

When Language Teachers Don't Teach Language: A Narrative Inquiry of Language-Focused ESL Instruction in Content-Based Settings

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Abstract

Content-based instruction (CBI) is an approach to language teaching in which academic content is taught through the target language. To be an effective language teaching methodology, CBI must balance the teaching of both language and content. Cammarata, Tedick, and Osborn (2016) described this balance as an integrated “focus on meaning and form in the classroom” (p. 12). Despite such calls to balance language-focused and content-focused instruction, a well-known and well-documented problem in CBI is the tendency of the teacher to focus predominately on content and neglect language teaching (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Fortune, Tedick & Walker, 2008; Lyster, 1998, 2007; Salomone, 1992; Short, 2002; Walker & Tedick, 2000).

Over the past twenty years, schools in the United States have seen an increase in sheltered instruction, “push-in” instruction, and co-teaching models which are based, at least in part, on the tenets of CBI. Often such courses replace other ESL courses, leaving ESL teachers’ opportunities to teach English limited to courses that have heavy content requirements.

This study used narrative inquiry (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000) and autobiographical narrative inquiry (Barkhuizen, Benson, & Chik, 2014; Clandinin, 2013) to investigate the experiences of six early-career ESL teachers as they tried to apply the learning from their pre-service coursework and bring purposeful language-focused instruction to their sheltered and co-taught content classes. Interviews with the six teachers were conducted and 14 weeks of participant observation with one focal teacher was completed. The study also explores the experiences of a teacher educator (the researcher) who worked with all six of these teachers in their pre-service program, as she

tries to make sense of the impact her own teaching has or has not had on their subsequent classroom actions and decision-making surrounding language-focused instruction.

Narrative reconstruction (Barone, 2007) was used to present the findings.

Findings confirm that bringing a language-focus to content-based courses is difficult for teachers. The study identifies numerous barriers to the successful blending of content and language, organizing these barriers into three main categories: 1.) Barriers arising from the teaching schedule and workload; 2.) Barriers related to the beliefs of school and district personnel; and 3.) Barriers related to the beliefs and identity of the ESL teachers themselves surrounding language-focused instruction. The study also suggests that language alertness, a habit of mind in which a teacher constantly and purposefully shifts between thinking about content and thinking about language during instruction, is necessary for the successful balance of focus on content and focus on language in CBI.

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Chapter One: Introduction to the Study

Teachers are taught to name learning objectives when planning for instruction. Articulating what is to be learned is an important part of instructional planning. Language teachers, such as those who teach English as a second language (ESL), are often taught to identify two kinds of learning objectives: content objectives and language objectives. This dual-focused instructional practice arises from the central tenant of content-based language instruction (CBI), which holds that language is best learned when used to make meaning, and academic language is best learned when heard and used in academic settings (Brinton, 2010). Thus, while students are working on content (the content objectives), they should also be learning new language (the language objectives) which will allow them to better understand and produce language surrounding the content. ESL teachers are tasked with blending these two levels of learning and guiding their students toward growth in academic content while simultaneously increasing their English language development.

I was introduced to this concept of two tiered-instructional objectives at the age of 24 when CBI was introduced in the teacher education program where I was earning my initial teaching licenses in French and German. It made sense to me. If I wanted a student to write an essay about history, for example (my thinking went), the topic of the essay would be my content objective. The fact that the students would need the past tense to write the essay would be my language objective. This somewhat simplistic essay topic/verb tense coupling was what stayed with me from that program and served as a foundational idea for my lesson planning. Later, after teaching French for three years, I added an endorsement in ESL to my license and spent the next seven years teaching ESL.

I never struggled to focus on language in my teaching. There was always content – something we were learning *about* – as well as a language focus we were using to read and talk and write more precisely about that content. I was a language teacher, so of course I was teaching specific words and grammatical structures. That was my job, and I never thought twice about it.

At the age of 34, I stepped out of my role as a language teacher and became a language teacher educator. Two small children helped me make the decision to leave the classroom for a while and take a more flexible position supervising student teachers. My first student teacher was practicing in a red brick building across the street from a McDonalds in North Minneapolis. She was an additional licensure student, adding an ESL endorsement to an existing K–12 art license. She was a good teacher who built solid relationships with the children, saw what was happening in all the corners of the room, and kept the students actively engaged.

But she was not, as far as I could tell, teaching *language*.

She had a beach ball and on each colored section there was a question. *What is the setting of the story? Who is the main character? Is the text fiction or nonfiction?* When a student caught the ball, he or she read and answered the question closest to their right thumb. All of the teachers in the school were given these beach balls, my student teacher told me. They were supposed to use them when they worked on reading. Her written language objectives had students *reading* a text and describing something *orally*. She was of the understanding that this was a language objective. Something that named the modality being used.

The story was the same with my second student teacher and my third. What was most surprising to me was that they appeared to be teaching like their cooperating teachers, veteran ESL teachers. I came to wonder if maybe I'd been teaching ESL incorrectly for the past several years. Maybe I'd been too focused on words and sentences. I called my supervisor at the University.

“Am I doing this wrong?” was the gist of what I asked her.

Her response began with a deep sigh. “We tend to get two kinds of people who want to be ESL teachers. The first group come to it because they like language. They have maybe studied Spanish or are French or German teachers like you. The second group come because they like the kids. A lot of the time they were elementary teachers, but they don't have a strong language background.” It is especially hard, she told me, to help that second group to see the language objectives.

Well, I thought, I will just have to teach them this. To me, language learning needed to include grammar learning. This was something I believed to be true from my own very personal experiences.

When I was 16 years old I spent a year as an exchange student in Germany. After one year of high school German and a four-week intensive language experience, I found myself living with a German family, attending a German high school, and trying to build new relationships and friendships in a language over which I had only partial control. It was total submersion, and I was often overwhelmed by the language. The smart, capable person I knew myself to be was trapped inside. It was mostly in sentences where I felt myself slipping away. Words were easy. I needed to learn more of them, but words were a matter of listening, looking up, and memorizing. Sentences, however, were something

far more difficult. I found my thoughts too big to express, and the sentences fell away, became too broken to repair. My thoughts remained unspoken.

I learned to simplify my ideas and to express them in shorter, less complicated ways. And over time I learned to build better sentences. But it was always there, lurking. The sentence I couldn't build. The idea I couldn't fully express. Even when my sentences became adequate for social situations, there was still the history book I tried to read only to get lost in the density of the paragraphs. The social studies paper I tried to write but failed. Even when I knew the words, I couldn't come through. I couldn't shine there. I could only struggle with sentences.

So, to me, teaching ESL became very personal. It was helping my students to shine through the fog of language that kept them from seeing themselves as the smart and capable students that they were. I often wondered what would have happened to me if I had experienced school in Germany without the years of academic success I had known in the U.S. before leaving for my year abroad. My identity as a good student was well formed before I was swamped by a new language. What if I had only *ever* experienced school with that dense drag of language? What would have become of me?

That, to me, was the highest purpose of an ESL teacher. To help students be fully themselves. And to do this they need words and sentences and the grammatical and syntactic knowledge to produce them.

I started having "the language objective talk" with each of my student teachers, explaining how I understood the concept. Urging them to, at some point during each unit, focus on a specific piece of grammar.

"I just never really understood language objectives," they would often confide.

These talks went well, and I felt that I had helped them. But a few weeks later, more often than not, they still struggled. They still had difficulty separating the concept of a language focus and a literacy focus. Those pesky modality words would appear over and over again in language objectives, as if mentioning whether something was going to be done in writing or orally didn't require the naming of the specific language that would allow the students to accomplish the oral or written task. They struggled to break language down, to name it, to teach it purposefully.

Once, many years into my work in teacher education, I was conducting a research project and asked a former student if I could visit her classroom. I remembered this particular teacher well. She had been driven, had wanted to understand how to develop language objectives. We had had a version of "the language objective talk" many times. She was also a language person. She had majored in Spanish and had studied abroad. At the end of her student teaching, I thought that she had mastered the concept of language objectives.

But when I entered her classroom to observe her teaching several years later, it became clear that she hadn't. There was some purposeful focus on vocabulary in her lesson, but beyond that, it just seemed like any other middle school language arts lesson with solid visual support. The scaffolding was there. But there was no language focus. After I observed her lesson, I asked her about her language objective.

"OK," she admitted. "Here's the thing. I never really got that."

We had "the language objective talk" again, this time enriched by the thinking and reading I had done in the intervening years as well by as her years of experience. But my expectations of this talk were also different. I no longer expected that it would have

much of an impact on her teaching. The longer I worked in ESL teacher education, the more I saw just how difficult it was for teachers to identify a specific language focus in a content lesson and to blend that language focus into their content-based instruction.

Six years ago, at about the same time that I visited this former student in her classroom, I had the opportunity to design an ESL licensure program at the college where I now teach. Throughout the design of the program, I very consciously focused on language objectives, embedding an articulated approach to this concept into multiple methods courses. I looked for readings and for a way to introduce and discuss this concept and the skills to apply it with my teacher candidates. I modeled. I did think-alouds. I showed examples.

My students still struggled.

Studies that have looked into how ESL teachers and teacher candidates conceive of language objectives (Baecher, Farnsworth, & Ediger, 2013; Bigelow, 2010; Bigelow & Ranney, 2005; Song, 2016) have echoed what I saw and still see in my courses and in the teaching that my students do. Teachers and teacher candidates struggle to create language objectives in content-based settings, and when they do identify language features to focus on, these objectives usually address only a very limited number of language features. Baecher et al. also found, after examining 107 ESL lesson plans, that language objectives tend to be very vague and of questionable use for guiding instruction, a finding that also echoes my experience with my students and with practicing teachers in schools.

The summer before I began the research for this dissertation, I was supervising a student teacher in an elementary classroom in an urban year-round school. Halima was an ideal candidate. A Somali woman who had herself been an ESL student in her earliest

elementary years, she had gone on to major in English literature at a major university. She already had a teaching license in English language arts and had been teaching English for a few years. She was adding ESL as a second license.

I observed her during a guided reading session. She had been a student in my ESL Literacy class and was introduced to the practice of modified guided reading (Avalos, Plasencia, Chavez, Rascón, 2007) which asks ESL teachers to identify a language focus and blend it into the reading instruction. Her students were older elementary students and the book they were reading that day focused on a family's trip to a cabin where they encountered an angry possum who was unwilling to give up its warm home to the human beings who came bearing sleeping bags and flashlights.

When they had finished reading the story and discussing it, Halima started a language lesson. She talked about adjectives, what they were. She asked the students to name some adjectives. She asked them to use an adjective in a sentence. The lesson was disconnected from the reading and the language focus was so broad that the students did not seem to be getting too much out of it. They filed away when the class session came to an end, leaving me and Halima to talk.

“Tell me about your language objective,” I eventually asked her. “Why did you choose adjectives?”

“Well, we've been working on adjectives for a few weeks, and they are doing adjectives in their classroom.”

I asked her how she might make the language focus less broad, zero in on just one small piece of language.

She thought that's what she had been doing. Adjectives, to her way of thinking, was one small piece of language.

We looked through the book together and when she wasn't able to think of a tighter language focus, I showed her what I had noticed while she was reading the book with the students. There were three sentence in the book that caught my attention:

He saw two big shining eyes.

We can make loud clapping noise that will scare it.

The possum didn't like the clapping noises.

"Why not focus on "ing" adjectives – or participial adjectives. Those can be confusing to students who have it in their mind that "ing" is a verb."

"That makes a lot of sense," she said, but then admitted with defeat, "but I would have never thought of that. How did you think of that?"

How did I think of that? I wondered. I hadn't. Not really. It was more that the language form grabbed my attention, stood out as something different, unique and important. It reached out of the story and slapped me across the face.

"You'll need to help them with me!" those participial adjectives had shouted.

This, truthfully, is how I have experienced language teaching. The focus simply stands up and makes itself known to me. I don't scour through texts searching for something to teach. I just make a list of the forms that jump out at me and then carefully decide which is most important to focus on given the students' current language skills, the time available, and the goals of instruction.

This was never hard for me.

The ability to identify language objectives lies at the heart of this research project. One question that I have wrestled with for years is what allows a teacher to see a possible language objective when looking at a content lesson? What was it that allowed me to so quickly see the participial adjectives and envision a host of learning activities that would help students acquire this often tricky piece of language while Halima struggled to find anything in the story that she could focus on? Does this grow out of some specific knowledge I have? Is it a skill that I have acquired at some point? Was it the result of some life experience?

Certainly the nearly twenty years I have spent in language education have helped me quickly focus in on the language in a lesson. But I cannot let go of the notion that this was never that difficult for me.

My life has been filled with language. I had college majors in German and French and then went on to graduate studies in French and Germanic linguistics. As I mentioned before, I spent a year in high school in Germany and studied abroad in France in college. Thinking about and struggling with a new language was a central part of my life for many years.

But didn't Halima have equal experiences? A life spent as a bilingual woman, and all the struggles that went along with mastering a second language as a child: Elementary ESL classes, weekend Dugsi classes where Arabic was learned. She had studied English in college, including linguistics and then took ESL coursework which included deep explorations of grammar. Why didn't that participial adjective jump off the page and slap her across the face like it did me? How come the itch of language waiting to be explored

doesn't affect her like it does me? Hadn't we both had life stories that were filled with language?

In their book *Narrative Inquiry* (2000) Clandinin and Connelly described the concept of continuity as a vital component in understanding lived experience and the knowledge we gain from conceptualizing our lived experiences as narratives. They remind us that our

“...experiences grow out of other experiences, and experiences lead to further experiences. Wherever one positions oneself in that continuum – the imagined now, some imagined past, or some imagined future – each point has a past experiential base and leads to an experiential future” (p. 2).

Our minds continuously move backward and forward through time, landing on events and memories, our past experiential base, that are somehow connected to the present experiences we are trying to understand. As I worked with Halima last summer and puzzled over what it was that allowed me to so easily see language to teach in a lesson while she struggled, I kept coming back to a memory from long ago that included my elementary school library, a Little Bear book, and a grand plan that my eight-year-old self-concocted for becoming bilingual.

I was born the year that Sesame Street went on the air. I spent many preschool hours planted in front of the television watching the activities at 123 Sesame Street. There was something about Luis, Maria, and all the Spanish in that show that captivated me. I wanted to be able to do that. To speak another language.

I went to third grade at an elementary school in a small town in Minnesota. Once a week we entered the library through a set of double doors. We were allowed to check

out three books at a time. One day in the library, on the lower shelves to the left of those double doors, I found a treasure: a book I had at home – Little Bear’s Birthday Soup – in Spanish. I thought I had found the key to my desire to speak Spanish. My eight-year-old brain decided I would simply bring this book home, compare it to my book, and make a list of the words in English and then the equivalent words in Spanish. I’d memorize the list and speak Spanish in no time.

Once home, my plan unraveled after only a few minutes. It became obvious to me that something was very wrong. On the English page, there were sentences with only six or seven words, but the same sentence on the Spanish page had more words. Or fewer words. There was no way that the really long word in English that appeared fourth in one sentence was that really small word in Spanish that appeared fourth in the same sentence in the other book. That night, I was lying in bed working on my little list when my mother came in to turn out the lights and say good night. She asked what I was doing and I explained my brilliant becoming bilingual plan and also my frustration because my plan was not going as I had hoped.

“Well, this is probably not going to work,” she said. Then, pulling on her two years of high school Spanish, she explained. “See, sometimes in Spanish they put the words in different order than in English. Or they might use more words to say the same thing. So it isn’t really just a matter of knowing the words.”

So, at eight years old, my plans for becoming bilingual had to be put on hold. The Spanish Little Bear book was returned to the library and I had to wait until 10th grade to begin to learn a second language. But what has stayed with me and has struck me often as I have made a career with language, is how much that little girl wanted to speak another

language. I look back and think of the almost innate fascination with and sensibility to language that I had even then. The world was full of children who watched Sesame Street. Why did those small doses of a second language affect *me* so deeply? Why this affinity for language? Is language sensitivity at some level an innate talent more like music or athleticism? Am I good at seeing language objectives because I spent years studying language, or am I good at seeing language objectives because of that thing inside of me that wanted to study language in the first place? And if my skill in this realm arises from the latter, from some innate sensitivity to language, how do I then teach those who don't share this sensitivity to the same degree?

“How do you do that?” I have had students ask me a number of times when, after struggling to locate a language objective, I look at what they are doing and throw out two or three suggestions.

“Well, I've been at this for twenty years,” I say. But the truth is, I just tell them that to keep their confidence up. Even when I had only been at this for a few months, this wasn't that hard for me. Certainly my understanding of language has grown and the language objectives I conceive of now are far deeper and more meaningful than those I focused on early in my career. But the truth is, even then, it wasn't hard for me to identify a piece of language to focus on. I never struggled with this like so many of my students do.

This study has grown out of thirteen years of watching this situation and trying to understand how to best help teacher candidates to identify a language focus, turn that language focus into an objective, and then successfully integrate that language focus into a content-based lesson. As I mentioned before, I very intentionally focused on helping

students understand this concept and develop this skill when I created the courses in the ESL program in which I now teach. I brought all of the experiences I discussed in this chapter to my teaching as well as a fierce determination that if the students in my program mastered nothing else, they would master language objectives.

But they didn't.

They still struggle to clearly focus on language in their lessons, and I still struggle to teach them in a way that alleviates these struggles.

Significance of the Problem

If English learners were moving effectively through high school and finding success in college, my worries about what I have experienced as a lack of language-focused ESL instruction would be irrelevant. This, of course, is not what is happening. Students for whom English is not a first language are disproportionately represented in national dropout rates in the United States (Callahan, 2013). In addition, they repeat grades and fail courses more often than their native English speaking peers (Menken 2008; Valencia & Villarreal 2005). When examining standardized test data, ELs in the U.S. score, on average, 20–50 percentage points below their English proficient classmates on state assessments, not only in English language arts but also in content areas such as mathematics and science (Abedi & Diatal, 2004; Government Accountability Office, 2006; Menken 2008). In fact, researchers have estimated that as many as 80% of the language minority students born in the United States can be considered Long Term English Learners by the time they reach high school (Calderon, Slavin, & Sanchez, 2011). Long Term English Learner is a designation used to describe students who have been in U.S. schools for more than seven years yet are still classified

as limited English proficient (Freeman & Freeman, 2009). That statistic is staggering. The fact that such high percentages of students educated in this country fail to master academic English should be viewed, in my opinion, as no less than a crisis for the ESL profession. The educational outcomes that currently exist for non-native speakers of English in our schools are simply unacceptable.

While everyone can agree that the statistics cited in the previous paragraph are deplorable, there is less agreement about what teaching methods might improve this situation. There has been great debate in the field about what role explicit focus on language (especially on language forms) should play in language teaching (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2011). Teachers who do not focus purposefully on language forms could easily find theorists who approve of their approach (e.g., Krashen, 1993). However, two major meta-analyses (Ellis, 2002; Norris & Ortega, 2000) have demonstrated that a focus on language forms is effective in increasing the language proficiency of learners, and there is now general agreement in the field that some level of language-focused instruction is necessary for learners to reach high levels of proficiency (see Chapter Two for an in-depth review of the literature).

Despite the research base that supports bringing an overt focus on language into instruction, the movement over the past twenty years toward “push-in” and sheltered models of instruction has prompted the lack of language focus I described above. While these new approaches may offer excellent potential for language learning to occur in meaningful settings and a limited number of studies have documented positive results (Pardini, 2006; York-Barr, Ghese, & Sommerness, 2007), studies have also shown that effective outcomes in co-teaching situations are difficult to maintain (Gardner, 2006;

York-Barr, Ghere, & Sommersness, 2007). In addition, the lack of attention given to language during instruction in co-teaching and sheltered models has also been thoroughly documented (Arkouidis, 2005, 2006; Creese, 2000, 2002, 2005a, 2005b; Short, 2002). This mismatch between the teaching practices that research indicates have the best chance to be effective and the realities that have been documented in sheltered and co-teaching situations must, in my opinion, be further explored and remedied.

