can remember them as the teacher who helps them become good readers or better ones. (Initial interview, July 2010)

From Dr. Allbright's perspective, this assignment was used not only to help teacher candidates examine their own reading history but also to broaden their concept of reading. She wanted them to understand that reading is not just printed text. Also, through the assignment, she wanted them to identify elements that contributed to their developments as readers and the ways those elements might shape their reading instructional practices.

Like Dr. Allbright, Dr. Goldenstar's course syllabus included an assignment to help teacher candidates bring to conscious level their learning experiences and to help them examine the ways such experiences might be instrumental in their own instructional practices. The difference with Dr. Goldenstar's assignment was that with her course, Applied Linguistics for the Bilingual/ESL Teacher, the assignment was explicitly focused on L2 learning experiences. The assignment read as follows:

> Second/Foreign Language Autobiography (6 points) and Responses (4 points)
>
> This assignment is to help you reflect on your own experiences as a language learner and user. Write a <u>3-to-4 page exploratory essay</u> on learning a second/foreign language(s), or your native language (if you haven't learned any second/foreign language) in and outside of school.

> You can write about any kinds of experiences in learning a language. For example, what language(s) have you learned? What motivated you to start learning a second/foreign language? How and where have you learned a second/foreign language? How competent are you in that/those/language/s? How do you feel about learning it? What teachers and/or events were most memorable in learning a second/foreign language? What kinds of learning strategies and/or skills have you tried? What worked? What hasn't worked for you? How has your learning evolved?
>
> Your "language autobiography" will be posted on our class U-Learn [site] & you will also respond to two autobiographies by your classmates. Please, keep in mind that both your *classmates* and *your instructor* will be the audience. The purpose of this assignment is to raise your meta-linguistic awareness as a language learner and to become a more sensitive language teacher. (Course Assignment, TSLE 7250, fall 2010)

In summary, teacher educators in this program drew on teacher candidates' background by using various strategies. This suggested that the faculty participants actively tried to connect to their candidates' backgrounds. Classroom discussions were the most prevalent strategy used to address teacher candidates' prior experiences. Some of the strategies discussed above were used more extensively and others less so. Based on both interviews and class observations, Dr. Hope used class discussions and scaffolding more than any other faculty participants. When using scaffolding, she focused on various content and her ways of scaffolding also varied. This

suggested that Dr. Hope drew on teacher candidates' background more actively. This is not surprising because she recalled, during the initial interview, one of her graduate study experiences through which she felt that the faculty in that program did not tap into her prior experiences.

The other faculty participants also used scaffolding but interview data indicated that they did so more sporadically than Dr. Hope. At the same time, these faculty members incorporated reflective pieces and course assignments to connect to teacher candidates' prior experiences.

Reasons for drawing on teacher candidates' prior experiences. The reasons why faculty drew on participants' backgrounds were generally of two orders. They were intentional in addressing misconceptions in subject knowledge and in developing the teacher candidates' professional dispositions. Subject matter here included learning and instruction related to both reading and L2. Two faculty members specifically gave reasons for addressing misconceptions in subject matter. The following excerpts are illustrative in this regard.

> Usually, when preservice teachers come to your class, whether it is theory or strategies, they tend to think of reading as the printed text. It goes beyond that and literacy encompasses listening, talking, writing, viewing and so on. So talking about their literacy history forces them to see things that make them readers. (Dr. Allbright, Initial Interview, July 2010)

Dr. Allbright felt that some teacher candidates had or might have misconception about reading. So she believed that one way to address such misconceptions was to have them verbalize or bring their literacy histories to consciousness. As for Dr. Hope, she explained,

> We do not admit anyone into our program unless the person has lived abroad and/or has a second language learning experience. If the person does not meet either condition, we advise the person to learn a second language and provide evidence of that before getting accepted in the program. It is an important requirement for us because it brings a knowledge base, sensitivity, awareness to the program, cultural sensitivity as well as learning sensitivity of the trials and tribulations one goes through as one tries to learn a second language. (Initial Interview, July 2010)

For Dr. Hope, reasons for drawing on teacher candidates' background were sensitivity, awareness to the program, cultural sensitivity, and sensitivity to students' struggles when learning an L2. Dr. Wellborn provided additional reasons for addressing teacher candidates' prior experiences.

> In the process, they tended to focus on the deficit of the children. I had to stop them. I think that what I try to do with them is to get them [to] become more conscious and read critically. They have to understand that it is not because someone with a name says something that that thing is necessarily true. So they don't have to accept everything they hear say… But if you can bring their attention to understand what culture is and get them interested in the culture of others, then you prepare them for the journey of life. (Initial Interview, July 2010)

From this excerpt, it was obvious that the Dr. Wellborn wanted to address teacher candidates' assumptions or biases. Other faculty members expressed the same concerns and were intentional in addressing the participants' biases and assumptions. One of them clearly indicated that addressing teacher candidates' assumptions and biases is very crucial for the development of their professional dispositions or for professional development. Dr. Allbright explained, "So my first task is [to] ask them to talk about biases as related to people and races. The reason is that your assumptions are going to drive your teaching." (Initial Interview, July 2010)

In sum, a couple of things seem to stand out. First, all faculty members addressed teacher candidates' personal background and the degree to which they addressed such background varied. Some of them addressed teacher candidates' personal background in a systematic way and others less so. Secondly, the faculty participants seemed to draw on teacher candidates' personal background more for developing professional dispositions than for addressing misconceptions in subject matter or L2 disciplinary knowledge.

Theme 2: Description of Participants' Personal Background and Prior Experiences

My first research question was also to describe the participants' prior experiences and backgrounds. As I explored answers to this question, I found that participants' prior experiences and backgrounds were rich and diverse. Four subthemes were portrayed by the participants' experiences and distinguished them. These subthemes included (a) P-12 learning experiences, (b) L2 learning experiences at college and abroad, (c) academic and professional backgrounds, and (d) prior beliefs about L2 teaching and learning.

Before proceeding, I would like to remind the reader that I sometimes use the same quote under different themes or subthemes. The reason for the repetitive use of such quotes is that they portray the different themes or subthemes under which they are found.

P-12 learning experiences. By P-12 learning experiences, I mean any type of reading experiences that influenced their understanding of the reading process, critical incidents that impacted their views of education, and L2 learning experiences and how such experiences were related to their self-perception of proficiency in an L2 during P-12 education. In the sections that follow, I will describe each of these experiences.

Participants' reading experiences. The participants' reading experiences during P-12 education primarily reflected they ways in which they familiarized themselves with conventional print and how they learned to read. In order to understand such experiences, I examined course assignments (i.e., personal reading history). In addition to course assignments, I also asked questions about participants' reading experiences during summer interviews with them. All the participants reported that they had pleasant and enjoyable reading experiences in their first language. They had parents or family members who took them to the library and provided them with many interesting books. Rosaline commented,

> My dad was a role model for me. He read a lot. He read a couple of novels every other week. He always took me to the library. I don't remember having difficulties reading in my L1. This L1 experience was however unconscious to me. I don't remember how it took place. I just remember having a lot of books, going to the library. (Interview, July 2010)

The participants also had possibilities for choosing books that appealed to them. Usually, their reading experiences were for fun and pleasure. Ruth vividly remembered interesting aspects of such experiences when she commented,

> Grandpa made reading enjoyable. Every trip to the library was exciting which helped me to associate happy feelings about books and reading. I could not wait to go to grandpa's house after the library and start "traveling" through my books… My grandpa served as an amazing model of someone who was actively involved in literacy activities and forever changed the life of his granddaughter. (Interview, July 2010)

Dorcas had similar experiences with her mother. But her reading or literacy-related memories were particularly touching and informing. She did not just learn to read. Her mom provided her with holistic literacy experiences which created an intimate bond. Here is her story:

> One of my earliest and most persistent childhood memories centers on a tradition in literacy that my mom and I shared. Each night before I went to bed, my mom read me a book of my choice. We did not have a huge collection of books and therefore read many of the same books over and over again. My mom often sang the words of the books, creating her own tune and rhythm with the text of each book. After numerous times listening to my mom's songs, I began to sing the words with my mom and believe that I, too, was reading the words in the book. My mom encouraged me to participate in reading each book and praised me for my

> ability to "read" the words. The experience of listening to my mom read, learning the words of a text, and participating in the activity of reading encouraged me to view myself as a reader and view the act of reading as a positive experience. (Dorcas, Interview, July 2010)

Generally, the participants' experiences learning to read during their P-12 education seemed to be shaped by family literacy practices. Also, these experiences tended to reflect a constructivist view of reading, emphasizing reader's choice and reading for pleasure. While the participants provided substantial descriptions of their reading experiences in their L1, references to L2 reading experiences were rarely mentioned. I will provide more details in subsequent sections.

Critical incidents in P-12 education. The phrase "critical incidents" refers to participants' experiences that provoked cognitive change or impacted participants' views of the educational processes during their P-12 education. These incidents were generally related to former teachers' assumptions or deficit views about learners and what the participants viewed as inappropriately structured approaches.

For example, Ashley reported that her language difference was judged by her teacher as language deficit and how such a judgment ultimately led that teacher to recommend her to a special speech class. She reported,

> My father only had a high school diploma and my mother never even had the chance to get that far. They were both from Georgia, as were their parents, and spoke a regional dialect associated with anything but academics. In third grade my teacher recommended me for [a] speech

> class because I couldn't pronounce my r's. (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

Other participants, Elizabeth and Abigail, reported negative memories related to their teachers' assumptions about them as learners. Elizabeth reported her composition of poetry which her teacher thought she could not have authored. The same thing happened with Abigail whose former teacher believed that she could not read when she started school. Both Elizabeth and Abigail reported that such assumptions on the part of their teachers deflated their self-efficacy and that it took a long time, and other teachers, to boost their self-efficacy again.

Other participants, Rosaline, Sarah, and Deborah, reported that they were exposed to inappropriate materials and practices. Rosaline reported that in the course of her P-12 education she had been exposed to literary works that she considered inappropriate for her age. She and her classmates were confused at the time. Here is the narrative of the incident in her own words:

> I also recall being very confused about the events in the novel especially the sexual content. I clearly remember our teacher explaining some of the sexual content to our group after turning off the classroom monitor. Thinking back, I find that so ironic since Big Brother Is Watching was a major theme of 1984. (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

As for Sarah, she reported that she attended an urban school where she was bullied, disproportionately punished, and not valued. She added that she could not identify anything related to good teaching in that school as discussed in the current literature of best educational practices. She stated,

> The teachers and administrators spent an inordinate amount of time trying to force the English language and basic discipline down every one's [sic] throats. I was bullied in 6th grade for being the one who constantly raised my hand, had the right answers, and blew the curve for the rest of the kids. Eventually, even the teachers got in the act, making derogatory comments ("does Miss Smarty Pants know the answer?"), which only fed into my inevitable escape into invisibility. (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

These incidents were part of the participants' negative experiences while they were in P-12 schools. I will later refer to these incidents again as I discuss the ways such background experiences related to their constructions of knowledge in coursework.

L2 learning experiences. According to the demographic survey, the majority of the preservice ESOL teachers (7) had L2 or foreign language (FL) learning experiences in their P-12 education. Based on responses to the survey, these experiences were moderate in that the experiences ranged between 200 and 1,000 hours of L2 instruction. Only Rosaline and Ruth reported that their L2 learning experiences in their P-12 education could be considered significant. There was, however, a nuance in the way both of them perceived the significance of their experiences. Rosaline had at least 1,000 hours of L2 instruction and felt that her L2 learning experiences could be considered significant in terms of quantity or amount of time of exposure to the L2. On the other hand, while Ruth received between 200 and 1,000 hours of L2 instruction, she still considered that her L2 learning experiences were significant in terms of quality, that is, those experiences engaged her cognitively and contributed to her effective learning of the L2.

In general, participants perceived that their L2 learning experiences at the P-12 level were not instrumental in a way that facilitated the way they would feel proficient in an L2. Even those who reported having significant exposure to L2 learning experiences at this level of their education did not feel they had become proficient at that level. However, Rosaline who had significant exposure during her P-12 years did feel she later became proficient in the L2 at the college level. The way her L2 learning experiences at P-12 level contributed to her proficiency at the college level is difficult to determine because she actually majored in her L2 in college.

When the preservice participants were asked whether L2 reading experiences were part of the L2 instruction they received in the P-12 education, the majority of them, (7), responded that they had moderate L2 reading experiences in terms of quantity or amount of exposure to L2 according to the demographic survey (Appendix A). Of these seven participants, five of them reported that they also had moderate L2 reading experiences in terms of duration. For L2 reading, moderate experiences ranged between 100 and 500 hours in terms of duration. Ashley and Shekinah said that their L2 reading experiences were insignificant in terms of quality; however, Shekinah reported having moderate L2 reading experiences in terms of duration. Sarah did not receive any L2 reading instruction.

In general, the participants did not report becoming proficient in their L2 reading at the level of their P-12 education according to the demographics survey. The participants' L2 reading experiences at this level were also not viewed as instrumental in promoting their proficiency in the second language reading.

L2 learning experiences at college and abroad. Participants had differing experiences learning an L2 and reading in the L2 in college and abroad. Below, I will provide a description of these experiences.

Table 2 - *Participants' Experiences Learning L2 in College and Abroad: Patterns of Interactions*

	L2 Learning Experiences at College	L2 Learning Experiences Abroad		Self-perception of How L2 Proficiency was Acquired*
		Purposeful	Incidental	
Rosaline	Spanish	No	No	College coursework
Dorcas	Spanish	Yes	No	College coursework and Study Abroad
Deborah	Spanish	No	Yes	L2 Learning Abroad
Abigail	Spanish, Hungarian, Polish, Italian, Hebrew, Russian, German, and French	Yes	No	College coursework and Study Abroad
Ashley	Spanish	Yes	No	Study Abroad
Ruth	German Swedish	Yes	No	College coursework and Study Abroad
Shekinah	French Spanish	No	Yes	Not indicated

*Note: Indicates participants' perception of the prior experiences that were directly related to their obtaining proficiency in an L2.

The participants' experiences learning an L2 at the college level and abroad offered a sharp contrast with their L2 learning experiences at the P-12 level in terms of significance and perception of proficiency. College-level L2 learning experiences were considered by six of the participants to be significant according to the demographics survey and the summer interviews. Some of these six participants reported that they felt that these experiences contributed to their proficiency in the L2 learned at the college level. But it is worth noting that some participants who felt that they became proficient at the college level also had significant and critical language learning experiences abroad, thus suggesting possible interactions between the two types of L2 learning experiences (college and abroad). Also, it is worth pointing out that the participants who majored in an L2 or learned L2s at college and who used the L2 in market or work place indicated a higher level of proficiency. For example, Rosaline and Dorcas majored in Spanish and both used the Spanish language, respectively, as manager in a company that employed many Spanish speakers and as Spanish teacher in high school. Furthermore, Abigail who learned many L2s at college and abroad said that she used those L2s as flight attendant. Generally speaking, when the participants mentioned proficiency, it is either their L2 skills to navigate academic discourse in the L2 appropriately or their L2 skills that enabled them to engage in daily interactions functionally or sometimes both (Brown, 2007). I will elaborate in sections below.

According to the demographics survey, Rosaline, Deborah, Dorcas, Ashley, and Ruth reported that they had significant L2 learning experiences at the college level, amounting to at least 1,000 hours of L2 or FL instruction. At the same time, they reported that their reading experiences as related to their L2 learning experiences were significant, too.

Abigail's responses on the demographics survey indicated that she had moderate experiences learning an L2 at the college level. But in her summer Interview, she indicated that these experiences were actually significant. Abigail explained, "When I got to college, I found that I love languages. So I take many language courses at UGA including Hebrew, Polish, Italian, Spanish, Russian, German, and French" (Interview, July 2010).

Other students' backgrounds also indicated interactions between experiences learning an L2 at college and abroad. Ashley, Ruth, and Dorcas each reported that they went abroad to learn the L2 and as a result they became more proficient in their L2 according to the demographic survey. For example, Ruth explained,

> I went to Germany and I had an amazing German teacher. I went to Germany with zero German and I came back with substantial knowledge of German and competent enough to move my ways [sic] around… On the contrary, I studied German at university, starting out with grammar, vocabulary and memorization. However, when I went to Germany I could not even utter a sentence. (Interview, July 2010)

In the excerpt above, Ruth showed that her experiences learning German in Germany enabled her to develop a functional proficiency. Dorcas shared similar experiences. She commented,

> Even after my graduation [in high school], my 4-year Spanish learning couldn't enable me to speak Spanish. After entering into college, I went to mission trip in Mexico, as part of church group. So I was able to communicate with the kids I worked with. Then I realized that…That is the first time I realized that language is a powerful tool in communication.

> Other people in my group didn't know Spanish. That's how I decided to major in Spanish at college. Spanish course in college was really difficult because there were higher-level English courses in Spanish. (Interview, July 2010)

Other participants also perceived that their L2 learning experiences abroad led to their proficiency. For example, interviews with Abigail and Deborah revealed that their experiences learning an L2 abroad contributed to their proficiency in the L2. There is, however, a difference between these two participants. Abigail reported that she went abroad with the purpose of learning the L2 whereas Deborah was exposed to the L2 incidentally and as a result learned the L2 to the point she began to feel proficient. Finally, Shekinah reported that she had experiences learning an L2 abroad but these experiences were part of her college education according to the demographic survey and interview.

While abroad, five of the participants reported critical linguistic and cultural experiences where they had felt cultural shock and were under pressure. In other words, through these incidents these participants suddenly became aware of important issues involved in cross-cultural and in L2 learning and as a result they indicated that their metacognitive learning improved. These incidents will be described in the sections below.

Critical cultural incidents while abroad. Critical cultural incidents refer to the cultural experiences that influenced the participants' worldviews while abroad. Rosaline, Abigail, Ruth, and Dorcas reported critical cultural incidents that they experienced abroad. These incidents had to do with tensions related to cross-cultural experiences, emotional struggles one had to go

through when in another country, feelings of being a minority person and of being misunderstood, cultural shock, and other related phenomena. For example, Abigail explained,

> Travelling abroad opens my mind to other people. For example, I experienced what it felt like to be a minority when I went to Egypt. Everybody was Muslim and non-White. This gave me a new perspective. I learned to communicate with people, get along with them, and be diplomatic. These are things I took away from those experiences. I do not judge other people based on my cultural understandings. I make sure I don't offend people from other cultures. (Interview, July 2010)

These various experiences were lived by these participants to a degree that triggered their meta-awareness about influences of culture on people thinking. For example, Ruth reported,

> When people of different cultural backgrounds encounter one another, the differences among them can become hidden barriers to communication. I cannot agree with this more. I learned the impact of history on communication during my first year living in Germany. Germans are continuously reminded of the affects of the World Wars. Many German university students that I became friends with claimed that they just wanted to move on from this part of their history, and others argued that it was so important to be reminded of the past in order to not repeat it again in the future. When I traveled to other countries throughout Europe, people would always question my intentions about wanting to live in a

> country such as Germany, particularly because of their history. This aspect of a cultural lens is important to remember in the classroom, because we will have students who are influenced by their country's history and this will affect communication in the classroom. (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

Critical linguistic incidents while abroad. Critical linguistic incidents refer to the linguistic experiences that influenced the participants' views and perceptions of issues involved in L2 learning. Rosaline, Shekinah, Ruth, and Dorcas also experienced critical linguistic incidents abroad. These experiences were related to unusual accent, pressure related to using an L2 properly with a native speaker of the language, feelings of being stupid or misunderstood because of lack of linguistic knowledge, and struggle to retrieve the right word and/or phrase to use in specific contexts. Ruth's example is very illustrative,

> I know the struggles of not understanding. I remember one experience in Germany when I went to buy ice cream. They seller kept asking me 'what did you say' in a way that made me feel like I was stupid. It was frustrating because a lot of my students who came to the United States are already doctors, architects. But because of the language barriers, they are treated like children. So I learned a lot of patience and understanding that I can put in the classroom. (Interview, July 2010)

These experiences made the participants become aware of struggles and difficulties involved in learning an L2. They also became aware of important issues involved in new language learning. Dorcas' example is also edifying here.

> I just went back to Spain with a group of HS students. I had an incident there because I was trying to order something in a shop. I thought I was getting my point across but the lady kept asking me the same question. It was really frustrating to me. I had an accent and I did not have nativelike fluency. Experiences such as this gave me that it is important to give sound language instruction. (Interview, July 2010)

In general, the results displayed in this section of language learning at college and/or abroad offer a sharp contrast with the participants' L2 or FL learning experiences in the P-12 education. Indeed, most of the participants appreciated more seriously their college level and abroad L2 experiences in terms of significance and impact. They noted that their feelings of proficiency were more associated with these experiences.

Academic and professional backgrounds. Academic and professional backgrounds refer to the participants' undergraduate degrees and their professional experiences before entering ESOL preparation programs. The participants' academic background varied and included applied linguistics or linguistics, major or minor in Spanish, teaching English as a second language (ESL), international relations, and business. The participants' professional background also varied, even more than their academic backgrounds. Participants had prior experiences in such roles as manager, business owner, translator and flight attendant, foreign language instructor, and ESL teachers. As will be seen in the discussions which follow, the participants' academic and professional backgrounds contributed to the proficiency of some participants in an L2.

Academic background. For a deeper description of participants' academic background, I grouped participants who had the same or more closely related background. Participants with majors in (applied) linguistics and teaching English as a second language were grouped together. Spanish majors or minor were grouped together. Participants with major in international relations were put in the same group. Finally, participants with business as a major were put in the same group. It is worth pointing out that one participant shared two groups. The participant with minor in Spanish also shared the group of international relations because she majored in Latin American Studies, which is closely associated with international relations. Below, I presented the summary table of participants' academic backgrounds.

Table 3 – *Participants' Academic Backgrounds*

(Applied) Linguistics TESL	Major/Minor in Spanish	International Relations	Business Major
Ashley Abigail Shekinah	Rosaline Dorcas Deborah*	Ruth Deborah*	Sarah Elizabeth

*Participant's minor is included as well as her major.

Three participants had their major either in applied linguistics, linguistics or teaching ESL. These participants were Ashley, Abigail, and Shekinah respectively. Ashley and Abigail whose academic background was either applied linguistics or linguistics felt themselves to be very proficient in at least one L2. Shekinah did not indicate whether she became proficient in French although she reported that her experiences learning French were authentic and critical.

As mentioned above, Rosaline and Dorcas were Spanish majors. In addition to these two participants, Deborah minored in Spanish. They all expressed proficiency in Spanish. Majoring or "minoring" in an L2 seemed to be related to these participants' perception of proficiency in their L2.

Two participants had undergraduate degrees with majors in international relations. These participants were Deborah and Ruth. Both also had L2 learning experiences abroad. These L2 learning experiences abroad contributed more to their proficiency although the nature of such experiences differed substantially. Deborah's experiences consisted of crossing the U.S.-Mexico border over the course of one semester to understand some issues affecting the relations between the two countries. As for Ruth, she went to Europe and spent two years in two European countries including Sweden and Germany.

Two participants, Sarah and Elizabeth, reported that they had undergraduate degrees with majors in business. Their experiences majoring in business seemed to offer them unique academic opportunities and to develop academically. My observational data of these two participants revealed that they were all organized and seemed to be very goal-oriented. For example, when I went to observe one of the courses in summer 2010, I asked the course instructor whether she could provide me with some course artifacts. She directed me to Elizabeth adding that she was well-organized, taking effective notes about classroom activities, and kept good record of course artifacts. These participants with business majors also appeared to have a clear idea of some specific literacy strategies, skills, or concepts associated with effective literacy instruction. This is evidenced through Sarah's reflection during a course assignment in summer 2010,

> During my first round of college and graduate school (I have a B.B.A. and M.B.A. in Corporate Finance and Marketing) I worked full time and went to school full time, so being able to do my class work in a small window of time with speed, attention, precision, and excellence was a necessity. I read fiction, newspapers, and periodicals in much the same way, and became very good at scanning and summarizing.

In general, the participants brought with them a variety of academic backgrounds. Each of these backgrounds offered the participants a range of experiences which enabled them to develop specific knowledge and skills.

Professional background. In addition to their varied academic background, the participants also brought with them a variety of professional backgrounds. Prior to entering the program, the candidates had held jobs as ESL, or foreign language, instructors, in business, and as translators or flight attendant. In this section, I will describe all the participants with background in L2/FL language instruction. I will describe the participants with professional business background and the translator or flight attendant in the following sections.

A distinctive feature of the participants' background specifically related to their teacher preparation programs was their diverse and extensive L2 teaching experiences. They served either as a regular ESL instructor, or as a FL instructor, or as an ESOL teacher substitute, or as a tutor. Some of these experiences were voluntary whereas others were not. Some of these experiences were extensive and others less so. Some of these experiences were related either to L2 instruction or to FL instruction. Finally, some of these experiences focused on adult L2

learning while others focused on child-age L2 learning. Below is the summary table of the participants' professional experiences related to L2 instruction.

Table 4 – *Participants' L2 Teaching Experiences*

Institutions Type	L2 Teaching Experiences				Foreign language Instruction
	Formal		Voluntary		
	Teaching	Tutoring	Teaching	Tutoring	
Public	Shekinah, Deborah, Rosaline, & Abigail	Shekinah	Deborah	Shekinah	Dorcas, Abigail, & Ruth
Private	Ashley	Ruth & Deborah			

L2 instruction. Five participants had ESL teaching experiences. Ashley, Deborah, Shekinah, Rosaline, and Ruth fell in this category. Ashley and Shekinah had experiences providing tutoring experiences to English language learners who were either Spanish or Korean. For these participants, these L2 teaching or tutoring experiences offered them precious opportunities to learn about issues in L2 teaching and learning. Generally, they found these experiences interesting and were able to draw important lessons.

In addition to tutoring, Shekinah had also the opportunity to teach in an elementary school. She taught Spanish students who were in 2nd and 3rd grades. Rosaline and Abigail also had experiences teaching in P-12 settings. Rosaline served as an ESOL teacher substitute and

Abigail worked with Spanish-speaking children at the elementary level through a bilingual mentorship program when she was an undergraduate student. There was one particular participant (Elizabeth) who visited ESOL classrooms because of her interest in teaching ESOL. Although all these participants did not report how such experiences impacted them, Rosaline and Elizabeth reported having learned interesting things about ESOL teaching contexts in public schools.

There is an interesting pattern among these participants. There seems to be a difference between those who had L2 teaching experiences in public P-12 schools and participants who had such experiences in a private setting. The difference seemed to reside more in the control teachers in private setting may have over the curriculum. Ruth and Deborah taught ESL in private institutions. Ruth said that she taught extensively ESL adult students how to prepare for TOEFL in a private school. In that position, she had the opportunity to learn curriculum design and planning in addition to learning important classroom management and organizational skills. In her Summer Interview, Ruth said that she was in charge and enjoyed some autonomy teaching ESL to these ESL adult students who came to the United States to pursue their studies at a higher level. Here is her comment: "I taught TOEFL preparation writing to prepare the students for [the] written portion of TOEFL and I taught in [a] Master'[s] program where I developed my own curriculum that incorporated the four skills.

Deborah had similar experiences albeit with some differences. In her interview, she explained,

> It was a little class: four women and one man. We started drinking coffee, went through books. It was informal. The woman who ran the school

> offered to mentor me a little bit. She would help me teach, help [me] become confident, and she wanted me to observe her lessons.

Deborah was able to learn about curriculum design and ESL teaching practices as she engaged in her experiences teaching ESL in a private agency. She was mentored in order to provide quality instruction to students. There was a higher degree of flexibility as far as the curriculum was concerned.

Before closing this section, it is worth pointing out that Shekinah reported that she also taught ESL to immigrant adult students. At the time of this study, she was still teaching a pre-literacy class to adult immigrants. Shekinah reported that one of the major things she learned from those L2 teaching experiences was about the importance of feedback in L2 teaching and learning. She stated,

> My best experience has been my current job…The ideal teaching environment would promote the growth of the learner as well as the educator. Students would provide feedback about their learning experience and would understand that they are valued as an individual. Teachers would be encouraged to continually expand their understanding of the feedback. (Shekinah, Reflective essay submitted as part of the admission process)

Volunteer L2 teaching/tutoring experiences. Some participants reported that they volunteered for teaching or tutoring ESL to non-native speakers of English. Deborah and Shekinah fell in this category. Deborah particularly reported having extensive volunteer experiences teaching English in a Spanish community. These experiences were part of her

undergraduate studies where they had to choose one extra component. She chose community service and served in the Spanish-speaking community mentioned above. These experiences were extensive and covered a period of two years and offered her the opportunity to be exposed to important issues in second language teaching and learning.

As for Shekinah, she reported in her summer Interview that she tutored adult ESL learners as part of her undergraduate studies. These experiences were voluntary and took place at the college level.

FL instruction. Three of the participants had experiences with FL instruction. Dorcas, Abigail, and Ruth fell in this category. Dorcas taught Spanish as an FL in P-12 schools for a couple of years. Abigail reported teaching Hungarian as a FL to university students. Finally, Ruth reported teaching EFL abroad.

Although Abigail and Ruth noted positive experiences, Dorcas pointed out that lack of motivation on students' part made her FL teaching experiences less pleasant. In her summer interview, she explained,

> But I realized that my students were not motivated to learn Spanish because they do not have to. It was just something that they had to take as a pre-requisite for college. So I began to explore the idea of ESOL teaching because I know that ESOL students are motivated to learn English. They need the language.

Dorcas' description of her experiences contrasted with the one where participants had experiences teaching ESL. Generally, the participants who had experienced teaching ESL expressed some degree of satisfaction because of what they learned through such experiences.

This is especially true of Ruth and Shekinah (see the description of their ESL teaching experiences above).

Experiences in other professions. Other participants had professional backgrounds in careers that were not education-related. Some of these experiences did, however, contribute to their prior knowledge and perspectives about their potential work as educators of English language learners. For example, Sarah and Rosaline had extensive experiences working as managers or business owners. In her summer interview, Sarah told me that she owned her own business for a long period of time. At the beginning of this study, she was in the process of selling the business in order to focus more on ESOL teaching. As business owner and manager, she had experiences working with people of various walks of life.

As for Rosaline, she wrote in the reflective essay she submitted during her admission process that she served as a manager in a private company and that in that position; she had the opportunity to mediate employees' needs and concerns. Most of the employees were Spanish immigrant workers in the United States, so Rosaline was able to use her Spanish extensively in her managerial position. In the reflective essay, she noted, "I started thinking in Spanish and was able to use the language in [the] workplace and to train the language users."

Finally, in her summer interview, Abigail reported that her proficiency in several foreign languages allowed her to become a translator and flight attendant in a major airline company. In that position, she attended flights and had to translate announcements in many languages. Before moving to the next section, I think that it might be useful to provide a synthetic table that portrays the nine participants and the four key informants selected. This table is presented below.