In laying the groundwork for this study, I do not seek to imply that the cause of the crisis of long-term English learners is solely, or even mostly, due to the lack of language teaching by ESL teachers. The intersections of poverty, racism, and trauma due to war and political unrest all combine to create a complex situation that leaves the children of immigrants and refugees underserved by our educational system. It is my belief, however, that while the overwhelming complexities of racism, poverty, and political strife leave us with little that we, as ESL professionals, can control, we *can* control the teaching methods we use when educating English learners. Improving our teaching practices can only better equip our students with the language skills necessary to navigate the other complexities of their lives. The improved alignment of the teaching methods used by ESL teachers with research and theory is the “low hanging fruit” in this equation. Language-focused instruction in which teachers purposefully identify language objectives and blend a focus on language forms into instruction is well supported by research, yet ESL teachers are coming out of the teacher preparation programs unprepared to plan and teach this kind of instruction.

This is an enormous problem.

Overview of the Study

The study described in the following chapters reflects my opportunity to try to learn more about why ESL teachers find it so difficult to identify and address a language focus in their teaching. Ultimately, my hope is that I and other teacher educators might better understand this situation and better support pre-service and in-service teachers in this vital part of language instruction. Some studies have explored aspects of this topic, and important suggestions for teacher education have been made. As mentioned above, studies by Baecher, Farnsworth, and Ediger (2013), Bigelow and Ranney (2005), Bigelow (2010), and Song (2016) have all demonstrated that ESL teachers and pre-service ESL teachers struggle to write language objectives for content-based lessons. Furthermore, in the discussion of their study, Bigelow and Ranney gave suggestions about activities in teacher education courses that might improve teacher candidates' ability to plan language-focused instruction in CBI, including: 1) analyze texts for linguistic features; 2) analyze tasks for linguistics features; 3) analyze language functions and connect them to specific linguistic features; 4) use assignments that require integration of content and language; and 5) provide examples of effective integration. In a subsequent publication that discussed this topic, Bigelow and Ranney (2010) further stressed that teacher educators should focus on helping teacher candidates develop positive dispositions and curiosity about language. Similarly, Tarone (2009) argued that teacher educators should equip teacher candidates to be "language explorers" by blending learning about language structures with an examination of learner language and a discussion about pedagogical implications of these factors. Indeed, a great deal of work

has looked at teachers' knowledge about language and how it is applied in pedagogical settings.

This study expands upon this work, adding to the field in several important ways. It is the first study, to my knowledge, that looks in depth at a practicing ESL teacher's struggle with language-focused teaching in a content-based K–12 setting. The study is also unique because the researcher moved beyond the observation of the teacher's practices and investigated her learning as she co-planned and co-taught with the researcher. Finally, the autobiographical focus on a teacher educator as she tries to make sense of her own teaching through interviews with former students and observations of one focal student who were practicing in the field also provides a different lens through which this phenomenon is investigated.

To accomplish these goals, the study uses narrative inquiry (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000), with a focus on autobiographical narrative inquiry (Clandinin, 2013). The study includes data from interviews with six of my former students, fourteen weeks of participant observation in the classroom of one of my former students, a detailed analysis of the teaching materials and methods I had used in the courses these students had taken with me during their preservice preparation, journaling about the teaching I was doing concurrent to the data collection of this study, and recordings of a collaborative conversation with a critical friend (Pinnegar & Hamilton, 2009) in which we discussed my initial findings from the analysis of these data sources.

Through this process, the following research questions were explored:

- 1.) How do several new teachers from one teacher education program describe their understanding of and ability to apply evidence-based practices surrounding the

conceptualization of language objectives and the integration of language and content in ESL lessons?

2.) How does one early career ESL teacher apply the learning from her teacher education program surrounding the conceptualization of language objectives and the inclusion of language-focused learning activities in her teaching practice?

3.) What factors support or prevent the application of this learning in her K–12 setting?

Conclusion and Preview of the Following Chapters

In this chapter, I have used a narrative retelling (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000) of my experiences surrounding language-focused ESL instruction. Through this retelling, I have tried to make clear the thoughts, beliefs, and understandings that I brought to this work. I have also described the nature of the problem that this study addresses. Previous work on the topic has been discussed and the significance of the study established.

In Chapter Two, I discuss the approaches I have used in my teaching and the theoretical basis that supports my work with a review of the literature on language objectives and language-focused teaching methodologies. I also explore the way that language objectives are discussed in books used in ESL methods courses to prepare teachers to conceptualize them in their own teaching.

In Chapter Three, I outline the methodology used in this study, focusing on narrative inquiry. I describe the data collection procedures I employed, as well as an explanation of the data analysis techniques used to analyze the collected data. In this chapter, I also outline the theoretical framework for the study.

Chapter Four presents the results of the study, using narrative reconstruction (Barone, 2007) to detail the major themes, findings, and conclusions in a storied format.

Chapter Five discusses the implications of the study and makes suggestions for pre-service and in-service preparation of ESL teachers.

Chapter Two: Review of the Literature

This study examines the extent to which six new ESL teachers described – and in the case of one focal teacher, demonstrated – their ability to create language-focused instruction in their content-based classrooms. More specifically, the study investigates the extent to which these new teachers were or were not able to conceptualize language objectives and apply the evidence-based practices they encountered in their preservice coursework to teach these objectives. As such, this study sits at the intersection of numerous areas that have been examined, at least to some extent, by researchers. This chapter will review the literature of these multiple lines of inquiry, moving through the following research areas: 1.) Definition and conceptualizations of content-based instruction (CBI); 2.) How CBI has been applied to teach language minority students and the extent to which these applications of CBI have and have not been successful in K–12 ESL settings; 3.) The conceptualization of language-focused instruction and how it has been presented to teachers; 4.) The research base that supports language-focused instruction and the evidence-based teaching methods that arise out of this work; 5.) Work surrounding language objectives, including theoretical work on this concept, work focusing on how teachers have been able to conceive of language objectives in their lesson planning, and work that has sought to teach teachers about language objectives.

After this review of the existing literature, the chapter concludes by identifying the gaps in the research that this study hopes to address.

Content-Based Instruction

Content-based instruction (CBI) is the approach to language teaching that is central to the work we do in my program. This approach, in which academic content is

taught through the target language, rests on the theoretical belief that language is not learned when viewed as the object of study, but, rather, it is learned when used to make meaning. Over the past twenty years, sheltered instruction, “push-in,” and other co-teaching models based on the CBI paradigm have become the norm for providing instruction for language minority students in the United States. Thus, effective ESL teachers must be familiar with the principles of CBI and be able to apply these principles to help their students achieve high levels of academic English proficiency.

One theory that undergirds CBI is the conception of comprehensible input, first proposed by Krashen (1982). This hypothesis states that when learners are exposed to language at a level that is comprehensible but also slightly above their current knowledge and ability level, language learning will occur. While there is little disagreement that comprehensible input is an important ingredient for language learning in CBI contexts, there is also evidence that comprehensible input alone is not sufficient to produce highly accurate and complex language in learners. Multiple studies in immersion CBI contexts indicate this is the case (Harley, Cummins, Swain, & Allen, 1990; Harley & Swain, 1984; Swain, 1985), and the high number of long-term English learners in our schools certainly demonstrates that exposure alone is inadequate for the full development of language, especially academic language. Most researchers working in CBI contexts now agree that a purposeful focus on teaching language is needed. Despite this, a well-known and well-documented problem in CBI is the tendency of the teacher to focus predominately on content and neglect language teaching (Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Fortune, Tedick & Walker, 2008; Lyster, 1998; Salomone, 1992; Short, 2002; Walker & Tedick, 2000).

Cammarata, Tedick, and Osborn (2016) reminded us that “to be effective, CBI should involve the concurrent and balanced teaching of both language and content” (p. 12). They go on to describe this balance as an integrated “focus on meaning and form in the classroom” (p. 12). In my program, an enormous amount of time and energy is dedicated to introducing the concept of “language-focused instruction” (Nation, 2007) and investigating evidence-based practices for bringing a language focus into content lessons. The ultimate goal is to help students create lessons that demonstrate the balance that Cammarata et al. described.

Content-Based Instruction for Language Minority Students

In the past twenty years, there has been a significant shift toward sheltered and co-taught courses to address the needs of ELs in language minority settings. Such programs are thought to use CBI to produce language learning gains in students; however, there is only conflicting research to demonstrate the effectiveness of these programs and several indicators that a lack of language-focused instruction may be a factor in low student-success rates.

Pardini’s (2006) analysis of the test scores of ELs in the Saint Paul School District before and after the district moved to a co-teaching model is often used to support the “push-in” model. The data indicated a significant decrease in the gap between ELs and native English speaking students on standardized tests after co-teaching was implemented, especially at the elementary level. A case study which also found positive student gains after a shift to co-teaching was completed by York-Barr, Ghere, and Sommerness (2007). The researchers spent three years examining student progress in an elementary school with a high EL population as the school shifted from a pull-out

delivery model to a push-in model. Supported by a university partnership, the ESL and special education teachers began parallel teaching in the classroom during the literacy block, allowing all students in the class more access to teacher-supported reading instruction. The study focused mainly on the organizational structures used to implement co-teaching, and there was little discussion of pedagogical practices. The few mentions of language-focused pedagogy that were included described the ESL teacher moving more slowly through the reading pieces and increasing the amount of time spent on vocabulary instruction during the literacy block. The school initially saw significant increases in student test scores with this model. However, the school was unable to sustain the co-teaching model at this initial level due to scheduling conflicts. The second year of the study, only one grade level continued to implement the model; as the co-teaching decreased, so did test scores.

While these two studies indicate that a co-teaching model can have a positive impact on student achievement, especially at the elementary level, I was unable to locate any research that examined the impact of co-teaching on EL achievement at the secondary level. This indicates that the enormous shift to co-teaching at the secondary level is supported by little or no research. I was also unable to find any studies that examined the effectiveness of pedagogical practices that ESL teachers used to bring a focus to language in co-taught settings. Numerous studies, however, have examined the balance between language and content in these programs, and most of this research indicates that the balance tilts heavily toward a focus on content.

A year-long ethnographic study which utilized discourse analysis was completed by Creese (2010, 2005a, 2005b, 2002, 2000, 1997) in three secondary schools in the

United Kingdom. Creese followed twelve English as an Additional Language (EAL) teachers as they planned and co-taught with content teachers, spending over two weeks with each EAL teacher and thirty total weeks in the schools. Her analysis of the interactions in the classroom led her to conclude that language work had little status in the co-taught classrooms. Her findings about the focus on language in these co-taught classes included:

1. There are few instances of a focus on form; the majority of these instances come from an EAL teacher and are often rejected by students because of the low status of language work in the mainstream classroom.
2. The majority of language work was on defining key concepts in content areas and not on the role language plays in creating meaning.
3. Opportunities for extending language work by both subject and EAL teachers were missed because teachers lacked an understanding of how language functions to convey meaning. There was little understanding of the relationship between structure and meaning in creating text and discourse and the implications this has for learning and teaching. (Creese, 2005a, p. 194)

In addition to these observations, Creese's (2002) data demonstrated that language teachers shared responsibility for content learning and often addressed content in their interactions with students. The subject teachers, however, did not view language teaching as part of their responsibility. Creese's year-long ethnographic data only held one example of a subject teacher intentionally focusing on language with a student. This low status of language in the co-taught environments also appeared to be internalized by

the students, who often stopped focusing on the teachers' language explanations as soon as they had enough information to complete the content activity.

Creese (2005a) stressed the importance of planning for a language focus and of shared planning, which allows both teachers to understand how content and language interact. She warned that “without a planned syllabus of how language and content can interact, there is a danger that the rationale for a language focus will be unclear to the bilingual students. Moreover, a language focus, like a subject focus, must be thought through” (p. 197). Without this purposeful language focus, Creese questioned whether what goes on in co-taught classes can even be called Content-Based Language Teaching (CBLT).

A similar study by Arkoudis (2005, 2006) delved deeply into the interaction between language and content teachers during planning for co-taught content classes in Australia. Here again the positioning of content over language was evident. There were, however, clues in her findings as to when and why this positioning was most prevalent. In a discourse analysis of two planning conversations between an ESL and a science teacher, Arkoudis found that when speaking more broadly about the curriculum and the responsibilities of each teacher, the content teacher positioned himself as the authority in the partnership, relegating language teaching duties to a secondary position and the exclusive responsibility of the ESL teacher. However, when the two teachers discussed a specific instructional activity and the best way to carry it out, both teachers shared status in the conversation and were better able to plan for a language focus in the activity. Arkoudis suggested that focusing more on planning for the enactment of specific

pedagogical activities might facilitate productive co-planning and help move a language focus into instruction.

Davison (2006), however, proposed that one problem in co-teaching partnerships is that ESL is seen as being more concerned with strategies and methods and less as a subject area with its own curricular goals. He posited this was a reason that content learning is positioned as more important than language learning in co-taught courses. Following Davison's argument, Arkoudis's suggestion that content and language teachers focus more on planning at the activity level might only serve to exacerbate the problem.

The classrooms observed by Creese (2000, 2002, 2005a, 2005b) and Arkoudis (2006) were not only cases of co-teaching, but they were also examples of sheltered instruction, an instructional paradigm which has gained increasing popularity for ELs over the past two decades. Sheltered instruction aims to make grade-level academic content accessible to English learners through scaffolding strategies, such as purposeful attention to the development of background knowledge with the use of visuals and graphic organizers. Sheltered instruction is sometimes offered by a content teacher who has received training in sheltering techniques, by an ESL teacher who has received extra support in the content area, or by a content specialist and an ESL teacher in a team-taught situation. Despite the prevalence of this instructional model, we see limited research about its effectiveness. Furthermore, the little research that does exist again gives conflicting messages about the usefulness of common sheltering approaches.

One study which identified a positive impact for sheltering techniques examined the popular Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) framework (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2012). Short, Echevarria, and Richards-Tutor (2011) compared both

academic language test scores and content test scores of students in a control group with students in courses with teachers trained in the SIOP model. The study examined results for three different groups of students between 1998 and 2006 and found small but significant differences in test scores on language proficiency tests, though the higher levels of achievement were not significant across all subsections of the exams. The highest gains were demonstrated in language production, mechanics, organization, and overall writing scores. Scores in reading and on the academic content in the courses did not show significantly higher gains in the treatment group than in the control group.

A much larger study by Bos et al. (2012) reviewed another popular sheltering teacher education curriculum, Quality Teaching for English Learners (QTEL), comparing standardized test scores for 6,000 middle school students in a control group and 6,382 students whose English language arts and ESL teachers had received QTEL training. Elements of the QTEL program include wide-ranging foci that are generally regarded as best practices for ESL pedagogy, such as establishing a clear focus for learning, eliciting high-level thinking, engaging students in cooperative learning, and establishing a language focus, which includes a focus on the social purpose of the text, formulaic expressions, and corrective feedback. Teachers were trained in the QTEL methods through an intensive summer program. They also received individual coaching throughout the year following this training and participated in professional development groups focused on lesson planning. This study identified no significant differences between the test scores of students who had a QTEL trained teacher and those who did not. It is important to note that this study only measured results for learners with teachers who had *received* the training. It did not measure the extent to which the teacher

successfully *implemented* these methods into their instruction. Unfortunately for the purpose of this study, there was no discussion about the extent to which this training enabled teachers to bring a focus on language to their sheltered classes. After reviewing the literature on the results of sheltered instruction, Goldenberg (2013) concluded “There are virtually no data to suggest that sheltered instruction or any of these modifications and supports help ELs keep up with non-ELs or help close the achievement gap between them” (p. 8).

There is reason to believe that the disappointing results of these programs might, at least in part, be due to the lack of balance between language and content in sheltered programs. This was clearly demonstrated in a study by Short (2002), which analyzed 14 hours of sheltered ESL instruction by four different teachers in ESL social studies classes: two ESL trained content specialists, and two ESL teachers who received extra content support. She found that both the language- and the content-trained teachers focused significantly more on content than on language. The data showed that 44% of teacher utterances addressed content, 35% addressed tasks, and 20% addressed language. Most notable, of this 20% that addressed language, 95% focused on vocabulary or pronunciation. There was virtually no mention of language forms (only 1% of teacher utterances). Short concluded, “Most teachers address content objectives in their lessons but less frequently include language goals. For English language learners this is a critical area for increased teacher attention” (p. 22).

By all indications, these programs have become intensely content-focused, where the main purpose of the language teacher is to provide language “support” for ELs by scaffolding instruction to allow them to understand the content. A number of studies

(Brenner, 1998; Kinsella, 1997; Langman, 2003; Zwiers, 2007), however, have demonstrated that too much focus on techniques for making content comprehensible can be detrimental to ELs. Freeman and Freeman (2009) call this phenomenon *over scaffolding*. Brenner (1998) demonstrated how this type of over scaffolding can occur. She analyzed classroom conversation from two algebra classes, one sheltered and one mainstream. After reviewing twenty hours of videotape from each class, she found that in the sheltered class, the teacher used far more large-group instruction and the students had limited opportunities to use mathematical language. Most of the talk by students came in one-word or very short answers to teacher questions. This occurred in a class with a teacher who had been trained in sheltering techniques. She brought in many visuals and used other scaffolding methods to try and help the students connect with the content. Ultimately, though, she felt the students could not understand the content unless she was leading instruction. The results indicated a situation in which a teacher's good intentions created an instructional setting in which students had very little opportunity to expand their language ability.

Zwiers (2007) also described how teachers' good intentions can harm students' language development. In a study in which he followed three teachers using sheltering techniques in middle school content classrooms with high populations of ELs, Zwiers noted interactions in which the use of scaffolding techniques such as visuals and hands-on activities allowed the students to answer teachers' questions non-verbally without even attempting to use academic language. Similarly, in an article which detailed her experiences teaching ELs in a high school setting, Kinsella (1997) described situations in which the teacher took on so much responsibility for making language comprehensible

through scaffolding that students were not challenged linguistically, nor did they make progress learning how to interact with school texts or content.

A study by Netten and Spain (1989) also investigated teachers' use of non-verbal comprehension supports. Researchers compared the interaction patterns of two second grade French immersion teachers and considered how these interaction patterns might influence the development of language proficiency. The researchers found that Teacher A used verbal messages to help facilitate comprehension and only minimally used non-verbal comprehension aids. On the other hand, almost 90% of the comprehension aids that Teacher B used were non-verbal. She relied heavily on pictures, drawings, gestures, and body language. Teacher A also provided more opportunities for students to interact with her and with each as well as more explicit correction of errors than did Teacher B. These two teachers shared a common curriculum, yet the students in Class A scored far higher on tests of second language proficiency than did students in Class B. While there were a number of observed differences in the teachers' interaction patterns, the difference in use of visual versus non-visual comprehension aids was remarkable, and likely contributed to the difference in language proficiency attained by the students. This study provides further support for the idea that providing too much non-linguistic support, something language teachers are told is an important scaffolding technique (Echevarría et al., 2012), may actually hinder students' language development.

The research that has examined sheltered and co-taught courses has revealed a number of areas of concern. First, there is little evidence that these programs are producing solid language gains, especially at the secondary level. Second, there is reason to suspect that the focus placed on scaffolding content in the popular materials that

prepare teachers to shelter instruction may actually be impeding students' language growth. Additionally, the move toward co-teaching has revealed a bias toward content and a lack of focus on language in these courses. This lack of focus on language is disturbing because these courses often replace an ESL course which sets as its curricular goals the learning of language. This situation prompted Dutro and Moran (2003) to suggest that some of these common practices in ESL instruction be reexamined. They took "the position that language instruction requires teaching English, not just teaching "in" English or simply providing opportunities for students to interact with each other in English" (Dutro & Moran, 2003, p. 228). Their conclusions echo the views of many who advocate for a purposeful focus on language in CBI. The next section explores how language-focused instruction has been conceived.

Language-Focused Instruction

According to Nation (2007), language-focused instruction involves the deliberate learning of language features such as pronunciation, spelling, vocabulary, grammar and discourse. He suggested that approximately 25% of the time in a CBI class be designated to language-focused learning, for which he set the following conditions:

- (1) The learners give deliberate attention to language features.
- (2) The learners should process the language features in deep and thoughtful ways.
- (3) There should be opportunities to give spaced, repeated attention to the same features.
- (4) The features that are focused on should be simple and not dependent on developmental knowledge that the learners do not have.

(5) Features that are studied in the language-focused learning strand should also occur often in the other [parts] of the course. (p. 6)

Nation cited the following important effects of language-focused learning:

1. It can add directly to implicit knowledge.
2. It can raise consciousness to help later learning.
3. It can focus on systematic aspects of the language.
4. It can be used to develop strategies. (p. 6)

Many other theorists believe that identifying the language functions central to the learning tasks is an important component in planning for a language focus in CBI. Brown (1994) expressed the importance of attending to the functional purpose of language in this way:

The acquisition of vocabulary, grammar rules, discourse rules, and other organizational competencies results in nothing if the learner cannot use those forms for the functional purpose of transmitting and receiving thoughts, ideas, and feelings between speaker and hearer or reader and writer. While forms are the outward manifestation of language, functions are the realization of those forms. (p. 231)

This form-function approach to teaching ESL has been especially prevalent as the field has shifted to focus more on academic language in the past twenty years. Zwiers (2008) defined academic language as “the set of words, grammar, and organizational strategies used to describe complex ideas, higher-order thinking processes, and abstract concepts” (p. 20). Theorists (e.g. Dutro & Moran, 2003; Mohan & Beckett, 2003) have stressed the importance of arranging language instruction based on academic language

functions. According to Bailey, Butler, Stevens, and Lord (2007), an academic English function refers to the language associated with academic tasks and purposes. Some of the academic language functions that have been identified include indicating cause and effect, comparing, persuading, interpreting, seeking information, summarizing, sequencing, predicting, persuading, justifying, recounting, and hypothesizing. (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Dutro & Moran, 2003).

Dutro and Moran (2003) stress that teaching language from the perspective of language functions benefits the learner in that he or she is able to use the learned language related to the function to accomplish the same function in a range of contexts across content areas. In their framework for identifying a language focus for ESL instruction, Dutro and Moran listed three main design features: functions, forms and fluency, which they described as:

- 1) the language task (function);
- 2) necessary tools (forms of language) for carrying out that task; and
- 3) ways of providing opportunities for practice and application (developing fluency).

Dutro and Moran also described the spaces in instruction where a language focus is most aptly placed, identifying a systemic focus on ELD as its own curriculum, front-loading language for content courses, and maximizing teachable moments as the three components of successful language-focused teaching.

Another approach to planning for language focused instruction was described by Chamot and O'Malley (1994) in their influential Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA) to language instruction. In addition to a focus on identifying

academic language functions, the authors stress the importance of purposefully teaching language learning strategies as a part of language-focused instruction. Language learning strategies were also a central component in the framework developed by Bigelow, Ranney, and Dahlman (2006), who saw language learning strategies as a feature that connected the selection of content, function, and structures, the three components of their Connections Model.

All of the models described above require teachers to purposefully evaluate the language of the lesson and identify language features to teach. While identifying a language focus is the critical starting point for language instruction, it is only the first step in creating effective language learning experiences for students. The next section reviews specific pedagogies that have been found to be a useful part of language focused instruction.

Evidence-Based Teaching Methods for Language-Focused Instruction

In this section, I will expand on the discussion of language -instruction by introducing a number of evidence-based teaching methods and the research that supports their use in the classroom. These are the methods that I make known to teacher candidates while they are in my program and the methods on which they are assessed as they create lesson plans and curriculum units. I offer this information as background for the experiences that I and the participants of this study have shared.

Over the course of the two years that candidates are engaged in coursework in my program, three main themes for planning language instruction are explored. First, teachers should be purposeful with oral language; second, vocabulary should be developed with a focus on general academic, or Tier Two words (Beck, McKeown &

Kucan, 2013); and, third, teachers should include a proactive focus on form in every unit. All of these concepts are introduced in the context of the function of the language. That is, candidates identify the language function central to the lesson and then use the function to guide their choice of vocabulary and forms as they plan.

Purposeful oral language. A number of studies have explored the impact of teachers' discursive practices and have noted the importance of teachers' purposeful use of oral interaction for improving their students' academic language proficiency. Gibbons (2003) called this phenomenon building "linguistic bridges" (p. 259). In her study, 5th grade language minority students in a science class in Australia completed experiments with magnets and then spoke and wrote about their experiences. Through transcript analysis, Gibbons was able to show how the teacher scaffolded student language to help them reformulate their ideas and experiences into more academic language forms. The students' language began as very informal with many characteristics of conversational language. Through the use of extended recasts, the teacher moved her students through what Gibbons called "a mode continuum" (p. 250) until they were able to express their ideas orally in academic ways and then transfer that academic language to writing. The detailed description in Gibbons' study showed how discourse in the classroom and the teacher's purposeful oral language choices could serve as a linguistic bridge to more complex and academic modes of language.

Gibbons (2015) presented the ideas from this study in a chapter of her practitioner text *Scaffolding Language, Scaffolding Learning: Teaching English Language Learners in the Mainstream Classroom*. This is a required text for students in my program, and we discuss the ideas in this chapter on multiple occasions. Most notably, when students are

in their student teaching placement and complete their edTPAs¹, we return to this chapter. I encourage them to revisit the ideas and think about how, now that they have had more contact with students, they can see themselves as building bridges from the students' oral language to more academic written forms.

Zwiers (2007) work examining the way that teachers use oral interaction to promote the development of academic language has also influenced the content in my courses and my priorities when working with teacher candidates. In his observations of three teachers' oral interactions with four language minority focal students over four months, Zwiers was able to identify numerous teacher behaviors that either assisted or hindered the use of academic language in the focal English learners. The most helpful behaviors he identified were teacher modeling and the creation of purposeful opportunities for students to practice. These two behaviors were consistently present when the focal students were successful in using academic English. I encourage my teacher candidates to model for their students and use think-alouds often, allowing their students to see how an expert approaches a language task.

Zwiers (2007) further documented unhelpful teacher behaviors, which I discuss with my students. For example, Zwiers found that overuse of display questions limited the production of academic English by the focal students. He also identified a pattern he called "linguistic enabling" in which teachers, usually out of compassion or with good intentions, demanded less of the English learners in the class. Teachers asked more display questions and fewer elaboration questions to English learners. They were also

¹ The edTPA is a performance assessment that student teachers complete prior to being licensed which documents a teacher candidate's readiness to effectively teach subject area content.

more likely to accept non-academic responses from English learners and offered little or no corrective feedback.

One of the most important teacher behaviors that I try to impart on my teacher candidates is the importance of purposefully planning for oral interactions. Too often teachers overlook this part of lesson planning, assuming that planning for *what* they will talk about and ask their students to talk about is all that is needed. In fact, a number of studies have demonstrated that language teachers also need to plan *how* they will talk about and ask students to talk about the course concepts.

Zwiers (2007) called this “creating spaces” for students to use language. A study by Llinares and Dalton-Puffer (2014) illuminated what, exactly, this might look like in instruction. Their study occurred in a three different European CLIL (content and language integrated learning) contexts and examined different kinds of oral interactions that occur in secondary classrooms. The researchers were surprised to find that group work did not foster the level of language use by students that they expected. The authors observed that students often took a transactional view of group work, focusing on completing the task and thereby limiting opportunities for oral self-expression. This finding demonstrates the important role of the teacher in setting expectations and preparing students for oral academic engagement. Based on conclusions drawn from a research review and their own classroom observations, Zwiers and Crawford (2009) promoted the purposeful teaching of five core skills to help facilitate academic conversations in class: elaboration and clarification, supporting ideas with examples, building on or challenging another’s ideas, paraphrasing, and applying and connecting the topic to the speakers’ lives. Through the use of modeling, think-alouds, and sentence

frames, my teacher candidates explore how these oral language skills can be taught and scaffolded in language instruction.

Vocabulary with an emphasis on Tier Two words. Research on English learners demonstrates that vocabulary knowledge is the single best predictor of academic achievement across subject matter domains (Kinsella, 2005a, 2005b). As such, helping teacher candidates develop a methodological repertoire to assist in the development of their students' vocabulary is a key focus in my program. The main text we use to ground this work is *Bringing Words to Life: Robust Vocabulary Instruction* by Beck et al. (2013). Here the authors lay out a three-tier organizational framework for categorizing words and making decisions for instruction. In this framework, Tier One consists of everyday words, such as house, run, and apple. Words at this level are generally very concrete and need little attention in content-based classes, as English learners have generally moved to a level where many of these words are known or can be learned as encountered in daily contexts before being placed in a CBI setting. On the other end of the framework, Beck et al. identify Tier Three words, or domain-specific, low-frequency words such as osmosis in biology or nationalism in social studies. These words tend to be those that appear in boldface in textbooks and find a place in the glossary. In between these two are the high frequency general academic word that belong to Tier Two, such as justify, expand, or analyze. These words are used by proficient speakers of academic English across content-area domains and represent abstract concepts.

A similar framework is given by Dutro and Moran (2003) who differentiate between “brick” and “mortar” words, where brick words represent the content-specific words of Tier Three and mortar words represent the general academic words of Tier Two.

Dutro and Moran expand their metaphor by saying that mortar words are “the words that hold our language together and are essential to comprehension” (p. 15).

Both Beck et al. (2013) and Dutro and Moran (2003) emphasize the importance of explicitly teaching vocabulary. The natural tendency of most teachers, especially native speakers of English, is to focus on the Tier Three (or “brick”) words. However, it is a lack of understanding of words at the Tier Two level (or “mortar” words) that is most problematic for English learners. Thus, in my teaching, we focus on methods for identifying and teaching these Tier Two words.

One helpful tool for identifying Tier Two words is the academic word list (Coxhead, 1998), which was created using methods from corpus linguistics to identify headwords for 570 word families which account for over 10% of the words that appear in academic texts (Coxhead, 2000). My preservice teachers are introduced to this tool and to the concept of corpus linguistics from which the word list was developed. They are given activities to complete with the word list and are asked to create a vocabulary plan that necessitates the use of this list. Students are also encouraged to, when teaching a word, teach multiple words in the word family and discuss with students how suffixes and prefixes change the usage of a word.

A key concept I try to impart on my students is that multiple exposures to vocabulary words are vital. Stahl (2005) emphasized that vocabulary instruction should provide students with opportunities to encounter words repeatedly and in a variety of contexts, estimating that 10 to 12 meaningful encounters with a word is generally necessary for a student to “know” the word and how it is used in different contexts. Here we rely on the Beck et al. text for many examples of activities that can supply these

meaningful interactions with targeted words for students. I also encourage teacher candidates to reuse these activities and instructional structures for learning vocabulary often, as this removes the attention that must be devoted to learning how to complete the learning activity and allows students to focus their cognitive energy on learning the word. Kinsella (2005a) calls this a “consistent instructional process” and stresses the importance of developing such a routine.

While vocabulary development is vitally important, it also tends to be the aspect of language-focused teaching that students struggle with the least. They are most successful in the conceptualization of language objectives at this level (Bigelow & Ranney, 2005). It is in helping my students to focus on form in content-based lessons where I struggle the most.

Proactive focus on form. While there has been a great deal of disagreement in the past on the extent to which explicit teaching about language can impact learners’ ability to use language, there is now general agreement, supported by two major meta-analyses (Ellis, 2002; Norris & Ortega, 2000) that a focus on form, when done in a way that is connected to meaning, is a necessary component of language instruction if learners are to reach the highest levels of proficiency. In his explanation of why a focus on form is vital, Lyster (2007) cautioned that “much incidental attention to language is too brief and likely too perfunctory to convey sufficient information about certain grammatical subsystems and thus, in those cases, can be considered neither systematic nor apt to make the most of content-based instruction as a means for teaching language” (p. 27). Thus, form-focused instruction is another area for which ESL teachers must inform themselves and develop a range of pedagogical practices if they wish to balance the teaching of

language and content in CBI and is, therefore, the third major area of emphasis in my program.

How best to approach the teaching of language forms has been a topic of much debate. One early conception of how this might look was proposed by Long (1991), who put forth what he called Focus on Form (FonF) instruction. FonF, as described by Long, takes place in a meaning-centered classroom, but in which teachers “overtly draw students’ attention” (Long, 1991, p. 45) to grammatical forms when errors are made. It is important to note that for Long, explicit discussion of language rules was only to be in response to student errors (Long, 1991). He did not support the idea of preplanned grammar instruction, nor did he advocate that students practice forms to help attain mastery. Other researchers, however, have taken a broader view of FonF instruction. Doughty and Williams (1998) argued that not all aspects of language can be learned through this limited conception of FonF. They suggested that a FonF approach may also include preplanned activities to address possible target language problems before they occur. Ellis (2001) described such preplanned activities as *preemptive* FonF. Spada (1997) proposed the term form-focused instruction (FFI) to encompass a wider range of pedagogical approaches than the limited definition advanced by Long. She defined form-focused instruction (FFI) as any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learner’s attention to language forms either implicitly or explicitly and stipulated that the term FFI was used “to refer to pedagogical events which occur within meaning-based approaches to L2 instruction but in which a focus on language is provided in either spontaneous or predetermined ways” (p. 73).

Numerous studies (e.g. Jourdenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson, & Doughty, 1995; Doughty & Varela, 1998) have built upon these conceptions of FFI and investigated different instructional strategies that can be used in such pedagogical interventions. Building on the results of a study they conducted looking at interactional feedback as well as other similar studies, Lyster and Mori (2006) offered their counterbalanced hypothesis as a guide for blending a focus on language into content-based settings. This hypothesis posited that

instructional activities and interactional feedback that act as a counterbalance to the predominant communicative orientation of a given classroom setting will be more facilitative of interlanguage restructuring than instructional activities and interactional feedback that are congruent with the predominant communicative orientation. (p. 294)

Lyster (2007) builds on this hypothesis to develop a model to help teachers in content-based settings achieve the needed balance between language and content. Lyster's approach and the counterbalanced hypothesis is a key concept I introduce to my teacher candidates. I encourage them to take short time-outs from content to focus on language, thus balancing the two. In suggesting instructional approaches that might accomplish this counterbalanced teaching, Lyster divided his focus between proactive and reactive techniques.

Proactive techniques. After reviewing the research on form-focused instruction and using cognitive theory as a theoretical lens, Lyster (2004) examined five studies conducted in 49 French immersion classrooms in Canada with the intention of making pedagogical suggestions. He concluded that proactive FFI should include noticing

activities, awareness activities, and opportunities for practice. Lyster defined noticing activities as primarily receptive, in which learners' attention is drawn to "target features that have been contrived to appear more salient or frequent in oral and written input" (p. 336). Awareness activities begin to engage students more actively with the target features through, for example, inductive rule discovery activities or other opportunities for students to acquire metalinguistic knowledge about the form. Lyster described a range of practice activities needed to provide opportunities for students to "proceduralize their declarative knowledge of emerging target-like forms" (p. 336). Lyster's spectrum of practice activities ranged from controlled activities, which push the learner to use the target form, to communicative activities, which include more naturalistic use of the target form. Lyster (2007) later expanded on his description of controlled and communication practice activities, differentiating between the two types of practice using Loschky and Bley-Vroman's (1993) conceptions of *task-essentialness*, which specifies that a task can only be successfully completed if the targeted form is used and *task naturalness*, which describes tasks where the targeted form might naturally occur but is not required for the successful completion of the task.

The use of such methods was also supported by recent work by Nassaji and Fotos (2011). After an in-depth review of the literature, they also recommended that second language instruction include opportunities for students to notice and develop awareness of language forms through input activities and opportunities for students to practice the grammar forms.

Lyster (2015) investigated the effects of his proactive model. He crafted a study in which 128 Grade 5 French immersion students in six "experimental" classrooms received

intentional form-focused instruction woven into their content instruction. The instructional interventions were designed to help improve students' use of grammatical gender. Teachers provided noticing and awareness activities, including textual enhancement, and then moved to inductive rule discovery and a number of controlled and communicative practice activities. Immediate and delayed posttests were given to the students in the experimental classrooms, as well as to 51 students in two comparison classrooms. Students in the experimental classrooms showed significant improvement in both immediate and delayed posttests and significantly outperformed the students in the comparison group, indicating a strong positive impact of Lyster's model.

It is, of course, important to note that Lyster's model has not been studied in language minority contexts. However, other studies (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998; Han, Park, & Combs, 2008; Valeo, 2013) have indicated that many of the pieces of Lyster's model, when investigated separately, were effective for ESL students. What is appealing about Lyster's model is that it has taken the realities of the content-based classroom into account and suggested research-backed methods of embedding language-focused instruction into content lessons. As we have seen, content drives instruction in CBI, and both content and language teachers tilt toward an overemphasis on content. Lyster's model provides concrete pedagogical suggestions for restoring a balance between language and content in CBI. His counterbalanced metaphor offers an accessible mental representation of the responsibilities of a language teacher in a content-based setting and is a main feature of instruction in my program. The participants in this study have been introduced to Lyster's model for proactive, form-focused instruction and have created curriculum using the different features of this model during their preservice courses.

Language Objectives

A common planning technique teachers use to focus on language in a content-based lesson is by identifying learning objectives that address both content and language. In this section, I will discuss the scholarly work that has been done surrounding language objectives as well as the way language objectives are introduced in books written for teachers and often used in pre-service methods courses. I then provide an explanation of how I have defined language objectives for my students and the theoretical undergirding that supports my approach.

Theoretical work focused on language objectives. As there is not agreement in the TESOL field about the best way to teach language, especially when it comes to the teaching of language forms (Dutro & Moran, 2003), it logically follows that there has not been agreement about what should be included in a language objective and how language objectives should be written. It is unusual, however, that despite the fact that there appears to be strong agreement among K-12 ESL practitioners in the field that ESL teachers' lesson plans should include both language and content objectives (Lindahl & Watkins, 2014), there has been very little scholarly work done on this topic in ESL settings. One notable exception was a theoretical piece authored by Snow, Met, and Genesee (1989). When the ESL field first shifted toward content-based instruction in the 1980s, Snow et al. offered a conceptual framework for what they then termed *language-learning objectives*. Their article started with a warning, which now seems eerily prescient to me, when they suggested of CBI:

...if such an orientation is to be effective, language teaching must be carefully considered and planned. It is unlikely that desired levels of second/foreign

language proficiency will emerge simply from the teaching of content through a second or foreign language. The specification of language-learning objectives must be undertaken with deliberate, systematic planning and coordination of the language and content curricula. (p. 204)

Snow et al. went on to offer a model for planning language objectives that requires continuous assessment by teachers of the language needs of the learner given the learning tasks. They differentiated between *content-obligatory* language objectives, or those language skills without which students will be unable to meet the essential demands of the content, and *content-compatible* language objectives, those language skills that “can be taught within the context of a given content but are not required for successful content mastery” (p. 206). Throughout their article, the authors described how language and content teachers must work together to determine the content and language objectives for lessons. Unfortunately, subsequent studies about how language and content teachers interact in what should be settings for content-based language instruction demonstrated that, in practice, the content of the class is privileged and language learning and the language teacher are marginalized (Arkoudis, 2006; Creese, 2002; Creese, 2005; Creese, 2006), a finding that threatens the realization of language-learning objectives as described in Snow et al.’s seminal piece.

Despite an extensive review of the literature, I was not able to find any other theoretical publications focused on a conception of language objectives, except a practitioner-focused piece by Lindahl and Watkins (2014) that offered a “menu” of items that might be appropriate to include in language objectives. My sense while reviewing this literature was that it seemed as though there was agreement in the field that Snow et

al.'s piece had provided the theoretical basis that was needed in this area, allowing other researchers to focus on other aspects of CBI. However, in addition to the studies cited above which indicate that the prerequisite cooperation between content and language teachers described by Snow et al. is not always present, a number of studies (Bigelow & Ranney, 2005; Bigelow, 2010; Baecher, Farnsworth, & Ediger, 2013; Lindahl, Baecher, & Tomaš, 2013) have demonstrated that ESL teachers and teacher candidates experience considerable difficulty when they attempt to identify a language focus for their content-based lessons.

Difficulties in the conceptualization of language objectives. Bigelow and Ranney (2005) reviewed teacher candidates' lesson plans and journal entries about planning for a language-focus in instruction. They found that while vocabulary objectives were often given by teacher candidates, the range of sentence and text level forms targeted in their language objectives was quite limited, focusing most often on verb tenses. A similar study by Bigelow (2010) also examined teacher candidates' lesson plans. Once more, these teacher candidates had trouble identifying language objectives for content-based instruction. Candidates again focused on a very limited range of forms, most often vocabulary and verb tenses, this despite these students having developed (presumably) a solid base of linguistic knowledge in their pre-service coursework. Many of these findings were echoed in a study by Baecher, Farnsworth, and Ediger (2013), who analyzed 107 ESL lesson plans and found that language objectives were clearly written in only 38% of these plans. Even when they were clearly written, the language objectives rarely focused on language forms beyond vocabulary, and, when they did, these forms represented a small range of possible forms.