Academic Backgrounds/ L2Teaching before TPP	Majored in Spanish and served as ESOL teacher Substitute.	Majored in TESL. Taught and tutored both young and adult ELLs.	Majored in Spanish and taught Spanish as FL in high school.	Majored in International Relations and taught both EFL and ESL.	Majored in Linguistics and taught EFL and tutored ELLs.	Majored in Applied Linguistics and tutored ELLs.	Majored in business and observed ESOL Classrooms.	Majored in business and taught EFL.	Majored in Latin American Studies with minor in Spanish and taught ESL.
Critical Incidents during P-12 Education	Reported being exposed to inappropriate reading instructional materials				Prejudged by former teacher as unable to read in Kindergarten	Recommended for speech class because of perception of her English dialect as language deficit by former teacher	Was not believed to produce a quality poem that she actually produced	Discriminated against and inappropriately punished in middle school	Reported being exposed to inappropriate reading instruction
P-12 L1 literacy learning perspectives exposed to and degree of exposure to L2 Reading Experiences	Constructivist and Emergent Perspectives Moderate L2 Reading Experiences	Constructivist and Cognitive perspective and Insignificant L2 reading Experiences	Constructivist Emergent perspectives Moderate L2 reading Experiences	Constructivist perspectives Moderate L2 reading experiences	Constructivist Moderate L2 reading experiences	Data non-collected	Constructivist and Emergent Perspectives Moderate L2 Reading Experiences	Emergent and Constructivist perspectives Moderate L2 reading experiences	Constructivist Emergent perspectives Moderate L2 reading experiences
L2 Learning at College and Abroad	Spanish Australian English	French Sio	Spanish	German Swedish	Spanish Hungarian Polish Italian Hebrew Russian German	Spanish	German French	Hebrew	Hebrew Spanish
Critical Cultural Incidents Abroad	Experienced significant cultural shock and son went through period of silence upon returning.			Experienced cultural shock and became aware of impact of culture on thinking.	Experiences cultural awareness and worldviews change.	Experienced cultural shock and experienced cognitive dissonance			
Critical Linguistic Incidents Abroad	Experienced linguistic differences and the effects of accent	Experienced pressures using an L2 in real worlds and developed understanding of L2 learning issues.	Experienced pressures using an L2 in real worlds and developed understanding of L2 learning issues.	Experienced pressures using an L2 in real worlds and developed understanding of L2 learning issues					
Duration of Exposure to L2(s)	At 1,000 hrs of L2 learning during P-12 and 4 years of Spanish at college	Received between 200 hrs and 1,000 hrs of L2 instruction during P-12 and	Received between 200 and 1,000 hrs of L2 instruction	Received between 200 and 1,000 hrs of L2	Had between 200 and 1,000 hrs of L2s learning	Had less than of 200 hrs of L2 learning during P-12 but at least 1,000 hrs of L2	Received at least 1,000 hrs of L2 instruction during P-12	Had between 200 and 1,000 hrs of L2 learning experiences	Had between 200 and 1,000 hrs of L2 learning experiences during P-12 and
Key Informants' Theoretical Orientation to Reading Instruction	Clearly grounded in whole language paradigm	More grounded in whole language paradigm		More skills-oriented and balanced practices			More phonics-oriented		

K: Key Informants; TPP: Teacher Preparation Program

- The only African-American participant

Figure 1 - Synthetic Portrait of the Participants in Terms of Prior Experiences and Backgrounds

Prior Beliefs as related to L2 teaching/learning. The participants 'prior beliefs before their ESOL preparation program were the beliefs they developed about L2 learning and teaching as a result of learning an L2 during P-12 education, at college, and abroad; of cultural views of language learning; and of having congruent academic backgrounds (i.e., Major in Applied Linguistics) and professional experiences that facilitated the understanding of L2 teaching and/or learning issues. In other words, all the prior experiences and backgrounds described in the sections above (i.e., P-12 learning experiences) shaped the participants' beliefs. For most of the participants, these beliefs represented their entering beliefs of the participants because the survey instrument was administered in the beginning of summer 2010 when the majority of the participants, except Abigail and Ruth, began in the teacher preparation program. Abigail and Ruth started one semester earlier than the cohort that started in summer 2010.

I assessed these prior beliefs by using the Beliefs Questionnaire (Brown & Rogers, 2002). The questionnaire contains twenty (20) items (Appendix B). Instead of focusing on each item, I grouped items based on content areas or core issues (i.e., Importance of strong linguistic knowledge in language teaching). Some content areas or core issues are represented by a single item on the questionnaire. Results about such content areas or core issues are reported based on its importance in the field of language teaching. Whenever necessary, I provided relevant information in order to reveal trends or the influence of participants' backgrounds in responses provided by the participants.

Language aptitude and individual differences. All the participants believe that some people have a special aptitude for learning foreign/second languages. During one interview, one particular participant confirmed this belief. Abigail strongly believed that some people

have a special language aptitude. In an interview, she said that she learned and mastered seven foreign languages.

Related to the participants' belief about language was the belief that everybody cannot learn a foreign/second language following the same teaching techniques. The participants clearly pointed out that English language learners might vary in their learning styles and strategies.

Role of linguistics. All participants, except three, agreed that language teaching should rely on a strong base of linguistics. The participants' background seemed to play an important role in this belief (See Table 5).

Table 5 - *Language teaching should rely on a strong base of linguistics*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Ashley	Abigail Dorcas Shekinah Ruth Sarah	Rosaline Elizabeth Deborah	

Generally, almost all the participants who strongly agreed or agreed with the belief that language teaching should rely on a strong base of linguistics shared more or less similar background. In general, these were participants with undergraduate majors in applied

linguistics, linguistics, Spanish, teaching ESL or international relations. Almost all of them had purposeful experiences learning an L2 abroad and had experiences teaching an L2.

On the other hand, the three participants who disagreed with the belief that language teaching should rely on a strong base of linguistics also seemed to share almost the same background in terms of L2 reading experiences in P-12 schools or abroad. In fact, all of them indicated that they had moderate L2 reading experiences during P-12 education and no L2 reading experiences abroad according to the demographic survey. However, it is not clear whether the fact that they shared this background was linked to the belief expressed about the importance of linguistic knowledge in L2 teaching.

Integration, role, and place of language skills in L2 teaching. Another interesting finding is that all the participants believed that L2 should be taught in an integrated fashion, that is, listening, speaking, reading, and writing should be integrated in L2 instruction from day one. However, although Ruth held that belief, she also believed that these skills might be taught separately. Participants' belief about the integration of language skills was also linked to their beliefs about the role and place of listening and speaking in L2 teaching and learning.

About half of the participants believed that listening is more important than speaking in earlier stages and the other half believed the opposite view to be true (See Table 6 below). Shekinah did not express her opinion.

Table 6 – *Listening is more important than speaking in earlier stages.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	Abigail Deborah Rosaline Ashley	Sarah Elizabeth Dorcas	Ruth

The personal background of some participants seemed to play a role in their formulation in this belief. According to interviews with Ashley and Rosaline, these two participants had experiences that guided their belief that listening is more important than speaking in earlier stages. During an interview, Ashley explained that a course instructor put her on the spot to speak the L2 while she did not feel comfortable doing so and faced an emotional struggle. She believed that L2 learners should be comfortable and ready to speak before being asked to speak the L2, suggesting that listening was more important than speaking in earlier stages.

In Rosaline's case, the incident which may have shaped her response was related to her son's experiences when changing a classroom as they returned from abroad. During an interview, Rosaline explained me that after they had returned from abroad, her son went through a period of silence in class and could not speak. All her son did during that period was just listen before eventually starting to speak.

Related to the belief that listening is more important in earlier stages is whether L2 speakers should be expected to speak in the target language from day one. All of the

participants, except Ashley and Rosaline, believed that students should be speaking from the first day of learning a new language. Participants' personal background made a big difference between who believed that L2 learners should speak the L2 from day and those who did not (See Table 7 below).

Table 7 – *L2 learners should speak from day one*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Sarah Dorcas Deborah Abigail	Shekinah Ruth Elizabeth	Rosaline	Ashley

Indeed, since this belief is related to the belief that listening is more important than speaking in earlier stages, I was expecting Rosaline and Ashley not to believe that L2 speakers should speak from day one. This expectation was confirmed as shown by the Table 7. Ashley strongly disagreed with the belief that L2 learners should speak from day one because she had an emotionally painful experience while learning an L2. As for Rosaline, her son's critical experience led her to disagree with the belief that L2 learners should speak from day one. This experience led her to feel what some L2 learners might face in their classes.

The participants' belief about pronunciation may be linked to their view about L2 speaking. Except for Ashley, Deborah, and Abigail, the rest of the participants believed that striving for native-like pronunciation is a useful goal in language teaching (See Table 8 below).

Table 8 – *Striving for native-like pronunciation is not a useful goal in language teaching*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	Ashley Deborah Abigail	Sarah Rosaline Shekinah Ruth Elizabeth Dorcas	

Now, I will switch gears here and turn to another set of the participants' beliefs. I will focus on the participants' beliefs about communication in L2, meaning, and form.

Communication and grammar in L2 teaching. All the participants, except Ruth, believed that language would improve only if it is used for communication. However, when asked whether meaning is all-important in communication and form is of little importance, the participants' responses were almost evenly split.

Rosaline, Ashley, Elizabeth, and Sarah believed that meaning is all-important in communication and the remaining five participants believed form to be more important (Table 9).

Table 9 - *In communication, meaning is all-important; form of little importance*

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	Rosaline Ashley Elizabeth Sarah	Ruth Shekinah Deborah Dorcas Abigail	

It is difficult to make sense of the beliefs of some of the participants about form, meaning, and communication because a great majority of the participants believed that second or foreign language will improve when it is only used for communication (See Tables 10, 11, 12 below). At the same time, some of the participants in communicative aspect in language learning seemed to give preeminence to forms in a way that contradicts their belief about the role of meaning and communication in language learning.

Subsequent sections elaborate on such discrepancies regarding the participants' beliefs about form, meaning, and communication. It might not be surprising to note such discrepancies when we consider the fact these beliefs represent the participants' prior knowledge at the initial stage of their teacher preparation.

Table 10 - *A foreign/second language will improve only if it is used often for communication*

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Rosaline Deborah Abigail Dorcas Sarah	Ashley Elizabeth Shekinah		Ruth

It thus seems that Shekinah, Deborah, Dorcas, and Abigail's beliefs about meaning and communication were contradictory. On one hand, they believed that meaning is not all-important in communication but at the same time, they believed that an L2 will only improve if it is only used for communication. Usually, when communication is mentioned in the professional community in relation to L2 teaching or learning; we use to think of meaning making through the use of language functions (Brown, 2007). To communicate suggests that one is making meaning (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

The participants' beliefs about grammar in L2 learning are also critical. Ruth, Elizabeth, and Rosaline believed that grammar was the most important part of learning an L2 while the rest of the participants disagreed (See Table 11 below).

Table 11 - *The most important part of a new language is learning its grammar*.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	Ruth* Rosaline Elizabeth	Ruth* Ashley Dorcas Ashley Sarah	Deborah Shekinar

*Ruth agrees and disagrees

While Ruth's stance is consistent, Elizabeth and Rosaline's are not. In fact, Elizabeth and Rosaline believed that meaning is all-important in communication and that an L2 will improve when it is only used for communication. At the same time, these two participants believed that the most important part of learning a new language was grammar.

Furthermore, Rosaline and Elizabeth believed that it is important that sentences be grammatically correct when spoken. Like them, Abigail, Dorcas, and Ashley who believed that an L2 will improve if it is only used for communication also believed that spoken sentences should be grammatically correct (See Table 12 below).

Table 12 - *It is important that sentences be grammatically correct when spoken*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	Dorcas Rosaline Elizabeth Abigail Ashley	Deborah Sarah Shekinah	

Another item on the beliefs questionnaire was about the ways grammatical rules should be taught. The majority of the participants believe that grammar should be taught explicitly but Rosaline, Deborah, and Abigail believe that grammar rules should be discovered by students (See Table 13 below).

Table 13 - *Grammatical rules should be 'discovered' by students rather than explicitly taught.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	Rosaline Deborah Abigail	Dorcas Sarah Elizabeth Ashley	Ruth Shekinah

As can be noticed, only Rosaline, Deborah, and Abigail believed grammatical rules should be discovered. The other participants disagreed. It is not clear why most of participants believed that grammatical rules should be taught explicitly. During the interviews, the

participants expressed the constructivist stance. Indeed, the participants suggested that they would adopt or implement student-centered practices; which emphasize more rule discovery.

Furthermore, the beliefs of some the participants had about grammar partly shaped their part of their vision of L2 instruction. Indeed, these participants advocated that grammar is critical in learning an L2, especially during moments of confusion when students are reading aloud. Rosaline, who believed that grammar learning is the most important part of learning an L2, contended that: “Explicit grammar instruction might be needed during moments of confusion when the students are reading aloud or together. The teacher should stop and explain” (Interview, July 2010). Rosaline’s background might explain her vision about incorporating grammar into reading instruction. During member checking for example, she explained, “In school I learned very much through grammar-translation, especially at university.”

Also, Dorcas, who believed that grammatical rules should be taught explicitly, in particular believed that syntactical knowledge is the ultimate goal as illustrated in the following excerpt, “When you are speaking another language, you need to make sense and grammar correctness is important here. I think that they will need a strong grasp of grammar. That’s the ultimate goal” (Interview, July 2010).

During one interview, Ruth and Sarah also emphasized the importance of teaching structures as part of L2 instruction. Ruth; who believed that grammar is the most important part of learning an L2; said, “I will also add grammar, learning sentence structures, and writing”. Also, Sarah; who believed that grammatical rules should be taught explicitly; added, “I think

that it is important to teach structures, conversation." According to the Beliefs Questionnaire, their beliefs primarily originated in during P-12 education and college.

In general, it appears that the participants' beliefs about communication, meaning, and form contradicted one another. The participants seemed to be less consistent in the areas of communication and grammar in L2 teaching.

***L2 Writing, views, and treatment of errors*.** All the participants, except Rose, believed that student writers should get their ideas on paper and not worry about correctness. They also believed that the writing *process* is more important than the final product.

Implicit in the belief that they will not worry about correctness was the issue of errors. All the participants believe that students should be allowed to make errors and that these can be corrected later. Also, a majority of the participants believed the teacher should correct errors during oral practice. Only Dorcas and Shekinah held the opposite view.

***Vocabulary*.** The participants' responses about vocabulary are almost evenly split. Four of them believe that vocabulary is the most important asset in L2 learning but the rest of them disagreed (See Table 14 below).

Table 14 – *Vocabulary words are the most important part of learning a new language*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
	Ruth Elizabeth Sarah Dorcas	Ashley Abigail Rosaline Shekinah Deborah	

Here also, the participants' beliefs about vocabulary might influence the articulation of part of their vision of L2 instruction. In fact, based on their prior experiences (albeit with varying degrees), the participants mentioned the importance of vocabulary and grammar in L2 (reading) instruction. As far as vocabulary is concerned, the participants argued that vocabulary is important because letters and words in the L2 are different and that L2 learners do not process all words. For example, Rosaline, in an interview, argued

> I find it more difficult reading a text of the same level in L2 than in L1. I find it more difficult because the words are completely different. The same thing applies to some letters, especially when you encounter a dialect of the language. I had tried to read a couple of novels in Spanish. It was not easy. I think that in L2 instruction, such parameters need to be taken into account. Vocabulary is a big deal. Students can be allowed to use [a] dictionary while they read. (July 2010)

Ruth, too, expressed the importance of building up vocabulary as part of L2 reading instruction. Because of that lack of familiarity with L2 vocabulary, she believed that L2 instruction needs to aim at helping L2 learners build up L2 vocabulary. In order to achieve such a purpose, Ruth proposed to slow down the reading process, provide reading materials with picture illustrations (more with children), and would allow students to use a dictionary. She commented,

> I will take the reading process more slowly with them because they don't understand every word. I will ask them content-based questions. I can also show them pictures and tell them what the pictures stand for, a kind of mental association. I would use a lot of picture books more with younger students than adults. (Ruth, Interview, July 2010)

During member checking, Ruth reiterated her attachment to incorporating vocabulary into L2 reading instruction. Discussing her field experiences, she acknowledged, "I know I rely heavily on vocabulary building to increase understanding."

In addition to Rosaline and Ruth, Dorcas also mentioned the issue of vocabulary. For her, vocabulary instruction needs to be provided in an integrated fashion using context clues and meaningful exercises. She argued,

> Back to my L2 learning experience, the teacher used to give us lists of Spanish words to learn. It was just memorization. That's what I didn't really like. My understanding of the questionnaire question [Appendix B] was that vocabulary is very important in L2 learning when vocabulary is

> taught in an integrated fashion, that is, teaching vocabulary in context and incorporating it [into] meaningful exercises. (Interview, July 2010)

These participants believed that it is important that English language learners develop sound vocabulary knowledge. To illustrate how they provided vocabulary in field experiences (Appendix I), I provide a detailed lesson plan from Rosaline.

A close analysis of the background and rationale of Rosaline's lesson plan, namely of paragraphs 1, 2, and 3, shows how much she believed that her students needed to master and develop vocabulary knowledge for reading comprehension. She introduced the necessary vocabulary items on day one and continued to reinforce the students' knowledge of these vocabulary items through day three. For the students to master these vocabulary items, she embedded them in authentic learning situations where the students have the opportunity to understand how these items are used. These authentic learning situations included not only reading to the students but the engagement in hands-on activities that provided opportunities for the students to hear Rosaline use the vocabulary items and to use these items themselves.

Views of L1 and L2 Basic Processes. Most of the participants believe that L1 and L2 processes are different. Only Dorcas and Shekinah believe that these processes are the same. Interestingly, the analysis of Dorcas and Shekinah's beliefs suggests that they have the same view of L2 reading. They were the only participants who indicated they felt that L2 reading is easier.

The general view of the basic L1 and L2 processes as being different might have influenced the ways Rosaline and Ashley articulated their vision of L2 instruction although they were not the only ones to hold such a view. Indeed, Rosaline and Ashley used prior meta-

linguistic knowledge to articulate a vision that takes into account contrastive analysis. They clearly pointed out that it might be useful to compare and contrast L1 and L2 with the objective to provide an effective L2 (reading) instruction. Rosaline focused more on the structural aspects of the two languages as illustrated in the following excerpt,

> They are similar to some extent because you can use some of the techniques you use in L1 to teach in L2. You might also to the point where you need to point out how their L1 and English are different, the differences in grammar, and so on. This is a hard one. I think that it is important to compare and contrast both languages in terms of structures. (Rosaline, Interview, July 2010)

Rosaline's vision of integrating contrastive analysis into her future reading instruction might emerge from her experiences learning to read in Spanish. In fact, during the summer interview, she indicated,

> I find it more difficult because the words are completely different. The same thing applies to some letters, especially when you encounter a dialect of the language. I had tried to read a couple of novels in Spanish. It was not easy. I think that in L2 instruction, such parameters need to be taken into account.

As for Ashley, she argued that such a contrastive analysis would help identify whether L2 students might need phonetics instruction. In one interview (July 2010), she explained, "I think that it depends upon the language it is coming from and the writing system. Depending on the writing system, I think that teaching phonetics might be crucial."Ashley's background

might not be foreign to her vision of integrating contrastive analysis into her future instruction. Her academic background (major in applied linguistics) may have played a role in the way she articulated her vision. This seems to be evidenced in her mention of phonetics, which is typically an area of applied linguistics.

In summary, the participants' beliefs about L2 teaching and learning seem to be diverse and to be sometimes linked to their background. Generally, the participants indicated the source or origin of their beliefs on the Beliefs Questionnaire (Appendix B) without specifically elaborating how these experiences shaped their beliefs. However, some participants who share two or more beliefs often have a similar background.

For example, Sarah and Elizabeth shared more similar beliefs than any other pair or groups of participants. Their undergraduate major was business. Both of them believed that listening is not more important than speaking in earlier stages and that students should speak from day one. They believed that L2 teachers should be directors and that explicit grammar instruction in L2 teaching is more than leading students to discover grammatical rules. Finally, they also believe meaning to be all-important.

Ashley and Abigail, whose undergraduate majors were applied linguistics and linguistics respectively, shared similar beliefs. Both of them believed in a strong linguistic base in L2 teaching. They also believed that native-like pronunciation is not an important goal in L2 teaching and they did not believe that vocabulary words are the most important in L2 learning. Finally, they believed that sentences should be grammatically correct when spoken.

Shekinah and Dorcas also shared important beliefs about L2 teaching and learning. Both of them believed that teachers should not correct students during oral practice and that L1

and L2 processes follow the same processes. Interestingly, their views about (L2) reading are similar. They believed that L2 reading is easier than L1 reading and that critical reading is important.

Rosaline and Ashley held the same beliefs as related to listening and speaking. As mentioned above, Ashley and Rosaline had both critical experiences that affected their views of L2 listening and speaking. Both of them believed that listening is more important in earlier stages and that L2 students should not be asked to speak the L2 from day one. They also believe meaning to be all-important in L2 learning and that form is of little importance.

In the following sections, I will discuss how the participants' prior experiences/beliefs and backgrounds in general shaped the ways they learned in their teacher preparation program.

Influences of Participants' Background on the Processes of their Becoming ESOL Professionals

In this section, I will address how participants' prior experiences in general and personal backgrounds in particular influenced the ways they viewed information presented in coursework, how they processed content knowledge, and how they developed knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions. Hence, this section provides answers to my second research question: "How do Preservice ESOL teachers' prior experiences and beliefs inform and shape their process of becoming teachers in teacher preparation programs, particularly in the area of L2 reading instruction?" As I explored answers to this question, I found that the participants' prior experiences and personal backgrounds affected them in three broad areas. These include (a) understanding ESOL education, (b) conceptualizing literacy learning and the

teaching of reading, (c) development of professional dispositions for culturally relevant pedagogy.

Theme 3: Understanding ESOL education. According to the reflective essays submitted for admission, the demographic survey (Appendix A), the Beliefs Questionnaire (Appendix B), and the interviews, the participants in general said that their P-12 educational, college, and international learning experiences; experiences teaching or tutoring English language learners; and prior cultural knowledge/family experiences informed and shaped their understandings of some aspects of ESOL education (See Figure 2). These understandings were evidenced through the (a) development of their professional interests/expectations, (b) understanding of some ESOL teaching issues, and (c) understanding of and empathizing with ESOL students' struggles, needs, and perspectives.

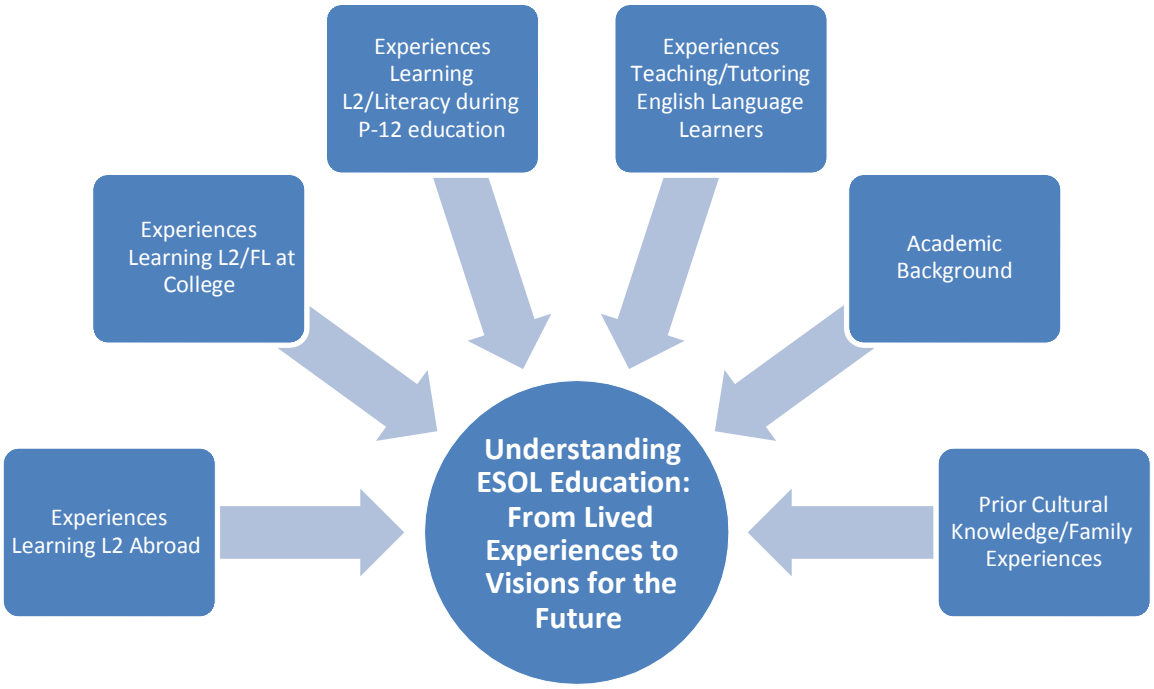


Figure 2 – Influences of Prior Experiences on Participants' Understanding of ESOL Education

Interests/expectations as related to ESOL teaching. Participants' personal background and prior knowledge shaped their interests and expectations as related to ESOL teaching. All of the participants expressed their interests for ESOL teaching because of their personal experiences with L2 and/or with other cultures. They made the decision to engage in the process of becoming ESOL teachers because of what they experienced. These experiences of the participants with L2 or other cultures were those of enjoyment, curiosity, and eye-opening and thought-provoking. For example, Ashley commented,

> "My Spanish learning experience in Guatemala enlightened me regarding language. I got into Applied Linguistics from that experience. The language and cultural experiences I went through provided me with the support I need to apply my personal background. Teaching ESOL students requires one has L2 language and cultural learning experiences." (Interview, July 2010)

Ashley's prior experiences were instrumental in the development of her professional interests and in the reinforcement of her learning in her preparation program. Like Ashley, Dorcas' linguistic experiences abroad opened her eyes in a way that spurred her professional interests.

> After entering into college, I went to mission trip in Mexico, as part of [a] church group. So I was able to communicate with the kids I worked with. Then I realized that…That is the first time I realized that language is a powerful tool in communication. Other people in my group didn't know Spanish…From those experiences, I develop a strong desire to teach

> English to non-native speakers and help them communicate well. (Dorcas, Interview, July 2010)

Also, the participants' backgrounds shaped their expectations for their programs and what they would learn in the process of becoming ESOL teachers. These expectations spurred participants' motivations and willingness to learn and develop specific knowledge and skills. The expectations were to develop the knowledge necessary or relevant for teaching ESOL students and for working with English language learners coming from various backgrounds. For example, Shekinah commented,

> I anticipate answering the following throughout the duration the course:
>
> - How does the ESOL instructor harmonize the diverse and potentially conflicting cultures within the classroom?
> - How does the ESOL instructor capitalize on the individual child's culture in order to cultivate language? More specifically, does the instructor utilize L1 to advance reading & writing in L2 within the confines of the Georgia public school system?
> - How does the ESOL instructor communicate effectively with parents who may have limited or no English language skills?
>
> My hope is that Martin and Nakayama's text, select articles, class discussion, and course assignments will answer my questions about intercultural communication in the classroom. (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

Shekina's prior beliefs or assumptions made her focus and seek answers to questions of interest to her as she engaged in coursework. I think that this kind of information was informative because it was about the reasons why some of the participants engaged more with some specific learning materials than others. She was not the only participant to have degrees of engagement associated with whether coursework met expectations or not. Ashley clearly expressed her frustrations when coursework did not match her expectations.

> I have been disappointed with some of my coursework and pleased with other coursework. Some of my classes so far have not seemed to offer me any real knowledge that I can use in the classroom while others have been exceptionally helpful. Perhaps my expectations were excessive. (Follow-up Interview, October 2010)

Although there seemed to be no explicit link between what Ashley said above and her background, the last sentence of her comment indicated her background and/or prior expectations might be influential on her perception of coursework. The influence of her background on her perception could be better understood in light of her following comment during an interview:

> With my B.A., I felt like I was not prepared to go into the classroom to teach. I learned about how we learn language and how the brain processes language. But I did not learn how to apply such knowledge in classroom. Of course, we had class on methods. But I didn't feel prepared as for how to deal with students in P-12 classrooms. This ESOL program is more focused on education whereas Applied Linguistics is about Arts and

> Sciences. Field experiences in this program will prepare me better for teaching students.

Clearly, the results above indicate that participants' personal backgrounds and prior knowledge provided a foundation for their professional interests and expectations and prompted engagement with coursework. The degree of their engagements varied depending on whether coursework did or did not meet or not their interests and expectations.

Understanding issues related to ESOL teaching. The participants also used their prior experiences to understand or to seek understanding of various aspects of ESOL teaching or ESOL classroom contexts. These understandings affected complex sociocultural and linguistic issues and classroom management and practices.

Many participants raised important sociocultural and sociolinguistic issues. One of these issues that clearly stood out was to know how to teach all students coming from various backgrounds, using immersion strategies. Their concerns were related to the complexity, the possibility, and the practicality of teaching all students or diverse students. Ruth, for instance, explained,

> In the school [where] I was a teacher, students are invited into the United States and they are asked to immerse in the culture. But those students are college adult students. With public schools, the scenario might be a little bit different. They might be forced to speak English at school. But when they go home, they might face the obligation to use the language of their parents. So I am learning how to handle issues like that. How do you handle situations where students are using their first language at home but

> English at school? These are the things I am trying to learn now. (Interview, July 2010)

Ruth's concern was related to how to reconcile home language and school language or how to bridge the gap between home and school. Similar concerns were raised by other participants although the focus was somewhat different. Deborah, for instance, used her understanding of cultural issues implicit in the American society in general to raise sociocultural issues affecting today's classroom. She asked,

> It's clear then, that the teaching of indigenous children must be rooted in the interconnectedness of all aspects of the world we live in. The question this leaves me with is, how might we teach this value in a mainstream American context – a context in which most children do not enter the classroom with an explicit understanding of their connection to others, to the earth, or to the past. (Deborah, Course Assignment, summer 2010)

Although reference to background was not apparent in the excerpt above, Deborah was drawing on her prior knowledge of typical P-12 students versus native American Indian students. She could not have made such a comment if she did not have prior knowledge of typical P-12 students. Deborah used that prior knowledge to express her concern as related to the possibility and practicality of teaching or catering for all students, using their cultural background. She expressed a need to understand how to bring together and address the cultural background of all students in a single classroom. My observational data confirmed similar concerns. I will provide an excerpt from my fieldnotes of a classroom conversation for

illustrative purposes. In the summer course focusing on reading theories and pedagogy, the following questions were asked.

> Kate: What do you do when language resources are not available when you encounter particular ELL students?
>
> Instructor: What do you do with students coming from like 20 language backgrounds?
>
> One classmate responded, "Some teachers use only English because of the many languages present in the classroom."