Lindahl, Baecher, and Tomaš (2013) investigated pre-service teachers' ability not only to identify language objectives but to plan for language-focused CBI in general. The researchers asked 89 pre-service teachers at the end of their final practicum in two different TESOL licensure programs to read a short content-area text, identify the language demands of the text, and, from the list of demands, choose language to focus on during instruction, and design pedagogical activities to support the chosen language demands. Despite having recently taken courses in linguistics and English grammar, only 6.38% of participants mentioned an activity that focused specifically on the language of the text outside of vocabulary. It is particularly interesting to note that many of the findings of the study were very similar for participants from both teacher preparation programs, despite different courses, instructors, and practicum experiences. Even more interesting is that there were, in fact, a number of differences between the two groups in the lists of language demands they identified. For example, 76% of participants from one program made mention of some grammatical aspect beyond verb tenses compared to only 23% of participants from the other program. Yet, despite the fact that such a high percentage was able to identify a grammatical aspect that was important in understanding the text, very few then translated this into pedagogical action in their planning. They instead focused their planning on the other language demands they identified, most often vocabulary and sheltering techniques.

In a 2016 study with similar findings, Song interviewed teacher candidates who had recently completed an ESL licensure program. The clear majority of respondents expressed a lack of confidence in their ability to write language objectives and to combine content and language objectives. Despite the fact that they were language

teachers, almost all felt more confident in their ability to write content objectives than language objectives. The study also revealed the difficulty that teacher candidates find in applying concepts they have learned about language functions and language forms, as exemplified in the following quote:

It is the whole form and function part of the language objectives that I think I am struggling with a little bit. I am just not 100%....I have a packet of paper. It says forms here and functions right here, and they match up. But I am not sure if they are supposed to match up. I am not sure how the forms and functions work that well. (p. 46)

These studies demonstrate that difficulty writing strong language objectives is a widespread problem, yet identifying a language objective is the first vital step in planning for language-focused instruction. Ultimately, these studies offer compelling evidence that many ESL teachers lack the skills needed to purposefully teach language in content-based settings. In light of this troubling fact, I would like to turn this discussion to the materials that prepare teachers to identify language objectives and organize language-focused instruction.

Language objectives in teacher education materials. If identifying a language objective is the first step in planning for effective language instruction, and if so many new and practicing teachers struggle with this skill, it would be logical to think that conceptions of language objectives or how to teach candidates to conceptualize language objectives would figure heavily in publications of second language teacher education (SLTE). However, Kindle searches of the contents of three recent scholarly books on SLTE (Burns & Richards, 2009; Freeman, 2016; Johnson & Golombek, 2011) did not

contain the term “language objective” even once, despite the fact that one of the books had an appendix of a recommended assignment in a teacher education course asking students to create learning objectives (Johnson & Golombek, 2011). While work has certainly been done on many related aspects, such as teacher language awareness (Andrews, 2001, 2003, 2007; Wright & Bolitho, 1993) and knowledge about language (Bartels, 2009), the relative lack of focus on how these constructs influence the conceptualization of language objectives in ESL settings was surprising to me. One possible reason for this is that difficulty identifying a language focus for instruction manifests itself most strongly in content-based or sheltered settings, and many researchers interested in concepts of TLA and KAL are working outside of these settings. K-12 ESL instruction in the past twenty years has seen an incredible shift to these content-based models, with many English Learners only getting “service” in such a setting. In light of this reality, the lack of attention to this problem in the literature is problematic.

ESL teacher candidates are, however, typically introduced to the concept of language objectives in their preservice coursework. In an effort to better understand how the concept of language objectives is introduced to preservice ESL teachers, I reviewed ten ESL methods textbooks published by Pearson (Diaz-Rico, 2008; Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2009; Echevarría, Vogt & Short; 2010; Peregoy & Boyle, 2017) and Heinemann (Chen & Flores, 2006; Cloud, Genesee & Hamayan, 2009; Danling, 2009; Freeman & Freeman; 2011; Freeman, Freeman, Soto, & Ebe, 2016; Gibbons, 2009), as well as one published by National Geographic (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Snow, 2014). These books all ranked high on the publishers’ lists of sales in this area. Written for teacher candidates and used

in methods classes, these books also often lacked a thorough focus on the concept of content and language objectives and how this duality might be effectively imagined in lesson planning. Of these textbooks, those with a focus on developing the literacy skills of English learners either made no mention at all of language objectives (Danling, 2009; Pergeoy & Boyle, 2012) or mentioned them in passing in less than one paragraph, as if the teacher candidates had already mastered this skill (Chen & Flores, 2006; Cloud et al., 2009). This was especially surprising considering how tightly linked language and literacy are. Diaz-Rico and Weed's (2010) book focusing on language and academic development made no mention at all of language objectives.

The other methods texts did mention language and content objectives and offered discussions or gave some explanation about these concepts. However, many of these discussions were quite short and, if their purpose was to guide teacher candidates in creating such objectives, likely insufficient. For example, Diaz-Rico's *Strategies for Teaching English Learners* (2008) offered only a vague definition and brief description of a language objective, defining it as "knowledge or skill in some facet of English" (p. 70). Freeman and Freeman (2011) went deeper into their discussion of language objectives, but still only offered four short paragraphs on the topic, describing language objectives as happening on the word, sentence, paragraph, or text level and giving one example (p. 234). Another textbook, Celce-Murcia et al.'s (2014) *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* had two sections in which the topic of language and content objectives appeared. However, these sections were also brief, and their purpose did not seem to be to discuss ideas about what might be included in such objectives. Instead, these sections stressed the importance of creating both content and language objectives,

without an in-depth discussion about what should be included in each of these. In other words, the purpose of these sections did not appear to be teaching ESL teacher candidates what these two objectives should contain and how they relate to each other. It was interesting to note that example lesson plans appeared in this book in which language and content objectives were present long before the concept was addressed explicitly, as if, once again, this was a well understood concept that candidates have previously learned.

There were some books where an approach for identifying content and language objectives was more defined. For example, Gibbons (2009) gave the following five-step process for planning lessons:

Step 1: Note what you already know about your students' language strengths and language learning needs;

Step 2: Identify the language that is central to the topic that you wish to teach.

Step 3: Select the key language on which you will focus.

Step 4: Design or choose activities to present or use the focus language.

Step 5: Evaluate the unit of work. (p. 159)

Gibbons (2009) offers one example of content and language objectives of a lesson. While these steps offer a solid skeleton for the process of identifying a language focus, their description is limited to two paragraphs. The word "objective" appears only three times in the entire book. Freeman, Freeman, Soto, and Ebe, (2016) presented a more complete explanation. Language objectives are mentioned at several points throughout the book and an example of a teacher's thinking as she plans her language objectives is given. Although, I again felt that even this book lacked the depth needed considering the difficulty teacher candidates have developing this skill, this book offered

the most guidance for preservice teachers as well as a useful starting point for teacher educators.

It is not my position that the sections that focus on language and content objectives in these books are in any way incorrect. In fact, the processes described by Gibbons (2009, 2015), Freeman et al. (2016), and the four levels of language objectives offered by Freeman and Freeman (2011) reflect what I have experienced to be an effective process for identifying language objectives in my own teaching and are ideas I share with my teacher candidates. It is the fact that these concepts are explored in such little detail in almost all of these books that worries me. My personal experiences and the research I discussed earlier in this chapter indicate that identifying the language to be taught and creating appropriate objectives is an incredibly challenging task for teacher candidates and merits an in-depth exploration in the books that are written to help them learn to teach.

Gibbons's (2015) discussion of creating language and content objectives is telling. She offered this table as an example:

Science Activities and Outcomes	Language Outcomes
<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • research some common insects in order to understand what all insects have in common, how insects change at different points in their lives (life cycles), and how they impact on other living things, including people • compare the differences between spiders and insects • study some of the spiders that are found in gardens and people's homes • know how to avoid getting bitten • produce an information report on an insect or spider that they choose. 	<p>Students will:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • make generalizations (<i>All insects have . . . , Insects are . . . , Spiders have . . .</i>) • describe the appearance of some insects and spiders using appropriate specialist vocabulary (<i>head, thorax, abdomen, wings, antennae</i>) • explain how to avoid getting bitten (imperative: <i>don't put your fingers in holes in the garden, don't poke a spider with a stick</i>) • write an information report using an appropriate overall structure (e.g., headings and subheadings such as <i>appearance, habitat, food, life cycle, and other interesting facts</i>) • use time connectives for describing the sequence of a life cycle (e.g., <i>first, two weeks later, after this, finally</i>).

Figure 2.1. Content and Language Outcomes (Gibbons, 2015, p. 221)

Then she stated, “The example provides a way to document planned integrations. A similar page can be *easily* added to the beginning of every unit of work, regardless of what other planning format is used or required” (p.221, emphasis added). As I have argued in this chapter and in Chapter One, ESL teachers quite simply do not find this *easy*.

My purpose is not to criticize these books. They are incredible resources that I use in my teaching and from which I continue to learn new things every time I read them. But when taken as a whole, they give the impression that the researchers and theorists who produced these materials are disconnected from the lived experiences of the students who are reading these books, at least in this one area. And because this one area is the starting point of language instruction, the lack of attention to language objectives in these texts is very problematic.

Another problematic issue with language objectives is the disparate understandings represented in available resources about what, exactly, a language

objective should contain. In Gibbons's examples in Figure 2.1, the language objectives offer a general statement about the function of the language to be learned (e.g., describe, make generalizations), but they also list specific language features (e.g., imperatives, time connectives). These objectives make very clear what the teacher will focus on during instruction and also what kind of language the learner should produce in order to meet the objective. Ultimately, these are two of the basic features of a learning objective (Mager, 1997): to guide instruction and to allow the teacher to assess the student's learning.

Models that offer this robust level of detail are described in two useful resources available on the Internet. The website of the Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA) at the University of Minnesota offers a model adapted from work by Fortune (n.d) which provides the following formula:

- Students will use X (language structure) to do Y (functions) with Z (words/word groups).

A similar formula is proposed by Kinsella and Ward Singer (2011), who designed the following frame for the creation of language objectives:

- Students will (function: active verb phrase) using (language target).

Language objectives that reach this level of specificity are what I offer my students as models and what I expect to see in their lesson plans. Because the model adapted from Fortune is focused on immersion contexts, I use the handout by Kinsella and Ward Singer as the primary reading for my students as we discuss language objectives.

Other descriptions and examples of language objectives available in books and in Internet resources, however, are not as specific as these and result in language objectives that are extremely vague, rendering them inappropriate for guiding instruction and

assessment. For example, as I mentioned above, Diaz-Rico (2008) defined language objectives as “knowledge or skill in some facet of English” (p. 70) and later in the book offered the following as examples of language objectives:

- To predict what will happen in the story “The Great Kapok Tree” by looking at the pictures.
- To explain why the Great Kapok tree was so special.
- To read aloud parts of the story using appropriate voices to represent characters. (p. 137)

One resource that presents a similar, non-specific conception of language objectives is Echevarría, Vogt, and Short’s (2010) widely popular SIOP Model. The authors stress that language objectives can focus on a variety of skills, including vocabulary, reading comprehension, functional language use, higher-order thinking skills, or grammar points. One of the first examples they give of a content and language objective pairing is the following:

- Students will estimate the amount of sales tax and total cost of given items.
- Students will compare and evaluate their estimates with the actual sales tax and total cost. (p. 31)

The authors write that the first statement is the content objective and the second statement is the language objective, adding “The teachers would teach and expect the students to use comparative and evaluative language phrases” (p. 31). According to Kinsella and Ward Singer’s model, this language objective is incomplete. The teacher should

conceptualize and name the “comparative and evaluative language phrases” in the objective.

The next language objective offered by Echevarría et al. states:

- Students will present an oral report about one landform and its influence on economic development (p. 31).

Again, we see in this example a language objective that is incredibly vague, offering no real guidance about what language needs to be taught in order for students to accomplish the activity named in the objective. Furthermore, as Marzano (2009) reminds us, there is a difference between an activity and an objective. Presenting an oral report is an activity, not a learning objective.

SIOP is an extremely popular resource; not only has the original text sold millions of copies, but there are multiple other texts that offer “SIOP lesson plans” (for example, Vogt & Echevarría, 2008). Many of the lessons in these books list language objectives that are imprecise, sometimes to the point of being silly. Consider the following examples:

Students will be able to (SWBAT):

- Read and discuss with group members a piece of nonfiction text (p. 33)
- Ask questions about concepts and facts that are confusing. (p. 33)
- Use gestures, words, phrases and sentences to answer questions about (topic) (p. 76)

Unfortunately, an Internet search of ESL lesson plans, as well as the lesson plans I tend to see my student teachers produce with guidance from their cooperating teachers,

lean more toward the vague, imprecise language objectives described in the SIOP resources and in the Diaz-Rico (2008) text than toward the formulas developed by Kinsella and Ward Singer (2011) or Fortune (n.d.).

Gaps in the Literature

This chapter has examined research that has been done in numerous areas surrounding content-based instruction and planning for a language focus in content-based instruction. In doing so, this chapter has revealed a number of gaps in the literature that this study hopes to address. These gaps will be described in this section.

Impact of pre-service learning on language teachers. This study adds to the small body of research on the impact of second language teacher education (SLTE) programs on practicing teachers' instructional choices. The majority of work done to examine the impact of teaching practices in SLTE are done as self-studies and concentrate on preservice teachers (Kiely & Askham, 2012). Such studies end their examination of the impact of teaching practices before the teacher candidates leave their preparation programs and enter the field (e.g. Chiang, 2008; Farrell, 2007, 2008). Of these studies, one by Ogilvie and Dunn (2010) went a step further and followed 17 preservice teachers through a one semester methods course and into their student teaching practicum, which occurred in the term following the course. The study focused on the extent to which the student teachers were able to implement Task Based Language Teaching, a major focus of the course, into their teaching. The study found that, while the student teachers developed knowledge about Task Based Learning and most held favorable impressions of the methodology, none reported they were successful in implementing the methodology in their student teaching settings, due mostly to the

cultural norms of the school and the lack of support from mentor teachers. The study did not, however, examine the extent to which the student teachers were able to implement the method once they were the teacher of record.

Three studies in this area used questionnaires and interviews to gather data about practicing language teachers' perceptions of the impact of their teacher education programs. A study by Kiely and Askham (2012) looked at the impact that a 4–5 week TESOL certification course had on 27 graduates of the program. Their findings focused on positive dispositional and identity changes that the teachers attributed to their TESOL course. Many of the students felt confident in their ability to plan lessons, though few specific methods were described. Faez and Valeo (2012) gathered questionnaires from 115 novice adult ESOL teachers and conducted eight follow-up interviews. The participants in Faez and Valeo's study felt their programs had prepared them moderately well, but lacked preparation in some areas such as working with students with low literacy skills and the use of technology. In a similar study, Baecher (2012) investigated the perceptions of novice ESL teachers surrounding how well they believed their teacher education programs prepared them for their jobs. Her study examined questionnaires from 77 novice ESL teachers, 10 interviews, 1 focus group, and three site visits. Baecher identified numerous areas in which novice ESL teachers felt underprepared, including teaching low-literacy students, teaching ELs who are also special education students, teaching long-term English learners, and teaching in push-in and collaborative settings. Baecher recommended that TESOL programs work collaboratively with practicing teachers to identify ways to improve their programs and approaches to teacher

preparation. Baecher's study is most relevant to the present study, as she investigated ESL teachers working in K–12 schools in the United States.

This dissertation study explores new ground in this area of research. First, it is the only one of these studies that focuses on identifying and teaching a language focus in CBI. Second, in following one focal teacher for 14 weeks, it is the only study, to my knowledge, that analyzes a teacher's ability to apply the learning from her preservice program over a number of months and then seeks to identify the multiple barriers that inhibit this application of knowledge.

Language objectives in inservice teaching. While there have been a number of studies (Baecher, Farnsworth, & Ediger; 2013; Bigelow, 2010; Bigelow & Ranney, 2005; Lindahl, Baecher, & Tomaš, 2013) that examined how preservice teachers were able to conceive of language objectives in content-based lessons, there have been far fewer that looked at how inservice teachers conceive of and utilize language objectives in their teaching. One study that did examine inservice teachers' language objectives was conducted by Fisher and Frey (2010), who analyzed more than 500 language objectives created by 332 practicing teachers in California. Like studies conducted with preservice teachers, this analysis suggested that teachers lacked the ability to create a wide-range of language objectives that were specific enough to guide instruction. Beyond this study, I was not able to find any other studies that look at how practicing teachers experience creating, or trying to create, language objectives in their work. The present study also used interviews to examine this topic, rather than an analysis of lesson plans. Thus, the present study fills a gap in the literature in that it examines how teachers experience trying to conceptualize language objectives in inservice settings.

Language teacher's instructional choices in a sheltered setting. One of the biggest contributions that the study reported herein makes to the field is its in-depth description, over a period of four months, of one ESL certified teacher's attempts to balance language and content in a sheltered setting. While Short's (2002) study also analyzed the teaching practice of two ESL trained teachers in sheltered settings, she spent only ten hours in each teacher's classroom. I observed my focal teacher teaching for over 80 hours. In addition, I spent time planning with her and observing her in planning sessions with her co-teachers. There are very few studies that examine the instructional choices an ESL teacher makes in a sheltered setting, and this is the only one that I am aware of in which the researcher spent this much time in the setting, developing an understanding of the context and engaging with the teacher and the students.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I have explored the theoretical and research base that undergirds the need for ESL teachers to purposefully plan for a language focus during CBI. I have also examined the research that provides direction about what methods might be expected to produce learning gains in language students. It is because of this research base that I believe I can call the methods that I introduce to my teacher candidates and hope to see them use as they move into their careers "evidence-based practices."

I have also explored, through the examination of research and materials prepared for practitioners, how widespread the challenges of creating learning objectives are for ESL teachers and explain some potential reasons why this might be. I reached three overriding conclusions during this review. First, there is strong evidence that confirms my lived experience that ESL teachers struggle to identify a language focus for a content

lesson and create language objectives. Second, the quality and amount of attention given to language objectives in ESL teacher education materials does not reflect the high level of difficulty experienced by ESL teachers and teacher candidates in this area. Finally, the concept of what a language objective should include is not consistent in the field, with varying levels of precision expected by different scholars.

An additional purpose of this review was to describe the experiences and ideas the teachers who took part in this dissertation study were introduced to in their preservice courses. In their work with me, the teachers had many of the opportunities recommended by Bigelow and Ranney (2005). I modeled how texts and tasks can be analyzed for linguistic features and then asked them to complete such an analysis as an assessment. They analyzed language functions and connected them to specific linguistic features. I used assignments that required integration of content and language and provided examples of effective integration. I introduced them to Kinsella and Ward Singer's (2011) formula for creating language objectives and assessed their ability to use the formula to create language objectives. They were introduced to the many evidence-based practices described in this chapter.

Yet, these teachers struggled in their student teaching contexts to apply this learning, and when they left me to begin their careers, I cannot say that I was confident that they would continue to grow in their skill and knowledge in this area. This study followed six of these teachers into their teaching contexts, and, in doing so, the study addresses unexplored areas in the literature with the hope of creating knowledge about the ways that new ESL teachers plan for and blend a language focus into content-based instructional settings.

The next chapter outlines the methodology I used to complete this inquiry.

Chapter Three: Methodology

This study focuses on the experiences of six new ESL teachers and a teacher educator (the researcher) surrounding the teaching, learning, and application of language-focused instructional methods. The data for the study includes interviews with six of the researcher's former students, fourteen weeks of participant observation in the classroom of one focal teacher, a detailed analysis of the teaching materials and methods the researcher had used in the preservice preparation of these teachers, the researcher's journaling about the teaching she was doing concurrent to the data collection, and recordings of a collaborative conversation between the researcher and a critical friend (Pinnegar & Hamilton, 2009). In this chapter, I describe narrative inquiry (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000), the methodology used to conduct this study. I then outline the theoretical framework that guides this study. After this, I provide relevant details about the study participants, the context for the research, and the data sources. Finally, I outline the data analysis process used as well as decisions that were made about how to best represent the data in a way that was fitting with the narrative focus of the study.

Narrative Inquiry

Because this study focuses on understanding experience, narrative inquiry, a research methodology described by Clandinin and Connelly (2000), was chosen. Narrative inquiry views humans as storied creatures who live out their experiences in the midst of personal and institutional narratives and then organize and share their memories of these experiences in narrative form. The concept of story and its importance to the way humans organize their understanding of the world is central to this methodology. Schank and Abelson (1995) stressed this when they wrote "stories about one's experiences, and

the experiences of others, are the fundamental constituents of human memory, knowledge, and social communication” (p. 1). Narrative research methodology focuses on how researchers can access the stories of their research subjects and come to understand the meaning and knowledge contained in these stories.

Narrative inquiry is also an approach that recognizes the role of the researcher and the impact of the researcher’s knowledge and life experience on the events being researched and the theoretical conclusions being drawn. This is another reason why a narrative approach was chosen for this study. As I described in Chapter One, I have watched and wondered about teachers’ abilities and inabilities to conceive of language objectives and blend language-focused teaching into their lessons for thirteen years. Narrative inquiry was an approach which honored the knowledge I accumulated during this time and situated me as an important voice in this research.

When speaking of the researcher’s role, Clandinin (2013) stated, “All narrative inquiries begin with an autobiographical inquiry into who the researcher is in relation to the phenomenon under study (p. 191). Clandinin goes on to describe a form of narrative inquiry, which she called autobiographical narrative inquiry, which “stays focused on the inquirer” (p. 191). Autobiographical narrative inquiry does not always involve research undertaken with others, but can focus on the researcher’s journals, documents, life writings, academic work, or memories. Barkhuizen, Benson, and Chik (2014) distinguished between biographical and autobiographical approaches to narrative research, stating that in biographical approaches, “researchers analyze or tell participants’ stories” (p. 4), whereas “in autobiographical research they analyze or tell their own stories” (p. 4). This study blends these two approaches as it balances data gathered in

interactions with others in the forms of interviews and field observations with data created by the researcher, which includes journals, course materials, and lesson plans.

Theoretical Frame

Due to its focus on experience and how humans represent their experiences in storied ways, narrative methodology is more closely linked to the theoretical frameworks that guide a study than many other methodologies. These frameworks must illuminate the conception of experience that a researcher brings to the study as well as the researcher's understanding of the mental processes involved in the creation of the narrative.

The human tendency to construct narratives is a fundamental way of thinking which is universal to the species (Schaafsma & Vinz, 2011). Jerome Bruner's (1987) conception of human knowledge is foundational to understanding these mental processes. Bruner proposed that there are two basic modes of cognitive functioning – paradigmatic and narrative. Each mode provides distinct ways of ordering experience and constructing reality. The paradigmatic mode, which he also referred to as the logio-scientific mode, “is based upon categorization and conceptualization and the operations by which categories are established” (p. 98). Thus, it allows humans to assign items and experiences into groups or categories. This mode of thought seeks explanations that are context-free and universal. It “deals in general causes, and in their establishment, and makes use of procedures to assure verifiable reference and to test for empirical truth” (p. 98). It is the mode of thought that goes into the construction of logical or inductive arguments (Bruner, 1987). In an exploration of Bruner's ideas, Polkinghorne (1995) described paradigmatic thought as attending “to the features or attributes that essentially define particular items as instances of a category” (p. 10). He further stated that “the power of

paradigmatic thought is to bring order to experience by seeing individual things as belonging to a category.” This organization of experiences into categories allows people to act on their knowledge of these general categories, bringing order, consistency, and predictability to their lives.

The narrative mode, on the other hand, arises from experience and is heavily context dependent. It deals with intention and action and concerns itself with how particular events are connected to each other. Where the paradigmatic mode is timeless, the narrative mode is temporal. Where the paradigmatic mode deals with how things and experiences are similar, the narrative mode “operates by noticing the difference and diversity of people’s behavior. It attends to the temporal context and complex interaction of the elements that make each situation remarkable” (Polkinghorne, 1995, p. 11). Bruner (1987) claimed that both modes of thought develop naturally in humans and, although they are complementary, they are used for different purposes.

Closely connected to these conceptions of how experience is storied in the human mind are the theoretical understandings of experience itself. According to Clandinin and Connelly (2000), when it comes to the theoretical frame of a narrative inquiry, “the main issue is to sort out a narrative view of experience” (p. 127). To meet the task Clandinin and Connelly set forth, this study draws from Dewey’s (1938) theory of experience to delineate a view of experience and ground this narrative study.

In 1938 Dewey offered a theory that illuminated the qualities of experience. Central to his theory are two major principles: the principle of continuity and the principle of interaction. Continuity refers to the temporal aspect of experience. All experience, according to Dewey, is a moving force, arising from the past and heading

toward a future. “Every experience both takes up something from those which have gone before and modifies in some way the quality of those which come after” (p. 13). To be fully understood, experiences cannot be viewed in the isolated moment of their occurrence. They must be considered in light of the experiences out of which they arise – the past – as well as in light of the impact they will have on experiences yet to be lived – the future. Experiences are, thus, temporal. Clandinin and Connelly (2000) expand on Dewey’s theory of the continuity of experience by describing experience as existing equally in past, present, and future spaces. They refer to this feature of experience as temporality and stress the importance of attending to this feature in narrative studies.

Interaction is the second principle framing Dewey’s understanding of experience. Dewey reminds us that “all human experience is ultimately social” (p. 14). Experience is framed and shared by contact and communication with others. Just as experiences cannot be understood looking only at the moment of their occurrence, they also cannot be understood exclusively through an examination of the individual who experiences them. “There are sources outside an individual that give rise to experience” (p. 15). The contexts in which experiences emerge and the characters that play a role in the realization of experience must be thoroughly considered when one attempts to describe and understand experience. This is not to say that the internal experiences of the individual are not also a vital creator of experience. Indeed, Dewey places equal weight on the social and cognitive aspects of experience. Interaction, he clarifies, occurs between these two forces. It is “a transaction taking place between an individual and what, at the time, constitutes his environment” (p. 17). Clandinin and Connelly (2000) refer to this as

sociality in their writing on narrative research, and along with temporality stress the importance of this frame as vital to conducting a narrative inquiry.

Dewey reminds us that these two principals, continuity and interaction, (or temporality and sociality if using Clandinin and Connelly's terms) "are not separate from each other" (p. 19). Individuals pass through time, moving from situation to situation. Experiences arise as individuals move so through life, and the value of experience, according to Dewey, arises in the active union of continuity and interaction.

In addition to interaction and continuity, Clandinin and Connelly (2000) posited a third major dimension of understanding experience: place. Connelly and Clandinin (2006) described place as "the specific concrete, physical and topological boundaries or place or sequence of places where the inquiry and events take place" (p. 480). Clandinin (2013) stressed that in educational research narratives often occur in schools, and these institutional places dramatically shape the inquirer and the participants. These three dimensions of narrative inquiry – temporality, sociality, and place – are what Clandinin and Connelly (2000) termed the three "commonplaces of narrative inquiry" (p. 38).

Dewey's theory of experience as well as Clandinin and Connelly's (2000) theory of the commonplaces of narrative inquiry were fitting frames for this study, which sought to understand how teachers experience planning for a language focus in content lessons. Looking at the temporal aspect, we see a past for these teachers which included their teacher preparation coursework, field experiences, and interactions with cooperating teachers, students, classmates, and supervisors. This was a past that intersected with the past of the researcher in important ways. The present for the participants at the time of the study was concerned with their current teaching realities and the support and barriers

they encountered as they tried to apply what they learned in their preservice coursework to their current teaching contexts. The present experiences of the researcher again intersected with the participants, especially the focal participant as we spent fourteen weeks in the same classroom. The experiences of both the participants and the researcher are also connected to a future place, where we envision our students succeeding and ourselves as more accomplished professionals.

Attention to these constructs, these three commonplaces, was a central focus during the course of this study. According to Clandinin (2013), thinking within these commonplaces is one factor that distinguishes a narrative inquiry approach to research from other qualitative methods of inquiry.

A final theoretical frame that guided this study addresses the knowledge base for teaching. Lee Shulman (1986, 1987) is widely cited for influencing the discussion about the forms of knowledge that teachers bring to their practice. Shulman's significant contribution was his conceptualization of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), a form of teacher knowledge which allows teachers to represent subject-matter content in a way that enables students to access and learn the content. According to Shulman (1986), pedagogical content knowledge

. . . embodies the aspects of content most germane to its teachability. Within the category of pedagogical content knowledge I include, for the most regularly taught topics in one's subject area, the most useful forms of representation of those ideas, the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations – in a word, the ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others . . . [It] also includes an

understanding of what makes the learning of specific concepts easy or difficult: the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning. (p. 9)

Since Shulman's introduction of the concept, PCK has been a focus of much discussion and reconceptualization in the teacher education literature. The theoretical frame used for this study will draw from Cochran, DeRuiter, and King's (1993) revised model of Shulman's theory. While Shulman described PCK as bridging content knowledge and general pedagogical knowledge, the model presented by Cochran et al. envisioned PCK as the integration of *four* major components, two of which are Shulman's subject matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. The other two components are teachers' knowledge of students and teachers' knowledge of the instructional context. Cochran et al. termed their conceptions of this complex integration of knowledge as Pedagogical Content Knowing (Figure 3.1), which underscores the fluid and shifting nature of this knowledge. This more complex model was useful for this study, especially in its focus on the teacher's knowledge of context. The importance assigned to context allows connections to be made with the constructs of interaction and place described by Clandinin and Connelly (2000). In addition, as will be presented in the findings, the teaching context plays an outsized role in understanding the difficulties the teachers who participated in this study experience in their attempts to conceive of language objectives, plan for language-focused instruction, and implement the evidence-based practice they encountered in preservice coursework. Thus, this theoretical frame offers a way to conceptualize these findings.

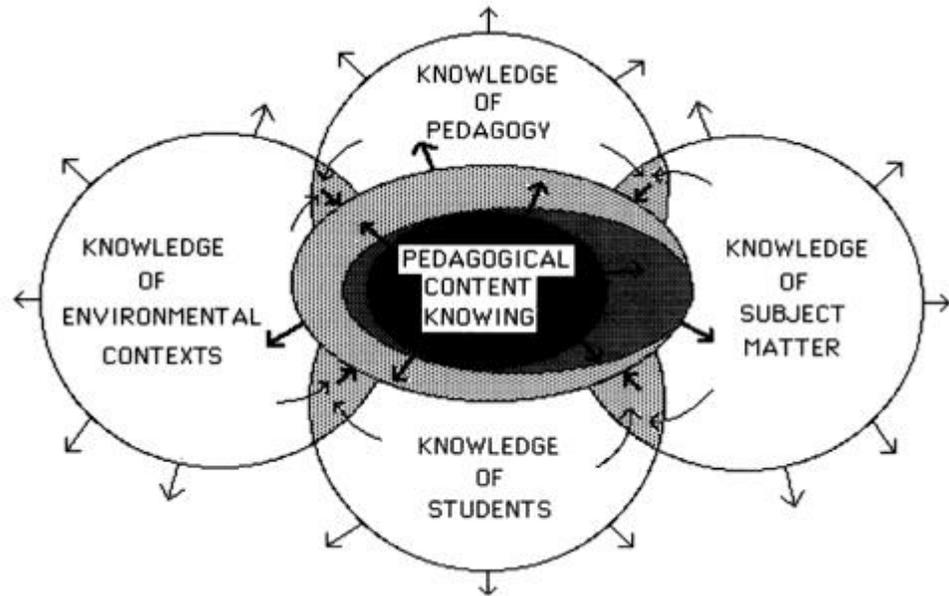


Figure 3.1: Cochran et al.'s (1993) developmental model of Pedagogical Content Knowing

Study Participants, Context for the Research, and Data Sources

A large variety of methods are employed by researchers who espouse a narrative approach to research (Spector-Mersel, 2010). Despite this diversity, the processes used while conducting narrative inquiry are often divided into two large categories, described by Spector-Mersel as stories “produced during interview” and stories “collected through observation” (p. 213). Clandinin (2013) divided the phases of narrative data collection into two similar processes, which she termed “telling stories,” and “living stories” (p. 34). This study employed both of these major processes of data collection as I moved between three main phases of the study:

1. self-reflection on my teaching and the impact of my teaching,
2. interviews with six former students who are now teaching, and
3. participant observation with one focal teacher, also a former student.

Phase One: Self-reflection on my teaching. Two of the courses I teach, ESL Literacy and the History and Structure of English, focus on preparing students to write language objectives and purposefully select teaching methods for counterbalanced, language-focused instruction. These two classes are offered once a year and are taken simultaneously by most students in my program. When teaching language objectives, teacher candidates are asked to review content materials and student work to identify language objectives. They then create curriculum based on these language objectives. In this phase of the research, I delved deeply into what I have tried to do in the classroom and in the field experience associated with these classes to help prepare teacher candidates to identify language objectives and design curriculum surrounding their identified objectives. I conducted a systematic review of my teaching materials in an attempt to form a better understanding of the methods I used in my classes, the reasons I chose these methods, and what I hoped to accomplish in their use. Data sources for this phase included analytic memos and journal entries that reviewed my experiences teaching these courses, as well as the products I created for those courses (assignments, PowerPoints, instructional materials). In addition to this review of the materials that I used when teaching these courses previously, I was also teaching these two courses while I conducted the interviews in Phase Two and the field study in Phase Three. I found myself often making connections to what was going on in my own classroom with what I saw in my research site. This led to a number of journal entries that also proved to be a rich source of data for understanding the impact of my teaching.

Phase Two: Interviews. The second phase of my study included interviews with six former students (Table 3.1) who were in their first or second year of teaching ESL at

the time of this study. Although my program does not officially employ a cohort model, the ESL classes are offered only once a year. Thus, students tend to go through the ESL classes together, creating a de facto ESL cohort each year, though they may take their general education courses at different times and with different students. The teachers who participated in this study were part of two cohorts. The teachers described in Table 3.1 as second year teachers were part of the first group of students to complete my program. The teachers described as being in their first year of teaching went through the program together the following year. The exception to this is Camila, who went through the program with the second group, but who is described in Table 3.1 as a second year teacher because she was teaching on a variance before she was licensed. I sent an email request to all of my former students who I knew were teaching within a fifty-mile radius of my college for whom I had contact information. These six teachers responded that they were willing to be participants in my study.

Five of the participants worked in the Urbanville Unified District, a large urban district in a Midwestern U.S. state. The district is one of the largest in the state and has more than 37,000 students in pre-K through 12th grade. Sixty-six percent of students in the district are students of color and 62% of the students are eligible for free or reduced price lunch, a common measure of poverty. One of these five teachers was also my focal teacher in whose classroom I spent fourteen weeks collecting data as will be described below. The sixth teacher worked in a charter school in a mid-sized city about an hour away from the large urban core where the others worked. Each participant was interviewed using a semi-structured interview design (Appendix A). The interviews lasted between forty-five minutes and two hours.

Teacher	Instructional Setting	Teaching Experience
Emma	Co-teaches 3 rd and 4 th grade ESL in a dual immersion school; pushes into English language arts and social studies; also does pull out interventions with some students	2 nd year ESL teacher
Camila	Pushes into 3 rd and 5 th grade language arts classes; pulls out newcomers one hour a day	2 nd year ESL teacher Three years as a Spanish teacher
Anna	Teaches newcomer classes and academic language classes in a traditional high school	1 st year ESL teacher 20 years as a mainstream elementary teacher
Abdikarim	Teaches 17-21 year-old students in an EL only high school	2 nd year ESL teacher
Zamzam	Teaches in a self-contained newcomer elementary setting	1 st year ESL teacher
Sarah	Teaches sheltered US history and co-teaches US History in a traditional high school	2 nd year ESL teacher

Table 3.1: Interview participant profiles.

The University’s IRB office declared the interview phase of the study as exempt from review in November of 2016 (Appendix B). At that point, I began to conduct interviews, reviewing consent materials (Appendix C) prior to each interview.

Phase Three: Field work. This phase moved from “telling stories” to “living stories” (Clandinin, 2013) as I entered the classroom of one of my former students, Sarah, to better understand her lived experience as she tried to apply the concepts she

encountered in her teacher education program (and, thus, in my classes) in a K-12 setting. Sarah was selected as my focal teacher for several reasons. First, I was seeking an information-rich (Patton, 2002) setting in which to conduct my observations, and Sarah's teaching schedule included both co-teaching and sheltered teaching, two of the teaching settings with robust content requirements. Second, Sarah had previously confided in me that she was struggling to bring language-focused instruction into her teaching, especially into her co-taught classes. I therefore had further reason to believe that Sarah's classroom would provide an information-rich example of the phenomenon I was interested in. Finally, I knew from working with Sarah when she was a student that she was a serious and dedicated teacher who wanted to bring the most effective teaching methods into her classroom. She had been a good student and had demonstrated mastery of the concepts we covered in class. I believed that she would embrace the opportunity to work with me to increase the focus on language in her teaching. Sarah's knowledge, dispositions, and teaching situation all fit the necessary criteria for this study.

Sarah was employed at Urbanville West High School, one of six high schools in the Urbanville Unified District. Urbanville West had a total student population of 1,700 and an EL population of 450 (26%). Sixty-seven percent of the students in the school were students of color and 57% qualified for free or reduced price lunch. Sarah taught two sheltered U.S. History classes and co-taught three U.S. History classes. All five of the history sections, including her sheltered sections, were designated as Advanced Placement (AP) U.S. history courses. The syllabi for these courses were filed with the College Board, which meant the teachers were committed to covering the content on the AP U.S. History exam. This broad teaching of AP U.S. History was part of "AP for All,"

an equity initiative at the school. I spent 3–4 hours a day at the school three or four days a week for fourteen weeks.

My data sources during this portion of the study included:

1. Field notes of my classroom observations; for any lesson in which I was an active participant helping students or working with small groups, I recorded my notes in as much detail as possible and as soon after the teaching experience as I could. This usually occurred by the end of that hour of instruction, as Sarah generally brought the class together before finishing class, allowing me the opportunity to record my observations;
2. Interviews with the teacher;
3. Audio-recordings of our planning conversations; and
4. Researcher analytic memos.

The University's IRB office declared this portion of the study as exempt from review in November of 2016 (Appendix D). The school district's Office of Research, Evaluation, and Assessment approved the study in February of 2017. After I received their approval, I collected consent forms (Appendix E) and began to collect data at the school site.

In addition to these major sources of data, I recorded a collaborative conversation with a critical friend in which we discussed my initial findings from the analysis of these three data sources. Pinnegar and Hamilton (2009) describe the value of a critical friend when reflecting on our own teaching practices as a way to

question our data, our interpretations, our analysis, and our assertions about our practice. In this way, others in our practice are a valuable source of data and

analysis as well as a source of confirming and disconfirming evidence for our understandings and assertions for action. (p.15)

In this conversation, my critical friend, a former Spanish and ESL teacher who now teaches ESL at my college and supervises student teachers in my program, shared her views on my initial analysis, challenged my findings, and offered new ideas for me to explore.

Trustworthiness

Loh (2013) asserted that researchers using narrative inquiry must establish trustworthiness “using a set of quality criteria that is widely recognized and accepted in the broader field of qualitative research” (p. 3). He examined the trustworthiness criteria described by Lincoln and Guba (1985) and suggested that many of these criteria could and should be employed by narrative researchers in the same way they are employed by other qualitative researchers. This study used multiple data sources to triangulate the data, employing interviews, participant observation, recordings of planning conversations, and document examination – both of the teaching documents used in the site and the documents used in my own teaching. The fourteen weeks I spent in Sarah’s classroom provided prolonged engagement and the depth with which I examined and considered the elements in the context constituted persistent observation, two more of Lincoln and Guba’s criteria. In addition, the collaborative conversation I recorded with my critical friend served as example of peer debriefing, another criterion suggested by Lincoln and Guba.