Throughout this classroom conversation, teacher candidates wanted to know how to handle situations where students represent various linguistic backgrounds. The participants' discussion of the ways to handle classrooms of students coming from various linguistic backgrounds led them to articulate part of their vision for L2 instruction. For example, Ruth; who expressed her struggles or concerns about bridging the gap between home language and school language; articulated the following vision: "I would recognize and capitalize on the first language of my L2 students because I believe that they can transfer their L1 skills to the L2".

Abigail shared the same vision as Ruth when she projected, "I think that I will encourage my students to use their L1 to learn and transfer that to English." Ruth and Abigail were not the only participants to suggest that they will use or draw on their English language learners' L1s. Shekinah also articulated a vision of L2 instruction that draws on students' L1s. She commented, "I don't know what classroom situations I will find myself in. But I will use L1 to support L2." Another participant who supported this vision was Elizabeth. She explained, "Have a good grasp of the native language because I was very good at English:

grammar, literature, and reading were or are not a problem for me. These things contributed to my proficiency in learning an L2."

Apart from understanding or seeking understanding of how to handle classrooms of students with various linguistic backgrounds and from the articulation of their L2 teaching vision, the participants also used their prior experiences to make sense of ESOL classroom organization. Some of these understandings concerned immersion, ESOL students' pullout or inclusion, the amount of time ESOL students should be in ESOL self-contained classrooms, and when these students need to be included in mainstream classrooms. Many of the participants, indeed, strongly believed in immersion to the point of articulating a vision of L2 instruction that takes into account immersion. Using their prior knowledge and experiences, they believed that immersion was the best way to teach ESOL students. For instance, Sarah explained,

> Immersion is also very important. My children, in their school, spend half-day learning English and the other half-day learning Hebrew. By the time they are in fifth grade, they speak fluent Hebrew and English. I think that immersion is the best way. (Interview, July 2010)

Based on her students' experiences, Sarah believed that immersion was the best way to teach English language learners. Rosaline was probably on the same page as Sarah when she mentioned during one interview, "I think that immersion is great because you can learn really quickly. …Most of my university courses were full language immersion classes so my Spanish education was extremely intense to say the least."

Other participants stressed more the conditions of immersion implementation. For example, Abigail indicated that immersion might not be good in public schools. However, she explained that immersion depends on the type of students one faces. Here is her comment,

> I think that for young children it [immersion] is great. You can take a child of 5 and within six weeks, he will start speaking the language. But with young children, this is going to be different. The materials they are learning are difficult. There is some complexity involved. I think that first L1 should be used here as a support. Overall, immersion depends on the type of students you are teaching. I can go China and learn Chinese quickly but this might not be the case for another student. Overall immersion is a great way. But in public schools where students are being tested in specific areas I don't think immersion is good, especially if it contributes to their feeling that they are totally lost. (Interview, July 2010)

Deborah also stressed the conditions for implementing immersion. But, unlike Abigail, she contended,

> I have never thought of generalization. I think it depends on whether the person is shy or not... I needed to be forced to learn a language because I was shy about speaking it. I think that if you are not shy about it then you don't need immersion." (Interview, July 2010)

So for Deborah, immersion was good to implement or might be forced on students only when they are shy. Deborah's background seemed to contribute to this belief. Indeed, she recalled during one classroom discussion in the course of Theory and Pedagogy of Reading,

"When I was growing up, I went to a school with diversity and I would come back home with a different way of talking. It makes me see how home discourse is influenced by school discourse." Like Deborah, Ruth stressed that forced immersion might be beneficial for students. Here is her comment,

> In the school I was a teacher, students are invited into the United States and they are asked to immerse in the culture. But those students are college adult students. With public schools, the scenario might be a little bit different. They might be forced to speak English at school. (Interview, July 2010)

My observational data also confirmed this pattern on the participants' and classmates' part. Below, I present an excerpt of a classroom discussion in summer. One of the classmates suggested that students end up picking up when students are exposed to full immersion. However, Shekinah, who said that her prior experiences crossing cultures inclined her to value the cultural differences among students, noted, "Immersion is ideal. But when you find yourself with students with some particular languages, you have to find ways to help."

For the most part, Shekinah and the classmate mentioned above believed immersion is instrumental in English proficiency and is ideal although Shekinah seemed to suggest additional means to help English language learners. Related to the issue of immersion was that of *inclusion*. For example, Ashley contended,

> While [an] ESL class is necessary, the students should still spend the majority of their day with their peers who speak English in order to give them a chance to interact with the language in a natural way. Valdés

> describes a school in which the exact opposite was the case. The school seemed to keep the immigrant children sheltered in ESL classes regardless of their language skills… I have not taught in public school yet but I have tutored quite few immigrant children, some Hispanic and some Korean. Once I get them comfortable enough to talk to me (something more difficult with the Korean children) they love to talk with me about anything that is of interest to them. I have found that as long as we use English in a meaningful way they are interested. (Ashley, Course Assignment, summer 2010).

Ashley believed that inclusion of ESOL students in mainstream classrooms should be as fast as possible and should be the rule, not the exception. She argued that these students' language skills should not be a barrier. Her argumentation was based on her prior experiences tutoring ESOL students. She believed that what was important was to create a comfortable environment for the students and provide them with interesting learning materials.

In addition to inclusion, the topic of classroom management and/or the role of the L2 teacher surfaced in the discussions of one participant. Indeed, Deborah said that her prior experiences shaped the way she viewed her role as authority in the classroom and the subsequent tone and ways of interacting with students. She explained,

> Let me return to my own experience as a teacher of a diverse population of 16 to 80 year-old refugee and immigrant students. When I began teaching, I was 22, and frequently the youngest person in the room. For some students, this simple fact threw a deeply ingrained hierarchical schema

> completely out of whack. Furthermore, my extreme friendliness (by Chicago standards), my informal attitude, and my playfulness in the classroom (acting out things students didn't understand, using music in lessons, or leading activities that involve art or movement) added to my inability to be a convincingly strict teacher. But the silent player in determining how I would act in the classroom was my unarticulated belief that if I acted as "the authority," I would deny my students the opportunity to learn from their mistakes and from each other. This contrasted sharply with almost all of my students' prior experiences of education and their conceptions of who a teacher should be and how that teacher should act. (Deborah, Course Assignment, summer 2010)

At first, Deborah used to manage her class and interact with her students based on the American way of doing such things, adopting an egalitarian stance in the classroom and treating students almost like peers. However, the students seemed to disagree with such a way and would like her to assert more firmly her authority in the class. Experiences such as this shaped how Deborah came to view classroom management for ESL teaching and how she processed coursework information as related to the issue of teacher's authority and classroom management.

Implicitly linked to the issue of authority and classroom management discussed above was the issue of the role of L2 teachers. According to the Beliefs Questionnaire (Appendix B), most of the participants believed that L2 teachers should be facilitators rather than directors of L2 classes. Only two participants disagreed with this belief (See Table 15 below). Participants' background seemed to differentiate participants who (strongly) believed that L2 teachers

should be facilitators rather than directors and those who held the opposite view. The participants in the former group had an L2-related major (i.e. linguistics, major in L2, or international relations) whereas the participants in the latter group both had business as an undergraduate major.

Table 15 – *L2 Teachers should be facilitators rather than directors.*

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Deborah Ashley	Abigail Dorcas Shekinah Ruth Rosaline	Sarah Elizabeth	

Although Sarah and Elizabeth believed in a strong teacher-centered L2 classroom, interview data indicated that they would place an emphasis on students' interests. For instance, Elizabeth argued,

> But I think I would incorporate some of the things I have been learning here such as incorporating the students' home language… These experiences are important and need to be respected because the children brought a substantial knowledge from home.

Those prior experiences and beliefs shaped the participants' vision of L2 instruction. As I analyzed other data, I found that the participants nuanced their role as L2 class facilitators. The participants wanted to be either mentor or coach or encourager. For example, Rosaline, in

her reflective essay submitted during the admission process said in substance: “I would like to be a mentor teacher”. Later during one interview, she added that she wanted to be a mentor teacher because she thought that as [an] ESOL teacher she needed to provide students with the support they need.

Sarah’s comment in a course assignment (summer 2010) particularly pointed to the role of “teacher as coach” although she did not explicitly mention the word coach. She noted, “Acknowledging a child's abilities and helping them transition their enthusiasm and knowledge into productive schoolwork in a safe environment should be a teacher's joy”. Sarah wanted to get students involved in a process that leads them to become productive. Like Sarah, Elizabeth actually played a more facilitative role during field experiences. Here is an illustration,

> One of the things I did in advance of the lesson was that I read some similes to the kids in Spanish and that was part of my pre-assessment… You should have seen how all them lit up when I read for them in Spanish and knowing that I don’t really know Spanish, they really appreciated that I went to the effort to pronounce it properly and that I engaged with them in that way. (Focus group, February 2011)

Abigail, on her part, envisioned her role as being a teacher who encouraged her students. She explained,

> Let me take the example of affective filter, it is part of linguistics. Learn things like that help a teacher because if I realize that this student is too much worried about making mistakes, I can take measures such as

> encouragement telling him it is OK to make mistakes. Another example is the understanding between acquisition and learning. (Interview, July 2010)

The new dimensions added by the participants to their future role as ESOL teachers are all in line with the constructivist framework. This is not surprising because most of the participants were exposed to constructivist practices as P-12 themselves students more than any other learning perspectives.

Understanding and empathizing with ESOL students' struggles, needs, and perspectives. The participants heavily drew on their prior experiences to understand, and at times empathized with, English language learners' struggles, needs, and perspectives. Almost all of the participants used their prior L2 learning or travel-abroad experiences to express such understandings. Ruth nicely captured the point about understanding these students' perspectives and struggles when she mentioned,

> I had some sensitivity when dealing with them [my students]. I could see things from their perspective. I know the struggles of not understanding. I remember one experience in Germany when I went to buy ice cream. The seller kept asking me 'what did you say' in a way that made me feel like I was stupid. It was frustrating because a lot of my students who came to the United States are already doctors, architects. But because of the language barriers, they are treated like children. So I learned a lot of patience and understanding that I can put in the classroom. (Interview, July 2010).

Ruth said that she understood the perspectives, the emotional and social struggles of ESOL students. Like Ruth, Elizabeth grappled with understanding these students' affective and

emotional struggles and needs as she engaged in field experiences. During the focus group in February, Elizabeth explained,

> Last semester, the students had little motivation and a lot of experiences with failures... I would use different strategies with these students if they were my own students. I felt that no attention was paid to them, to their emotions. There was no discussion about issues affecting them… If they were my students, I could have taken them aside, have one-on-one interview with them, assess their needs, and collect [data] as for how to support them. That connects to my experience learning German through which there was no connection. (Focus group, February 2011)

In addition, prior experiences helped participants relate to people different from themselves either racially or socially or politically and gain different perspectives or understand different world views. The following excerpt is very illustrative in this regard:

> They [travel-abroad experiences] help me relate to my students in ways that are totally different from what might be my relations to my students if I had not had those experiences…They [the program] want to make sure that we have the cultural awareness, the sensitivity, and that we know the struggles, the rewards, and the benefits of being an L2 learner. Let me take the example of [my state when I was a student], we have many excellent teachers there. But because they have never travelled outside the country, they cannot be excellent ESL teachers. Being an excellent ESL teacher

> requires on the part of the teacher the necessity to go through similar experiences. (Ruth, Interview, July 2010)

In the same vein, Rosaline concurred, "My cultural experiences helped me relate not only to people from other countries but also people from other races, classes, other political views, and other things" (Reflective essay submitted during admission).

Abigail expressed almost the same view although she emphasized seeing things from the perspectives of people different from hers. She commented,

> They [prior experiences] make me more aware of other cultures and give more understanding. I feel like I have a doorway to other people's world. When I meet somebody from another culture I can speak their language. It broadens my mind and makes me think about things differently because different languages express ideas differently… (Interview, July 2010)

Furthermore, participants such as Ashley, Rosaline, and Dorcas specifically focused on ESOL students' affective and linguistics needs because of their backgrounds. In her admission reflective essay and during one interview, Ashley explained that she could understand the affective needs of ESOL students because of her own experiences learning an L2. Later, during the summer interview, Ashley crystallized her belief saying,

> I came to this conclusion based on my own experience. I took Chinese at the college level. During my Chinese learning experience, I did not find reasons why I should learn Chinese here. So I was not motivated. But if I [were] in China, I could have been more motivated to learn. I did think that motivation is the most important factor. Without motivation, you can't

> learn at all. In the United States here, there is reason and motivation to learn English: you want to speak the language.

For Ashley, motivation was crucial in learning an L2. Without the fuel of motivation, she believed that learning an L2 was doomed to failure.

As for Rosaline, she specifically pointed to English language learners' linguistic needs. Rosaline explained that her L2 learning experiences equipped her to understand those needs as she argued,

> Because of my background with a second language and my ability to relate to people from other cultures I feel like I would be a great ESOL teacher candidate. I also understood some of the barriers non-native speakers may encounter such as deciphering accents, rapid speech and idioms. (Rosaline, Reflective essay submitted during admission)

This understanding of students' linguistic needs shaped her sensitivity and thinking during field experiences. Her post-teaching reflection during fall 2010 illustrated that pattern, "I believe the students were clarifying some confusion from the story with each other at that point. I am not sure that I would have discouraged the use of Spanish, but I would have brought their attention back to the story. During the focus group in February 2011, Rosaline further explained in substance, "I can relate to the students' struggles [in processing information]. My background learning a second language led me to show empathy to the students [during my field experiences]."

Another participant who used her prior experiences learning an L2 to understand English language learners' linguistic needs was Dorcas. She explained,

> They need the language. Now, I started looking at the flip side of that: I want to help children be able to communicate in English… From those [prior] experiences [realizing especially how language is a powerful tool in communication], I develop a strong desire to teach English to non-native speakers and help them communicate well. Teaching ESL is like empowering students and giving them a voice. I don't want language to be a barrier to their success. (Interview, July 2010)

In Dorcas' comments, she believed that the students need the English language because of issues of power and success in society. Indeed, Dorcas suggested that the English language is a powerful tool or the key to their (academic, economic, and social) success. She also implied that the English language is necessary for her students to participate in the political process or in the democratic debate.

In sum, the participants used their prior experiences learning an L2 to understand English language learners' potential struggles and needs. These needs are social, emotional, affective, and linguistic. The needs are social because the students need to interact and communicate with other people in the society. They also need to participate in the political processes or in the democratic debate. The needs are emotional because incompetence using the language puts English language learners in situations of inferiority and frustration. The needs are affective because the students need motivation to learn a new language.

Theme 4: Conceptualizing literacy learning and the teaching of reading. The participants' prior literacy learning experiences during P-12 education, their prior L2 learning experiences at college, and academic background informed and shaped their conceptualization

of literacy learning and the teaching of reading (See Figure 3 below). In fact, these experiences shaped the ways they processed theories related to literacy learning presented in coursework and the ways they used those theories to understand lived experiences. These experiences also informed and shaped their views of reading, and their vision of reading instruction.

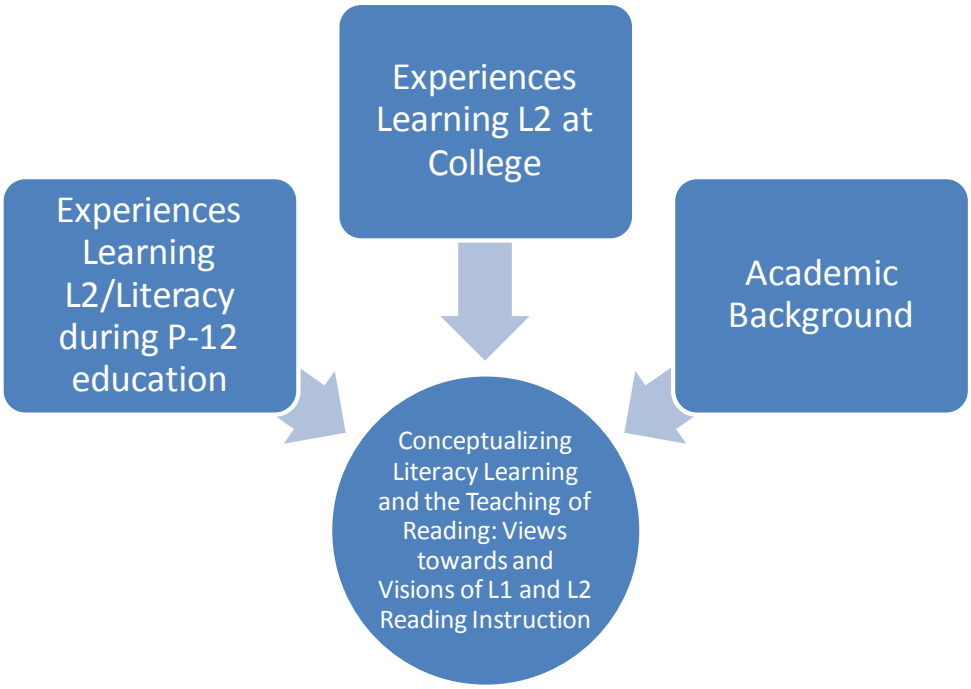


Figure 3 – Influences of Participants' Prior Experiences on their Conceptualizing Literacy Learning and the Teaching of Reading: Views towards and Visions of L1 and L2 Reading Instruction

Transactional relationship between theoretical/philosophical knowledge and lived experiences. In the literacy histories submitted for a course assignment during Phase I, the participants made connections to the theoretical perspectives evident in their backgrounds. In order to characterize the nature of their background experiences, I charted the frequency of

theories cited in these papers. According to the frequencies of their citations, all the participants' reading experiences were more anchored in the constructivist framework (See Figure 4 below). Both at home and at school, they had literacy experiences emphasizing the social and constructive nature of reading and writing.

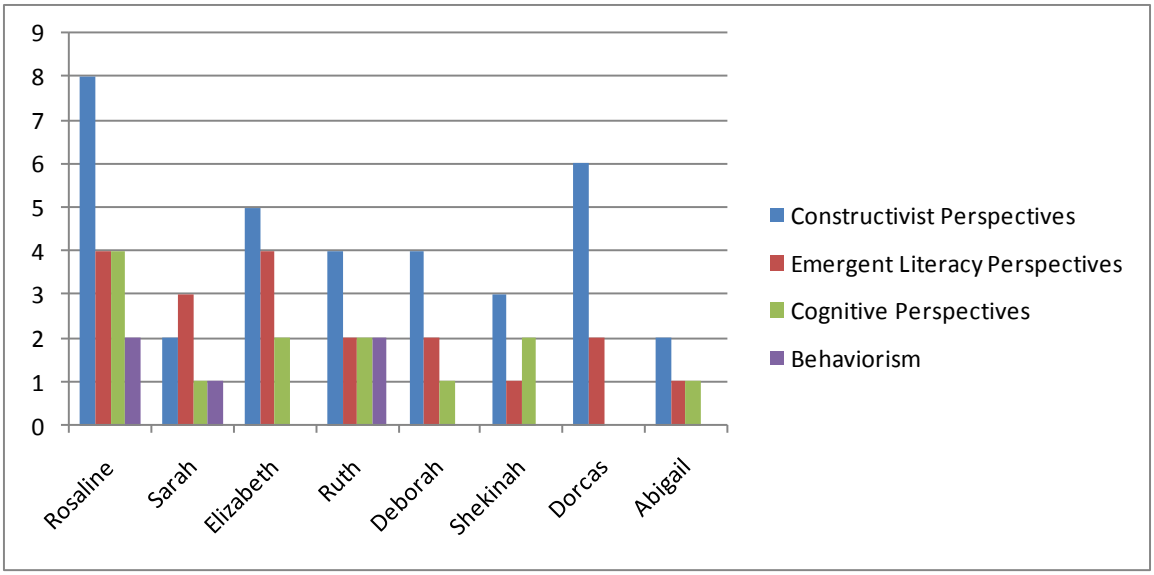


Figure 4- (Literacy) Learning Perspectives Encountered by Participants as P-12 Students

As one may notice, constructivist or sociocultural perspectives were the perspectives most frequently cited by each of the participants. These perspectives generally emphasize learning as a result of social interactions and observations on one hand and of collaboration and inquiry on the other. In their citations, participants also emphasized the ways individual unique experiential capital shaped their responses to literature or texts and the importance of authentic and meaningful activities in promoting literacy development. I noticed specifically that Vygotsky's social constructivism was the constructivist theory most frequently mentioned. Other constructivist-oriented perspectives or theorists within the constructivist perspective cited by the participants to describe their experiences included Rosenblatt's reader response

theory, Dewey's social constructivism, whole language theory, and Bandura's social cognitive. The participants used these theories as part of their reflections on their own background. For instance, Deborah recalled one reading experience during her education,

> Vygotsky's "zone of proximal development" must play a key role in discussion of my experience with reading The Odyssey, as the story fell beyond the zone in which I could learn without becoming frustrated. Vygotsky's emphasis on the use of scaffolding is also relevant. While some might feel that Ms. Campbell scaffolded the reading assignment by directing more advanced readers to read and allowing struggling readers to listen, others might contend that the scaffolding became ineffective because of over-reliance on this student read-aloud format, and because the activity did not target the zone of proximal development. (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

Deborah cited Vygotsky as part of reading experiences in P-12 classrooms. In that experience, Deborah was explaining that the way her former teacher used scaffolding (usually associated with Vygotsky's work) which did not promote her reading effectiveness. She suggested that one of the reasons was that the teacher did not target her zone of proximal development.

Dorcas' experience is worth recalling here, too. Using her understanding of Rosenblatt's transactional theory, Dorcas related her experiences during a reading instruction class,

> Mrs. Galley also recognized the validity of Rosenblatt's Transactional Theory which states that "all readers have individualized reading experiences because each reader has unique background schemas" and allowed us to process our individual transactions with our chosen texts through journaling. (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

Through reflection on her experience, Dorcas recognized her former teacher used classroom approaches consistent with Rosenblatt's transactional theory. In Mrs. Galley's class, she and her classmates were able to record in their journal their personal responses when transacting with chosen texts in. Similarly, another participant recalled discussing literature together with classmates and drew on both Rosenblatt and Dewey as she appreciated the nuances of that experience. Rosaline wrote,

> Dewey, who was a constructivist, advocated for collaboration and emphasized the role of the environment in the learning process; we sat at a table together in order to promote social learning through collaborative discussions about the concepts in the novel. Rosenblatt who was also a constructivist said people have reactions to text that are either efferent or aesthetic in nature. (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

Rosaline narrated one of her reading experiences during P-12 education. She explained the way her former teacher used Dewey' constructivism to provide them with learning experiences through collaborative discussions. Rosaline also cited Rosenblatt as part of that experience because of the use of aesthetic or efferent reactions to texts.

In addition to the mention of the constructivist in general by the participants, Elizabeth in particular mentioned whole language as part of her literacy learning experiences. She recalled,

> Mrs. Keng's classroom was a model of Whole Language Theory. She used every creative avenue at her disposal to teach literacy. She used guided reading with us, taught us the Fifty States Song as a mnemonic device, played games, helped us make art associated with reading materials, and encouraged us to read at home...(Course assignment, summer 2010)

In addition to constructivist perspectives, some participants drew on emergent literacy theories as they recalled their literacy histories. These perspectives explained how literacy learning experiences took place in childhood and the role that family literacy practices play in promoting children's literacy development. The text these participants used in their class described emergent literacy perspectives as explaining how literacy development occurs and the potential stages it follows (Tracey & Morrow, 2006). As part of the emergent literacy perspectives, participants cited emergent literacy theory, family literacy, Holdaway's literacy development theory, maturation theory, and a stages model. Participants referenced those theories to understand their early reading experiences. For instance, Sarah wrote, "Emergent Literacy Theory, with its stress on the home as a critical birthplace of literacy learning, also came into play even though the actual act of reading occurred in a different physical location [library]." (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

Although Sarah did not apparently mention a specific reading experience, she seemed to indicate how she encountered emergent literacy theory in her childhood. This experience took place in a library where Sarah's mom took her as a child to learn to read. Below, another participant made connection to reading in her home.

> We had a library in our own home, and my father was a voracious reader. I learned to read at the age of six by imitating my father, who always relaxed with a book in hand. The literacy activities engaged in by my family and the intellectual climate of our home fostered my literacy growth, consistent with Family Literacy. (Elizabeth, Course Assignment, summer 2010)

In this excerpt, Elizabeth narrated her experiences of having a family environment rich in literacy print and activities. She pointed to the existence of a library and the ways her dad served as a role model for her.

The next perspectives, most cited by the participants, were the cognitive perspectives. These perspectives were also constructive in nature but they emphasized more the ways learning takes in the mind using prior experiences and knowledge. According to these participants' course text (Tracey & Morrow, 2006), cognitive perspectives also explained the ways knowledge is best acquired by emphasizing knowledge organization into mental chunks or units and how the experience of being aware of the way one learns improves knowledge acquisition. Included in these perspectives and in order of citation (from the most to the least), I noticed schema theory, Piaget's cognitive theory, psycholinguistic theory, and metacognition. Elizabeth's example illustrates the predominance of schema theory,

> According to Schema Theory, a constructivist theory, people organize everything they know into schemas or knowledge structures (Tracey & Morrow, 2006). Everyone's schema is individualized and affects the understanding of a topic. Children use existing schemas to learn new information on related topics. The small poetry book was part of my home schema, and I used it as a model to practice a new task, writing my own poetry. (Course Assignment)

As we see, Elizabeth was using her understanding of schema theory to explain one of her literacy experiences during her P-12 education. Similarly, Abigail used one of the cognitive constructivist perspectives to explain her literacy development. She wrote,

> According to the interactive model of cognitive processing (Tracey & Morrow, 2006), higher level processing (such as comprehending) often assists lower level functioning (such as decoding and word identification). While I read and played music, multiple cognitive processes were occurring (such as syntactic and orthographic processing), because I had to read and decode the music notes, read and comprehend the Latin words marking dynamics, and play the notes simultaneously. (Course Assignment)

Behaviorism was the literacy learning perspective least cited by the participants. It was only mentioned by three of them. Behaviorism is a learning perspective emphasizing that specific learning outcomes take place as some particular conditions or when specific stimuli are provided. Indeed, according to the participants' course text mentioned above, behaviorism

emphasizes that learning can take place through repetition and stresses direct instruction. Ruth's quotation of this learning perspective provided a good example,

> Ivan Pavlov and John Watson would praise my grandfather and his work in encouraging me to read. Classical conditioning theorists believe that in order for a child to enjoy the act of reading they have to have positive experiences connected to reading. (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

Ruth cited as part of her reading experiences classical conditioning theory which is a form of behaviorism. In her experiences, Ruth's grandfather provided her with the stimulus of positive reading experiences which consequentially inspired or ignited her love for reading. Elizabeth and Rosaline also cited behaviorism as part of their literacy learning experiences during P-12 education. Here is Elizabeth's comment,

> I would briefly like to mention the intervention of Mrs. Ann Duncan, from whom I learned all that I know of grammar. Mrs. Duncan was an "old school" English teacher who focused more on grammar than on reading. Her teaching style fell in line with Behaviorist Theory, as she continuously and emphatically rewarded grammatically correct work with positive written and verbal feedback for jobs well done. Mrs. Duncan always engaged in direct instruction and taught the sequenced grammar skills necessary to write effectively. She encouraged students to work independently, but was available to provide guidance when needed. It was in her class that I first learned how to compose proper personal and

> business letters, now a dying art. (Elizabeth, Course Assignment, summer 2010)

Elizabeth was making sense of behaviorism in the excerpt above. She drew on her former teacher's practices to make sense of theoretical knowledge presented in coursework. In other instances, these theories help them relive and gain more understanding of their own experiences as P-12 students. For example, Rosaline explained,

> The Junior Great Books program drew upon theory. Our teacher used direct instruction, which is behaviorism, when she asked comprehension questions. Tracey and Morrow (2006) described one component of direct instruction; "Teachers explicitly focus children's attention on specific reading concepts such as phonics, vocabulary, and comprehension skills..." (p. 40). Junior Great Books also borrowed from social constructivism and constructivism which emphasize the individual's active participation in and the social nature of learning (Tracey & Morrow, 2006). Dewey, who was a constructivist, advocated for collaboration and emphasized the role of the environment in the learning process; we sat at a table together in order to promote social learning through collaborative discussions about the concepts in the novel. (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

In Rosaline's case, she used theories and concepts presented in coursework to make sense of lived experiences. The theories and concepts mentioned in her instance were behaviorism, social constructivism, active participation, and collaboration. Deborah was on the

same page as Rosaline when she said during one class discussions in summer, “I have come to class knowing a lot of techniques, but [now] I understand why [the rationale behind them].”

In other words, there was a transactional relationship between theories and lived experiences. Participants’ growing understanding of literacy theories were made concrete through their reflections back to their lived experiences. At the same time, their own appreciation for childhood literacy practices became more complex and informative as they interpreted those practices through theoretical lenses. Dorcas put it nicely, “They [prior experiences] help me process some of theories learned in the class. Conversely, the class helped me reflect back to those experiences academically.” (Interview, July 2010)

Without prior experiences and knowledge, it would probably be more difficult to make sense of the theories and concepts being addressed in coursework. In the case of the participants, experiences with teaching which were used as a touchstone were mostly those encountered when they were P-12 students.

Another pattern that emerged in the data was that prior experiences contributed to the articulation of teaching philosophy. Although only Sarah showed such a pattern, I believe that it is worth pointing this out for a couple of reasons. First, Sarah mentioned several times how her teaching philosophy was driven by prior experiences. Second, given the fact that the second research question explores how prior experiences shaped preservice ESOL teachers learning to teach, I believe that better understanding of how teaching philosophy was driven by such prior experiences would be interesting. Let me pull a piece of data from Sarah’s data to illustrate the pattern. The excerpt came from her reflections after teaching her ESOL peers in the program.

> Actually, I was taken aback by how poorly the exercise was going in proving my point about historical contexts. I learned a number of valuable lessons which I know will be helpful one day in the classroom. First of all, I didn't spend enough time thinking about the audience. Of course, as each generation moves further away from their ethnic group's migration to the United States, there will be a higher percentage of multi-generational families that are US born. I also made some assumptions based on accent and physical appearance that didn't hold quite true (one of our classmates who I assumed was foreign born was actually a multi-generational Alabaman). I felt like I knew the material, but as the exercise started slipping away from me, I got a bit flustered in the content and lost a bit of the point. And I realized afterwards that I was in this for the long term, not the expert who comes in from 50 miles away with a briefcase, alights for a few moments of wisdom, and disappears 60 minutes later - which means that you have far fewer opportunities for forgiveness when you mess something up. (Lucky for me the Power Exercise at the end worked so well!)... Realizing that some things work well and others don't, and having the sense to be reflective instead of reactive are 2 hallmarks of a good teacher. (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

In the excerpt above, Sarah was reflecting on a teaching experience during her cultural class in summer. Sarah’s prior experiences or beliefs in the form of assumptions shaped the ways she implemented her lesson and why she felt that she failed along the way. The course assignment provided her the opportunity to draw on that background in order to develop her

professional knowledge as she attempted to develop a teaching philosophy. For Sarah, a good teacher has to realize that certain things work in classroom and others do not. As a result, a good teacher has to be reflective. Sarah was able to articulate such a teaching philosophy because of prior experiences.