Despite Loh’s (2013) insistence that similar quality criteria are used in narrative inquiry as are used in other forms of qualitative inquiry, he does acknowledge that the

quality of the representation of data in a narrative study should be evaluated using a different set of criteria, namely, apparency, verisimilitude, and transferability (Clandinin and Connelly, 2000), with verisimilitude being the most recognized of the three. I will discuss how my study addresses these criteria below when I discuss how the data of this study is represented.

Data Analysis

All interviews and planning conversations were recorded and transcribed. Interview transcriptions were coded in Dedoose, first using an initial coding process (Saldaña, 2013). Initial coding, the goal of which was described by Charmaz (2006) as “to remain open to all possible theoretical directions indicated by your reading of the data” (p. 46), was chosen to leave myself open to the emergence of multiple themes and topics that would be explored in depth during second cycle coding. After the initial coding was complete, guided by my first cycle codes as well as the categories of content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, knowledge of students, and knowledge of context offered by Cochran et al., I used thematic analysis (Saldaña, 2013) to categorize and organize the data. Repeated reading of the data allowed me to “winnow down the number of themes” (Saldaña, 2013, p. 176.) to those that were most helpful in illuminating the research questions.

For the data analysis of the field notes, documents, planning conversations, and my teaching materials and journals, I used simultaneous coding (Saldaña, 2013). Saldaña described simultaneous coding as a method for dealing with complexity and suggested that simultaneous coding is “appropriate when the data’s content suggests multiple meanings that necessitate and justify more than one code” (p. 80). One set of codes

reflected the final list of themes that arose out of my analysis of the interview data. While analyzing the data with these themes in mind, I was also narratively coding (Connelly & Clandinin, 2000; Saldana, 2013) the data, teasing out the themes, characters, settings, “story threads,” (Rogers, 2007) and “critical incidents” (Johnson, 2003).

Saldaña (2013) maintained that simultaneous coding can serve as a means of investigating “interrelationships” and “intersections” (p. 83). I was interested in how “story threads,” (Rogers, 2007) and “critical incidents” (Johnson, 2003) in my field work and my own teaching appeared in relation to the different areas identified by my coding of the interview data. Simultaneous coding was a useful tool, which allowed me to blend my findings from the interviews into the narrative representation that was made possible by my narrative coding.

Representation of the Data

Polkinghorne (1995) conceptualized two major approaches to analysis and representation of narrative data: analysis of narratives and narrative analysis (p. 12). Polkinghorne drew again on Bruner’s (1987) conception of paradigmatic knowing and narrative knowing to distinguish between these two approaches. Analysis of narratives employs paradigmatic reasoning as it seeks to group the information presented in the storied data into distinct categories or taxonomies, searching for themes and producing an analysis of the data that is similar to the kinds of analyses found in other qualitative approaches. Narrative analysis, however, employs narrative knowing as “researchers collect descriptions of events and happenings and synthesize or configure them by means of plot into a story or stories” (Polkinghorne, 1995, p. 12). Polkinghorne attested to the

importance such stories have for understanding the phenomena under study when he referred to the stories produced using narrative analysis as “explanatory stories” (p. 5). Barone (2007) has used the term narrative reconstruction to describe this process of creating a storied analysis. Clandinin and Connelly (2000) describe such a representation of data as a “retelling” (p.71).

After coding the data, I moved to create such a storied analysis, a narrative reconstruction of the experiences examined in the study. It was in this retelling where the autobiographical focus of the study became most salient. It became clear to me as I coded the data, that my narrative voice would be the one that could best retell this story, as the storied representation of my experiences offered a way to connect all of these teachers and their experiences together in one narrative. Thus, I am the narrator in the restoried analysis. The events and experiences are described from my point of view, and the narrative moves through time and place, from interviews, to the field site, to experiences in my own classrooms.

It is important to note here, that despite the careful coding and analysis that I conducted, the restoried data were not an attempt to represent the “truth.” Spector-Mersel (2010) reminded us that narratives don’t mirror reality but construct it (p. 208). She employed Spence’s (1982, as cited in Spector-Mersel, 2010) distinction between “historical truth” and “narrative truth,” reminding us that these two are not identical. Narrative truth expresses historical truth “partially, but also recreates it again and again” (p. 208). As I constructed the narrative of these experiences, I assigned meaning to certain events and to certain pieces of recorded dialogue and wove the narrative in such a way as to make clear the meaning I had assigned. I chose what to include in the narrative

and what to leave out. In Chapter One, I described the life experiences that led to my belief that ESL teachers struggle to bring an intentional focus on language into their instruction. I did this in order to illuminate the positionality that I brought to this study. In Chapter Two, I explored relevant literature, seeking to reveal what research has shown about the topic, but also describing studies that have engendered in me a strong opinion about the kind of instruction that I believe would offer the best opportunities for English learners to develop higher levels of language proficiency than they now often achieve. The choice to use autobiographical narrative inquiry in representing the data further entwines my positionality into the analysis and presentation of the data.

Barone and Eisner, when discussing literary representation of data, suggest that a narrative reconstruction, such as the one presented in this study, should embody the “unique vision” (p. 78) of its author and provide a “personal statement arising out of the negotiation between and author and the phenomena under scrutiny” (p. 78). I share this quote to stress that my discussion here of truth and interpretation is not meant to be an apology or a statement which implies that I tried as best as I could to represent some unbiased truth but failed as humans always do. Barone and Eisner suggest that it is in offering the reader the chance to narratively experience the phenomenon under study through the eyes of another that is the most valuable part of narrative reconstruction. Similarly, Riessman (2008) posited that “a narrative is not simply a factual report of events, but instead one articulation told from a point of view that seeks to persuade others to see the events in a single way” (p. 187). Barone (2000) also acknowledged the desire of the writer to persuade the reader through the narrative, yet he tempered this assertion, stating, “the artful writer-persuader understands the necessity of relinquishing control, of

allowing readers the freedom to interpret and evaluate the text from their unique vantage point” (p. 251).

The restoried narrative in Chapter Four is my interpretation of the data; it is the representation of the narrative knowledge (Bruner, 1987) I gained from this experience as understood through the careful analysis of the data. It is shared with the hope that as you experience the data through my eyes, you, too, will come to see the events as I did and share the new narrative knowledge I gained. It is also, however, offered with the hope that you will bring your own beliefs, experiences, and knowledge to the reading, allowing you to create knowledge that is uniquely your own.

In light of these stated purposes, it is important to set forth criteria by which the narrative reconstruction offered in Chapter Four should be evaluated. Clandinin and Connelly (2000) offered Van Maanen’s (1988) criteria of *apparency* (easy to see and understand) and *verisimilitude* (having the appearance of being true or real) as important in narrative inquiry. Verisimilitude is presented by many narrative researchers (e.g. Blumenfeld-Jones, 1995; Polkinghorne, 2007; Webster & Mertova, 2007) as vital to the quality of a narrative inquiry. Ellis, Adams, and Bochner (2010) suggested that a study has met this criterion if “it evokes in readers a feeling that the experience described is lifelike, believable, and possible, a feeling that what has been represented could be true” (para. 34).

Beyond verisimilitude, Clandinin and Connelly (2000) offered Lincoln and Guba’s (1985) criteria of *transferability* as an important measure of quality in a narrative study. Lincoln and Guba stress the importance of “thick description” (p. 317) in the representation of qualitative data in order to allow the reader to transfer the meanings

illuminated in a study to a different, yet similar, context. Clandinin and Connelly also suggested that a narrative should have an *explanatory*, *invitational* quality as well as *authenticity*, *adequacy*, and *plausibility*.

Finally, Barone (2000) offered the criterion of *usefulness* as an ultimate measure of quality for a narrative reconstruction of data. If readers can view the text as holding importance beyond the context-bound reality of the study, they will consider the study to be of value. For Barone, a successfully rendered narrative study will be seen as serving “to fulfill an important human purpose” (p. 170). In the end, the reader decides if the study is of use.

The next chapter presents the narrative analysis of my research data.

Chapter Four: Results

This chapter presents a narrative reconstruction (Barone, 2007) of the results of this study. The voice of the researcher is used to present the major themes, findings and conclusions in a storied format after careful analysis of the multiple data sources. It is important to remember, however, that this is a restoried (Ollerenshaw & Creswell, 2002) narrative and is not intended to represent the absolute truth. This point is significant when considering the dialogue in the chapter. Often, dialogue is taken from transcripts of interviews or planning conversations. In these cases, the dialogue is presented as it was recorded, though the transcription has been naturalized (Bucholtz, 2000) to better conform to written discourse conventions. In addition, there are pieces of dialogue that were recorded with accuracy or near accuracy in field notes or analytic memos. Such dialogue pulled directly from the data is indicated with footnotes. Other dialogue represents the storied reconstruction of the researcher's memory. That is, it is faithful to my memory of the event, but should not be viewed as a word-for-word transcription of what was actually said.

I

Getting Started and Early Learning

Two and a half months before I started my research in Sarah Reeve's classroom at Urbanville West High School, I experienced a moment of deep doubt about the entire premise of this project. Or, more precisely, I experienced a moment of deep doubt that I had chosen the right research subject. I was worried I wouldn't find anything in Sarah's classroom to investigate.

I was in the process of gathering the required evidence and completing the fifteen-page request to do research in the Urbanville district when I was asked to sit on the faculty panel for our master's degree Performance Application Project class. This is one option for a summative project in our program, and the faculty panel observes the final presentations, asks questions, and offers final approval, the last step in earning a master's degree.

Sarah was one of the students. Her application project centered on creating language objectives and using them to a greater degree in her classes, especially her co-taught classes. Her presentation beautifully summarized the learning we had done together. She defined language objectives and used Kinsella's (2011) framework to describe the kind of language objectives she would like to bring into her co-taught classes. Her definition of the problem she was investigating centered on the difficulty she had experienced trying to convince her content area co-teachers of the importance of integrating language objectives into their shared teaching. She talked about the diminished role of language in her co-taught classes, echoing work by Creese (2002,

2005a, 2010) and Arkoudis (2005, 2006) who also found that content is valued above language and language teachers are often marginalized in such teaching contexts.

As I watched her presentation, I felt proud of her. I also felt somewhat proud of myself. This, exactly this, was what I had hoped to teach her about language objectives. Even the fact that she had elected to focus her project on this and recognized it as a problem made me feel validated, that my conversations with my students over multiple courses were getting through. Or, at least, they had gotten through to Sarah.

But quickly following this flash of pride came a much more selfish moment of panic. I had centered my entire thesis, a majority of the research for which I was planning to do with this teacher, on the fact that teachers did not *get* this. Well, she clearly *got* it. What was I going to do? I had spent hours trying to get approval to do this research in her classroom. Hours working on the Urbanville application. I saw myself stuck at ABD for the rest of eternity. *She came so close to finishing her PhD, only to be outdone by her own incredible teaching*; these words would be etched on my tombstone.

I promptly told myself that this would be fine. The work would just shift to focus on those co-taught courses, which I knew to be an enormous problem. There was always something to learn by spending time in any classroom. I needed to get this dissertation done. I wasn't going to start over, but I didn't think she was representative of my students and the problem I really wanted to investigate, which had more to do with my sense that ESL teachers just didn't fully understand what we meant by language objectives. I would not have knowingly chosen a student who completed her entire master's project on the topic.

So, it was this experience of hearing her master's work that was forefront in my mind when I entered her classroom in February of 2017. The first week I simply observed her teaching, sitting quietly in the back and taking field notes. I watched ten hours of instruction the first week, six hours of Sarah teaching alone in her sheltered U.S. history class, and four hours of co-taught classes. I was also present for two hours of planning with her U.S. history co-teacher. In this entire week, I did not see one language objective – and I don't just mean one explicit language objective written in student-friendly language on the board, or one formally worded SWBAT on some printed or handwritten lesson plan. Beyond one vocabulary lesson, which focused mostly on Tier 3 (Beck, Kucan, & McKeown, 2013) content words, I did not see any language focus *at all*, implicit or explicit, planned or mentioned casually as an aside. There were not even sentence frames, that singular instructional strategy that was mentioned in my interviews with my former student multiple times, the strategy I often believe has become synonymous with teaching language in the minds of many ESL teachers.

There was nothing beyond vocabulary, and Tier 3 words at that. *Nothing.*

My field notes from that first week are full of descriptions and words that I later coded as “missed opportunities.” On Thursday morning, for example, Sarah put a political cartoon on the screen and asked the students to do a think-write-pair-share. The cartoon, from the gilded age, showed an overweight man holding bags of money towering over the US capital, Uncle Sam, and Justice, wearing her robes and blindfold. Sarah wrote four questions for them to respond to. “What do you see?” “How does it make you feel?” “Does it remind you of anything we have learned?” “What do you think the cartoonist is trying to say?” As I walked around to see the kind of writing that the

students were producing, I was not surprised to see mostly sentence fragments, random words, and the occasional very short, very simple sentence. Sometimes their writing was unintelligible. These were WIDA level 2-3² students in writing. Many wrote the following in response to Sarah's first question ("What do you see?"): "I see a man"; or, "I see a big man"; or, "I see a big dude." I itched to go up to the board, to redo the introduction to the activity. To add a sentence frame bridging them into a relative clause: "I see a big man who _____." Most of the students responded to "How does it make you feel?" with, "It make me feel bad" or just the single word "bad." One girl who tried to use her vocabulary word came up with, "It makes me feel he is a monopoly." I saw myself putting up a bank of more precise words for emotions than "bad." "Angry" would be there, of course, but so would words like "irritated," "outraged," and "livid." We could talk about the nuances of these words. Put them in order from more to less angry. And then next week, on Thursday, I would put up another political cartoon. I would focus on the precise adjectives and relative clauses again. And we could repeat these for several weeks until they began to use these forms. I saw myself pulling a relative clause out of the reading that came later in the lesson, stopping the content talk for just a second. "See," I would say, "that's a sentence like we made when we were talking about the fat man in the political cartoon. Let's underline that. Let's watch for other sentences like that this week." And then we would get back to the reading. A quick time out for language.

² WIDA level 2 students are capable of producing phrases or short sentences, but often produce errors that impede meaning. Level 3 students are beginning to produce longer sentences and short paragraphs, but errors that impeded communication still occur.

Often that first week, I felt angry.

This is not how I taught you to teach!

But that anger didn't last long at all. I knew Sarah cared. I knew she wanted to teach her students in the best possible way. And I also knew, thanks to her master's project, that she had a strong grasp on what a language objective should be and that she wanted to bring more language focus into her teaching.

Something else was going on.

There was something she didn't get from me in her classes that would help her see these missed opportunities the way that I saw them.

Then I was angry at myself.

Finally, I realized that being angry (or outraged or irritated or livid) wasn't going to help either one of us, or my future students, or any of their future students. I needed to figure out what she was thinking as she taught. And I needed to figure out what I could do in my coursework to help those missed opportunities that were so obvious to me become obvious to my students.

The end of that first week in Sarah's classroom as I reviewed my notes, my mind floated back to her master's presentation. She seemed to know everything I tried to teach her about language objectives.

Knowing that versus knowing how.

An age-old dilemma of education (Ryle, 1946) emerged as my first central learning in this project.

When Sarah was in high school, she wanted to be in the Foreign Service. She didn't know exactly what that meant or what it entailed, but it sounded exciting and adventurous. It would take her all over the world, and that was the one thing she knew she wanted.

Although she didn't really know what skills were required for the Foreign Service, she did know that language would be important. So, in high school she took four years of French. Then she added German as a second language for two years. She also took one year of Russian in high school. In college she continued her study of French for four years and German for a year. In eight years of language study, Sarah had been exposed to three different languages before she was 22.

In her thirties, she lived and taught English in China for two years. She never felt terribly proficient in Chinese but studied it and was able to communicate to some degree.

When she tells me this, I think back to my conversation with my mentor at the first university where I worked as a student teaching supervisor.

“We tend to get two kinds of people who want to be ESL teachers. The first group come to it because they like language. They have maybe studied Spanish or are French or German teachers like you. The second group come because they like the kids. A lot of the time they were elementary teachers, but they don't have a strong language background.” It is especially hard, she told me, to help that second group to see the language objectives.

But Sarah is the first group. She had a strong language background coming into her teacher licensure program, and then she added to it with a linguistics class and a class on the structure of English. Despite this, she isn't drawing on her knowledge about language (KAL) as she teaches. Researchers (Andrews & McNeil, 2005; Bartels, 2009;

Gregory, 2005; Hislam, & Cajiker, 2005; Popko, 2005) have shown that Sarah isn't alone in this. Language teachers often have difficulty accessing their KAL, especially when creating content-based lessons (Bigelow & Ranney, 2005; Lindahl, Baecher, & Tomaš, 2013).

So Sarah has both a solid understanding of language objectives and well-developed KAL, two major dimensions of ESL subject matter knowledge, but she doesn't appear to be able to access this "subject matter knowledge *for teaching*," (Shulman, 1986, p. 8, emphasis original) which is how Shulman described Pedagogical Content Knowledge. After one week, I haven't seen her use any of this knowledge to teach any language at all. I'm beginning to feel that the problem is far more serious and far more complex than I had ever imagined.

II

Co-teaching

Sarah's teaching day begins with two hours of sheltered U.S. History, which she teaches alone. After these classes end, she has two hours for prep and then co-teaches three hours of U.S. history where English learners are mainstreamed with native English speaking students. Sarah's co-teacher is Mr. Williams, a social studies licensed teacher. My initial plan was to spend two full days a week with Sarah, observing both the sheltered classes and the co-taught classes. We would work together to bring more language-focused instruction into both the classes that she taught alone and the classes she taught with Mr. Williams. It only took a few days, however, before I realized that this initial plan was going to need to be adjusted.

To understand how Sarah experienced co-teaching, we have to start by understanding how the administration at Urbanville West decided to create equity in the school. Driven by the experience of the former principal who saw an interesting model at a school out East, Urbanville has implemented "AP for All." And by AP for All, they do mean *all*. All students, with the exception of EL newcomers, are enrolled in multiple AP classes. Even Sarah's sheltered U.S. history classes, in which many of the students are at a WIDA level 2 for writing, are, officially at least, Advanced Placement classes. So, Sarah co-teaches in the afternoon in an AP U.S. history class, which, supposedly, is designed to prepare students to take and pass the AP exam. The curriculum is rigorous, mainly, it seems to me, for two reasons. First, the students are being prepared to complete three kinds of written exam questions, including a Document-Based Question (DBQ) essay, which asks students to make a historically defensible claim and support it using

primary sources they are given during the exam. These are high-level writing tasks and students are expected to master them during this class.

The second reason that AP U.S. History is rigorous is the enormous amount of content that is required by the College Board, the organization that governs the AP exams. The classes that prepare students to take the AP exam cover all of U.S. history, starting with the different kinds of Native American tribes that were present prior to European exploration and moving all the way to present day by the May 2th test date. The speed with which they fly through U.S. history is mind boggling (e.g., World War I – two days). Students need to do a lot of reading on their own to keep up, especially because a portion of class time is taken up practicing the type of essays they will see on the AP exam.

Once an English learner reaches a Level 3-4³ average on the WIDA exam, the student is enrolled in the co-taught AP U.S. History class rather than a sheltered history class. In the co-taught classes, Sarah makes modifications to the tests, simplifying language and limiting the number of responses for ELs. She also creates scaffolds such as handouts or graphic organizers to help the ELs in the class with their essays. They have found a modified U.S. history text that they offer alongside the recommended history text. All students, EL and mainstream, are able to choose which version of the text they want to read. The chapters are photocopied and sit in baskets in the back of the room. Students are told to pick up their chapter and read it on their own before coming to class.

³ WIDA level 3 students are able to produce sentences and short paragraphs, though errors may impede communication. Level 4 students begin to produce more varied and complex sentences. Errors continue to occur but rarely impact communication.

Working with the other AP U.S. History teachers, Mr. Williams has created a dense deck of PowerPoint slides for each unit. All important dates, themes, and ideas are listed on the slides. Mr. Williams stands to the left of the slides and talks about what is on the slides. Sarah, standing to the right of the slides at the white board, takes notes while Mr. Williams talks. She is modeling note-taking, she explains to me. The students copy the notes that Sarah writes. At one point that first week, I notice that Sarah isn't taking notes on what Mr. Williams is saying anymore; she has moved ahead on the slide and is taking notes on what he will soon be talking about, simplifying the information on the slide.