In general, these results suggest a number of things that I need to point out briefly here. First, the participants were aware of the theoretical perspectives or philosophical assumptions underlying the teaching practices of their former teachers or of people who intervened in their life for educational purposes. It is interesting to note that the participants largely related their experiences to constructivist perspectives.

Second, the participants used their background to understand theoretical knowledge being presented to them in coursework or to develop a teaching philosophy. They also used theories to understand lived experiences in such a way that that there was a transaction between theoretical/philosophical knowledge and lived experiences.

To sum up, the participants used their prior experiences to make sense of theories and concepts presented in coursework or to articulate a teaching philosophy. Their prior experiences served as support for learning or making sense of new information. In retrospect these theories and concepts helped them make better sense of their lived experiences. So there was a transaction going on between the participants' lived experiences and theoretical, philosophical, and at times, conceptual knowledge being addressed in coursework. Lived experiences served as support or were instrumental in such a transaction. In other words, such a transaction would not be possible without lived experiences.

Views of reading and visions of reading instruction. Generally, participants' prior experiences learning literacy and reading in an L2 during P-12 education and reading in an L2 at college and abroad contributed to the ways the participants viewed reading and articulated their vision of reading instruction. Using such experiences, almost all the participants discussed issues as related to meaningfulness and authenticity, students' interests and motivation, and whole language adoption in relation to L2 reading instruction. They indicated that finding out about students' interests and providing them with reading materials related to their interests and that are meaningful is crucial. They believed that such a strategy promotes students' love of reading and literacy. Reading needs to be a natural thing to do. The following excerpt illustrates the point well,

> I will teach them that reading is a natural thing to do. That's how I grow experiencing reading. Like you eat, you read, you grow. I will teach based on what interests them, what they find fascinating. I will make it authentic... I will have them read to accomplish tasks instead of reading to decode, reading to accomplish certain things such as using a recipe. (Shekinah, Summer Interview, July 2010).

Clearly, Shekinah seemed to be situated in the whole language paradigm by her insistency on reading as "a natural thing," "what interests them," and "make it authentic". On the other hand, Shekinah expressed a lesser interest in reading to decode.

Shekinah's vision of reading instruction was clearly grounded in her home literacy experiences. In one of her course assignments, this pattern was clearly revealed, "My

development as a reader coincided with the natural growth I underwent from infant to adult… Reading was a natural part of our lives akin to eating, and that is not a metaphor."

Furthermore, Shekinah said that her L2 learning experiences influenced the choice of instructional materials for her ESOL students during field experiences. In substance, she explained,

> I think [of] my personal language learning experiences by being exposed to meaningful language…I think that for a lot of students in my class, they think that the English they are exposed to was not meaningful for them because it is too academic. It doesn't seem relevant to their life… [Because of that] I selected a book that they quickly identified themselves with. They were excited about it. So we need to make it meaningful and applicable for their everyday life. (Focus Group, February 2011)

Authentic and meaningful learning experiences characterized Shekinah's background either as a child learning to read or as an L2 learner. Her comments above are illustrative in this regard.

In the same vein, Ruth expressed her preference for providing their future students with interesting reading materials and an authentic literacy environment to promote their students' literacy learning. For example, Ruth commented,

> I envision having a big library in my classroom where students can go and choose books they like. They can choose the books they are interested in. I don't want to force them. I want them to choose and read freely. This applies for both L1 and L2 students. (Summer Interview)

Ruth's vision of reading might be linked to her childhood literacy experiences with her grandfather. Here is her comment in one of her course assignments,

> Every Wednesday afternoon during second grade grandpa Schneider would pick up me up from school and we would drive to one of two locations, the bowling alley or the Bentonville Public Library… the library trips with my grandpa are very clear memories that have affected my view on the importance of reading and literacy… During our library visits he would allow me to go by myself to the children's section to pick out my books for the week.

Furthermore, an analysis of Ruth's post-teaching reflections suggested that her prior experiences learning an L2 shaped her reading instruction in other unique ways. For example, in one of these reflections, she explained,

> My German teacher did not pick texts that particularly sparked an interest in me. My German teacher focused primarily on vocabulary repetition and memorization to advance our reading skills. I believe that this type of instruction [her own instruction] paired with student interest can really inspire our students to love and enjoy the process of reading during our class time reading instruction. I hope I was able to inspire my students to enjoy reading newspapers and informational texts through this lesson.

Through this comment, Ruth indicated that she designed and implemented reading instructional practices that took into account what she perceived as ineffective instructional practices of her former teacher. Interestingly, Ruth's childhood experiences learning to read

also emphasized the choice in book selection and reading. She enjoyed having the choice to read what interested her when she was a child.

Another childhood reading experience that might have shaped Ruth's reading instruction to her students during the field work was the modeling provided by her grandfather. Indeed, during one of her reflections on a coursework assignment, Ruth recalled, "Ivan Pavlov and John Watson would praise my grandfather and his work in encouraging me to read …My Wednesdays with grandpa Schneider forever changed my life and view on reading. Grandpa modeled reading as an enjoyable experience." To understand how such experiences shaped her reading instructional practices to ESOL students, I provided another comment from one of her post-teaching reflections, "In order to prepare the students to write their own informational texts it was important to me to model and expose them to examples of informational texts from local and online newspapers."

Rosaline also mentioned the importance of authentic materials through her emphasis on the adoption of a whole language approach in particular. She stressed the use of authentic literature and context clues. She commented,

> I think that L2 reading instruction should be taught within the whole language framework, using authentic literature. We need to avoid teaching from worksheets. The second thing is to teach children how to use context clues, words they do know (Summer Interview, July 2010).

Rosaline's vision of reading instruction might be linked to her extensive exposure to constructivist literacy practices. Rosaline was the participant with most experiences with

constructivism (See Figure 4). She cited diverse stripes of constructivism (i.e., Vygotsky's socialcultural constructivism) eight times.

Close analysis of Rosaline's instruction during field experiences point to a whole language approach and language experience approach both in fall and spring (See Appendix I). First, one of the salient characteristics of Rosaline's instruction was the high integration of reading, listening, speaking, writing, viewing, sensing, and drawing in fall as illustrated below,

> This unit addresses the four domains of language, speaking, reading, writing, and listening, which are equally important for second language acquisition. The lesson is grounded in theory and addresses aspects of schema theory, emergent literacy, whole language, behaviorism, and constructivism. I have written the lesson from two perspectives: a language experience approach and a literature based approach. Authentic children's literature serves the purpose of expanding the students' knowledge of key vocabulary, reading fluency, and oral skills. Planting the radish seeds serves as the authentic activity upon which a subsequent writing activity is built. I believe that students learn best when the learning environment is rich with authenticity and purpose and posits the students as meaning makers. Day one begins with an introduction to key vocabulary supported by realia and the reading of Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash. Students will retell the story and then plant radish seeds. After planting the seeds the students will fill in a sequence of events graphic organizer about how to plant seeds (Lesson plan, fall 2010 practicum)

Also, as mentioned above, Rosaline used a lot of authentic activities and realia (radish seed planting and use of vegetables (i.e., squash or radish). This is consistent with a whole language paradigm which emphasizes authentic and meaningful activities (Tracey & Morrow, 2006). By reading for meaning to the students, Rosaline also showed that her instruction was anchored in a whole language approach. Meaning-making was integral to this approach to reading instruction (Deford, 1985).

Furthermore, by using different centers (Appendix I) such as the reading center, computer station, and the working table, Rosaline clearly anchored her instruction in the whole language paradigm (Tracey & Morrow, 2006). The different centers and or stations complemented one another and were indicative of authentic literacy experiences.

At the center of the whole language paradigm were students' interests. There is no authenticity without giving students opportunities to explore their interests. This explained why some participants articulated their reading instruction around interesting reading materials. For instance in one interview, Sarah expressed almost the same view as far as interesting materials are concerned. She said: "The first I want to make sure to implement in my reading instruction is get interesting materials for my students." Sarah's vision of reading might also be linked to her childhood reading experiences as she wrote, "I was a kid who walked around with my nose buried in a book" (Course Assignment, summer 2010).

Dorcas also stressed the importance of authentic literature. She said that students should be encouraged to share their reactions to authentic literature after being modeled a similar practice from teachers. Here is an excerpt from her data,

> Independent reading and personal reactions should be encouraged in the ESOL classroom. Students should be given choices about what books they read whenever possible and teachers should incorporate activities that encourage students to reflect on their reading experiences and responses to literature. Teachers should share their personal reactions to literature and appreciate students' personal responses to books and other material read in class. Students should take responsibility and pride in their interpretation of literature as a way to promote a love of reading. (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

All the features Dorcas mentioned in relation to the way she viewed reading instruction reflect the whole language approach. The use of authentic literature and personal reactions as well as the use of context clues point to such an approach.

Other characteristics of the participants' vision of reading instruction included the integration of language skills/processes, high-order literacy instruction, and strategic instruction. Indeed, using their prior knowledge of their reading process or their prior meta-linguistic knowledge, participants indicated that they would integrate some aspects or all the language processes/skills in their L2 (reading) instruction. They also indicated that high-order literacy processing and strategic instruction are vital. A couple of these participants advanced reasons for such an integration including the fact that each skill plays a significant role or that all language skills depend on one another. For example, Abigail argued, "I think that it is important to set up the child in a way that integration of the 4 skills is part of the process. All the skills depend on one another. The most important thing is to get them comfortable" (Summer Interview, July 2010).

Deborah shared a similar view in one interview as she contended: “I think that we need to integrate all the language skills.” Ruth echoed a similar theme by pointing out that each of the skills had a unique role in the second language learning. Here is her comment, “Furthermore, I think that listening, speaking, reading, and writing need to be integrated in L2 teaching because each of them play a significant role in language learning” (Interview, July 2010).

During field experiences, Rosaline emphasized the integration of the language skills and actually integrated them into her L2 reading instruction as discussed above. The following excerpt from her lesson plan shown above is illustrative of such an integration of language skills/processes in her reading instruction, “This unit addresses the four domains of language, speaking, reading, writing, and listening, which are equally important for second language acquisition.”

The analysis of all the participants’ beliefs about L2 (reading) teaching and learning indicated that they all believed in the integration of language processes/skills. This analysis thus suggested that their beliefs certainly shaped their vision about integration of all language processes/skills in their future reading instruction.

In addition to the issue of integration of L2 skills/processes in L2 (reading) teaching, some participants used their prior experiences to argue that high-order literacy processing and that strategic instruction are vital. Concerning high-level literacy processing, Sarah commented,

> During my first round of college and graduate school (I have a B.B.A. and M.B.A. in Corporate Finance and Marketing) I worked full time and went

> to school full time, so being able to do my class work in a small window of time with speed, attention, precision, and excellence was a necessity. I read fiction, newspapers, and periodicals in much the same way, and became very good at scanning and summarizing. I believe that being able to multi-task, process large amounts of information, summarize, and know where to find information is a critical skill in today's print and information rich world. (Sarah, Course Assignment, summer 2010)

Sarah emphasized that high-level literacy processing is important because she believed that today's society requires it. An analysis of Shekinah's post-teaching reflections also seemed to reveal that she used her background (the importance of high-level and critical thinking) to assess her own teaching. For example, during her reflection on her lesson to the ESOL students in fall 2010, Shekinah commented, "This lesson did not scaffold higher level thinking, nor did it engage the students holistically. I could have had them dramatize the dialogs, which would have added an element of authenticity."

As far as strategic instruction is concerned, Ruth argued that it might be needed because students might not know or have strategies that might be useful for effective reading. She explained,

> L1 reading takes place at a younger age whereas this is not necessarily the case for L2 learners. When I learned German, I was already an adult and had already reading strategies in my L1. I will teach strategies to my students because they will be younger. The rationale behind this is that I

> don't know whether my students have already such strategies in their L1. (Interview, July 2010)

Ruth's reading instruction during field experiences confirmed her vision of integrating strategic reading instruction into her teaching. Below, I provided a brief description of her reading instruction during field experiences in spring 2011.

> First, I will tell you what inspired me to provide this reading instruction. In our book Strategies that work, I just have to read this. It reads: "visualization is all about inferencing meaning…When readers visualize, they are actually constructing meaning by creating mental images. Teaching children to construct their own mental images when reading non-fiction helps them stop, think about, and understand the information." I really like this because I am a visual learner. (Focus Group, February 2011)

The excerpt above clearly showed that Ruth's strategic reading instruction stemmed from her background as a visual learner. In her post-teaching reflections in spring, she wrote,

> I am a visual learner. I am constantly building and creating mental pictures in my head as I read. This is also one reason why I wanted to try this lesson. I feel that this strategy has helped me to become a more proficient reader and therefore, thought that this would be a good tool or strategy to teach my students.

Above, I talked about how prior experiences of two participants shaped their vision of reading instruction. Some participants used their prior experiences to articulate an L2 teaching

vision that emphasized the integration of L2 skills or processes. Also, the vision of reading instruction articulated by these participants incorporated high-order literacy processing or high-level reading processes and strategic instruction.

In summary, some participants' prior knowledge of the reading process or prior meta-linguistic knowledge shaped their vision of L2 (reading) instruction. These participants believed that all language skills or processes need to be integrated while providing language instruction including L2 reading instruction. Clearly, the participants' approach to L2 reading instruction was mainly grounded in constructivism in general and in a whole language paradigm in particular. This is obvious through their emphasis on students' choice, interesting and meaning materials, context clues, authentic literature, personal reactions to literature, integration of language processes/skills, and higher-order and strategic instruction. The participants' approach to reading instruction is not surprising when one considers the literacy instructional practices they were exposed to as P-12 students. They were mostly exposed to practices stemming from a constructivist framework of which whole language theory is a part (See Figure 4).

However, the participants' experiences with L2 reading were another story. As mentioned in a previous section, most of the participants did not have substantive L2 reading experiences. When compared with their L1 reading experiences, the participants considered their L2 reading experiences to be very insignificant in terms of amount, scope, and quality. If they had any significant L2 reading experiences, these were generally at the college level. This was especially true for those with a major or minor in Spanish (Rosaline, Dorcas, and Deborah). Ruth and Ashley also had significant L2 reading experiences abroad according to the demographic survey.

Generally, the participants were not as confident describing their L2 reading experiences as they were, describing their L1 reading experiences. As a result, the views they came to hold about L2 reading were mixed and less articulated when compared to those of L1 reading. The participants were not able to explain how they learned to read in the L2 and any kinds of L2 reading instructional practices or activities. Finally, they did not clearly cite any theories and models in relation to L2 reading. However, two patterns did emerge in the data: L2 reading viewed as more difficult and L2 reading viewed as easier.

L2 reading viewed as more difficult. Most of the participants believed that L2 reading was more difficult than L1 reading. Reasons for holding such a view of the difficulty of L2 reading include lack of vocabulary, lack of motivation, inappropriate reading instruction on part of former teachers, and lack of linguistic knowledge. For the most part, they were unable to articulate how L2 reading takes place although a couple of them did express some understanding of what might help readers trying to cope with texts written in an L2. For instance, Rosaline explained,

> I find it more difficult because the words are completely different. The same thing applies to some letters, especially when you encounter a dialect of the language. I had tried to read a couple of novels in Spanish. It was not easy. I think that in L2 instruction, such parameters need to be taken into account. (Interview, July 2010)

Elizabeth, on her part, attributed difficulty reading in the L2 to her former teacher's inability to provide appropriate reading instruction. She explained,

> I think that part of it is that if the teacher was [un]able to provide students with materials that are more along their skills level, and proceeds in a more successive fashion I think that will be more helpful. I did not see that in the L2 instruction I have been exposed to. (Elizabeth, Interview, July 2010)

Because they did not have a clear view of appropriate L2 reading practices, some of the participants clearly expressed their interest in learning more about L2 reading instruction to ESOL students during their teacher preparation. They expressed their desires and expectations to learn how to provide reading instruction to English language learners. Sarah notes in an interview, "I am not exactly sure [of how to provide L2 reading instruction]. I think that I would learn in the course of the following semesters." Similar expectations were expressed by Ruth in an interview: "I hope to learn from this program how to teach reading efficiently. We touch upon scientific-based reading and other theories and how good it is to incorporate more than one theory in one's reading instruction."

L2 reading viewed as easier. Dorcas and Shekinah viewed L2 reading instruction as easier than L1 reading. Reasons for justifying such a view include the fact that they had already developed reading skills in their L1 and they have already developed a substantial linguistic and semantic knowledge. Shekinah's justifications for viewing L2 reading as easier than L1 reading were particularly illustrative. In an interview, she commented,

> It wasn't like my L1 reading experiences because when I started reading English, I didn't know how to read. That experience was difficult because I struggled a lot. I struggled because I was learning how phonemes and

> sounds work together. By the time I started learning to reading in L2, that aspect of learning to read wasn't a challenge any more. I have already known how to form words. So I found my L2 reading as pleasurable as my L1 reading whereas speaking L2 is more difficult and demanding in terms of energy. Reading in L2 was not as difficult as reading in L1.

To sum up, the participants in general have a more or less well-articulated view and vision of L1 reading (instruction) because of their L1 experiences learning literacy during P-12 education. Generally, their view and vision reflected the constructivist perspective of literacy instruction in general and that of whole language in particular. On the hand, they have a less articulate and mixed view of L2 reading because of the scant experiences they had with L2 reading. Because of such limited view and vision of L2 reading (instruction), participants such as Sarah indicated during interviews that they expected to learn or develop their understanding of L2 reading instruction during teacher preparation programs.

Theme 5: Development of professional dispositions for culturally relevant pedagogy. Almost all of the participants showed positive dispositions towards or expressed a strong commitment to diversity and multicultural education because of their prior experiences and the vision of their preparation program also contributed to the development of such dispositions. The prior experiences that influenced the ways that the participants embraced culturally responsive pedagogy included prior cultural knowledge, travel-abroad experiences, and experiences learning L2 and literacy during P-12 education (See Figure 5 below). Although the degree to which some of the participants expressed such a commitment varied, some common patterns emerged throughout the data. The participants expressed their commitment through (a) self-awareness and critical examination of personal biases, (b)

commitment to social justice, and (c) rejection of deficit views and adoption of culturally relevant pedagogy.

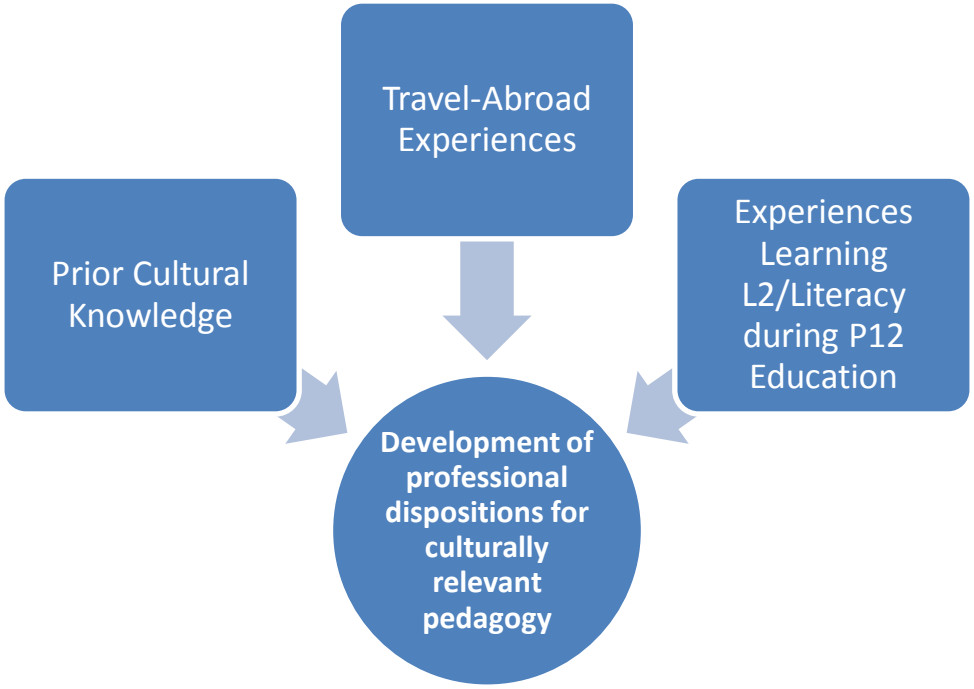


Figure 5 – Influences of Prior Experiences on Participants' Dispositions

Self-awareness and critical examination of personal biases. Almost all the participants showed an attitude of self-awareness and critical examination of personal biases by drawing on personal experiences. They realized that ethnic and cultural backgrounds led them to make assumptions about other racial groups. For instance, Ashley explained,

> Covert prejudice, on the other hand, is alive and well in our society and the fight against it is much more difficult in many respects. All of this has me questioning my own assumptions about people and the students I will have in the future. After class, when we go teach the students from the Latin American Association, I have even caught myself making certain

> assumptions about my students based on their nationality or the way they behave. (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

In another course assignment in summer 2010, Ashley crystallized, “This article really reinforced the importance of keeping in mind the societal forces that might push us as language teachers into habits that are not beneficial for our students.”

For some participants, self-awareness came as a result of travelling abroad. When this was the case, they realized what it meant to be a minority or to come from a non-dominant culture. They realized how people could be discriminated against and what feelings ran throughout their body and mind when they were discriminated against. Abigail, for instance explained her experience when she travelled to Egypt,

> Travelling abroad opens my mind to other people. For example, I experienced what it felt like to be a minority when I went to Egypt. Everybody was Muslim and non-White. This gave me a new perspective. I learned to communicate with people, get along with them, and be diplomatic. These are things I took away from those experiences. I do not judge other people based on my cultural understandings. (Interview, July 2010)

Abigail’s travelling to Egypt reinforced her learning of the idea or concept of self-awareness and cultural openness as encountered in coursework. Indeed, the instructor of the cultural course in summer 2010 explained,

> I think that what I try to do with them is to get them to become more conscious and read critically. They have to understand that it is not

> because someone with "a name" says something that that thing is necessarily true. So they don't have to accept everything they hear say… But if you can bring their attention to understand what culture is and get them interested in the culture of others, then you prepare them for the journey of life. (Faculty Interview I, July 2010)

These different life experiences of the participants usually led them to "unpack those expectations to gain a better perspective for this journey to awareness" (Shekinah, Course Assignment, summer 2010).

Furthermore, Rosaline spoke of the importance of being aware of one identity in order to acknowledge differences. During one interview I had with her in summer 2010, she commented,

> I will remember that I have an identity as a White middle-class female and with that identity comes responsibility for acknowledging other cultures and identities as equal to mine. Students will have a culturally safe classroom where they will not feel oppression for their cultural differences.

In general, the participants' prior experiences played a critical role in the way they examined their assumptions and biases and seemed to put them in a position of being sensitive and thoughtful. These experiences also shaped the way they committed to understand their students. They understood that students might hold different perspectives and that in order to help students they need to have a thorough understanding.

Commitment to social justice. Because of prior experiences, participants became aware of the societal inequalities preventing equal access to educational opportunities for some social groups. They also realized that some luxuries were provided to a group of people because of their belonging to a certain class. These different realities led them to commit to social justice. Some participants believed that it is important to provide equal access to educational opportunities or they inquired about the ways to extend such opportunities to under-served groups. This was the case of Sarah as she drew on her prior knowledge of sociocultural, historical, and political context to approach the issue of social justice. She commented,

> Yes, we can say that we all share some socio-cultural, historical, political, cultural values – but class provides certain luxuries and privileges of thought. The question, then, is not necessarily how do we change that, but how do we provide the same venue for luxury of thought to others of different socio-economic classes, particularly when they are operating on totally different psycho-social and economic assumptions. How do you make things "equal" in a classroom when a child from a lower socio-economic status clearly does not have the same frame of reference that one from a middle class family has? (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

Other participants expressed their commitment to social justice through their belief or perception that differences in the classroom should be recognized and valued, that their role as educators is to confront injustices entrenched within societal systems, or that their role as educators is to empower and give voice to students. These participants also expressed their opposition to any form of discrimination that might be found in the classroom. For instance,

Dorcas, whose prior experiences exposed her to the discriminatory aspect of language, contended,

> Time and time again, individuals are denied the same rights and opportunities afforded to other people simply based on the way and language they speak. We are quick to question and challenge discrimination based on race, gender, or religion; however, language discrimination is just as wrong and little is done about it. As educators, we must be advocates for students and families who are unfairly judged and devalued based simply on the language they speak. (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

Shekinah also expressed her sense of social justice when she was expressing her frustration because of some abusive situations. She contended,

> I find it difficult to review the research of sociologists who merely observe abusive situations, yet do not seek to right wrongs in real time. "Real time" hedges that clause because Rist was ultimately promoting change. However, real changes that may have occurred as a result of his findings was too late for the children he observed. (Course Assignment, summer 2010).

The issue of social justice also surfaced during field experiences for Elizabeth. Her background influenced the way she attempted to advocate for ESOL students and she believed that these students could have been better taught. She commented,

> I think that it is important to include the parents. Mutual respect is important… I think that we can deliberately make mistakes in order to tell students that making mistakes is OK. This will be more useful for ELLs students and is connected to caring teaching. (Fieldnotes, Fall 2010)

Generally, the participants' commitment to social justice manifested in the forms of providing equal access to educational opportunities for all students or providing necessary resources to groups of students traditionally underserved. Other participants expressed their commitment to social justice through rejection of any forms of discriminations or stereotypes. The participants' commitment to social justice very probably led them to reject deficit views and assumptions.

Rejection of deficit views and adoption of culturally relevant pedagogy. The participants' prior experiences or backgrounds influenced the way they talked about deficit views and explained their adoption of culturally relevant pedagogy. Some of them recognized that ethnic or cultural background or societal forces made educators view some groups of students in a certain way or put them in categories where they did not actually belong. Ashley reported,

> My father only had a high school diploma and my mother never even had the chance to get that far. They were both from Georgia, as were their parents, and spoke a regional dialect associated with anything but academics. In third grade my teacher recommended me for speech class because I couldn't pronounce my r's… While my pronunciation or lack thereof of the English r probably had nothing to do with my parents'

> language it is just another example of how important the way one talks is when it comes to a school setting. A child might be chosen to receive special help or worse, remedial classes based on something that has no correlation with their intelligence or their abilities. (Course Assignment, summer 2010)

Other participants explained how their literacy abilities had been downplayed based on class assumptions or for obscure reasons which had a devastating effect on their self-efficacy. The following excerpt illustrated this pattern in the data well,

> When my mother and I went to the school to meet my new teacher, my mother proudly told her (in front of me) that I already knew how to read. The teacher was incredulous and said, "No way she can read yet, she just turned five," and she was absolutely serious! My mother and I both shrank back, upset and confused as to why my new teacher did not believe that I could already read. Perhaps it was because my family had less money that most of the other families in the school. Whatever the reason, this experience has stayed with me all of my life. (Abigail, Course Assignment, summer 2010).

These various prior experiences led the participants to commit to the rejection of deficit views and assumptions in many ways. One of these ways was to create a safe classroom where their students would not feel oppressed for their cultural differences and of adopting dialectic thinking to change assumptions. Rosaline's position was very indicative of such a pattern. As noted previously, Rosaline recognized the importance of appreciating one's ethnic background

in order to welcome diversity and create a risk-free classroom environment. She stressed that students should have "a culturally safe classroom where they will not feel oppression for their cultural differences (Course Assignment, summer 2010).

Ashley also recognized the importance of providing a safe classroom where there is no room for biases. She mentioned the importance of grouping students in a way that allows them to learn from one another without any restriction or preconceptions.

> It is not acceptable to group students based on our own biases and furthermore deprive them of the possibility to learn through interaction with their peers who come from other cultural backgrounds, some being the dominant one. As teachers, we must question why we do things the way we do and ensure that we are not grouping students based on our own personal biases. (Ashley, Course Assignment, summer 2010)

It is not surprising that Ashley held this position. Under the section of P-12 learning experiences, I mentioned how she had been discriminated against just because she used an English dialect in which the pronunciation of *r* is omitted. Ashley clearly pointed out that it is important for teachers to adopt practices that maximize learning opportunities for all students. Ashley and other participants pointed out that one of the ways to achieve this objective was to adopt culturally relevant pedagogy. "If the teacher does not alter instruction to the varying cultures in the classroom a portion of the class is likely to be alienated and their learning hindered" (Ashley, Course Assignment, summer 2010). Participants mentioned that capitalizing on students' language or funds of knowledge is important because it allows the students to cross the bridge and learn the L2. For example, Elizabeth explained, "Have a good

grasp of the native language because I was very good at English: grammar, literature, and reading were or are not a problem for me. These things contributed to my proficiency in learning an L2" (Interview, July 2010).

Classroom discussions in fall 2010 also confirmed such a pattern. Here is an excerpt,

> I want to know when to use L1. I am kind of hearing mixed messages about the use of L1. Is there any balance?
>
> The instructor: In the beginning you need the L1 but you withdraw it gradually. That where scaffolding comes in. They will fight you but they will end up getting the bigger picture.

In the dialogue above, there might not be explicit allusion to culturally relevant pedagogy. But the inquiry of the teacher candidate about the use of L1 implicitly pointed to such pedagogy. Indeed, the use of students' L1 is a form of scaffolding in culturally relevant pedagogy.

Abigail expressed similar views although her approach was more nuanced. She seemed to indicate that the use of students' L1 for teaching the L2 might lessen the burden of anxiety associated with learning an L2,

> I think that I will encourage my students to use their L1 to learn and transfer that to English. I will also encourage them that it is OK to make mistakes. I think that it is one of the biggest things that hinder language. I think that literacy in L1 and L2 need to be encouraged. (Abigail, Interview, July 2010)

Elizabeth agreed with Abigail about the use of students' first language through her discussions of her field experiences during the focus group in February 2011. Elizabeth explained,

> One of the things I did in advance of the lesson was that I read some similes to the kids in Spanish and that was part of my pre-assessment… You should have seen how all them lit up when I read for them in Spanish and knowing that I don't really know Spanish, they really appreciated that I went to the effort to pronounce it properly and that I engaged with them in that way. It was so much fun. I think that they understood better what is going on because I reintroduced it after the acquisition phase [in English] so that they can make the connection. I think that it really went well.

This is not surprising. Indeed, as she indicated in her summer interview, Elizabeth contended that her L2 learning experiences were facilitated by her mastery of the language systems of her L1. She was able to use her students' L1 as scaffolding for providing reading instruction. Elizabeth's scaffolding was also an instance of culturally relevant pedagogy.

During field experiences, Ruth also used her L2 learning experiences to not only understand her students' struggles but also to implement (culturally) responsive instruction. In substance, she commented during the focus group,

> It just breaks my heart to see how much they are struggling. Just because they are struggling, it doesn't mean that they are stupid. It just means that it takes longer for them to process. The content teachers had to cover so much material so that the children are left behind constantly. There are

> false misconceptions about ESOL students in the content classrooms that seem unfair. On some rare occasions I have heard teachers voice frustrations about ESOL students. This makes me sad and I feel that if a teacher has had some prior training in learning a second language, his or her sensitivity to ESOL students is greater. In the ESOL class, they are not always taught the same content. It is language instruction, grammar, and vocabulary and sometimes the two don't connect. With the process learning a second language myself [I realized that] you just have to equip them and build their vocabulary and get them to the point [of] building their confidence. So in ESOL class, [you] make instruction responsive in [a] way that they can feel that they can succeed.

During member checking, Ruth reiterated her attachment to adopting culturally relevant pedagogy. She explained, "I definitely agree that being a sensitive ESOL teacher and combing culturally relevant material in the classroom all aid in reading instruction.

In this section, results suggest that participants used their background to reject stereotypes, biases, and other deficit views. They also posited that it important to create culturally safe classrooms where students' leaning can be maximized. They also stressed the importance of culturally relevant pedagogy and use of students' funds of knowledge and/or first language to promote their second language learning.

In summary, in this chapter I have presented my findings regarding the participants' prior experiences and backgrounds and the processes used in their teacher preparation program to address these antecedents. Also, I have presented the reasons why teacher educators in the

programs believe that addressing teacher candidates' backgrounds is crucial. Finally, I have presented the findings concerning the areas where the participants' antecedents contributed to their learning and growth. These areas include (a) understanding ESOL education, (b) conceptualizing literacy learning and reading instruction, and (c) development of professional dispositions as related to culturally relevant pedagogy and social justice. In the following chapter I will discuss the findings, their implications for ESOL teacher preparation in general and for pedagogy in particular, for future research, and for policy. I will also discuss the model I developed based on these findings.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, GROUNDED THEORY, AND CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I will discuss my findings as related to preservice ESOL teachers' prior experiences and beliefs and the influence of these experiences and beliefs on these teachers' learning and growth in a teacher preparation program, particularly in the area of L2 reading instruction. In the course of this naturalistic inquiry, I found that the participants had a large repertoire of prior experiences and beliefs that shaped their learning and growth in many areas of their preparation to become certified ESOL teachers.

These experiences and beliefs included P-12 learning experiences, L2 learning experiences at college and abroad, academic and professional backgrounds, experiences teaching a L2, experiences with and views of L1 and L2 reading, and prior beliefs about L2 teaching and learning. Many of these influences involved important or critical cultural learning experiences. Jimenez and Rose (2010) contend that teacher candidates who have L2 and cultural learning experiences are likely to have more effective learning experiences and grow as effective L2 teachers.

P-12 learning experiences included L1 literacy learning experiences, L2 learning experiences in P-12 classrooms, and critical incidents experienced during P-12 education. Also, the participants had experiences learning an L2 at college and abroad. When learning an L2 at college or abroad, the participants perceived that they acquired the L2 depending on whether these L2 learning experiences were incidental or purposeful. Some of these L2 learning experiences, especially abroad, involved critical linguistic and cultural incidents that

shaped the participants' cultural and linguistic knowledge in important ways. These diverse experiences I have just mentioned also contributed to the development of general views of reading and prior beliefs about L2 teaching and learning.

In addition to the experiences mentioned above, the participants had various academic and professional backgrounds. Academic backgrounds included applied linguistics, linguistics, teaching ESL, Spanish, international relations, and business. Professional experiences included experiences teaching English as a second or foreign language in formal classrooms or tutoring English language learners. Some of these L2/FL teaching experiences were voluntary while others were not. Other professional experiences included business and auxiliary services.

Above, I have discussed my finding concerning the participants' prior experiences and backgrounds. In the following sections I will discuss the other major findings and the model I developed as I created a grounded theory to explain the patterns evident across these findings.

Processes and Reasons for Drawing on Teacher Candidates' Antecedents and Need for Additional Assessment Instruments

My study contributes to our understanding of teacher educators' processes and rationale for drawing on teacher candidates' background. While the contemporary literature recognizes the importance on drawing on or addressing teacher candidates' antecedents (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Tarone & Allwright, 2005), empirical research on how teacher educators consider such background in the design and implementation of teacher education programs is limited. My study has now broadened our knowledge base regarding how teacher educators draw on teacher candidates' antecedents. We now know a bit more about the processes and reasons for drawing on teacher candidates 'antecedents. The teacher

educators in the program that served as the focus for this study drew on their candidates' antecedents using primarily classroom discussions, scaffolding, reflective pieces, and course assignments. When they used these instructional techniques, the primary reasons were to develop teacher candidates' professional dispositions and to address potential misconceptions in subject matter knowledge.

The ESOL teacher preparation program which was the context for this study was purposefully designed with the assumption that candidates' backgrounds would make a difference in the candidates' success in the program and as future teachers. Program requirements stipulated that teacher candidates must have specific background related to L2 experiences or cultural experiences. The participants' background impacted them in important areas as indicated by my findings.

The study, however, revealed that teacher preparation programs may need to do more than to recruit prospective teachers with specific background. In addition, teacher preparation programs may need to purposefully utilize specially designed assessment instruments which tap the entering beliefs of prospective teachers. Indeed, my inquiry indicates that open-ended reflective essays submitted during the admission process alone may not be sufficient. The L2 teaching/learning Beliefs Questionnaire (Brown & Rogers, 2002) I used revealed important beliefs held by the participants of which the teacher educators in this program were not necessarily aware. In fact, during interviews with the faculty, none of them described specific prior beliefs about the L2 teaching and learning held by the participants that could have been either beneficial or harmful to the preservice teachers' growing understanding of ESOL instruction in general or second language reading instruction in particular.

Although I am not aware of the ways the participants' prior beliefs were treated in courses I did not observe, interviews with literacy and ESOL education faculty did not indicate specific awareness of the teacher candidates' prior beliefs regarding L2 instruction. Previous research indicates that preservice teachers may come into teacher preparation programs with beliefs which hamper their learning (Peacock, 2001). In fact, Peacock found that L2 pre-service teachers hold beliefs that not only might be prejudicial to their own learning but also to that of their future students. Assessments such as the belief questionnaire used in this research can provide important background information which could guide teacher educators in programmatic decision-making and in curricular design and implementation. Although the teacher educators in this program valued the dispositional attitudes they felt second language experiences might have brought to their teacher candidates, they did not systematically consider the specificity of information about language development and beliefs toward instructional practices as indicated in the questionnaires.

In the sections which follow, my discussion will center on the key themes which emerged in the data in terms of understanding ESOL education and literacy theory and pedagogy. These discussions will also focus on the ways the participants' prior experiences shaped their professional dispositions.

Understanding ESOL Education

My inquiry offers insights into the ways preservice ESOL teachers' prior experiences and personal background informed and shaped their understanding of ESOL education and the articulation of parts of their visions of L2 teaching. Participants' background drove their interest in ESOL teaching and their expectations in teacher preparation programs, which led to

subsequent learning in the teacher preparation programs. Participants were particularly interested in learning about the ways they could provide effective instruction to students coming from various cultural and linguistic backgrounds. For example, Dorcas contended that her interests in teaching ESOL stemmed from her language learning experiences abroad.

An important area where the participants' prior experiences and personal background aided their professional development is that of understanding ESOL students' struggles and needs. Ruth, for example, explained that she could relate to her students' struggles learning an L2 because of her own experiences learning an L2. This understanding of students' struggles learning English was evidenced in both coursework and field experiences. Also, in course assignments and discussions and in their teaching, the participants drew on their understanding of what it means to be a foreigner or to be in a foreign country. Such understanding and knowledge of students' struggles and needs are an important component of the general professional knowledge expected of teachers and teacher candidates (NCATE, 2008). Without a clear understanding and knowledge of students' factors (struggles and needs), it is impossible to be an effective educator and to provide effective instruction (Brown, 2007).

Participants' prior experiences and knowledge shaped important aspects of their future vision of L2 instruction and the ways they provided reading instruction during field experiences. Indeed, I found that such prior experiences and knowledge shaped their future vision in many ways. These areas included immersion, vocabulary, grammar, the role of (ESOL) teacher; and contrastive analysis. While it is interesting to note that the participants' prior experiences/beliefs and personal backgrounds contributed to the development of their professional knowledge and skills, it is equally important to point out that the participants' backgrounds did not always help them. Indeed, a close analysis of their beliefs (Appendix B)

revealed that the participants had already accumulated a prior knowledge about their discipline before enrolling in the program, confirming the idea that teacher candidates are not atheoretical clean slates (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). Below, I discuss specific beliefs related to ESOL education and make connections to existing literature in the field. This discussion is intended to clarify how beliefs held by preservice teachers may be consistent with – or may be at odds with - their instructional practices and/or with literature in the field. The fact that candidates' beliefs regarding specific aspects of L2 instruction may be inconsistent with research or practice leads to the implications of my study in terms of why teacher preparation programs may need to tap the entering beliefs of teacher candidates as much as possible in order to address potential misconceptions and provide reinforcement where needed.

Language aptitude and individual differences. All the participants believed that some students have a special aptitude for language learning and that not all English language learners learn an L2 following the same techniques. This is belief is confirmed by natural observation data. In fact, there are people who seem to be gifted in learning new languages, for instance one of the participants, herself, had studied multiple languages in her undergraduate program. However, such a belief (while it may be valid) raises a certain number of instructional questions. What will an instructor do when a student appears to have an aptitude for language learning? What does it mean when one is said to have such an aptitude? Will the instructor simply assume that students with special aptitude will not have problems learning in an L2? Being able to acquire or learn a language efficiently and effectively does not mean that one can process new information effectively in the L2. Effective instruction needs to take into account the cognitive dimension of L2 learning. How L2 knowledge can be used to process new information and apply new knowledge is another issue (May & Wright, 2007).

Also, the special aptitude for learning a new language might affect only oral abilities- listening and speaking and not the written abilities- reading and writing or vice versa (Love, 2009). In the extant literature, some researchers proposed a distinction between cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) and basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) (Cummins, 1979, 1980). CALP refers to the language proficiency to function academically while BICS refers to the language proficiency necessary for interpersonal communication. So, information about which language abilities language learners have a special aptitude for might be masked by the raw assumption that some students have special aptitude for language learning. As a result, students with special aptitude for language learning might not receive the support needed in some areas of the language in order to learn academically. Tragically, many ESOL students seem to be victims of such an assumption (Cohen, 2007; Corona & Armour, 2007). Generally, these students have L2 oral fluency but do not have any knowledge of the L2 written language, thus misleading teacher to think that these students can master academic challenging tasks. As a result, these students do not receive the necessary instructional support.

While the participants' belief that some people have a special aptitude for language learning might be valid, we are still left with the troubling question of what that belief might mean for ESOL instruction. At this stage of the study, it is not clear whether the participants were aware of the critical and pedagogical implications of that belief. More important is the question of whether teacher educators in the program were aware of the beliefs held by their teacher candidates and, if they were, what was being done to address the implications of such a belief.

Interestingly, all the participants believed in individual differences among students. While it is encouraging to know that the participants believe in individual differences among students, the pending question is whether they really understood the instructional implications of such a belief. One such instructional implication is differentiated and culturally responsive instruction. But the extant literature has shown that such an instructional model is not commonly shared in public schools (Au, 1993; Banks et al, 2005; Hollins & Guzman, 2006; Moll, 1994). Some participants demonstrated commitment to social justice or culturally responsive instruction in some instances during field experiences. However, we don't know whether the participants would hold to their belief when teaching in their own classrooms. Empirical research suggests that instructional contexts alter teachers' beliefs (Dooley & Assaf, 2009; Graden, 1996; Theriot & Tice, 2009). Future research might explore not only the degree to which such beliefs held by preservice teachers are reflected in their actions in field experiences, but also follow graduates after program completion to explore how such commitments to meeting individual needs through culturally response instruction are maintained across the induction years. Again, the role of teacher educators in the program to support candidates' implementation of instructional approaches consistent with such beliefs is also important. Future research could examine teacher educators' ability to provide pedagogical tools that empower beginning teachers to use beliefs in line with good teaching in spite of difficult teaching contexts.

Role of linguistics and of L2 teachers. The fact that the majority of the participants believed in a strong base of linguistics in language teaching might indicate that the participants were aware of the importance of mastering subject matter, or disciplinary, knowledge. This belief is also supported by empirical evidence (Reeves, 2009). However, some individuals did

disagree that language teaching should rely on a strong base of linguistics. When we consider the fact that a strong base of linguistics is directly related to content or disciplinary knowledge this result might be indicative of poor understanding of what contributes to effective L2 teaching on the part of these participants. Indeed, research shows that subject matter knowledge should provide a basis for effective teaching and new teacher preparation standards strongly recommend that preservice teachers master the subject matter (NCATE, 2008). As suggested above, teacher educators in the program might need to assess and identify their teacher candidates' beliefs in order to address which ones need critical attention.

Furthermore, most of the participants believed that their role as L2 teachers is to be facilitators. Again, the participants in general show that they are aware of some important L2 teaching concepts such as placing the L2 learner in the center of the learning activity. This belief is extensively supported by the general educational literature and that of L2 teaching and is line with the constructivist framework of learning (Dewey, 1916; Richards & Renandya, 2002; Smith, 1971). We can also attribute this belief on the part of the participants to the current trend in education that places the student at the center of the learning process as suggested by the literature mentioned above (NCATE, 2008; Vygotsky, 1978, 1986). This trend certainly explains the fact that the program of the participants also places a strong emphasis on constructivism with the learner at the center of the teaching and learning process. This belief on the part of the participants is rather encouraging because the contemporary literature suggests that preservice teachers tend to adopt more traditional roles of teaching, especially the models they were exposed as P-12 students (Darling-Hammond, 2006; Pajares, 1992).

Timing of integration of language processes/skills. Most of the participants believed that all language skills or processes should be integrated from day one. It is possible that the participants might have some confusion about the question. The question was not about whether language skills or processes should be integrated. The question was about the timing of such integration in the classroom. Observational studies of L1 acquisition and development suggest language learners usually develop oral language abilities first (Hoff, 2009). Children first develop spoken language through listening and speaking before attending to written language.

While L1 and L2 development might not follow the same trajectory, there are good reasons to believe that some L2 skills might develop before others either because of the learner's attitude or preference and needs. Generally, receptive language-listening and reading precedes productive language- speaking and writing (Hoff, 2009). Also, oral language abilities and listening in particular contribute to reading comprehension (Birch, 2002). So the belief the participants hold about the integration of the four skills might be problematic and prejudicial to their future students if their preparation program does not address such a misconceived belief. They need to distinguish between integration itself and its timing. A "rushed" integration of the language processes/skills might affect the ability or willingness of students to learn. Early integration might be useful and beneficial with children in elementary classrooms but problematic in secondary classrooms. I will clarify in the sections that follow.

Listening and speaking. The majority of the preservice ESOL teachers in this study believed that listening is less important than speaking in earlier stages of second language development. This belief is related to the discussion about the integration of the four skills in the previous section. From anecdotal and empirical evidence, most people believe that listening

precedes speaking and is more important in earlier stages (Hoff, 2009). Without underestimating the preeminent role of speaking (a productive aspect of language), listening is, however, more crucial in the earlier stages of learning a language.

Related to the participants' belief about listening was the belief that English language learners should speak from day one. The same participants who believed that listening is less important in earlier stages also believed that L2 students should speak from day one. From the discussion above, it is hard to require of L2 learners that they should speak from day one (Brown & Rogers, 2002; Krashen, 1984; Jimenez & Rose, 2010). When students are required to speak L2 from day one, this can be problematic, shut them off, and paralyze their L2 learning process for a while or even for good. One vivid illustration was the incident discussed by Ashley, one of the participants in this study. She revealed during an interview how awful and terrified she felt when she was put on the spot to speak during one of her L2 learning experiences.

Although some students (perhaps those with special aptitude for language learning) may speak from day one, L2 learners generally go through a period of silence before starting speaking the L2. Krashen (984) contends that the most important factor in second language acquisition is comprehensible input, that is, what the English language learner understands from what is read or heard. In the same vein, Jimenez and Rose found that some of their ELL high school participants clearly expressed that it might take them months before they could be able to speak. My study also confirmed that pattern. In one of her fall lesson plans, Rosaline explained the situation of some of her practicum students who were going through a period of silence. These students needed the special support that Rosaline's mentor provided. In cases such as these, where preservice ESOL teachers' beliefs about listening and speaking in L2

learning seem to be at odds with observational and empirical data, the role of the teacher preparation program becomes pronounced. Mentor teachers, university supervisors, and teacher educators might need to be aware of such beliefs and help the novice teacher consider such ideas in relation to how they relate to classroom practice.

The fact that most of the participants believed that L2 learners should be speaking from day one and that they believed that listening is less important than speaking in earlier stages might explain their belief in intensive practice and immersion as revealed by the observational data. Intensive practice and immersion are not necessarily detrimental to L2 learning (Schumann, 1978). Tracey and Morrow (2006) contend that "Only information that receives sufficient attention when it is in short-memory will be successfully encoded into long-term memory", (p.128). In addition, the noticing hypothesis suggests "that what the learners notice in input is what becomes intake for learning" (Schmidt, 1995, p.20). Intensive practice and immersion are thus important contributions to the SLA process. The question we are left with, however, is to know whether there are conditions under which these two factors in L2 learning are effective.

Research has found that when ELLs were "rushed" into mainstream classroom without adequate preparation, these students failed (Arkoudis, 2006; Curtin, 2005; Lucas, 1999). It is important that the needs of ELLs be thoroughly assessed before being mainstreamed. Even if after being mainstreamed, these students continue to need scaffolding until they become more independent. Inclusion is not a simple issue. It requires considerable tact and critical professional judgment.

The theoretical and empirical data suggest that immersion, in particular, might not be the best way to achieve L2 learning when learners are young adults (Corona & Armour, 2007; Cruz, 2004; Townsend, 2009). Many of the ELLs in middle and secondary grades are usually unable to benefit from immersion (Corona & Armour, 2007; Early & Marshall, 2008; Love; 2009). On the contrary, they perform very poorly academically. This trend seems to confirm the often discussed critical period hypothesis in SLA (Krashen, 1979, 1980). This hypothesis generally suggests that until puberty L2 learners can learn an L2 more easily (Brown, 2007; Scovel, 1969). This could explain why children are better at acquiring an L2, at least the oral or spoken aspects of the L2 although this idea is still debatable. But from puberty period onward, the adequate mental structures available to acquire or learn an L2 become more and more fixed. Lenneberg (1967) contended:

> The incidence of 'language learning blocks' rapidly increases after puberty. Also automatic acquisition from a mere exposure to a given language seems to disappear after this age, and foreign languages have to be taught and learned through a conscious and labored effort. (p.176)

With respect to the discussion above, it appears that immersion and integration of all language processes/skills in early grades might be useful. However, in middle and secondary grades, it might prove detrimental for English language learners. This could explain why students in later grades struggle more and perform poorly academically (Curtin, 2005; Glew, 2001; Watt & Roessingh, 2001). A blind belief in immersion or "rushed" integration of language skills on the part of teachers, either preservice or inservice, might be detrimental to the English language learners, particularly in middle and secondary grades. The participants'

view of immersion is also linked how they view pronunciation in L2 teaching as will be shown in the next section.

Pronunciation. The majority of the participants believed that striving for native-like accent is a useful goal for L2 instruction. While striving for native-like accent is an ideal goal, empirical evidence suggest otherwise. Because of the diverse language background of English language learners, it is almost impossible that they will eventually speak like native speakers. For example, Avery and Ehrlich (1992) point out that Spanish speakers tend to produce vowel sounds that are between the tense and lax vowels of English and that Spanish primarily uses some high-front tense, mid-front tense, low-front tense, and high-back tense sounds. It is common among English language learners to replace interdental fricatives with labiodentals fricatives (Morley, 1986). In addition, the cognitive dimension in language learning, as Lenneberg (1967) points out, might be a source of problem because after puberty some mental structures specialized in language become fixed.

So holding to an instructional goal such as having students strive for native-like pronunciation might lead to placing unrealistic expectations on students. Students can be simply frustrated and refuse to learn. The seriousness of this issue is that it has a cultural echo in a society where having an accent may place one in a precarious situation (Chambers, Trudgill, & Schilling-Estes, 2004). The extant literature has shown that instruction should not aim to eliminate L2 learners' accent but rather should focus on the ability to communicate effectively (Brown 2007; Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Godwin, 1996). This discussion brings forth the issue of communication and accuracy.

Communication, meaning, and form. A majority of the participants believed that communication is very important in L2 learning. Current research supports such a view (Celce-Murcia et al., 1996; Richards & Renandya, 2002; Schmitt, 2000). This is an interesting pattern on the part of the participants because communicative language learning is more and more stressed in the field and in the professional community. However, the participants seemed to hold contradictory beliefs as far as communication, meaning, and form (grammar) are considered together in language teaching and learning. One of the standing questions is to know whether accuracy is more important than fluency or vice versa (Brown, 2007).

Traditionally, accuracy has been the focal point of instruction (Schmitt, 2000). In many settings, students are asked to speak as native speakers do. In the previous section, I have already discussed that this is almost impossible, in particular for English language learners who have reached the age of puberty or are going through it. Many researchers suggest that what is more important is fluency, that is, the ability to communicate meaningfully and fluently (Brown, 2007; Schmitt, 2000). Brown (2007), in particular, argues that the ultimate goal of second language learning is the attainment of communicative fluency. These researchers are not suggesting that accuracy is less important. But what language learners need most is the ability to communicate fluently and with intelligibility.

Role of grammar in L2 teaching. Five of the participants believed that it is important that sentences be grammatically correct when spoken and three participants particularly believed that form to be the most important part in L2 learning. The overall results here suggest that more than half of them attribute a preeminent role to grammar in L2 learning and that their instructional practices can or might reflect such beliefs. These results confirm previous research. For example, Peacock (2001) found that ESL pre-service teachers attribute a

foundational role to grammar in L2 learning. While grammar has a traditional role in L2 learning, it is more and more evident that too strong an emphasis on grammar is less effective (Golombek, 1998; Richards & Renandya, 2002; Schmitt, 2000). Another important question is about how grammar should be taught.

Some participants believe that grammatical rules should be taught explicitly while others believed that grammatical rules should be discovered. The two points of views expressed by participants about how grammatical rules should be taught are supported in the extant literature. Krashen (1992; 1994) claimed that explicit knowledge does not contribute to L2 acquisition and the SLA model as developed by Schumann (1978) suggests that language acquisition is rather implicit and unconscious. But recent research substantially suggests that explicit grammar instruction contributes to effective L2 learning (Hu, 2002). Hu suggests that when the input is enhanced or modified it leads to noticing and then learning.

As I mentioned in Chapter 4, the participants' understanding of the role grammar and its instruction in L2 seems shaky. As mentioned in chapter 4, there is nothing wrong with either approach. However, the participants' responses raised some concerns. First, the overall analysis of all data suggests that the participants' beliefs or theoretical orientation might be inconsistent because in general these beliefs seem to be more anchored in constructivism. Teaching grammatical rules by discovery is more constructivist while explicit or direct instruction is more anchored in behaviorism. Secondly, an L2 teacher can use either discovery or explicit approach. Hence, the most important issue boils down to sequencing when and how to use either approach.

Also, the participants seemed to express some contradictory beliefs about form and meaning. At one point, some participants who believed form is the most important later believed that meaning is more important (See Chapter 4). The ways the participants will resolve the tensions between form and meaning remain unclear. Again, as mentioned in earlier sections; teacher educators in the program need to be aware of these contradictions and address them properly.

In summary, grammar has its place in L2 learning and teaching. The important questions are whether grammar should be given a preeminent role and how it should be taught. We have already learned that grammar is not the most important factor in L2 learning or should not be a given an excessive emphasis. How grammar should be taught depends on learners' needs, the instructional objectives, and the instructional conditions.

L2 writing. Participants generally believed that L2 writers should be encouraged to get their ideas on paper and not worry about correctness and that the writing process is more important than the product. This set of beliefs about writing is substantially supported by theoretical and empirical evidence (Many, Howard, & Hoge, 2002; Matsuda, 2003). Matsuda (2003), in particular, explained:

> The advocates of process pedagogy … emphasized the importance of teaching writing not as product but as process: of helping students discover their own voice; of recognizing that students have something important to say; of allowing students to choose their own topic; of providing teacher and peer feedback; of encouraging revision; and of using student writing as the primary text of the course. At about the same

> time, research on the act of composing began to appear, providing empirical support for the teaching of writing as a process. (p.67)

The participants' views of L2 writing are thus in tune with what we currently know about the ways L2 writing should be taught or at least some aspects of it. This suggests that they might be ready to implement successful writing lessons to English language learners. Although implementing one's beliefs is contingent upon the instructional context (Graden, 1996; Many et al., 2002; Theriot & Tice, 2009), it is encouraging that the participants have grounded knowledge about some essential aspects of L2 writing instruction. The ways the participants will use and implement this knowledge depend on how the teacher education program reinforces and teaches them how to implement practices consistent with their own beliefs (Many et. al., 2002; Theriot & Tice, 2009).

Views and treatment of errors in L2 learning. Most of the participants believed that errors should be welcomed in L2 learning. This view is supported by the literature. Over 4 decades ago, Corder (1967) contended that errors show L2 teachers where students are in their language learning process and that learners use them to test hypotheses about the L2, showing thus the beneficial nature of errors. Contemporary specialists such as Brown (2007) agree that errors show the stage of the language learning process and/or the quality of the language learner's performance. The participants' own L2 learning experiences have shaped this belief. In one interview, Ashley clearly pointed out that she would allow her students to be comfortable in the learning environment and that errors would be welcome. This view of errors that the participants held was encouraging and healthy for L2 teaching and learning.

However, how errors should be treated might be problematic because some of the participants believed that teachers should correct students during oral practice. The

participants' views about intensive practice, immersion, and grammar correctness suggest that their instruction might not help the students when it comes to error treatment. While grammar remains integral part of L2 learning, the participants' emphasis on form might distract from meaning and content, normally associated with effective L2 learning (Richards & Renandya, 2002; Schmitt, 2000). Also, the timing of correcting errors is crucial for learns to improve. Brown (2007) explained that when error correction is part of meaningful communicative tasks and feedback on errors is provided after communicative tasks are completed, such an instructional model might be beneficial. Also, it is important to know whether/which types of errors to focus on. Not all errors need to be brought to the L2 learner's attention (Brown, 2007; Corder, 1967). There are errors that are merely performance-based and that can be self-corrected. Knowledge of the L2 learner and of her/his developmental needs and knowledge of sources of errors are crucial for making decision about error correction strategies (Brown, 2007).

The role of vocabulary in L2 learning. Some participants believed that vocabulary constitutes the most important asset in L2 learning. Recent research literature on the role of vocabulary in L2 learning and general education research literature suggest that vocabulary has a preeminent role in L2 learning (Grabe, 1995; Nagy & Scott, 2000; Richards & Renandya, 2003; Schmitt, 2000; Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986). Stahl and Fairbanks (1986), in particular, made an interesting conceptual distinction that is worth recalling here: definitional word knowledge and contextual word knowledge. Definitional word knowledge is similar to the traditional definition of vocabulary, that is, vocabulary as knowing of words definitions. As for contextual word knowledge, it is the knowledge of the word from context and how it is used. When we take into account such a conceptual distinction, it becomes clear that vocabulary is important in

the four skills of L2 learning. Nation (1990) adds interesting details to the picture of vocabulary knowledge. This author includes in word knowledge, knowledge of the word's spoken form, written form, grammatical behavior, collocational behavior, frequency, stylistic register, conceptual meaning, and association with others.

The discussion above presents convincing evidence that vocabulary is preeminent in L2 learning. In light of such evidence, it might be suggested that the view that some of the participants hold about vocabulary might be less accurate of what vocabulary is and its role in L2 learning. The rest who believed vocabulary to be the most important asset might provide more effective L2 vocabulary instruction. However, they might show inconsistency when it comes to implement their beliefs about L2 vocabulary instruction. As Many, Howard, and Hoge (1998) found, having specific beliefs or knowledge does not necessarily mean that one is going to be able to implement such beliefs or that one knows how to implement them. In fact, declarative knowledge is different from procedural knowledge or from conditional knowledge (Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005). The data collected in the field experience settings for this study provided a limited understanding of the breadth of instructional approaches these interns actually implemented in the field to develop vocabulary. In previous research with ESOL preservice teachers in field-based settings, Many, Dewberry, Taylor, and Coady, (2009) found two of three interns spent little time on scaffolding ESOL learners' development of concepts. Additional research in ESOL teacher education is needed to understand (a) how preservice teachers might develop a breadth of declarative knowledge regarding vocabulary development and then (b) the effectiveness of interns' pedagogical approaches in addressing the vocabulary development of their ELL learners.

My study also offers insight in that it provided an analytical view of areas or aspects of teacher candidates' belief system that need more improvement or refinement. Previous research has found that teacher candidates' prior experiences or beliefs help shape their learning (Johnson, 1994; Wilson et al., 2001). Nonetheless, we do not know which aspects of ESOL teacher candidates' prior knowledge might need reinforcement, refinement, or improvement. The present study contributes to that knowledge. When (ESOL) teacher educators are aware of teacher candidates' beliefs system, they might be able to develop pedagogical tools to address these areas and to help teachers grow professionally. The framework of *How People Learn* developed by the National Academy of Sciences (Donovan & Bransford, 2005) stipulates that "students [whether children or not] come to the classroom with prior knowledge that must be addressed if teaching is to be effective" (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p.9).

The prior discussion of specific beliefs was contextualized through discussion of literature in the field to illustrate the ways in which their conceptions may or may not have reflected current research and practice. Based on that discussion, I found that the participants' belief system about L2 teaching and learning fell into three broad categories: tuned beliefs, emerging beliefs, and misinformed beliefs. The three types of beliefs participants held concerned various and distinct areas of the L2 learning and teaching. When I come to the section of the Transaction Model below, I will provide more details as for how the participants' prior experiences and backgrounds interacted with teacher preparation processes to produce the three types of beliefs.

Tuned beliefs. The ESOL pre-service teachers in this study held beliefs that were generally consistent with current research and practice recommend in the following areas: (a)

special language aptitude, (b) knowledge of linguistics, (c) L2 writing, (d) the role of L2 teachers, (e) views of errors in L2 teaching and learning, and (f) the respect of individual differences in L2 teaching and learning.

In these areas, the preservice teachers in general held healthy and grounded beliefs. They drew on these beliefs by using, comparing, or contrasting prior experiences to the concepts in their programs in ways that enhanced or clarified their understanding or dispositions. What the teacher education program might need to do is to find ways to reinforce these beliefs and to teach them how to implement these beliefs in field experiences settings and in their future classroom (Graden, 1996; Many, Howard, & Hoge, 2002).