Sometimes Mr. Williams and Sarah stop the PowerPoint/note-taking routine and ask a question or give the students a task. The first day I observed was the day before a test. Mr. Williams went over the information on a slide and then handed out a study sheet. The students were told to work in groups and take turns filling out the study sheet. No one was to do all the writing, he said.

The group closest to me was comprised of two Somali girls, one White girl, and an African-American boy. The two Somali girls started talking in Somali and took out their phones as soon as group work began. The other two non-EL students started working together on the study sheet. These four students were a "group," but they were sitting one next to the other, all facing the front of the class, so they seemed more like two sets of partners to me. Sarah stopped by after a few minutes and asked the two Somali girls to work on their study sheets. As soon as she left, they were off task again. After a few minutes, the African-American boy pulled out work for another class and then the White girl was the only one working on the study sheet. Mr. Williams came by

and talked to the boy, telling him he understood that he was trying to catch up in the other class, but he was just getting further behind in this class. Then Mr. Williams moved to the Somali girls and got them back on task.

As soon as he left, they were off task again.

Sarah returned after a few minutes, squatted down next to the girls, and asked the White girl to work with them. They started working and kept working together for a few minutes even after Sarah left.

The inequity of this entire situation was stunning. The task, the entire course, was made for the White girl. She was focused, intent on learning, able to access the content. She is likely one of the few that will actually take the AP test. The pace of the class is too fast, and so the ELs get lost and check out. Mr. Williams feels obligated to teach to the AP test, even though he knows this isn't right for most of the students in the class. Beyond the fact that the pace and organization of the class are exactly wrong for ELs, Mr. Williams says it still isn't rigorous enough for those students who are actually going to take the AP test. Mr. Williams describes the uncomfortable conversations he has with parents: "Is it really an AP class? How could it really be rigorous enough?" He feels he is required to say yes, even though the answer is probably no. The class moves too fast for some, too slowly for others. It is just right, apparently, for no one.

Sarah spends a lot of time making scaffolded planning guides to help the ELs in the class with the essays. But, I suspect, since they can't really access the content, which is offered by assigned reading, a dense PowerPoint slide accompanied by a lecture, and Sarah "modeling" note taking, they probably aren't going to be terribly successful on the essays about the content no matter how nice of a scaffolded planning sheet Sarah has

made for them. In addition to that, Sarah spends time several nights a week reading the U.S. History textbook herself because she wasn't a history major and doesn't know the content they are teaching. Because they move so quickly through content, she is always reading.

I asked Sarah if there are sometimes language objectives. Or if on the scaffolded sheets she produces to support the ELs, she has purposefully targeted some kind of academic language.

“No. There have been like zero language objectives in the co-taught class.”⁴

Sarah explains that she sees her role as “bringing language into the class.”⁵ But it looks far more to me that she is managing the language that is already in the class, trying to simplify things so the ELs have at least a chance of keeping up. And, from my review of a stack of documents she shared with me, it doesn't appear that she is doing this in any purposeful way. There is no language *teaching* going on at all.

I have a favorite PowerPoint slide (Figure 4.1) that I use a number of times in my methods classes, reminding my students that there are two important parts of the job of an ESL teacher. We bring language down to a level where it is comprehensible for students, but we must also purposefully work to bring their language up, so that eventually they will not need the scaffolding. We accomplish this by choosing language objectives and including language-focused activities in our content lessons.

⁴ First interview with Sarah – 1-31-2017

⁵ Planning conversation – 3-1-2017

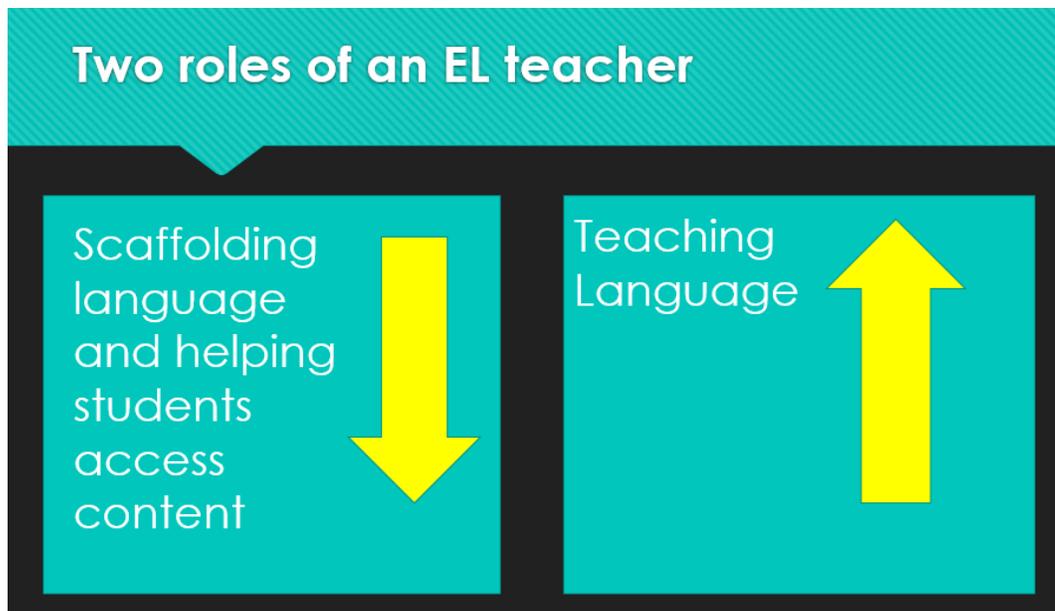


Figure 4.1. PowerPoint slide depicting two roles of EL teachers

In these co-taught classes there are only attempts to bring language down, no purposeful attempts to push the students' language abilities higher.

The whole week that I sit and observe these classes, I keep thinking of *Understanding by Design* (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005), one of my favorite educational books. In the book the authors name “coverage” as one of the major sins of teaching, describing it as students being “led through unending facts, ideas, or readings with little or no sense of the overarching ideas, issues, and learning goals that might inform study” (p.16). At one point they call it “teaching by mentioning” (p. 21), a quote I always remembered because it hit close to home. I certainly have been guilty of going over things quickly, things I just *had* to get to before we ran out of time. Teaching by mentioning. World War I in two days.

There is an epidemic of coverage at Urbanville West High School, driven in large part by AP for All. The students who are least able to learn from this kind of teaching are

ELs, who need to talk and read and write about less content in deeper ways. ELs need to focus on the big ideas. Students preparing for the AP test need to focus on the big ideas and all the details.

Mr. Williams knows this is wrong. Sarah knows this is wrong. The students' grades scream that this is wrong. A large percentage of the ELs fail the class and have to take U.S. history in summer school. There have been some attempts to talk to the administration about this, but, according to Sarah, there is one assistant principal who is very attached to the idea of AP for All, and his views have prevailed. Sarah and Mr. Williams and the other teachers I meet talk about what they should do. They roll their eyes when I mention AP for All. They shake their heads. And when they have the energy, they get angry about it. They need to put the data together, they say. They need to show the administration the numbers of students who are failing, write those data down with their other arguments. They were going to do this last year, Sarah said, but they didn't get anything official together.

They talk about the need to do this one day when I am sitting in on a planning session.

"Oh, yeah," Mr. Williams says, exhaustion in his voice. "I need to work on that."

On top of this entire AP for All situation, all of the issues with co-teaching that Creese (2002, 2005a, 2005b, 2010) and Arkoudis (2005, 2006) identified in their studies are present in Sarah's co-teaching situation. The language teacher is devalued; content reigns. Sarah has a daily common prep hour with Mr. Williams and one other social studies teacher. In those sessions, the social studies teachers plan together, while Sarah mostly just listens; then they give her the test to modify or she decides to create some

kind of scaffold to help the ELs work on whatever essay or writing task the social studies teachers decided to create. She often makes copies or does other tasks, reminding me of Pawan and Craig's (2011) finding that many ESL teachers often felt relegated to the "personal assistant" role in their co-teaching relationships.

It is an exhausting, demoralizing situation and only confirms the experiences I have had observing other co-teaching situations or talking with teachers who co-teach. Ultimately, though, I am here to learn more about how a teacher learns to bring language-focused activities into her content-based teaching. I very quickly recognize that there won't be any language-focused activities in this AP for All co-taught history class. So, after the first week, Sarah and I decide I will only work with her in her sheltered classes. Even if we weren't dealing with the AP for All challenges, this was likely the better plan because she is teaching almost no language at all in those classes, even though she is alone in her planning and teaching. Truthfully, she will need to learn how to bring language into content instruction on her own before she will have the skill to bring it into a co-taught situation, which requires her to navigate enormous complexities.

So I step out of the co-taught setting after the first week, but I leave with a deep concern for the overwhelming shift that the profession has made to co-teaching in the past dozen or so years.

I interviewed six of my former students before beginning my time in Sarah's classroom. Three primarily taught newcomers and worked in self-contained settings. The other three (of which Sarah was one) spent significant portions of their days co-teaching.

The other two teachers who co-taught echoed much of what Sarah described and what I witnessed at Urbanville West.

“They brush it off,” Camila said, describing her co-teachers’ responses when she tries to bring more language-focused activities into the classes. “They say, ‘We just have so much to cover. There is so much that we have to do.’ They don’t really want to talk about teaching language, so I have let it go.”⁶

“In one class,” Camila continued, “I play the role of para. I am assisting with behavior. I am keeping kids on task. Sometimes we break into small groups, but the mainstream teacher teaches both groups. He likes to teach both groups. So he is speaking most of the time.”⁷

Emma has had experiences that echo these. During her first year, she co-taught science at a middle school. At first she started the class by focusing on vocabulary. Soon, however, the content teacher asked her to stop because she didn’t like the amount of time that the language focus took from her content teaching. For Emma’s second year, she moved to an elementary school. There she has experienced an opposite dilemma. The co-teacher will sit at her computer and work while Emma leads instruction, which consists of a mini-lesson before student-focused literacy work. This, I thought when Emma described it, might be a better situation. If Emma has complete control, there would be nothing to stop her from bringing a language focus into her teaching. I ask about language objectives.

⁶ Camila Interview – 2-4-2017

⁷ Camila Interview – 2-4-2017

“I don’t have a specific learning target for content and a specific learning target for language. I would say I don’t even think about language objectives when I’m teaching the mini lesson, because I’m so focused on figuring out how to teach the content in 15 minutes.”⁸ Emma also feels that she needs to focus primarily on the content, “Because that is the only time they get it.”⁹ So the supremacy of content over language appears to be bestowed not only by the content teachers, but also, in this situation, by the ESL teacher, a phenomenon also documented by Creese (2010).

All three of the teachers who found themselves in co-teaching situations felt that they didn’t learn enough during their time with me to guide them toward success in a co-teaching setting. They remembered that they did an assignment in our ESL literacy class that had them write curriculum for a co-taught science class, but it wasn’t enough.

“It would have been helpful to have really explicit training about co-teaching,” Emma said, “because that’s the majority of my day. I feel like that was discussed during a class period or two, but it was 80% of my day last year. It’s most of my day this year, too. It’s a huge part of what I do, and I’m still confused about what my role is as an ESL teacher compared to the classroom teacher.”¹⁰

I don’t immediately have ideas about how to fix this. I remember in-depth discussions about content-based instruction and the instructional settings they might find themselves in. My lesson plans and syllabi show readings about the academic language of specific content areas and discussions about how this language could be brought into co-

⁸ Emma Interview – 1-22-2017

⁹ Emma Interview – 1-22-2017

¹⁰ Emma Interview – 1-22-2017

taught classes. I have gone through state English language arts content standards, and social studies standards, and science standards to create model content lesson plans. I model how to pull language out of a content text, using a think aloud as I read through the content text. I gave so many examples of how to blend language-focused activities into a content lesson, but the presence of something in their teaching contexts or a lack of something in how they are processing the situation keeps them from accessing this learning.

“I feel like when I’m by myself, I know how to be an EL teacher, but when I’m co-teaching, I am not being an EL teacher. I’m just being a content teacher,”¹¹ Emma said. “I need to learn how to be an EL teacher when I’m co-teaching.”

That was what she wished I had taught her.

But my goal was to teach her how to teach language, and she has landed in a setting where there is no expectation that language is going to be taught. In any co-teaching situation, there should be both a content curriculum and a language curriculum. The existence of these two curricula is something Davison (2006) identified as fundamental to successful co-teaching. Davison further explained that too often the role of the ESL teacher is seen as being concerned with methodology and strategies but not with content. They scaffold content by simplifying language but never teach language. The language curriculum is missing.

¹¹ Emma Interview – 1-22-2017

Maybe learning *how* to be an EL teacher when she's co-teaching isn't really what Emma needs. Maybe what she needs more than anything is to know *what* she is supposed to teach. A language curriculum that is equal to the content curriculum.

III

Context

Sarah doesn't have her own classroom. She carries a large tote bag from room to room and wears a small cross-body bag in which she keeps hall passes and pens. In each room, she keeps a plastic milk crate filled with student folders. First hour is in the old home ec room; old orange cupboards line the walls, one still holding a kitchen sink. The desks are mismatched. Many are broken. The blackboard, original from 1970, is covered with a Smartboard, leaving only a few inches of space on either side. There are no other boards in the room, no place at all for a teacher to write beyond the Smartboard. Therefore, Sarah has brought a small white board with fold-out legs into the room. Each day she brings it out from the corner behind the teacher's desk and stands it next to the Smartboard. (She used to just leave it out, but twice someone wrote on it with the wrong kind of marker and the finish on the board was never quite the same after she cleaned it. Now she stores it out of the way every day when she leaves.)

Three of the nine students in this class are special education students who each have their own Education Assistant (EA) with them; a blind girl from Somalia, a Somali boy in a wheelchair who has both physical and developmental issues, and Hani. Hani, who is often absent, is also Somali and has both emotional and learning disabilities. Her conversational English is better than that of the other students in this class, but she struggles so much with reading and writing that she has been placed in here with them. Including me, there are usually four adults in the classroom. When Hani is there with her EA there are five adults. One of the EAs is very interested in history. He likes to take out his phone and look up pictures or videos to help his student better understand what Sarah

is talking about. Sometimes, for example, when they are going over vocabulary words, this is helpful. Sometimes, for example, when Sarah is talking, this is decidedly not helpful.

The school was forced to let some of the special education EAs go mid-year, so there is often confusion about which of the remaining EAs should be working with which students. Sometimes during first hour, the Special Education lead teacher comes into the room while Sarah is teaching. She bends down and talks to one of the EAs. That EA might leave, or might switch to work with another student, and then that EA will leave.

There is constant coming and going in this class. Students arrive late, often bringing their breakfast, as the school serves free breakfast to all. In the back corner of the room, there is another plastic milk crate filled with paperback books. Taped to the milk crate is a sign that reads, “This is not a garbage can. DO NOT throw your breakfast dishes in here.”

The woman who teaches in the room after Sarah is on maternity leave. The school hired a long-term sub, but that teacher’s husband died unexpectedly a few weeks after she started. Due to bureaucracy or inaction or the belief that it just wasn’t worth it at that point, no new long-term sub was hired. There is one literacy coach who stops in a few times a week to try and give some consistency to the class. One of my recent grads subs from time to time. Other days there are completely new subs. Once or twice, no sub shows up at the end of first hour. Sarah does not like to leave kids in the classroom if there isn’t a teacher present, so if there is no sub in the room when the bells rings to end first hour, Sarah will shift into high speed. She picks her whiteboard up, rushes to the corner behind the teacher’s desk and puts it down; she grabs the plastic milk crate with

student folders, slams it on to the shelf, and puts the desks she moves every day for Shafi's wheelchair back into their rows. Then she gathers her materials, puts them in in her tote bag, and we hustle out and lock the door before any students enter for second hour. Other days, there is a sub. But often the sub will ask Sarah a question or needs help getting the computer to work. On these days, after Sarah has spent time helping the sub, she also completes her whiteboard-bin-chairs-materials-hustle-out-the-door routine.

Sometimes, in all that slamming and hustling, something is left on the desk. A couple of times I walk back to the room to find what Sarah has forgotten.

One day, the sub from the day before apparently had eaten something oily at the desk. Sarah set her bag on the desk, only to have the oil seep inside.

Things in this room don't always work. Sarah brings her laptop from class to class. Every day she unplugs the room computer from the smartboard and plugs in her laptop. Sometimes, when she tries to switch between the laptop and document camera, it doesn't work. "I go with plan B a lot," she says one day. "Or plan C or plan D."¹²

Sometimes she barely makes it to first hour before the bell rings because she was waiting to make copies. One day none of the printers in the school is working, so instead of having a reading that she spent an hour modifying for her sheltered class the night before, Sarah shows up with the unmodified version reading they are using in the co-taught class because there were extra copies of that one.

Second hour is in a room that has seen some remodeling since the building was built. Although there are still no windows, the room seems brighter and cleaner. The

¹² Field Notes – 3-30-2017

room is bigger and there are multiple white boards on all sides of the room. When she makes it here each day, there is almost a sigh of relief. This class is bigger, twelve students, and the language skills of the students are a bit higher. There are three Latino students and nine Somali students. Elena and Edgar, two of the Latino students, are best friends. Elena comes late a lot, and when she is there she will often lay her head down on the desk or on Edgar's shoulder. Her family is struggling with homelessness, Sarah tells me. Elena is close to another of the ESL teachers. When she comes late to class, Sarah doesn't say anything because Elena has usually stayed after her last class to talk to the teacher.

There are no special ed EAs in Sarah's second hour class, only one ESL EA, a bilingual Somali woman, Ms. Warsame, who does not pull out her phone and show pictures while Sarah is talking. Ms. Warsame comes into class five to ten minutes after the bells rings each day. There is little interaction between Sarah and Ms. Warsame, and there is no co-planning or coordination at all. Ms. Warsame stands behind the students, helping as she sees fit. She is an educated Somali woman who is clearly very capable, yet Sarah doesn't plan with her, or with her language abilities, in mind. Using Ms. Warsame in a purposeful way or using Somali to reach the students who could use such support would take time. Time that Sarah's doesn't have.

I start in Sarah's classroom one month after Trump's presidency begins. One day, after hustling out of the first-hour classroom, Sarah stops to tape a flyer on the door. Then, when arriving in the second-period classroom, she tapes more flyers on the door of that classroom. The ESL department at Urbansville has organized an information session to be held on a Saturday morning to discuss immigrants' rights and what to do if someone

in your family is detained by Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE). They've got an attorney coming in to talk to parents.

One day Edgar and Elena stop coming to class. They are gone for almost two weeks. "We're not really sure what happened," Sarah tells me. "Something on the light rail. What we're hearing from the other kids is that someone was deported. I don't know if they'll be back."

One day, Edgar is back in class with a black eye. Elena returns the next day. None of the ESL teachers are quite sure what happened. Sarah doesn't ask.

At about this time Hani stops coming to first hour. "I heard Hani's in the hospital," Sarah tells me. "I need to check with the special ed department to see what's going on." Hani is gone for over two weeks. Finally, Sarah gets a note that Hani has dropped her class. The very next day, however, Hani walks into class fifteen minutes after the bell has rung. Sarah welcomes her and keeps teaching.

Maria stops coming to first hour.

Khadra stops coming to second hour.

A new girl from a different state starts coming to second hour. Her English proficiency level seems really low, but there are no test scores or school records to give additional insight on this. She struggles in class.

"Should she maybe be in the newcomer class?" I ask Sarah.

"Well, she's been in the country for a couple of years, and she's not allowed in that class if she's been here for more than two years."

But there seems to be very little that Sarah is doing for this girl. Her English skills don't allow her to access even Sarah's scaffolded lessons, and Sarah makes no purposeful

use of her bilingual assistant to bring multilingual approaches into her teaching.

Differentiation like this takes time, and Sarah feels she barely has the time to plan as it is.