Emerging beliefs. Participants also held in-between beliefs. These were beliefs that were consistent with current research and practice and were at the same time ill-structured. The areas affected by these beliefs in this study were: (a) integration of the four skills in L2 teaching (timing of the integration), (b) grammar and its role, (c) vocabulary, (d) views of basic processes of L1 and L2, and (e) communication aspect and accuracy in L2. In these areas, the ESOL pre-service teachers exhibited some sound knowledge but at the same time seemed to need more clarification and elaboration in these areas in which I believe that the participants were more likely to develop misconceptions. It is thus important that teacher education programs be aware of these areas and help the pre-service teachers gain a better understanding in these areas and address the instructional implications.

Misinformed beliefs. Preservice teachers also seemed to hold some misinformed beliefs. These beliefs represented beliefs that were basically less grounded in what we know about L2 research and instruction. The areas affected by these beliefs in terms of the

participants in this study were: (a) listening and speaking, (b) pronunciation, (c) treatment of errors, and (d) the role of immersion in L2 learning. Participants' comments and beliefs in these areas were at times in direct contrast to the acceptable knowledge base research in the field. Course discussions and faculty interviews related to education coursework did not note these discrepancies. The role of their teacher education program is seriously needed in these areas. In-depth and critical work needs to be done so that the ESOL pre-service more effective. What is interesting about all the pre-service teachers was that they exhibited an enthusiasm for learning.

Understanding of Literacy Theory and Pedagogy and Development of a Vision of Reading Instruction

Another of the study's contributions was that it offered insight into the ways (ESOL) preservice teachers processed theoretical, philosophical, and conceptual knowledge as related to literacy in coursework. The participants' understandings of theoretical, philosophical and conceptual information were primarily driven by their first language literacy learning experiences in P-12 classrooms. These experiences helped participants process theories presented within coursework and develop professional knowledge, which could be impossible without such experiences. The participants were especially able to attend to theoretical and conceptual knowledge as related to L1 literacy instruction.

Hence, these finding offered insights into the possible ways preservice teachers in general and ESOL teachers in particular develop conceptual knowledge in teacher preparation programs. Although we know that all learners use prior experiences to process new information (Crotty, 1998; Donovan & Bransford, 2005), we do not know the exact source of

such experiences or which prior experiences ESOL teacher candidates use and which aspects of their preparation their prior experiences affect. My inquiry contributes to such knowledge. In fact, previous research has indicated that teacher education programs can have an impact on literacy preservice teachers' prior beliefs (Shaw, Dvorak, & Bates, 2007) and that these teachers' prior beliefs affect their self-efficacy, their expectations for students, and their reading instruction to struggling readers (Sharlack, 2008). But none of these studies shed light on the process of the transaction between prior experiences and preservice ESOL teachers' learning and growth. The current study leads us to a better understanding of how preservice ESOL teachers develop conceptual knowledge using prior experiences. This understanding has pedagogical implications in that our knowledge of the process might inform us regarding how to address preservice ESOL teachers' prior experiences more effectively in order to help them grow.

In addition, this inquiry broadened our understanding of how (ESOL) preservice teachers developed their views of reading and the ways such views influenced their vision of reading instruction and the possible role of teacher preparation program in the development of such views and visions. The existing literature suggests that preservice literacy teachers use their own schooling experiences to develop reading instruction and that such prior experiences favored more traditional reading instruction such as reading aloud/silently, discussion, and testing (Gupta & Saravanan, 1995). This is not exactly the case with the participants in this study. As discussed above, most of the participants drew more on constructivist perspectives identified in literacy practices encountered, probably because the processes used in their preparation program emphasize constructivist perspectives of literacy development. The participants generally viewed the development of reading as a result of being read to, of

interacting with competent adults or peers to construct meaning, of self-selecting reading materials of interest, of reading authentic pieces of literature, and of reacting to and writing about authentic literature. This finding suggests that we need to be careful in our appreciation of preservice teachers' prior experiences and that the vision and the characteristics of teacher preparation program may play important roles in these teachers' learning and growth by drawing on their antecedents.

These results also suggest that the future practices of the participants might reflect the constructivist framework of (literacy) learning. McLaughlin (2010) argued that the constructivist framework supports and promotes more literacy learning. The participants in general had a more or less well-articulated view of L1 reading because they were able to draw on L1 reading experiences. Such experiences contributed to the participants' articulation of their reading instruction.

Indeed, some participants suggested that their reading instruction would be more grounded in a whole language paradigm. Field observations focusing on the teaching of key informants revealed that pattern. Rosaline's reading instructional practices were clearly grounded in the whole language paradigm. This is not surprising when one considers the literacy instructional practices participants in general and Rosaline in particular were exposed to as P-12 students. They were mostly exposed to practices stemmed from constructivist framework of which whole language theory is a part (Bergeron, 1990; Guthrie, 2004; McLaughlin, 2010; Tracey & Morrow, 2006). Bergeron in particular explained,

> Whole language is a concept that embodies both a philosophy of language development as well as the instructional approaches embedded within, and

> supportive of, that philosophy. This concept includes the use of real literature and writing in the context of meaningful, functional, and cooperative experiences in order to develop in students' motivation and interest in the process of learning."(p.319)

Also, participants used their prior experiences to articulate a vision of reading instruction to English Language Learners in which they integrated high-level literacy processing and the integration of L2 processes or skills. Field experience data showed that Rosaline's whole language approach to reading instruction led to her integration of all language skills/processes during her field experiences. Contemporary literature has found or recognized the importance of integrating all the language skills or processes whether L2 instruction in general is concerned or L2 reading instruction in particular is concerned (Richards & Renandya, 2002; Tracey & Morrow, 2006). Integration of all language skills is indeed characteristic of effective literacy instruction, especially when taking into account newer definitions of literacy (Ajayi, 2009; Albers, 2006).

Another aspect of the vision of reading instruction that emerged from the data was strategic instruction. For example, Ruth said that she would provide a strategic reading instruction because of her prior experience. During field experiences, she used her background as a visual learner to plan and implement reading instruction that led to her practicum students' use of mental images to develop reading comprehension. Visualization is a high-order literacy skill. Current research suggests that it is important that teacher candidates develop knowledge and skills that will enable them to teach high-order literacy skills and metacognitive strategies to succeed in today's world (Lenski, Grisham, & Wold, 2006; McLaughlin, 2010). Lenski et al. in particular explained that new standards require that students master more challenging

subject matter, think critically, and solve complex problems and that, because of those new demands; new teachers need to develop deep knowledge and effective skills to help students perform according to these standards.

Furthermore, strategic instruction was reported to be effective in promoting students' literacy learning (Grabe & Stoller, 2002; McLaughlin, 2010). When students are provided strategic instruction, their reading skills and proficiency improve and they generally perform well (Gunning, 1996). Strategic instruction provides the scaffolding necessary for students to process information and to perform well on reading comprehension.

While it can be suggested that the participants held a valid approach to reading instruction, their position did, however, raise some concerns. First, the participants' prior experiences from which they based their approach largely concerned L1 reading instruction. The risk thus exists that their approach might not work with ESOL students, as noted above. In fact, ESOL students have many other issues that might complicate their readiness for the approach adopted by these participants. For example, Grabe and Stoller (2002) argue that there are linguistic, processing, and sociocultural differences between L1 and L2 reading. Failures of taking into account such differences might render reading instruction to English language learners ineffective.

Another issue of concern was that the participants largely ignored bottom-up literacy instruction, especially in coursework. While a bottom-up approach to literacy instruction might not promote effective and critical literacy skills, there are good reasons to believe that a bottom-up approach is still needed in literacy instruction (Gunning, 1996). Some L2 learners still need to be taught decoding and phonic skills without which they might not be able to learn

to read and read to learn later. It is thus interesting to note Elizabeth' reading instructional practices were more anchored in phonic approaches during field experiences. This is not surprising since her theoretical orientation as measured by Deford (1985) was phonic.

Furthermore, the preservice teachers mentioned that they would provide their students with interesting materials. While such an instructional practice is the hallmark of effective literacy instruction (Guthrie, 2004), the way some of the participants emphasized it seems to suggest a lack of realism and did not take into account all aspects of effective teaching. These participants seemed to give a preeminent role to students' interests without any connection to curriculum. In fact, effective teaching requires use of curriculum. The question is then how to bend curriculum towards students' needs and interests and at the same time bend such needs and interests towards relevant curriculum (Darling-Hammond, 2006). Effective teaching is a two-way route: students' needs and interests and curricular requirements.

Finally, analysis revealed that the preservice teachers had a less articulate and mixed view of L2 reading because of the scant experiences they had with L2 reading in the second language. In fact, a careful analysis of the data suggests that the participants were scarcely exposed to theories and models related to issues of culture and language prevalent in ESOL instruction or in L2 reading instruction. This finding of my study expands our knowledge base on this crucial issue. Indeed, preservice ESOL teachers' lack of exposure to extensive L2 reading experiences might explain their limited view of L2 reading and lack of confidence in providing reading instruction to English Language Learners.

This finding can be explained theoretically. Vygotsky (1978, 1986) contended that sociocultural interactions are instrumental in knowledge development and acquisition. Because

the participants' sociocultural interactions (both at home and school) exposed them to extensive L1 literacy learning experiences, they were able to develop prior knowledge that shaped their learning in their teacher preparation program. Conversely, lack of extensive exposure to L2 reading experiences in these sociocultural interactions seemed to contribute to their limited vision and knowledge of L2 reading (instruction), or lack of self-efficacy, in providing L2 reading instruction.

This finding has implications for pedagogy, ESOL teacher preparation programs, policy, and future research as suggested by the model I develop below. At the pedagogical and programmatic levels, preservice ESOL teachers might need to experience in-depth L2 reading practices so as to develop a better understanding of L2 reading processes. ESOL teacher education programs might make decisions to develop integrated reading/writing workshops approaches so as to provide more scaffolding on L2 reading processes and on the ways L2 literacy processes develop. Earlier research (Many, Howard, & Hoge, 1998, 2002) has shown the benefits of incorporating reading/writing workshops in English preservice teacher preparation. Preservice participants in these studies, through the workshops, developed or gained awareness of their own identities as readers/writers and gained a deeper understanding of literacy development process in English and the related implications on their practices as teachers. It might thus be useful to implement similar strategies focusing on L2 reading and writing in ESOL teacher preparation programs to enable candidates to develop a better understanding of their own perceptions as L2 readers/writers and gain to deeper understanding of literacy development in an L2.

In the present study, the ESOL teacher education program required applicants to have experience in having learned a second language as an entry requirement for the program. The

teacher educators believed this requirement shapes the dispositions and attitudes of the future teachers, and indeed, the data from this study indicate that this seemed to be the case. However, in terms of policy, it might be useful for ESOL teacher education programs go beyond an expectation that candidates have been exposed to L2 learning and incorporate requirements which encourage preservice ESOL teachers to develop substantial L2 reading experiences. For instance, requiring that interns have taken, or take within the program upper level courses in an L2 may enhance future teachers' understanding of the L2 reading process and the differences between L1 and L2 reading processes. Subsequently, research could be conducted to investigate the different implications of having an in-depth background in second language reading might have on preservice teachers' beliefs about L2 reading, their own development as ESOL educators, and ultimately how having such a background might influence their L2 pedagogy in the classroom.

Professional Dispositions towards English Language Learners

Finally, the study contributes to our knowledge of the ways (ESOL) preservice teachers develop professional dispositions towards English language learners by embracing culturally responsive pedagogy. Providing a very interesting definition of culturally relevant pedagogy, Villegas (1997) contends,

> Because teaching must build upon and modify students' prior knowledge, responsive teachers select and use instructional materials that are relevant to students' experiences outside school [Hollins, 1989], design instructional activities that engage students in personally and culturally appropriate ways [Garibaldi, 1992; Irvine, 1990a], make use of pertinent examples or analogies

> drawn from the students' daily lives to introduce and clarify new concepts [Irvine, 1992], manage the classroom in ways that take into consideration differences in interaction styles [Tikunoff, 1985], and use a variety of evaluation strategies that maximize students' opportunities to display what they actually know in ways that are familiar to them. [Moll, 1988; Ortiz and Maldonado-Colon, 1986]. (p. 265)

Not only the participants embraced this concept of culturally relevant pedagogy but they also embraced socially just teaching (Chubbuck, 2010). This author explained that socially just teaching includes curricula, pedagogies, and expectations that promote learning and life opportunities for all students, especially students traditionally underserved by the current education system; the transformation of any educational structures or policies that diminish students' learning opportunities.

The participants' prior experiences/beliefs and personal backgrounds strongly influenced these professional dispositions in important ways. Because of their experiences travelling abroad, navigating through a new culture, reading, and discussing with peers, the participants strongly felt inclined towards multicultural education including self-awareness and critical examination of biases, commitment to social justice and rejection of biases. Assaf and Dooley (2006) contend that contend that instructional models as related to multicultural education bring teachers to think about themselves and others for better understanding and for developing culturally responsive pedagogy. Because of those experiences, the participants also felt disposed favorably to understanding students' perspectives and implementing culturally responsive pedagogy.

The participants embraced such dispositions as commitment to multicultural education wholeheartedly. They believed that they would embrace and acknowledge the cultural differences of her future students. Commitment to multicultural education is important. The new teaching standards strongly recommend such a disposition because of the increasingly diverse students attending public schools in the United States (NCATE, 2008). Research also has found that such a disposition is crucial for effective teaching in today's classrooms (Assaf & Dooley, 2006; Chubbuck, 2010).

Data also indicated that the participants developed a critical stance by examining their personal biases and developing self-awareness using their prior experiences. It can be suggested that the participants' knowledge base for teaching in urban settings is being strengthened or expanded through the use of their prior experiences. Indeed, several studies have found that self-awareness and critical examination of biases constitute one of the hallmarks of multicultural education, more salient in urban settings (Assaf & Dooley, 2006; Dooley, 2008; Jimenez & Rose, 2010; King, 2000, 2006). Generally, the participants' worldviews tended to change as a result of becoming more and more aware of their biases and assumptions.

The participants also showed sensitivity to their students and developed cultural awareness grounded by their prior experiences. Research has found that teachers who were L2 learners themselves bring a unique perspective to the task of teaching English language learners (Milambiling, 1999). Milambiling also contended that L2 teachers sharing the same cultural reference as their students might provide more effective instruction. Although the present study's participants in my study might not share similar cultural frames of reference with their students, they did demonstrate important cultural understandings. Elizabeth, for

example, used her practicum students' L1 to provide them with reading instruction in English. She said that the students were excited because of her use of their first language to provide scaffolding for their reading instruction in English. Elizabeth traced the source of her reasoning for her use of learners' L1 back to her own experiences learning German supported by her L1 language knowledge.

In addition, the participants used their prior experiences to show commitment to social justice. Participants' commitment to social justice seems to be heightened especially because they came to understand that some groups were placed in special education classes just because of the language they use. For instance, Ashley showed such a commitment by asserting that all students deserved access to equal and better education without any misguided discrimination. As a student, she had been recommended for a special education class due to her use of a dialect of English. Commitment to social justice is an important professional disposition associated with effective teaching, especially in urban settings (Chubbuck, 2010). This author explained that socially just teaching includes curricula, pedagogies, and expectations that promote learning and life opportunities for all students, especially students traditionally underserved by the current education system; the transformation of any educational structures or policies that diminish students' learning opportunities. The participants made it clear that social justice is one of their primary concerns. In this regard, the participants' focus is in line with current research and literature, that is, social justice is one of the most important goals in teacher education (Chubbuck, 2010; Cochran-Smith & Boston College Evidence Team, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2006).

Participants' commitment to social justice as shaped by their background was also evident in their rejection of deficit views by drawing on their own backgrounds. For instance,

Dorcas' outcry against language discrimination was very illustrative. She explained the ways some students were discriminated against and put in lower tracks just because of their language ability. Ashley in particular explained that what many traditional teachers perceive as language deficiency is nothing more than a language difference. Again, commitment to the rejection of deficit views and misinformed assumptions is an important professional disposition that is associated with effective teaching (NCATE, 2008). In fact, teachers with deficit views and assumptions negatively tracked some groups of students and teach them only low-level skills, believing that they are not capable of higher-order thinking (Banks et al., 2005; Gee, 2001). Because of their prior experiences learning a L2 the participants were able to know that their ESOL students' struggles had nothing to do with any cognitive deficiency.

Finally, most of the participants expressed their commitment to developing culturally relevant pedagogy to meet students' needs using their prior experiences learning an L2. When I consider the fact that the participants were being prepared to teach mostly in urban settings, I have good reasons to suggest that their prior experiences and personal backgrounds constitute an important asset. During the field experiences, most of the key informants were able to implement (culturally) responsive instruction. A growing body of research clearly has shown that culturally relevant pedagogy is very important in urban schools (Assaf & Dooley, 2006; Au, 1993; Banks et al., 2005; Villegas, 1997). I will even add that culturally relevant pedagogy is crucial in other settings whether they are suburban or rural. Indeed, Villegas (1997) said that effective teachers provide instruction and assess students' learning in ways that are familiar to the learners.

In sum, I found that the participants' prior experiences and personal background shaped considerably the ways they were developing their professional dispositions to culturally

responsive and socially just approach to education. These professional dispositions were self-awareness and critical examination of biases, commitment to social justice, commitment to the rejection of deficit views and assumptions, commitment to understanding students' perspectives, and commitment to culturally relevant pedagogy.

Limitations

Although the study has made some contributions to the field of ESOL teacher education, it has some limitations, too. First, the field experiences data were not thick enough to support definitive conclusions. A follow-up study over an extended period of time might be needed to better understand and more deeply appreciate how ESOL teachers draw on background and prior experiences during field experiences.

Another limitation concerns some of the instruments used to capture the participants' beliefs about L2 teaching and learning (Appendix B) and to capture their theoretical approaches to reading instruction (Appendix D). These instruments need to be improved in order to capture important issues such as the role of motivation or anxiety in L2 learning or to develop instrument responsiveness as related to ESOL reading instruction.

Finally, one gender was represented in my study. Only females were included. So these findings cannot be generalized to male teacher candidates. A follow-up study might be needed to more fully explore whether the findings were simply gender-related.

A Model for Understanding Teacher Candidates' Background and Their Learning/Development

In addition, the study contributes to our knowledge of which prior experiences were more influential in ESOL teacher candidates' learning and growth in both coursework and field experiences. Findings revealed that L1 literacy learning experiences, L2 learning experiences at college and abroad, and experiences in L2 teaching were most influential. Findings also revealed that ESOL teacher candidates who experienced critical incidents culturally and linguistically tend to develop a more critical stance leading to the development of more effective professional dispositions. They also tend to develop a more critical stance to some aspects of L2 disciplinary knowledge such as vocabulary instruction and responsive instruction. Below, I presented a model that represents grounded theory based on the findings.

Based on the data analysis and the results as shown in chapter 4, I developed a grounded theory to explain the ways in which the themes in this study were mutually shaping and I created a model to illustrate the patterns across these themes. The model takes into account the ways the participants' prior experiences influenced their learning process in the teacher preparation programs. The model I developed (Figure 6) only provides an explanatory framework. It provides a window into understanding the possible ways preservice ESOL teachers might have informed and shaped their learning process in the teacher preparation program in the context of this study. Any attempt to make generalizations based on the model must thus take into account the context of the research along with the participants' variables.

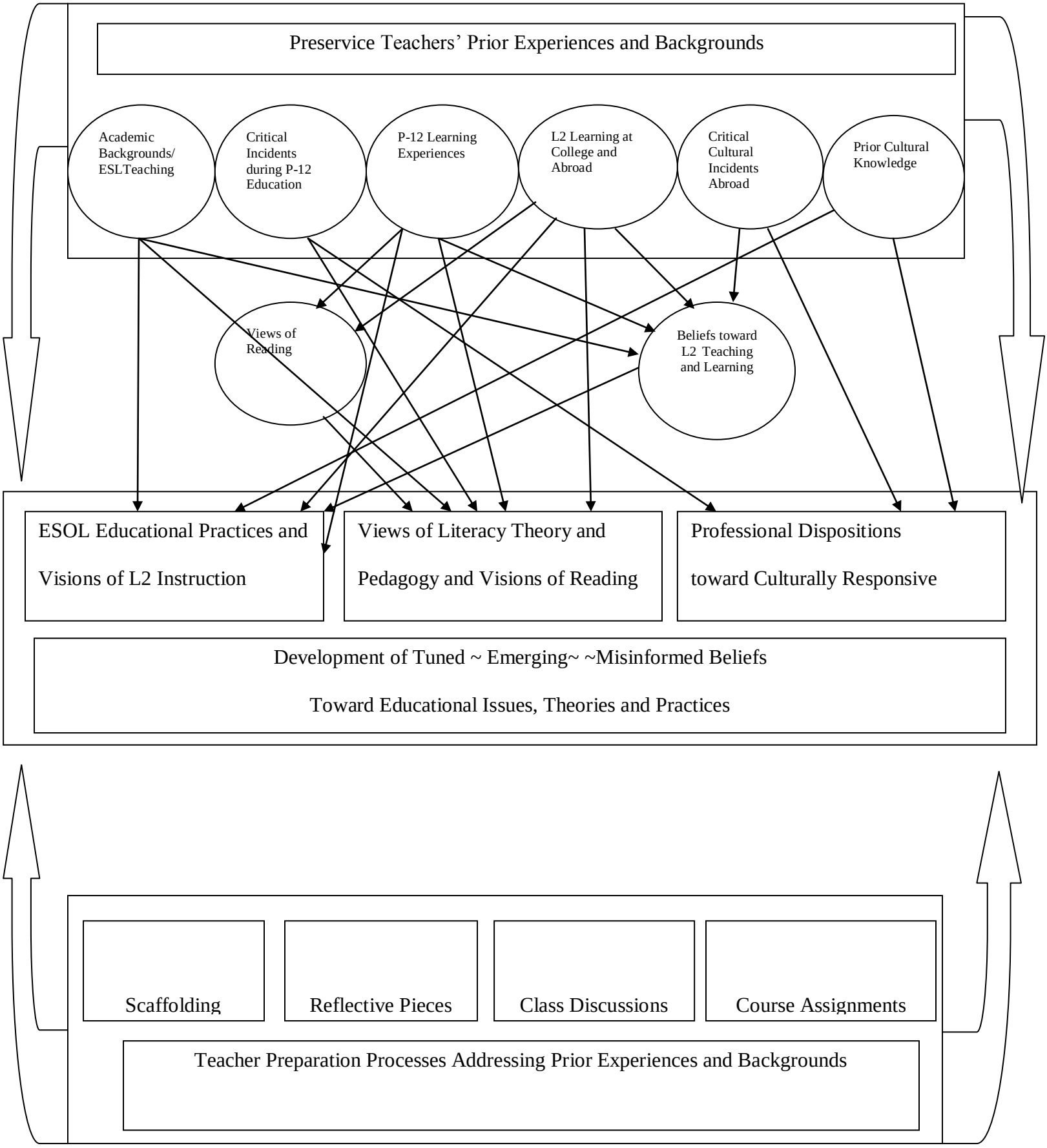


Figure 6 – Transactional Model for Understanding Teacher Candidates' Backgrounds and Growth

As suggested by the Transactional Model (Figure 6), there was a transaction between teacher preparation program processes and important aspects of the participants' prior experiences and backgrounds. To use Rosenblatt's (1994) term, transaction, here means that teacher preparation processes shaped teacher candidates' antecedents and conversely, their antecedents shaped the teacher candidates' growth in important areas of their preparation. In other words, teacher preparation processes and candidates' backgrounds came together to spur the growth noted in the candidates' learning.

Working from the elements at the foundation of the model, teacher educators in the program in which the participants were enrolled used various processes to address teacher candidates' antecedents. These processes primarily included scaffolding, class discussions, reflective pieces, and course assignments.

As shown from the top of the Figure, the participants' prior experiences and backgrounds varied in terms of their P-12 learning experiences, L2 learning experiences at college and abroad, critical incidents during P-12 education, critical cultural incidents abroad, prior cultural knowledge, and academic background. As shown by the arrows from the varied background experiences in the circles, different areas of background knowledge shaped views and beliefs, and then were associated with particular understandings of educational issues, practices, and dispositions as shown in the center. According to the model, the ways in which the candidates drew on these areas to create understandings was potentially framed by the way in which the program did or did not attend to specific information within these elements. As a result, according to the model the transaction between teacher preparation processes and teacher candidates' antecedents could produce three types of beliefs across the areas or domains impacted by the transaction. The resulting conceptualizations or dispositions might then be

framed as tuned beliefs, in-between beliefs, and misinformed beliefs. Potentially, the degree to which specific types of beliefs were produced seemed to be proportional to the degree to which the educational processes addressed the participants' prior experiences.

For instance, in the area of ESOL educational practices and visions of L2 instruction, teacher educators used scaffolding, class discussions, and course assignments to address teacher candidates' prior experiences and backgrounds. Travel-abroad and L2 learning experiences abroad, prior cultural knowledge, and P-12 critical incidents were most influential in transactional process of shaping participants' acquisition of professional knowledge and skills in ESOL teaching. The transaction resulted in participants' tuned beliefs about understanding English language learners' struggles, needs, perspectives, and aspects of L2 disciplinary knowledge; in participants' emerging beliefs about understanding some aspects of L2 disciplinary knowledge and some aspects of their vision of L2 instruction; and in their misinformed beliefs about understanding some aspects of L2 disciplinary knowledge.

In the domain of views of literacy theory and pedagogy and visions of reading instruction, teacher educators used similar processes to address teacher candidates' antecedents. It is worth pointing out that P-12 learning experiences either in relation to literacy learning, second language learning, or general learning played the most influential role in the learning process of preservice ESOL teachers during their preparation, confirming thus the extant literature (Lortie, 1975). These experiences informed and shaped all the areas that the participants' prior experiences impacted. Also, P-12 literacy learning experiences, alone, shaped their views of reading, the ways the participants understood literacy theories in coursework or the ways they used literacy theories to understand lived experiences, and the articulation of aspects of their vision of reading instruction. Overall the transactional process related to literacy

and reading instruction resulted in participants' tuned beliefs about understanding literacy theories and their articulation of visions of reading instruction. In addition, the transactions related to L2 reading drew on a limited number or superficial L2 reading experiences and resulted in the candidates' emerging or misinformed beliefs about understanding L2 reading instruction and their articulation of related vision.

In the area of professional dispositions toward culturally responsive instruction and social justice, teacher educators used scaffolding, class discussions, reflective pieces, and course assignments to address participants' prior experiences and backgrounds, resulting in a rich transaction. Unlike the other domains, the transactional process related to this domain produced mainly tuned beliefs about culturally-responsive instruction and social justice on the part of participants. Prior experiences on which candidates drew for transaction in this domain included critical incidents during P-12 education, critical cultural experiences abroad, and prior cultural knowledge. In addition, attention to these experiences seemed to be heavily emphasized throughout the teacher education program. The program and much of the educational sequence coursework was framed around tenets of multicultural education and its related aspects such as culturally responsive pedagogy and social justice. In fact, part of the Vision of the Program says, "The PEF envisions a world that embraces diversity; where social justice, democratic ideals, and equal opportunity can be increasingly enacted" (Conceptual Framework, 2011). Hence, because of such a vision, the teacher educators seemed particularly attentive of the addressing the teacher candidates' prior experiences as related to diversity issues.

I believe that the Transactional Model proposed here sheds light on the importance of addressing teacher candidates' backgrounds in teacher preparation programs. Although I am not suggesting my inquiry shed light on all teacher preparation processes addressing teacher

candidates' backgrounds, the model may offer insights into some of these teacher preparation processes. In addition, the model could shed light on the kinds of prior experiences and backgrounds that shape specific aspects of teacher candidates' growth in their preparation program. In terms of transferability, teacher educators may find they can use this model to select and develop teacher candidates based on their knowledge of teacher preparation processes that address teacher candidates' backgrounds and based on their knowledge of specific backgrounds that may transact with these processes to spur aspects of candidates' growth in their preparation program. While I do not think that the model offers specific guidelines for entry requirements, I do believe that it can serve a purpose in entry requirements in terms of second language learning experiences abroad and of providing substantial opportunities for ESOL teacher candidates to immerse them in cultural and L2 reading experiences on which they can draw during their preparation.

Implications and Conclusion

These findings have implications of two types. The findings have implications for pedagogy and programmatic decision-making process and for future research. First, the present study suggests that it is important to consider and to address preservice ESOL teachers' antecedents. Indeed, the decision of the participants' program to consider and to draw on teacher candidates' antecedents was beneficial and contributed to their growth in important ways and assignments such as "Personal Reading History" and "Second/Foreign Language Autobiography" proved to be beneficial in this regard. Hence, a lack of attention to these teachers' antecedents might reduce their chance of learning and minimize opportunities for their growth in their preparation program (Knowles & Holt-Reynolds, 1994; Le Fevre, 2011).

On the other hand, ESOL teacher education programs might need to provide substantial experiences about L2 teaching in general and L2 reading in particular to teacher candidates so that they might be able to develop a sound L2 disciplinary knowledge. In fact, I notice that the domain of "understanding ESOL education" is the domain where the participants had more misinformed beliefs. In this regard, collaboration across programs in colleges of teacher education and departments of linguistics and foreign language in colleges of arts and sciences are strongly recommended if the institutional context allows it. In the same vein, carefully-designed abroad studies might need to be considered in preparation programs to expose teacher candidates to substantial L2 learning experiences in general and L2 reading experiences in particular.

Also, teacher preparation programs need to develop more effective assessment instruments to capture the entering beliefs of teacher candidates more effectively. Indeed, the study suggests that the participants held beliefs of which teacher educators in their preparation program were not necessarily aware. If left unaddressed, these beliefs had the potential to lead the participants to misconceptions that might be prejudicial not only to their future students' learning but also to their own learning. Hence, identifying such beliefs might be informative for the design and implementation of pedagogical strategies that might be effective in addressing aspects of candidates' belief system that need improvement, refinement, or reinforcement.

The study also has implications for research and policy. Further research is needed to gain a deeper understanding of the influence of prior experiences on ESOL teachers' reading instruction. Although this study seems to suggest that participants' lack of exposure to extensive L2 reading experiences might explain their lack of self-efficacy in articulating L2 reading teaching visions and in subsequent L2 reading instruction, we do not have substantial or more compelling evidence to believe that this is actually the case. Therefore, future research might

need to explore the role of prior L2 reading experiences in preservice ESOL teachers' L2 reading vision and instruction in depth.

In addition, the study suggests that the program processes implemented to address teacher candidates' backgrounds were instrumental in the transaction that led to the participants' growth. Although this finding provides insight into ESOL preparation processes, we do not have a clear idea of why these processes were effective or a clear idea of which processes were more effective or whether the combination of some of these processes works better. In this regard, we need more research to shed light on such questions. This kind of research is important because knowledge of which processes work better in addressing teacher candidates' antecedents might promote teacher educators' pedagogical knowledge and skills and contribute to more effective ESOL teacher preparation and education.

Furthermore, further investigation might shed light on what happened to the participants' beliefs about second language teaching and learning after completion of their preparation program. Although I noticed in the course of my investigation that participants' beliefs were changing, future research might shed light on the kinds/degree of change that occurred in the participants' belief system and what led to such change.

Finally, future research also needs to shed light on whether the findings were gender-related. All of my participants were female. Could we obtain comparable results if the participants were male? This is important because men and women seem to have different ways of knowing (Hofer & Pintrich, 1997).

In general, this inquiry opened the door to an area of teacher preparation until now hardly explored. Indeed, we know little about the ways preservice ESOL teachers draw on their

backgrounds and prior experiences to learn and grow in teacher preparation programs. The study provides some insights into such processes and into which prior experiences might be more influential in teacher candidates' growth.

Specifically in light of the findings of this study, we can better appreciate that preparation processes such as scaffolding, course discussions, reflective pieces, and assignments are helpful in addressing teacher candidates' antecedents and that when such processes are used, they contribute to candidates' professional dispositions development on one hand and to conceptual change to some degree on the other hand. The study also indicates that ESOL teacher candidates' prior experiences and backgrounds that are more influential include P-12 education learning experiences, college and travel-abroad learning experiences, and critical incidents experiences during P-12 education and abroad. Finally, we know that these prior experiences and others affected their understanding of ESOL education, their conceptualization of literacy learning and reading instruction, and the development of their professional dispositions.

To sum up, the study shows that it is crucial for ESOL teacher candidates to have opportunities to carefully consider, during their teacher education program, their prior experiences related to literacy, L2 and cultural learning. Drawing on prior experiences, the participants in the current study developed knowledge, skills, and dispositions related to their roles as future ESOL teachers. The participants' antecedents, indeed, helped them make sense of information presented in their preparation program in general and in coursework in particular and provided a foundation or support for them to develop new understandings and dispositions.

In addition, it is equally important for ESOL teacher preparation programs to consider candidates' background when creating program requirements, incorporate assessments and

assignments which illuminate the content of candidates' backgrounds and beliefs, and then draw on their ESOL teacher candidates' prior experiences and backgrounds during the program. The findings of this research underscore that the process of making connections to students' backgrounds should not be reserved to P-12 educators only. This practice should be woven into practices in teacher education on a consistent basis. Such consistent connection with students' prior life and learning experiences can potentially help teacher candidates open up and can make their learning experiences in higher education meaningful. In these ways, this study provides insights into an uncharted territory in ESOL teacher education. By careful attention to the background of candidates and drawing on their personal experiences during teacher preparation, we can work to prepare ESOL teachers who not only have positive dispositions toward second language learners, but who have first hand understanding of what it means to be a proficient L2 reader and language user and how to support the reading development of their L2 learners.

References

Ajayi, L. (2009). English as a second language Learners' exploration of multimodal texts in a junior high school. *Journal of Adolescence and Adult Literacy*, 52(7), 585-595.

Albers, P. (2006). Imaging the possibilities in multimodal curriculum design. *English Education*, 38(2), 75-101.

Anderson, R. C., & Pearson, D. P. (1984). A schema-theoretic view of basic processes in reading. In P. D. Pearson (Ed.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol.1, pp. 185-224). New York: Longman.

Antunez, B. (2002). The preparation and professional development of teachers of English language learners. ERIC Digest. Washington, DC: ERIC Clearninghouse on Teaching and Teacher Education. Retrieved November 2, 2009 from http://www/ed.gov/PressReleases/03-2002/wh-020304.html.

Arkoudis, S. (2006). Negotiating the rough ground between ESL and mainstream teachers. *The International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 9(4), 415-433.

Assaf, C. L. & Dooley, C. M. (2006). "Everything they were giving us created tension": Creating and managing tension in a graduate-level multicultural course focused on literacy methods. *Multicultural Education*, 14, 2, 42-49.

Au, K. H. (1993). *Literacy instruction in multicultural settings*. Belmont, CA: Wardsworth/Thomson Learning.

Avery, P. & Ehrlich, S. (1992). *Teaching American English pronunciation*. Oxford: University Press.

Baker, E. L., Barton, P. E., Darling-Hammond, L., Haertel, E., Ladd., H. F., Linn, R. L., Ravitch, D., Rothstein, R., Shavelson, R. J., & Shepard, L. A. (2010). *Problems with the use of student test scores to evaluate teachers.* Washington, D.C.: Economic Policy Institute.

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman

Banks, J., Cochran-Smith, M., Moll, L., Richert, A., Zeichner, K., LePage, P., Darling-Hammond, L., Duffy, H., & McDonald,M. (2005). Teaching diverse learners. In L. Darling-Hammond & J. Bransford (Eds.), *Preparing teachers for a changing world* (pp.232-274). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bergeron, B. S. (1990). What does the term Whole Language mean?: Constructing a definition from the literature. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 22(4), 232-248.

Birch, B. (2002). *English L2 reading: Getting to the bottom*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum

Bodgan, C. R., & Biklen, S. K. (2007). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theories and methods*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education.

Borg, S. (1998). Teachers' pedagogical systems and grammar teaching: A qualitative study. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(1), 9-38.

Braithwaite, J. (1999). Does it matter what I think? An exploration of teachers' construction of literacy and their classroom practices. Paper presented at the European Conference on Educational Research, Lahti, Finland, September, 22-25, 1999.

Bransford, J. D. (1994). Schema activation and schema acquisition: Comments on Richards C. Anderson's remarks. In R. B. Rudell, M. R. Rudell, and H. Singer (Eds.), *Theoretical*

models and processes of reading (4th ed., pp.483-495). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Brown, J. D., & Rogers, T. S. (2002). *Doing second language research*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Brown, D. H. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching.* New York: Pearson Education.

Celce-Murcia, M., Brinton, D., & Goodwin, J. (1996). *Teaching pronunciation: A reference for teachers of English to speakers of other languages.* New York: Cambridge.

Chambers, J. K., Trudgill, P., & Schilling-Estes, N. (2004). *The handbook of language variation and change*. Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Chubbuck, S. M. (2010). Individual and structural orientations in socially just teaching: Conceptualization, implementation, and collaborative effort. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 61(3), 197-210.

Coady, K. S. (2007). No writer left behind: Examining the reading-writing connection in the Reading First classroom through a teacher study group. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 69 (01), 534K. (UMI No. 3300998)

Cobb, P. (2005). Where is the mind? A coordination of sociocultural and cognitive constructivist perspectives. In C. T. Fosnot (Ed.), *Constructivism: Theory, perspectives, and practice*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Cochran-Smith, M., & Boston College Evidence Team. (2009). "Re-Culturing" teacher education: Inquiry, evidence, and action. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 60, 458-468.

Cohen, J. (2007). A case study of a high school English-language learner and his reading. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 51, 164-175.

Corder, S. (1967). The significance of learners' errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 5, 161-170.

Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspectives in the research process*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications Inc.

Connelly, F. M., Clandinin, D. J., & He, M. F. (1997). Teachers personal practical knowledge on the professional knowledge landscape. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *13*, 665-674.

Converse. J. M., & Presser, S. (1986). *Survey questions: Handcrafting the standardized questionnaire*. Sage University Paper

Corbett, J. (2003). *An intercultural approach to English language teaching*. Tonawanda, NY: Multilingual Matters.

Corona, E. & Armour, L. (2007). Providing support for English language learner services. *Literacy Media Education*, 34-37.

Cox, K. (2006). *Testing Brief: Spring 2006 Georgia Criterion-Referenced Competency Tests in reading, English Language Arts, mathematics, science, and social studies*. Georgia Department of Education.

Cruz. M. (2004). Can English language learners acquire academic English? *The English Journal*, 93(4), 14-17.

Cummins, J. (1979). Cognitive/academic language proficiency, linguistic interdependence, the optimal age question and some other matters. *Working Papers on Bilingualism*, 19, 197-205.

Cummins, J. (1980). The cross-lingual dimensions of language proficiency: Implications for bilingual education and the optimal age issue. *TESOL Quarterly*, 14, 175-187.

Cunningham, J. W. & Fitzgerald, J. (1996). Epistemology and reading. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 31, 36-60.

Curtin, E. A. (2005). Teaching practices for ESL students. *Multicultural Education*, 12(3), 22-27

Daisey, P. (2009). The reading experiences and beliefs of secondary preservice teachers. *Reading Horizons*, 49, 167-190.

Darling-Hammond, L., & Bransford, J. (Eds). (2005*). Preparing teachers for a changing world: What teachers should learn and be able to do*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2006). *Powerful teacher education: Lessons from exemplary programs*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

DeFord, D. E. (1985). Validating the construct of theoretical orientation in reading instruction. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 20(3), 351-367.

DeWalt, K. M., & DeWalt, B. R. (2002). *Participant Observation: A guide for fieldworks*. Oxford: AltaMira Press.

Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and education*. New York: Macmillan.

Donovan, M. S. & Bransford, J. (2005). *How students learn: History, mathematics, and science in the classroom*. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press.

Dooley, C. M. (2008). Multicultural literacy teacher education: Seeking micro-transformations. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 47(2), 55-75.

Dooley, C. M. & Assaf, L. C. (2009a). Context Matters: Two teachers' knowledge about Language Arts instruction in this high-stakes era. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 41, 3, 354-391.

Duff, P. A. Language, literacy, content, and (pop) culture: Challenges for ESL students in mainstream courses. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 58, 103-132.

Duffy, A. M. & Atkinson, T. S. (2001). Learning to teach struggling (and non-struggling) elementary school readers: An analysis of preservice teachers' knowledges. *Reading Research and Instruction*, 41, 83-102.

Early, M. & Marshall, S. (2008). Adolescent ESL students' interpretation and appreciation of literary texts: A case study of multimodality. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 64(3), 677-697.

Flowerdew, J. (1998). Language learning experience in L2 teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(3), 529-536.

Freeman, D. (1995). Asking "good" questions: Perspectives from qualitative research on practice, knowledge, and understanding in teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(3), 581-585.

Freeman, D., & Johnson, K. E. (1998). Reconceptualizing of the knowledge-base of language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 397-417

Gallant, P. & Schwartz, R. (2010). Examining the nature of expertise in reading instruction. *Literacy Research and instruction*, 49, 1-19.

Gerla, J. K. (1994). A descriptive analysis of preservice teachers' perceptions of themselves as readers and writers. Unpiblished doctoral dissertation, Texas A&M University, College Station, TX.

Gee, J.P. (2001). Reading as a situated language: A sociocognitive perspective. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 44, 714-725.*

Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. Chicago: Aldine.

Glew, P. (2001). Staking out the territory for intensive English programs in secondary school contexts. *TESOL in contexts*, 11(1), 15-20.

Goddard, R. D. & Goddard, Y. L. (2000). A multilevel analysis of the relationship between teacher and collective efficacy in urban schools. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17, 807–818.

Golombek, P. R. (1998). A study of language teachers' personal practical knowledge. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*, 447-464.

Gonzales, R. D., & Melis, I. (2000). *Language ideologies: Critical perspectives on the official English movement, volume I: History, theory, and policy*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Grabe, W. (1991). Current developments in second language reading research. *TESOL Quarterly*, *25*, 375-406

Grabe, W. & Stoller, F. L. (2002). *Teaching and researching reading*. London: Pearson Education Longman.

Graden, E. C. (1996). How language teachers' beliefs about reading instruction are mediated by their beliefs about students. *Foreign Language Annals*, *29*, 387-395.

Gunning, T. G. (1996). *Creating reading instruction for all children*. Needhan Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Gupta, R. & Saravanan, V. (1995). Old beliefs impede student teacher learning of reading instruction. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 21(3), 347-360.

Guthrie, J. T. (2004). Teaching for literacy engagement. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 36(1), 1-29.

Hinkel, E. (2006). Current perspectives on teaching the four skills. *TESOL Quarterly*, *40*, 109-131.

Hofer, B. K. (2000). Dimensionality and disciplinary differences in personal epistemology. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 378-405.

Hofer, B. K. & Pintrich, P. R. (1997). The development of epistemological theories: Beliefs about knowledge and knowing and their relation to learning. *Review of Educational Research*, 67, 88-140.

Hoff, E. (2009). *Language development*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth, Center learning.

Hollins, E. R. & Guzman, M. T. (2005). Research on preparing teachers for diverse students. In M. Cochran-Smith & K. M. Zeichner (Eds), *Studying teacher education: The report of the AREA Panel on research and teacher education* (pp. 474-548). Washington, D.C.: American Educational Research Association.

Hoschchild, J. L. (2003). Social class in public schools. *Journal of Social Issues*, 59(4), 821-840.

Hu, G. (2002). Psychological constraints on the utility of metalinguistic knowledge in second language production. *SSLA*, 19(2), 249-276.

Janzen, J. (2007). Preparing teachers of second language reading. *TESOL Quarterly*, *41*, 707-729.

Jimenez, R. T. & Rose, B. C. (2010). Knowing how to know: Building meaningful relationships through instruction that meets the needs of students learning English. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 61(5) 403 – 412.

Johnson, K. E. (1992). The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices during literacy instruction for non-native speakers of English. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, *24*, 83-108.

Johnson, K. E. (1994). The emerging beliefs and instructional practices of preservice English as a second language teachers. *Teachers and Teacher Education*, *10*, 439-452.

Johnson, K. E. (1996). The role of theory in L2 teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, *30*, 765-771.

Kennedy, M. (1999). The role of preservice teacher education. In L. Darling-Hammond ad G. Sykes (eds.), *Teaching as the learning profession: Handbook of policy and practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

King, E. J. (2000). White teachers at the crossroads: A moral choice for White teachers. *Teaching Tolerance Magazine*, 2000, 14-15.

King, E. J. (2006).On dysconsciousness: An interview with Joyce E. King. *Educational Studies*, 40(2), 197-208.

Knowles, J. G. & Holt-Reynolds, D. (1994). An introduction: Personal histories a medium, a method, and milieu for gaining insights into development. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 21(1), 5-12.

Knudson, R. E. (1998). *The relationship between preservice teachers' beliefs and practices during literacy instruction for non-native speakers of English*. Retrieved November 2, 2009 from www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/recordDetail?accno=ED418074

Krashen, S. (1984). Immersion: Why it works and it has taught us. *Language and Society*, 12, 61-64.

Krashen, S. (1992). Under what conditions, if any, should formal grammar instruction take place? *TESOL Quarterly*, 26, 409-411.

Krashen, S. (1994). The effects of formal grammar teaching: Still peripheral. *TESOL Quarterly*, 722-725.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001). Toward a postmethod pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, *35*, 537-560.

Le Fevre, D. M. (2011). Creating and facilitating a teacher education curriculum using preservice teachers' autobiographical stories. Teaching and Teacher Education, 27, 779-787.

Lenneberg, E. (1967). *The biological foundations of language*. New York: Wiley.

Lenski, S. D. (2007). Reflections on being biliterate: Lessons from paraprofessionals. *Action in Teacher Education*, *28*, 104-113.

Lenski, S. D., Grisham, D. L., & Wold, L. S. (2006). *Literacy teacher preparation: Ten truths teacher educators need to know*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Levine, A. (2006, September). Educating school teachers. The education schools project, 2. Retrieved September 30, 2006 from http://www.edschools.org/teacher_report_release.htm.

Lincoln, Y. S. & Guba, E. G.(1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: SAGE Publications.

Lortie, D. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A sociological study*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Love, K. (2009). Literacy pedagogical content knowledge in secondary teacher education: reflecting on oral language and learning across the disciplines. *Language and Education*, 23(6), 541-560.

Lucas. T (1999). Facilitating secondary English language learners' transition into the mainstream. *TESOL Journal*, 8(4), 6-13.

Many, J. E., Dewberry, D., Taylor, D. L., & Coady, K. (2009). Profiles of three ESOL teachers' development of instructional scaffolding. *Reading Psychology: An International Quarterly*, 30(2), 148-174.

Many, J. E., Howard. F., & Hoge, P. (1998). Personal literacy and literature-based instruction: Exploring preservice teachers' views of themselves as readers. In T. Shanahan & F. V. Rodriguez-Brown (Eds.), *The 47th Yearbook of the National Reading Conference* (pp. 496-507). Chicago, IL: National Reading Conference

Many, J. E., Howard. F., & Hoge, P. (2002). Epistemology and pre-service teacher education: How do beliefs about knowledge affect our students' experiences? *English Education*, 34, 302- 322.

Matsuda, P. K. (2003). Process and post-process: A discursive history. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12, 65-83.

May, S. & Wright, N. (2007). Secondary literacy across the curriculum: Challenges and possibilities. *Language and Education*, 31(5), 370-376.

McKeon, D. (1985). Some common components in training bilingual, ESL, Foreign Language, and mainstream teachers. ERIC #: ED273156

McKool, S. S. & Gespass, S. (2009). Does Johnny's reading teacher love to read? How teachers' personal reading habits affect instructional practices? *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 48, 264-276.

McLaughlin, M. (2010). *Content area reading: Teaching and learning in an age of multiple literacies*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education.

Meltzoff, A. N. (1988). Infant imitation after a 1-week delay: Long-term memory for novel acts and multiple stimuli. *Developmental Psychology*, 24, 470-476.

Milambiling, J. (1999, November). Native and non-native speakers: The view from teacher education. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Midwest Modern Languages Association Retrieved November 2, 2009 from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?accno=ED444353.

Moll, L. C. (1994). Literacy research in community and classrooms: A socio-cultural approach. In R. B. Rudell, M. R. Rudell, and H. Singer (Eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (4th ed., pp.179-207). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Morley, J. (1986). *Current perspectives on pronunciation: Practices anchored in theory*. Washington, D.C.: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages.

Moussu, L. M. (2006). Native and nonnative English-speaking English as a second language teachers: Student attitudes, teacher self-perceptions, and Intensive English Administrator beliefs and practices. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 68 (2). (UMI No. 3251666)

Nagy, W. E. & Scott, J. A. (2000). Vocabulary processes. In M. L. Kamil, P. B. Mosenthal, P. D. Pearson, and R. Barr (Eds.) *Handbook of Reading Research, Vol. III*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates

Nation, I .S. P (1990). *Teaching and learning vocabulary*. New York: Newbury House.

National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. *Professional standards for the accreditation of teacher preparation institutions*. Washington, D.C.: NCATE, 2008.

Paas, F., Renkel, A., & Sweller, J. (2004). Cognitive load theory: Instructional implications of the interaction between information structures and cognitive architecture. *Instructional Science*, *32*, 1-8.

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, *62*, 307-332.

Palma, A. D. (1974). *The Spirit-God in Action*. Springfield, MI: Gospel Publishing House.

Peacock, M. (2001). Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning: a longitudinal study. *System*, *29*, 177-195.

Reeves, J. (2009). A sociocultural perspective on ESOL teachers 'linguistic knowledge for teaching. *Linguistics and Education*, *20*, 109-125.

Reigle, R. (2007). Washington state's English language learners instructors: The need for additional preparation. Retrieved November 2, 2009 from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/contentdelivery/servlet/ERICServlet?accno=ED497482

Richards, J. C. (1996). Teachers' maxims in language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, *30*, 281-296.

Richards, J. C. & Renandya, W. A. (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge Press University.

Richardson, V., Anders, P., Tidwell, D., & Llyod, C. (1991). The relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in reading comprehension. *American Educational Research Journal*, *28*, 559-586.

Roseberry-McKibbin, C., Brice, A., & O'Hanlon, L. (2005). Serving English language learners in public school settings: A national survey. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in schools*, *36*, 48-61.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1994). The transactional theory of reading and writing. In R. B. Rudell, M. R. Rudell, and H. Singer (Eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (4th ed., pp.179-207). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Roth, W. & Tobin, K. (2002). Redesigning an "Urban" Teacher Education Program: An Activity Theory Perspective. *Mind, Culture, And Activity*, 9(2), 108–131.

Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (2005). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1994). Toward an interactive model of reading. In R. B. Rudell, M. R. Rudell, and H. Singer (Eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (4th ed., pp.179-207). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Rymes, B. (2002). Language in development in the United States: Supervising adult ESOL preservice teachers in an immigrant community. *TESOL Quarterly*, *36*, 431-452.

Scarino, A. (2005). Introspection and retrospection as windows on teacher knowledge, values, and ethical dispositions. In D. J. Tedick (Ed.). *Second language teacher education: International perspectives* (pp.33-52*)*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Scharlach, T. D. (2008). The kids just aren't motivated to read: The influence of pre-service teachers' beliefs on their expectations, instruction, and evaluation of struggling readers. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 46, 158-173.

Schmidt, P. (1995). Working and playing with others: Cultural conflict in a kindergarten literacy program. *The Reading Teacher*, 48, 404-412.

Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in language teaching*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Schumann, J. H. (1978). The acculturation model for second language acquisition. In Rosario C. Gingras (Ed.). *Second language acquisition and foreign language teaching*. Arlington, VA: Center for Applied Linguistics.

Scovel, T. (1969). Foreign accents, language acquisition, and cerebral dominance. *Language Learning*, 19(3-4), 245-253.

Sharkey, J. (2004). ESOL teachers' knowledge of context as critical mediator in curriculum development. *TESOL Quarterly*, *38*, 279-299.

Shaw, D. M., Dvorak, M. J., & Bates, K. (2007). Promise and possibility- Hope for teacher education: Pre-service literacy instruction can have an impact. *Reading Research and Instruction*, 46, 223-254.

Smith, F. (1971). *Understanding reading: A psycholinguistic analysis of reading and learning to read*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.

Stahl, S. A. & Fairbanks, M. M. (1986). The effects of vocabulary instruction: A model-based meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 56(1), 72-110.

Swars, S. L., Meyers, B., Mays, L. C., & Lack, B. (2009). A two-dimensional model of teacher retention and mobility: Classroom teachers and their university partners take a closer look at a vexing problem. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 60(2), 168-183.

Tarone, E., & Allwright, D. (2005). Second language teacher learning and student second language learning: Shaping the knowledge-base. In D. J. Tedick (Ed.). *Second language teacher education: International perspective* (pp.5-24*)*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Tashakkori , A., & Teddlie, C. (1998). *Mixed methodology: Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Tedick , D. J., & Walker, L. C. (1994). Second language teacher education: The problems that plague us. *The Modern Language Journal*, *78*, 300-312.

Tellez, K., & Waxman, H. (2004). *Quality teachers for English language learners: A research synthesis*. University of Carlifornia at Santa Cruz and University of Houston: Publication Series No.2.

Tercanlioglu, L. (2001). Pre-Service teachers as readers and future teachers of EFL Reading. *TESL-EJ, 5*(3). Retrieved December 1, 2009 from http://www.zait.uni-bremen.de/wwwgast/tesl_ej/ej19/a2.html (accessed 3 July 2002).

Theriot, S. & Tice, K. C. (2009). Teachers' knowledge development and change: Untangling beliefs and practices. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 48, 65-75.

Tomasello, M. (2000b). The item-based nature of children's early syntactic development. *Trends in cognitive sciences*, *4*, 156-163.

Townsend, D. (2009). Building academic vocabulary in after-school settings: Games for growth with middle school English-language learners. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 53(3), 242-251

Tracey, D. H., & Morrow, L. M. (2006). *Lenses on Reading: An introduction to theories and models*. New York: The Guilford Press.

U.S. Department of Education. (2002). *Meeting the highly qualified teachers challenge: The Secretary's annual report on teacher quality*. Washington, DC: Author.

Villegas, A. (1997). Assessing teacher performance in a diverse society. In L. Goodwin (ed.), *Assessment for equity and inclusion: Embracing all our children*. New York: Routledge.

Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of mental higher processes*. Cambridge, MA: Havard University Press

Vygotsky, L. (1986). *Thought and Language*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press

Watt, D. & Roessingh, H. (2001). The Dynamics of ESL drop-out: Plus Ca Change... *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 58(2), 203-222.

Weiner, L. (2000). Research in the 90s: Implications for Urban Teacher Preparation. *Review of Educational Research*, 70(3), 369-406.

Wilson, S., Floden, R. E., & Ferrini-Mundy, J. (2001). Teacher preparation research: Current knowledge, gaps, and recommendations. *Journal of Teacher Education*.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

Demographic Profile Survey

Directions: Please, provide answers to the questions below based on any second language or second language reading experiences you encountered before entering your teacher preparation program.

These experiences might include any foreign language instruction received in middle/high schools or at the college level, any second language instruction received for traveling abroad purposes or as part of it, and any second language learning experiences for any other purposes (e.g. learning second language to be a competitive business manager or representative). Note that the term "significant" used in the answers suggested below means extensive in the sense of amount or size.

1- Have you had any second language learning experience as a middle/high school student? Circle the right answer.

Yes No

A- How would you qualitatively rate those experiences?

Significant Moderate Insignificant

B- How would you quantitatively rate those experiences?

1000 hours and above Between below 1000 hours and 200 hours Between 0- and below 200 hours

2- Was L2 reading part of those experiences?

Yes No

A- How would you rate your L2 reading experience?

Significant Moderate Insignificant

B- How would you quantitatively rate your L2 reading experiences?

500 hours and above Below 500hours – 100 hours 0 – below 100hours

3- Have you had any second language learning experience as a college student before entering your teacher education program? Circle the right answer.

Yes No

C- How would you qualitatively rate those experiences?

Significant Moderate Insignificant

D- How would you quantitatively rate those experiences?

1000 hours and above Between below 1000 hours and 200 hours Between 0- and below 200 hours

4- Is L2 reading part of those experiences?

Yes No

C- How would you rate your L2 reading experience?

Significant Moderate Insignificant

D- How would you quantitatively rate your L2 reading experiences?

500 hours and above Below 500 hours – 100 hours 0 – below 100hours

5- Have you had any second language learning experience for travelling purposes? Circle the right answer.

Yes No

E- How would you qualitatively rate those experiences?

Significant Moderate Insignificant

F- How would you quantitatively rate those experiences?

1000 hours and above Between below 1000 hours and 200 hours Between 0- and below 200 hours

6- Is L2 reading part of those experiences?

Yes No

E- How would you rate your L2 reading experience?

Significant Moderate Insignificant

F- How would you rate quantitatively rate your L2 reading experiences?

500 hours and above Below 500hours – 100 hours 0 – below 100hours

7- Have you had any second language learning experience for any reasons other than mentioned above? Circle the right answer.

Yes No

G- How would you qualitatively rate those experiences?

Significant Moderate Insignificant

H- How would you quantitatively rate those experiences?

1000 hours and above Between below 1000 hours and 200 hours Between 0- and below 200 hours

8- Was L2 reading part of those experiences?

Yes No

G- How would you rate your L2 reading experience?

Significant Moderate Insignificant

H- How would you quantitatively rate your L2 reading experiences?

I- 500 hours and above Below 500hours – 100 hours 0 – below 100hours

APPENDIX B

Language Teaching/Learning Beliefs Questionnaire

Directions: The questions below are about second language learning and teaching. The answers to the questions are based on Likert scale. Circle your answer based on what you think or believe is the right practice or good learning in the L2 learning and teaching process. Cultural learning as used here refers to any social learning outside of school.

1- Some people have a special aptitude for learning foreign/second languages.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

2- Teachers should be facilitators rather than directors of L2 classes.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

3- Student writers should get their ideas on paper and not worry about correctness.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

4- In learning a foreign language, it is important to repeat and practice a lot.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

5- Striving for native-like pronunciation is not a useful goal in language teaching.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

6- It is important that sentences be grammatically correct when spoken.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

7- Vocabulary words are the most important part of learning a new language.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

8- Students should be speaking from the first day of learning a new language.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

9- If learners are allowed to make errors, these will be hard to correct later.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

10- The most important part of a new language is learning its grammar.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

11- Language teaching should rely on a strong base of linguistics.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

12- In communication, meaning is all-important; form of little importance.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

13- A foreign/second language will improve only if it is used often for communication.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

14- Listening is more important than speaking in earlier stages.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

15- Everybody can learn a foreign/second language following the same teaching techniques.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

16- Listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills should first be taught separately.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

17- In writing, the final product is critical, not the process by which it occurs.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

18- Grammatical rules should be ‘discovered’ by students rather than explicitly taught.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

19- In oral practice, the teacher should not correct student errors during practice.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

20- First and second language learning follow the same basic processes.

Strongly agree Agree Disagree Strongly disagree

How much your answer is influenced by?

- Your native cultural learning: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your P-12 education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

- Your higher education: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%
- Your travel abroad: A: 100%-75%; B: 74%-50%; C: 49%-25%; D: 24%-0%

APPENDIX C

Sample Questions of Initial Interview with Faculty and Students

Faculty

1- Please, could you briefly describe the background of the teacher candidates in your program?

2- Given the diversity in background of these teacher candidates, how do you teach this group drawing on their background knowledge?

3- Could you describe some specific pedagogical approaches when accomplishing these goals?

4- Could you describe any courses or course assignments that might be of interest to me? Could you indicate which of the teacher education courses that I might observe for this research purposes?

Students

5- Please, could you tell me what motivated to engage in ESOL teaching?

6- Based on the demographic survey results, you had learned foreign language for two (2) years, could you describe such language learning experience?

7- Please, tell me about how you believe L2 is/can be learned.

8- Today, you are enrolled in ESOL teacher preparation program with the purpose to teach ESOL students, how do you think that your own language learning experience is shaping how you are learning in your preparation program?

9- Could you describe any learning experience this summer that gave the opportunity to draw on your personal background?

APPENDIX D

Modified Version of the Multidimensional TESL Theoretical Orientation Profile

Instructions: Please read all the 21 statements. Then select seven statements that most closely reflect your beliefs about how English as a second language is learned and how English as second language should be taught.

1- Language can be thought of a set of grammatical structures which are learned consciously and controlled by the language learner.

2- The ESOL teacher provides clear instruction as for how English language works and uses students' background to teach them how to read.

3- As long as English Language Learners understand what they are saying, they are actually learning the language.

4- English Language Learners need to be given a lot of English reading materials in order to develop their reading abilities.

5- When English Language Learners make oral errors, it helps to correct them and later teach a short lesson explaining why they made that mistake.

6- As long as English Language Learners listen to, practice, and remember the language which language speakers use, they are actually learning the language.

7- English language teachers read materials to students and ask them to imitate her.

8- English Language Learners generally need to understand the grammatical rules of English in order to become fluent in the language.

9- When English Language Learners make oral errors, it usually helps to provide them with lots of oral practice with the language patterns which seem to cause them difficulty.

10- English language instructors need to use students' first language and culture to develop their reading comprehension in English.

11- Language can be thought as meaningful communication and is learned subconsciously in both academic and non-academic social situations.

12- Second language instructors need to provide rules as for how English language rules work in the reading process.

13- If English Language Learners understand some of the basic grammatical rules of the language they can usually create lots of new sentences on their own.

14- Usually it is more important for English Language Learners to focus on what they are trying to say and not how to say it.

15- If English Language Learners practice the language patterns of native speakers they can make up new sentences based on those language patterns which they have already practiced.

16- English Language Learners are taught English phonemic combinations and asked to use them when reading.

17- It is important to provide clear, frequent, precise presentations of grammatical structures during English language instruction.

18- Language can be described as a set of behaviors which are mastered through lots of drills and practice with the language patterns of native speakers.

19- When English Language Learners make oral errors, it is best to ignore the, as long as you can understand what they are trying to say.

20- English Language Learners usually need to master some of the basic listening and speaking skills before they can begin to read and write.

21- It's not necessary to actually teach English Language Learners how to speak English; they usually begin speaking English on their own.

Theoretical Orientation of Reading Profile

Directions: Read the following statements carefully and choose ten (10) that you believe represents your orientation to reading instruction.

1- A child needs to be able to verbalize the rules of phonics in order to assure proficiency in processing new words.

2- An increase in reading errors is usually related to a decrease in comprehension.

3- Dividing words into syllables according to rules is a helpful instructional practice for reading new words.

4- Fluency and expression are necessary components of reading that indicate good comprehension.

5- Materials for early reading should be written in natural language without concern for short, simple words and sentences.

6- When children do not know a word, they should be instructed to sound out its parts.

7- It is a good practice to allow children to edit what is written into their own dialect when learning to read.

8- The use of a glossary or dictionary is necessary in determining the meaning and pronunciation of new words.

9- Reversals (e.g., saying "saw" for "was") are significant problems in the teaching of reading.

10- It is a good practice to correct a child as soon as an oral reading mistake is made.

11- It is important for a word to be repeated a number of times after it has been introduced to insure that it will become a part of sight vocabulary.

12- Paying close attention to punctuation marks is necessary to understanding story content.

13- It is a sign of an ineffective reader when words and phrases are repeated.

14- Being able to label words according to grammatical function (nouns, etc.) is useful in proficient reading.

15- When coming to a word that's unknown, the reader should be encouraged to guess upon meaning and go on.

16- Young readers need to be introduced to the root form of words (run, long) before they are asked to read inflected forms (running, longest).

17- It is not necessary for a child to know the letters of the alphabet in order to learn to read.

18- Flashcard drills with sightwords is an unnecessary form of practice in reading instruction.

19- Ability to use accent patterns in multisyllable words (pho 'to graph, pho to' gra phy, and pho to gra' phic) should be developed as part of reading instruction.

20- Controlling text through consistent spelling patterns (The fat cat ran back. The fat cat sat on a hat) is a means by which children can best learn to read.

21- Formal instruction in reading is necessary to insure the adequate development of all the skills used in reading.

22- Phonic analysis is the most important form of analysis used when meeting new words.

23- Children's initial encounters with print should focus on meaning, not upon exact graphic representation

24- Word shapes (word configuration) should be taught in reading to aid in word recognition.

25- It is important to teach skills in relation to other skills.

26- If a child says "house" for the written word "home," the response should be left uncorrected.

27- It is not necessary to introduce new words before they appear in the reading text.

28- Some problems in reading are caused by readers dropping the inflectional endings from words (e.g., jumps, jumped)

APPENDIX E

In-depth Interview with Key Informants (Fall)

1- Could you tell me about your background having learned a second language?

2- Was there a particular experience during this time that influenced your ideas of second language or ESOL instruction? (ie. positive or negative experience?)

3- What led you to the decision to enter the ESOL teacher preparation program?

4- How would you describe your growth in understanding ESOL instruction through your preparation in this teacher education program thus far ? (ie. knowledge, disposition, and skills; ESOL instruction in general to L2 reading instruction in particular)

5- How do you compare L1 reading and L2 reading?

6- What are pedagogical implications from such a comparison?

7- How much has your personal background knowledge shaped your development while in the program so far? (ie. positive, negative)

8- I noticed on the questionnaire, that you responded “X” to the item (X) at the beginning of the summer but on the second time you completed the questionnaire you said “Y”. Can you explain why you feel differently now?

APPENDIX F

Protocols for Videotaping, Reflection, and Debriefing Interview

Directions for Videotaping of Field Experience Lesson:

- As part of this research, you are going to videotape a field experience lesson on 4 occasions. I will provide you with the videotapes (and if necessary the equipment).
- Each tape should be approximately 20-30 minutes in length and should focus on reading instruction for ELL learners.
- After teaching the lesson, please complete the information on the "INTROSPECTION and RETROSPECTION Worksheet.
- I will follow up in October, November, January, and February to arrange a debriefing interview to discuss your videotape and your reflection.
- The February interview will be in the form of a group discussion with other participants in the study. You will be invited to share an excerpt from your video with these other participants and to discuss your perspectives on ESOL instruction.
- Please bring a copy of your lesson plan for the videotaped lesson and your "INTROSPECTION and RETROSPECTION Worksheet" to each of our follow up sessions.

INTROSPECTION and RETROSPECTION Worksheet

Name:

Context: *(Please type a description of your class, grade level, number of students.)*

Date:

INTROSPECTIVE REFLECTION: *(Please type how this lesson went. Strengths? Challenges?)*

RETROSPECTIVE REFLECTION: *(Think back to your own experiences with L2 reading or L2 reading instruction. In what ways does this lesson resemble or differ from those experiences? Did your personal experiences in these L2 reading events shape your teaching in any way? Does your approach reflect a change in your beliefs?)*

Sample Questions for Debriefing Interview

- Are there any parts of the video in particular that you would like to discuss/share?
- The **INTROSPECTION and RETROSPECTION Worksheet** had you reflect back on your own experiences in L2 reading, could you expand on any ways you felt these experiences may have impacted this lesson? If they didn't, can you explain why?
- At this point in your program, you are still in courses and you are receiving feedback from supervisors and your cooperating teacher. Does the issue of your personal background in general or your prior experiences in L2 learning and instruction come up in your coursework or discussions? Describe.

- Have you experienced any instances where there has been a conflict between coursework/class instruction and your beliefs or personal background? How did you resolve such cognitive dissonance?

APPENDIX G

Focus Group Protocol

The purpose of this focus group is to enable you to discuss with each other your views of L2 reading instruction and how your approach reflects or differs from your own personal experiences.

(Each person will be invited to share a 5-10 minute clip of L2 reading instruction. The following prompts will be used to guide the follow up discussion).

- Tells us about how this excerpt reflects your views toward L2 reading instruction.
- (To the group) – What observations do you have regarding this lesson?
- In what ways did your personal background experiences impact this lesson? If they didn't, can you explain why?
- (To the group) – How does this approach relate to your own experiences?

After the video tape segment discussions have occurred for each participant. Ask the following:

- In our individual discussions, we have talked about how personal background may or may not be shaping your learning in this program. Now that you are nearing the end of your program, do you feel your prior experiences and beliefs shaped your learning and growth in this program in positive ways? Explain.
- Were there any times where there was evidence that your prior experience and beliefs caused tensions for you? Explain?

- Have any of your beliefs or your perspective toward your prior experiences changed? In what ways.

APPENDIX H

Spring Interviews – Sample Questions for Field Experiences Supervisor(s) and/or Faculty

1- Your teacher candidates are now in their third semester. How can you appreciate their growth in ESOL teaching? (ie. in terms of knowledge, dispositions, and skills, including general ESOL instruction and as well as L2 reading instruction in particular)

2- How do you think personal background of the teacher candidates may have influenced this development? (ie. in terms of knowledge, dispositions, and skills, in general ESOL as well as L2 reading instruction; positive or negative?)

3- In thinking about the backgrounds of these teacher candidates, did the students' prior knowledge and beliefs impact their learning across the program in ways that you might have expected? Why or why not?

4- How much do you think that the teacher candidates have changed (if at all), as far as their personal beliefs about ESOL instruction? What events or factors do you think led to such a change?

Appendix I

Rosaline's Lesson Plan

***Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash* Unit**

Lesson Plan (Day 1):

Background and rationale:

This unit addresses the four domains of language, speaking, reading, writing, and listening, which are equally important for second language acquisition. The lesson is grounded in theory and addresses aspects of schema theory, emergent literacy, whole language, behaviorism, and constructivism. I have written the lesson from two perspectives: a language experience approach and a literature based approach. Authentic children's literature serves the purpose of expanding the students' knowledge of key vocabulary, reading fluency, and oral skills. Planting the radish seeds serves as the authentic activity upon which a subsequent writing activity is built. I believe that students learn best when the learning environment is rich with authenticity and purpose and posits the students as meaning makers.

Day one begins with an introduction to key vocabulary supported by realia and the reading of *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash.* Students will retell the story and then plant radish seeds. After planting the seeds the students will fill in a sequence of events graphic organizer about how to plant seeds.

Day two continues with a review of key vocabulary and another reading of *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash.* Students will use their pre-writes from day one to create a rough draft of the informational writing piece "How to plant radish seeds." Students will review each other's rough drafts during a closely monitored peer-review session.

Day three is the last day of the unit and opens with a review of vocabulary and then a viewing of a teachertube video. The video is a time elapse of a radishes growing from seed and is accompanied by lively banjo music. It is important to include multi-media presentations of concepts and vocabulary since all students learn differently. After viewing the video, the students will complete the final copy of "How to plant radish seeds." They will illustrate their papers, share their writing with their peers, and publish their work by allowing the teacher to hang their papers on the classroom walls for all ESOL students to see.

References:

August, D., & Shanahan, T. (2006). *Executive summary: Developing literacy in second-language learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language Minority Children and Youth*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Díaz-Rico, L. T. (2008). *Strategies for teaching English learners* (Second.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Georgia Department of Education (n.d.) In English Language Arts and Reading K-5. Retrieved October 24, 2010, from https://www.georgiastandards.org/standards/Georgia%20Performance%20Standards/Grade-Five.pdf

Tracey, D. H., & Mandel Morrow, T. (2006). *Lenses on reading: An introduction to theories and models*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Weeks, S. (2000). *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash*. Carmel, CA: Hampton-Brown.

WIDA Consortium. (2007). Understanding the WIDA English language proficiency standards: A resource guide. Retrieved October 24, 2010, from http://www.wida.us/standards/PreK-5%20Standards%20web.pdf

Language Objectives:

WIDA Standard 2: English language learners communicate ideas and concepts necessary for academic success in the content of Language Arts.

Speaking: SWBAT use key vocabulary to orally retell a story, discuss the characteristics of vegetables, and recount the sequence for planting seeds.

Listening: SWBAT listen to teacher and peers discuss key vocabulary as well as listen to teacher read aloud *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash*.

Reading: SWBAT read along with the teacher as she reads aloud from *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash*.

Writing: SWBAT write a pre-write for an upcoming informational writing assignment.

Content Standards:

ELA2R3 The student acquires and uses grade-level words to communicate effectively.

ELA2R3b. The student recognizes grade appropriate words with multiple meanings.

ELA2R4 The student uses a variety of strategies to gain meaning from grade-level text.

ELA2R b. The student makes predictions from text content.

ELA2R d. The student recalls explicit facts and infers implicit facts.

ELA2R e. The student summarizes text content.

ELA2W1 The student begins to demonstrate competency in the writing process.

ELA2W1b. The student uses traditional organizational patterns for conveying information (e.g., chronological order, similarity and difference, answering questions).

ELA2W2 The student writes in a variety of genres, including narrative, informational, persuasive, and response to literature.

ELA2W2The student produces informational writing that:

ELA2W2i. May include pre-writing.

ELA2LSV1 The student uses oral and visual strategies to communicate.

ELA2LSV1e. Increases vocabulary to reflect a growing range of interests and knowledge.

S2L1c. Investigate the life cycle of a plant by growing a plant from a seed and by recording changes over a period of time.

Visuals/Resources/Supplementary Materials: *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash*, big book by Sarah Weeks, potting soil, cups, pencils, graphic organizers, squash, radish, radish seeds, water

Key Vocabulary:

Vegetable, squash, radish, potato, onion, broccoli, beets, peas, carrots, lettuce, cabbage, mushroom, corn, seeds, potting soil, plant, instructions, scoop, scrape

Class: 2nd Grade Pull-Out Esol Language Arts Number of Pupils: 5 Date: Time: 9:00-9:45

Time/Part of Lesson	Objectives/ Rationale	Teacher Activities	Learner Activities	Discourse Pattern	Assessment
Opening/	SWBAT speak about	T will ask students to	Ss will name fruits and	T-Ss	T will observe for correct

Review of Lesson Objectives 9:00-9:05	vegetables SWBAT know meaning of the verb *squash*. SWBAT see a *squash*.	name examples vegetables. T will ask students what it means to squash something. T will clarify the meaning of the verb squash. T will show students a squash.	vegetables. Ss will say what it means to squash something. Ss will look at a squash.	Ss-T T-Ss Ss-T T-Ss	examples of vegetables. T will assess students' schemata concerning the verb squash and vegetables. T will observe for participation and engagement.
Body	SWBAT make	T will ask student to	Ss will make predictions.	T-Ss	T will observe for probable

9:05-9:10 (whole group)	predictions about *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash* based on the title and cover. SWBAT listen to T read *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash* SWBAT identify vegetables on the last page of *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big*	predict what will happen in *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash.* T will read aloud in a shared reading fashion the big book, *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash.* T will ask students to identify the vegetables at the end of the story.	Ss will listen to and observe the teacher read a story. Ss will call out names of vegetables from the end of the story. Ss will move to the working table.	Ss-T Ss-T T-Ss	predictions. T will observe for correct identification of vegetables. T will observe for participation and engagement.

	Squash SWBAT move to circle table.	T will tell students to move to the circle table.			
9:10-9:30 (group rotations: small group & individual)	SWBAT orally retell the story *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash* SWBAT identify a radish. SWBAT plant radish	T will ask students to retell orally the story. T will hold up a radish and ask students to identify it. T will tell students they will plant seeds today	Ss will orally retell the story. Ss will identify a radish. Ss will plant radish seeds. Ss will move to circle	T-Ss Ss-T T-Ss S-Ss	T will observe for good speaking habits. T will assess students' ability to retell story. T will observe students for following directions.

	seeds. SWBAT move to working table. SWBAT prewrite the instructions to planting radish seeds. SWBAT compare their graphic organizers with each other.	just like Mrs. McNosh. T will model planting radish seeds and then tell students to plant seeds. T will tell students to move to circle table. T will tell students to fill in a graphic organizer about planting radish seeds using a sequential format.	table. Ss will be able to write for planting radish seeds onto a graphic organizer. Ss will be able to share their graphic organizers. Ss will line up and prepare for dismissal.		T will observe for good writing habits. T will observe for correct completion of graphic organizers.

	SWBAT line up and prepare for dismissal.	T will tell students to share what they wrote with the other students. T will tell students to line up and prepare for dismissal.			
9:30 Closure/Review of Lesson Objectives/ Wrap Up/ Dismissal	SWBAT name two vegetables as their exit ticket.	T will ask students to name two vegetables each as an exit ticket.	Ss will name two vegetables.	T-S S-T	T will observe for correct answers.

Accommodations:

Students who are new ELLs may be silent and not able to participate orally in the same way as more advanced students. In this case, silent students may point, gesture, or nod to convey competence during oral activities. Students may need scaffolding at any point in the lesson and the teacher will accommodate the students in order to maintain an appropriate grade-level lesson. Scaffolding may include such assistance as paraphrasing, repeating instructions, drawing students' attention to important information, as well as facilitating peer-scaffolding.

Homework & Extended Activities:

Planting the radish seeds will serve as the impetus for a structured writing activity. The students will first construct a pre-write on a graphic organizer before writing a rough draft. Students will use their rough drafts to create a final copy of "How to plant radish seeds" which will be illustrated and published by hanging on the classroom wall. Students will have multiple exposures to key vocabulary over the course of the unit. The activity will endure for several weeks in the form of measuring and illustrating the growth of the radishes; this addresses the grade level science standard which calls for students plotting the growth of a plant over time.

Lesson Plan (Day 2)

Language Objectives:

WIDA Standard 2: English language learners communicate ideas and concepts necessary for academic success in the content of Language Arts.

Speaking: SWBAT use key vocabulary to orally make predictions, recall key vocabulary, and discuss rough drafts with peers.

Listening: SWBAT listen to teacher and peers discuss key vocabulary as well as listen to teacher read aloud *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash*. Students will listen to a partner talk about their rough drafts.

Reading: SWBAT read along with the teacher as she reads aloud from *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash*. Students will read a peer's rough draft.

Writing: SWBAT write a rough draft for an upcoming informational writing assignment.

Content Standards:

ELA2R3 The student acquires and uses grade-level words to communicate effectively.

ELA2R3b. The student recognizes grade appropriate words with multiple meanings.

ELA2R4 The student uses a variety of strategies to gain meaning from grade-level text.

ELA2R b. The student makes predictions from text content.

ELA2R d. The student recalls explicit facts and infers implicit facts.

ELA2R e. The student summarizes text content.

ELA2W1 The student begins to demonstrate competency in the writing process.

ELA2W1b. The student uses traditional organizational patterns for conveying information (e.g., chronological order, similarity and difference, answering questions).

ELA2W2 The student writes in a variety of genres, including narrative, informational, persuasive, and response to literature.

ELA2W2The student produces informational writing that:

ELA2W2i. May include pre-writing.

ELA2W2g. May include a draft that is revised and edited.

ELA2W2h. May be published.

ELA2LSV1 The student uses oral and visual strategies to communicate.

ELA2LSV1e. Increases vocabulary to reflect a growing range of interests and knowledge.

S2L1c. Investigate the life cycle of a plant by growing a plant from a seed and by recording changes over a period of time.

Visuals/Resources/Supplementary Materials: *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash*, big book by Sarah Weeks, pencils, graphic organizers, writing paper

Key Vocabulary:

Vegetable, squash, radish, potato, onion, broccoli, beets, peas, carrots, lettuce, cabbage, mushroom, corn, seeds, potting soil, plant, instructions, scoop, scrape

Class: 2nd Grade Pull-Out Esol Language Arts Number of Pupils: 5 Date: Time: 9:00-9:45

Time/Part of Lesson	Objectives/ Rationale	Teacher Activities	Learner Activities	Discourse Pattern	Assessment
Opening/ Review of Lesson Objectives 9:00-9:05	SWBAT identify vegetables	T will review the pictures of vegetables in the back of *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash*	Ss will identify vegetables	T-Ss Ss-T	T will observe for correct identification of vegetables

Body 9:05-9:10 (whole group)	SWBAT listen to teacher read *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash* SWBAT make predictions. SWBAT hear feedback on completed graphic organizers. SWBAT move to	T will read aloud *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash* T will stop occasionally and ask students to make predictions. T will pass back graphic organizers and provide positive fb. T will tell students to move to working table.	Ss will listen to story and read along with teacher. Ss will make predictions. Ss will receive postitive fb. Ss will relocate to working table.	T-Ss Ss-T T-Ss	T will observe for participation and engagement. T will observe for good predictions. T will observe for orderly movement to working table.

	working table.				
9:10-9:30 (group rotations: small group & individual)	SWBAT write a rough draft. SWBAT read peer's rough draft. SWBAT offer suggestions to peer.	T will instruct students to create sentences from their graphic organizers. T will tell students to swap rough drafts with a peer. T will tell students to offer suggestion to peer.	Ss will write complete sentences from their pre-writes. Ss will swap rough drafts with a peer. Ss will discuss rough draft with peers.	T-Ss Ss-Ss	T will observe for good writing habits. T will observe for good reading habits. T will observe for positive social interaction.
9:30 Closure/Review of Lesson	SWBAT recall events from *Mrs. McNosh and the*	T will ask questions about *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash* as	Ss will recall events from *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash*	T-S S-T	T will assess ability to recall events and will observe for good speaking habits.

Objectives/ Wrap Up/ Dismissal	*Great Big Squash*	an exit ticket.			

Accommodations:

Students who are new ELLs may be silent and not able to participate orally in the same way as more advanced students. In this case, silent students will partner with the teacher during the peer-review process and complete echo reading in order to address the importance of speaking. Students may need scaffolding at any point in the lesson and the teacher will accommodate the students in order to maintain an appropriate grade-level lesson. Scaffolding may include such assistance as paraphrasing, repeating instructions, drawing students' attention to important information, as well as facilitating peer-scaffolding. Students who are unable to work positively with others during the peer-review component will receive additional instruction on how to interact properly in a peer-review session.

Homework & Extended Activities:

Students will use their rough drafts to create a final copy of "How to plant radish seeds" which will be illustrated and published by hanging on the classroom wall. Students will have multiple exposures to key vocabulary over the course of the unit. The activity will

endure for several weeks in the form of measuring and illustrating the growth of the radishes; this addresses the grade level science standard, which calls for students plotting the growth of a plant over time.

Notes:

Peer-review may be a new experience and the students may benefit from teacher modeling on how to interact in a positive manner and not hurt one another's feelings. Close supervision may be necessary. The teacher can edit the students' rough drafts in anticipation of completing a final copy worthy of publishing on the classroom wall.

Lesson Plan (Day 3):

Language Objectives:

WIDA Standard 2: English language learners communicate ideas and concepts necessary for academic success in the content of Language Arts.

Speaking: SWBAT use key vocabulary to orally make predictions, recall key vocabulary, and discuss rough drafts with peers.

Listening: SWBAT listen to teacher and peers discuss key vocabulary as well as listen to teacher read aloud *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash*. Students will listen to a partner talk about their rough drafts.

Reading: SWBAT read along with the teacher as she reads aloud from *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash*. Students will read a peer's rough draft.

Writing: SWBAT write a rough draft for an upcoming informational writing assignment.

Content Standards:

ELA2R3 The student acquires and uses grade-level words to communicate effectively.

ELA2R3b. The student recognizes grade appropriate words with multiple meanings.

ELA2R4 The student uses a variety of strategies to gain meaning from grade-level text.

ELA2R b. The student makes predictions from text content.

ELA2R d. The student recalls explicit facts and infers implicit facts.

ELA2R e. The student summarizes text content.

ELA2W1 The student begins to demonstrate competency in the writing process.

ELA2W1b. The student uses traditional organizational patterns for conveying information (e.g., chronological order, similarity and difference, answering questions).

ELA2W2 The student writes in a variety of genres, including narrative, informational, persuasive, and response to literature.

ELA2W2The student produces informational writing that:

ELA2W2i. May include pre-writing.

ELA2W2g. May include a draft that is revised and edited.

ELA2W2h. May be published.

ELA2LSV1 The student uses oral and visual strategies to communicate.

ELA2LSV1e. Increases vocabulary to reflect a growing range of interests and knowledge.

ELA2LSV1d. Listens to and views a variety of media to acquire information.

S2L1c. Investigate the life cycle of a plant by growing a plant from a seed and by recording changes over a period of time.

Visuals/Resources/Supplementary Materials: Internet access, computer, pictures of vegetables, pencils, graphic organizers, writing paper, crayons, tape

Key Vocabulary:

Vegetable, squash, radish, potato, onion, broccoli, beets, peas, carrots, lettuce, cabbage, mushroom, corn, seeds, potting soil, plant, instructions, scoop, scrape

Class: 2nd Grade Pull-Out Esol Language Arts Number of Pupils: 5 Date: Time: 9:00-9:45

Time/Part of Lesson	Objectives/ Rationale	Teacher Activities	Learner Activities	Discourse Pattern	Assessment
Opening/ Review of Lesson Objectives 9:00-9:10	SWBAT recall vegetable vocabulary. SWBAT move to computer station.	T will ask students to identify pictures of vegetables. T will tell students to move to computer station.	Ss will identify vegetables. Ss will move to computer station.	T-Ss Ss-T T-Ss	T will observe for correct identification of vegetables.

Body 8:55-9:10 (whole group)	SWBAT watch video of radish plants growing. SWBAT observe and record the growth of their radish plants. SWBAT move to working table	T will play teachertube video of a radish growing http://www.teachertube.com/viewVideo.php?video_id=25630 T will tell students to walk to radish plants and observe growth. If there is any growth, the students will illustrate the growth on a graphic organizer. T will instruct students to	Ss will watch time elapse video set to music of radishes growing from seed. Ss will look at radish plants. Ss will discuss growth (if any) of radish plants. Ss will illustrate growth of radish plants on graphic organizer.	T-Ss Ss-Ss Ss-T T-Ss	T will observe for participation and engagement. T will observe for students following directions. T will observe for good illustrating habits.

		pick up their chairs and move to working table.	Ss will carry chairs to working table.		
9:10-9:30 (group rotations: small group & individual)	SWBAT write final copy of "How to plant radish seeds." SWBAT read aloud final copy of "How to plant radish seeds." SWBAT illustrate final copy.	T will instruct students to write final copy on special paper with a place for an illustration. T will ask for volunteers to read aloud their final copies. T will instruct students to illustrate final copies.	Ss will write final copies of "How to plant radish seeds" Ss will read aloud final copies. Ss will illustrate final copies.	T-Ss Ss-Ss Ss-T	T will observe for participation and engagement. T will observe for good writing habits. T will observe for good oral reading habits. T will observe for good

	SWBAT publish final copy.	T will publish final copies by hanging in classroom.	Ss will publish final copies.		illustrating habits.
9:30 Closure/Review of Lesson Objectives/ Wrap Up/ Dismissal	SWBAT line up and prepare for dismissal. SWBAT recall favorite part of *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash*	T will instruct students to line up and prepare for dismissal. T will ask students to talk about their favorite parts of *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash*	Ss will line up. Ss will talk about favorite parts of *Mrs. McNosh and the Great Big Squash*	T-Ss S-T	T will observe for good speaking habits, and ability to recall information from story.

Accommodations:

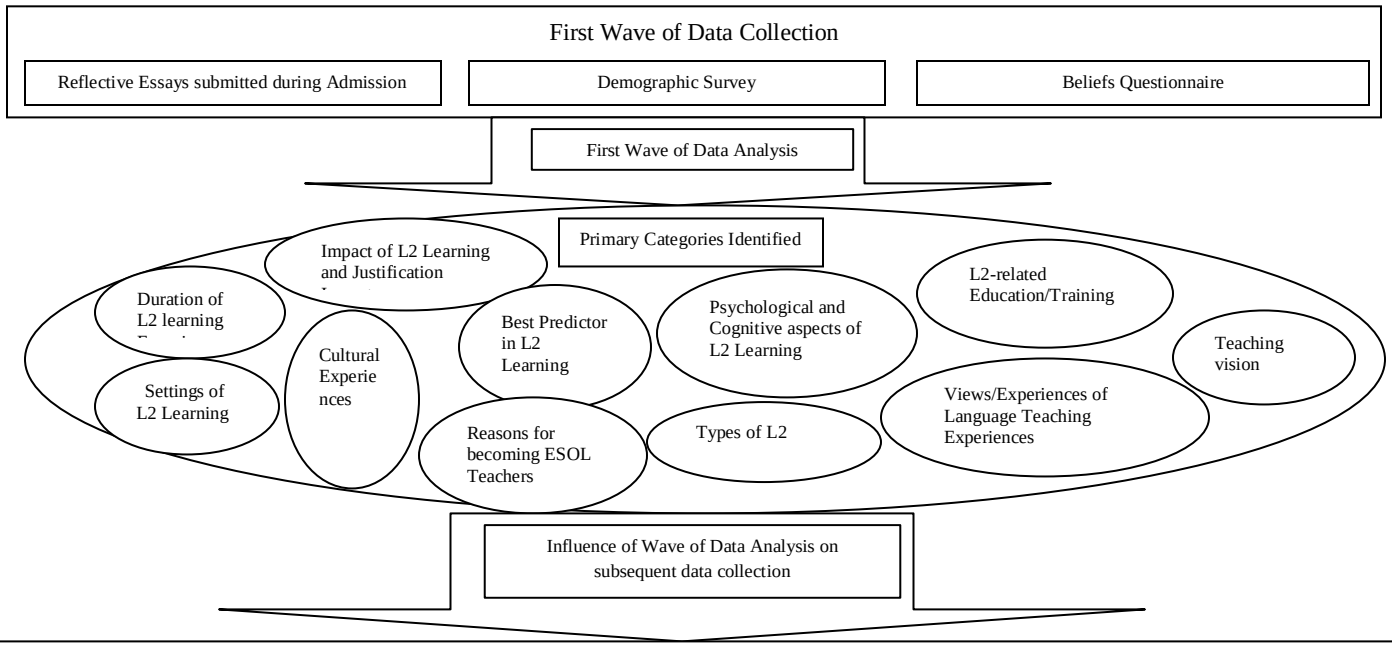
Students who are new ELLs may be silent and not able to participate orally in the same way as more advanced students. In this case the silent students will not be pushed to share their written pieces with the group. Echo reading with the teacher will serve to provide the silent student with the opportunity to speak. Students may need scaffolding at any point in the lesson and the teacher will accommodate the students in order to maintain an appropriate grade-level lesson. Scaffolding may include such assistance as paraphrasing, repeating instructions, drawing students' attention to important information, as well as facilitating peer-scaffolding.

Homework & Extended Activities:

The activity will endure for several weeks in the form of measuring and illustrating the growth of the radishes; this addresses the grade level science standard, which calls for students plotting the growth of a plant over time.

Appendix J

Figure 1 A - Data Collection and Analysis Leading to Categories/Themes



Second Wave of Data Collection

Observations of Participants during coursework

Collection of Course Materials and Assignments

Summer Interviews

Second Wave of Data Analysis

Secondary Categories Found

Participants' Prior Experiences and Backgrounds/Preparation Processes

Practices Experienced as P-12 students: (a) Teaching practices as related to literacy education, (b) General teaching practices, and (c) Exposure to teacher deficit views and assumptions.

Critical Cultural and Linguistic Encounters: (a) L2 learning experiences at P-12 level, (b) L2 learning experiences at college level and (c) Travel-abroad Experiences.

Prior Beliefs about L2 Teaching/Learning: (a) Views of grammar and vocabulary, (b) Views of pronunciations and errors, (c) views of communication and meaning, (d) views of the role of L2 teachers and treatment of errors, and (e) views of practice and immersion.

Professional Knowledge before Teacher Education: (a) Diverse professional experiences, (b) Volunteer professional experiences, and (c) Leadership experiences.

Views of Reading: (a) Views of L1 Reading and (b) Views of L2 Reading

Processes and Reasons for Addressing Candidates' Antecedents

Influences of Participants' Prior Experiences Backgrounds

Coursework Processing: (a) Understanding cultural and literacy theories, (b) informed classroom discussions, and (c) Completion of course assignments.

Beliefs about L2 Teaching/Learning: (a) Well-informed beliefs, (b) Less-informed beliefs, and (c) Misinformed Beliefs.

Commitment to Diversity and to Multicultural Education: (a) Self-awareness and critical examination of personal biases and their impact, (b) Commitment to understanding students' perspectives, (c) Commitment to the rejection of the deficit view, (d) Commitment to the use of students' home language and culture, (e) and Commitment to culturally relevant pedagogy.

Future Visions of L2 Teaching and L2 Reading Instruction: (a) immersion, (b) Use of students' funds of knowledge, adoption of whole language, motivation, vocabulary

Use of secondary data categories in subsequent data collection

Figure 1 B - Data Collection and Analysis Strategies Leading to Categories/themes

Figure 1 B - Data Collection and Analysis Strategies Leading to Categories/themes