The first month I am with Sarah is also when the teachers give the yearly proficiency tests (ACCESS tests) for the state. All ELs go through testing, which is mostly done in the computer lab. The EL coordinator at the school has made a schedule; Sarah is pulled out of some of her co-taught classes to monitor testing. One day after a high-speed switch from first to second hour and a calmer second hour, we step out of the second-hour class, heading to Sarah's office. The computer lab is right across the hall. Mr. Blomberg, another EL teacher, is standing in the door and grabs Sarah as she walks by. "Do you know where Patty is?" he asks. "She's supposed to be here now. I've got class upstairs and there are already all these kids in here."

"Oh, no. I'll go get her." Sarah thrusts her bag at me and takes off running down the hall. She finds the teacher who got mixed up about whose turn it was to monitor testing and that teacher comes running down the hall toward the computer lab. Then Mr. Blomberg goes running toward the stairs because his kids are in his room with no teacher and the bell has rung.

As we walk toward her office, Sarah still catching her breath, she says this week has been awful. In addition to all this ACCESS testing, Mr. Williams, her co-teacher, has been out most of the week with strep, leaving Sarah to teach the co-taught history class herself. The kids don't behave as well for her as they do for Mr. Williams, and the past few days have not gone well. "I'm also exhausted because I'm up all night reading about the Spanish American war, because I know nothing about it. And if I can't answer

questions, that leads to ‘You’re not the real teacher,’¹³ which just makes the management situation worse.’¹⁴

And into all of this complexity, I have arrived, asking “Hey, could we maybe talk to them a little bit more about relative clauses?”

¹³ Similar experiences in which the language teacher was seen as being less of a teacher than the content teacher were also recorded by Creese (1997), who conducted an ethnographic study in three different schools in London. In discussing this situation in a 2000 article, Creese stated “across all three schools there was at least one major incident where language specialists were challenged by students as not having the authority to teach them” (p. 456).

¹⁴ Analytic memo, March 9, 2017

IV

Language Focus: Take One

About once a week Sarah and I are able to sit down and have an official planning session. We check in and talk every day and share ideas, but once a week we sit more formally and try to make plans to bring more language into her sheltered class over the next week. I record these conversations. The first day that we did this, Sarah shared with me the evolution of her language objective planning.

“So I started the year like, okay! Three learning targets. One language target. We are going to do this! This is our unit. And then the units went by, the weeks went by, and I didn’t do it. So I started off the year with the EL mindset, but somewhere along the way it became the survival mindset.”¹⁵

She shared the PowerPoint from that first unit with me. Two slides outlined her learning objectives:

Slide #1

Learning Target 1: I can compare and contrast the colonies developed by the Spanish, British, French and Dutch.

Learning Target 2: I can compare and contrast the 13 British Colonies and the different groups of people that settled in them.

Learning Target 3: I can analyze the conflicts between colonists and Native Americans.

Language Target: I can compare and contrast the European settlements using a graphic organizer to answer fact-based questions.

Slide #2

Learning Target 1: I can analyze how the social, political, and economic

¹⁵ Planning Session Transcript – 3-1-17

views of the colonies changed over time and contrasted with Great Britain.

Learning Target 2: I can examine how the system of slavery had social, political, and economic influence on the American colonies.

Language Target: I can compare and contrast the social, political, and economic reasons for slavery using transition words such as *and, in addition, also, but, however*.

She talked about a project the students did in the early months of the school year in which they compared different Native American cultures using *similar, but, however, and different*. She felt that it was successful. She stopped giving this kind of attention to language simply because she was overwhelmed.

“Are there any resources that the district provides to help with the language objectives?” I ask.

“Not really. There isn’t much. There’s a folder that the district pushed out to us, but the resources are mostly teacher created. I think that this is the district trying to support ELs with limited staff and resources, but it’s up to teachers to post things. There is no way that the district would be able to manage that.”¹⁶

It strikes me as odd that the district provides a great deal of curricular support to the content areas, aligning curriculum to standards to classes, yet expecting that the district would do this for ESL teachers is beyond what Sarah could imagine. I think again of Davison’s (2006) assertion that ESL is viewed as being concerned with methodology and strategies but not something deserving of a curriculum. We have here a district-wide example to support this position.

¹⁶ Planning transcript – 3-1-2017

After we look through the resources, I suggest to Sarah that we start by trying to add a little more language during her warm-ups. Sarah has a set way that she begins each class period. Mindful Monday – the students do a five-minute yoga routine with a video; Talk about it Tuesday – the students respond to prompts that are related to the curricula focus or to current events; Wonderful Wednesday – the students have a chance to ask questions about anything they are wondering about; Think about it Thursday – the students complete a write-pair-share about a prompt on the board; and, Fabulous Fridays – the students get to share a favorite video or song with each other. There has been no language support to help them with these warm-ups in the time that I have been observing. I ask Sarah about this and suggest that we add some sentences frames to Talk about it Tuesday and Think about it Thursday next week.

“We could enhance the routine with more pieces of language. We could try to help them be a little more purposeful in how they answer,”¹⁷ I suggest.

Sarah is open to this. It seems manageable to add a little more language into the set routine. We begin to discuss how this might look, and I tell her about my thoughts when she had the political cartoon up for Think about it Thursday last week. “I thought, instead of just having them say, ‘I see a big man,’ we could help move them to a relative clause: ‘I see a big man who _____.’ They could use that form to say what he’s doing. Maybe we could work on the sentence like that every week for a few weeks? Do you use a picture every week?”

¹⁷ Planning transcript 3-1-2017

“I don’t. It’s usually a prompt. But there are some good political cartoons from this time period.”¹⁸ Sarah is open to using a picture or a cartoon on Thursday. She isn’t as interested in trying to get the students to use relative clauses. I suggest it several times, but she never latches on to the idea. She steers the conversation in a different direction. I feel I’ve pushed the idea as far as I can.

For Talk about it Tuesday, she remembers a resource that someone gave her, a handout titled “Accountable Talk” (Figure 4.2) that gives sentence starters. Instead of creating sentence frames or sentence starters and putting them on the PowerPoint slide with the prompts, she would like to get the handout laminated. The first prompt on the handout is:

“I agree/disagree with that because _____.”

She plans to ask them to use the first prompt. Sarah also considers retyping the handout to simplify that first prompt. She wants to remove the “with that” and just have the prompt read “I agree/disagree because _____.” I encourage her to leave it as it is. “It would be a helpful chunk for them to learn, and they will practice it several times if you have the sheet laminated.”

¹⁸ Planning transcript 3-1-2017

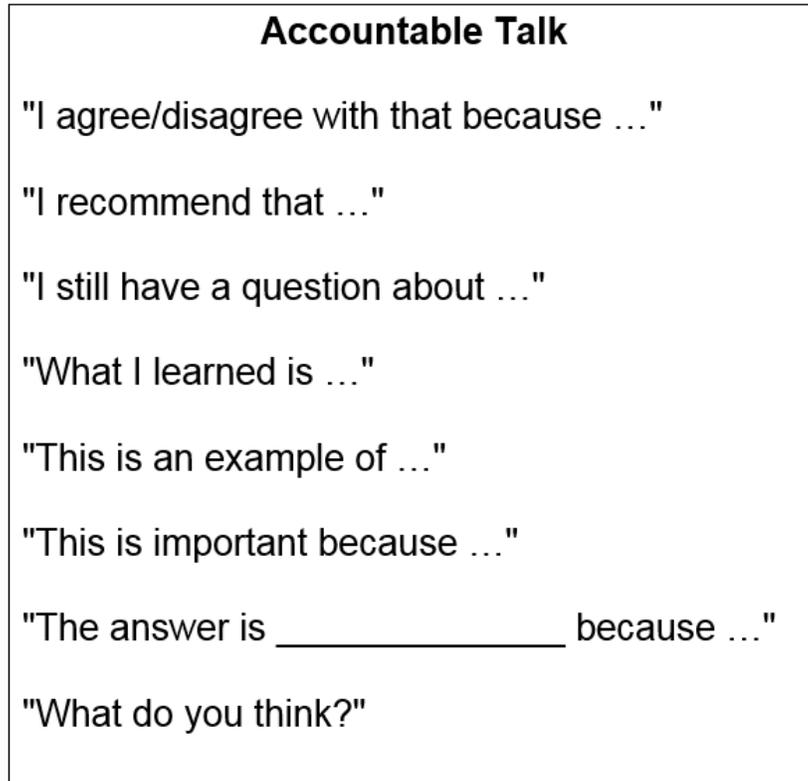


Figure 4.2. Accountable talk handout

On Tuesday Sarah has the Accountable Talk worksheets (not laminated – she didn’t have time) and passes them out. “We’re just going to use the first one today,” she tells the students. The prompt is:

The U.S. has too many immigrants. We should stop more immigrants from coming to America.

In both periods, there are a number of solid ideas expressed, and most of the kids begin with “I disagree with that because....” It is a mouthful for a few students, but they all manage to use it. It’s a relevant topic, something they have all thought quite a bit about, and it does seem that using the sentence starter raises the level of language and helps them to organize their thoughts.

On Think about it Thursday, Sarah puts up a slide with a political cartoon and asks the students to do a write-pair-share like they do every Thursday. The political cartoon shows “The Goddess of Freedom” holding the American flag and three Native women showing gratitude. Uncle Sam smokes in the background with his feet propped up on a chair.

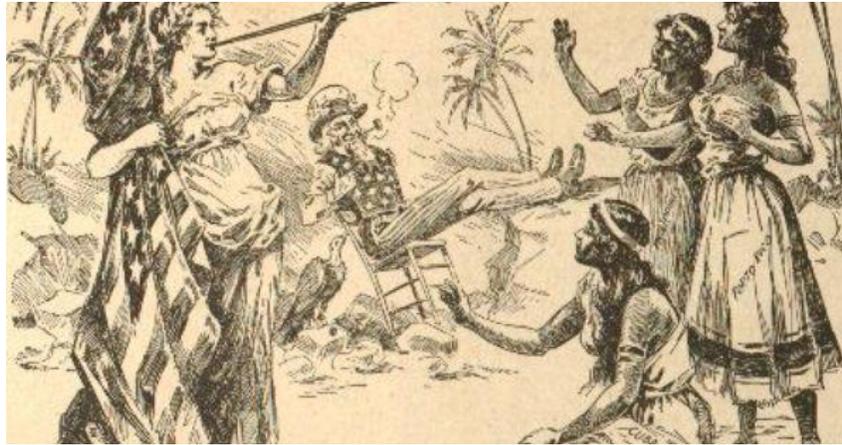


Figure 4.3. Political cartoon used as part of write-pair-share prompt. Photo URL: <https://carlanthonyonline.com/2013/07/06/uncle-sams-girlfriend-columbia-a-hot-star-he-dumped-part-3/>

Sarah has added the following sentence starters to the slide:

I see_____.

I feel _____.

This reminds me of _____.

The artist is trying to say _____.

The students come up with quite literal answers. Some that I wrote down included:

I see a picture.

I feel like the three women are thanking the woman.

It feel like America help Cuba.

It reminds me of nothing.

After the students share, Sarah writes “I feel _____” on the board. She points out that they were saying “I feel like” instead of expressing an emotion. She asks the students if they can name some emotions, and she writes them on the board: *Happy. Sad. Angry.*

“We’ll use these next time,” Sarah says. “Does anyone want to use one today?”¹⁹

Zahra says she feels confused.

Later, when Sarah and I discuss how this went, I suggest two things. First, that we create a bank of vocabulary words and give them some more precise options for words like happy, sad, and angry. I also suggest that we add *because* to that sentence starter, hoping to nudge them to create more complex sentences: “I feel _____ because _____.”

Sarah seems open to this. At home I create a quick first draft using a shared Google doc with some emotion words we might use, synonyms for the more common words that grow in intensity.

Other ways to say...

angry

irritated

upset

furious

happy

pleased

thrilled

ecstatic

sad

depressed

miserable

heartbroken

¹⁹ Field notes, 3-9-2017.

But Sarah has found a sheet with faces and emotions on it, and she copies that off for the students to use the next week. She prefers this, stating that contains more vocabulary words and the faces are helpful. It is also already done and easy to copy, she admits.



Figure 4.4. Emotions handout

The next week, and every week after that, the exact same language supports are offered and the kids make similar sentences. Sarah puts a prompt up on Tuesday to talk about and a picture up on Thursday for a write-pair-share. On Tuesdays she passes out the responsible talk sheets. (They never do get laminated.) On Thursdays she passes out the faces and asks them to use an emotion word instead of saying, “I feel like

_____,” but she never challenges them to support why they feel that way using “because.” The sentences they create are better than they were the first two weeks I watched these warm ups, and one day, during a different activity in the middle of class, Dahir says loudly, “I disagree with that!” But, ultimately, the idea to bring language support to this part of class means recycling the exact same supports each week.

One day, Abdi asks if they will ever use anything on the responsible talk sheet except the first prompt. (“I agree/I disagree with that because...”) They never do.

These supports are better than what they had before. But with just a little more each week – more examples, more nuanced sentence frames, or more sentence frames that purposefully push the students to slightly more complex sentences – this part of the lesson could have been much more useful. We might have heard more than one “I disagree with that!” during the rest of the class.

There are missed opportunities for language learning, even during the rare moments when we are doing activities with language supports.

V

Remembering Jacob Kounin

One day, when Sarah is talking about the end of WWI, she keeps using the word “punish.”

“They wanted to punish Germany.”

“The treaty of Versailles was about punishing Germany.”

“They wanted to get their land back, and they wanted to punish Germany.”²⁰

She repeats the word five or six times but never defines it. I can tell that some of the kids don’t know the word. I can feel that they are lost because of this word. Sarah doesn’t seem to notice.

I’m thinking about “withitness” (Kounin, 1977), the teacher’s ability to know what’s going on in all corners of the room.

Could there perhaps also be linguistic withitness? That ability of the language teacher to track when students are following the language and when they’re lost, to sense when a word or a sentence is too hard?

Sarah is not linguistically with-it today.

²⁰ Field Notes, 3-14-17

VI

Teaching Vocabulary: Linguistic Withitness II

Vocabulary knowledge is essential for school success. In fact, it predicts academic achievement for both native English speakers (Beck, Perfetti, & McKeown, 1987) and English learners (Garcia 1991; Saviile-Troike, 1984; Snow & Kim, 2007). Explicit vocabulary instruction, especially explicit instruction on general academic words (Coxhead, 2000) can help ELs improve their academic achievement (See Blachowicz, Fisher, Ogle & Watts-Taffe, 2006 for an extensive review of the research on this). In my program we review Kate Kinsella's (2005a, 2005b) work on teaching vocabulary to ELs and read *Bringing Words to Life* (Beck, Kucan, & McKeown, 2013) along with other EL focused vocabulary materials. The main message of our work on vocabulary is that English learners need multiple exposures to words in various contexts before they will truly "know" the word. In their final methods class, our teacher candidates create a detailed vocabulary plan using all of these methods, especially the many suggested activities in the Beck et al. (2013) book. Our candidates are generally very successful at doing this. It has been my experience that the materials are accessible and helpful, allowing them to demonstrate that they have a number of strategies for teaching vocabulary before they leave me.

I worry about their ability to teach language at the sentence and discourse level once they are in their jobs. I always feel confident that, if anything, they know how to focus on language at the word level.

One resource I introduce them to in my program is the Frayer Model (Frayer, Frederick, & Klausmeier, 1969). Sarah has created her own modified version of the Frayer Model to use when she teaches vocabulary:

Word	Definition
Sentence	Picture

Figure 4.5. Sarah's modified Frayer model

She told me that she found the parts of the Frayer Model that asked for characteristics, examples, and non-examples too confusing. I wonder to myself if we should even be calling it a modified *Frayer* Model when there are this many modifications.

She uses this organizer with the students once every week or two, focusing on four or five words at a time. Even though Sarah has written a definition for each word on the PowerPoint and the students are just copying it, it takes almost an entire class period for the kids to complete these boxes and then go over their work as a group. Sarah chooses many Tier 3 (Beck et al., 2013) words and doesn't seem to be purposefully thinking about the Tier 2 (Beck et al., 2013) words that do appear on her lists.

Reconstruction, Racism, Ratify, Restrict

Monopoly, Philanthropist, Capitalism, Corrupt

Imperialism, Intervention, Isolation, Foreign, Domestic

Depression, Unemployed, Drought, Rural, Urban

When Sarah goes over the words with the whole class, she usually does a nice job of writing different forms of the words that share the same root. Isolation, isolate. Intervention, intervene. Unemployed, unemployment. But she misses some things that I would have started with (i.e., the word “employ” as part of unemployed; how depression is used to talk about mood and mental health and how that relates to the use of the word in the “Great Depression”).

In my assessment, there are many areas for improvement in the vocabulary teaching in Sarah’s class. Most significantly to me, for all the time she gives the students to fill out their boxes, at the end of that time, most of them have the word written and the definition copied from the PowerPoint. The other two boxes are blank. When Sarah goes over the words, one or two students with the strongest language skills offer their sentences. Sarah writes a sentence on the board, making corrections as needed. All the other kids copy it into their blank boxes.

I find pictures to represent each of the words, and Sarah is happy to have them (“Oh, I thought about doing that, and then I forgot it.”²¹). The most engaged I ever see the kids around vocabulary is when they are trying to match the pictures I have found with the words that they went over the day before.

There is so, so much more we could do with vocabulary, but I don’t intervene beyond supplying the pictures. I’m here to work with Sarah on focusing on language at

²¹ Planning transcript 4-12-17

the sentence and discourse level. Taking on vocabulary would move us from that focus, so they keep doing what she has been doing with them all year.

But I'm thinking again about linguistic withitness. Does Sarah not notice that these kids can't make a sentence out of these words yet and are just sitting there with blank boxes? Does she not notice that most kids end up with the same sentence in their notebooks?

I take a deep breath and let vocabulary go.

"Raise your right hand and repeat after me," I say in my ESL Literacy class every year. "I will never – never ever – ask my students to look up a new word and use it in a sentence. So help me God or Karma. Amen. God Bless America and my Mother."

These PowerPoint slides come right before this in-class oath-taking:

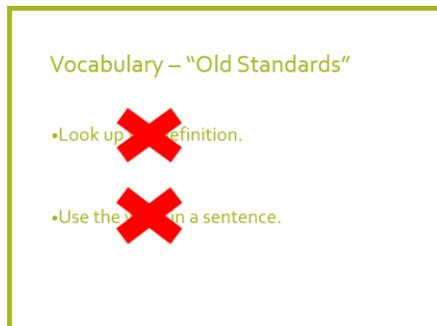
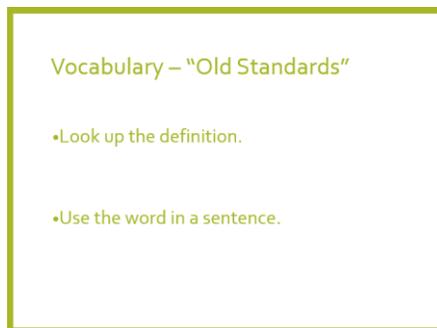


Figure 4.6. Instructional slides from ESL Literacy

“If the student could use the word in the sentence, they probably wouldn’t need to have it as a vocabulary word.” We talk about how a student needs multiple meaningful interactions with a word, usually about 12, before they truly “know” the word. I hold up *Bringing Words to Life* (Beck et al., 2013). “This book is going to show you a better way to teach vocabulary. It’s one of my favorite books. It’s full of great activities. Keep this book!” I model a vocabulary lesson using a number of the activities in the book, pulling words like *vitiate*, *causerie*, and *limpidity* from a ridiculously dense reading from a GRE practice test. My students identify Tier 2 words and create a vocabulary teaching plan.

We talk about the importance of Tier 2 words over and over and over again.

They are assessed on this.

Sarah was assessed on this.

“Cari!” one of my students says to me when walking into class one night. “I was at my field experience school and the teacher was teaching vocabulary by having the students look up the words in the dictionary and then write them in a sentence. I totally remembered how you made us take that oath, and I was thinking, ‘Oh, no. Not such a good idea.’”

“How did the kids do?” I asked.

“They were totally lost.”

“Remember the oath when it’s your classroom!” But as I say this, I’m forcing enthusiasm into my voice that I don’t really feel anymore. Because I’m thinking of Sarah, and the whiteboard she drags to the front of the room and back each morning. The meetings she sets up with lawyers to help immigrants know their rights. The EA who pulls pictures up on his phone while she teaches. The printers that don’t always work.

The subs that show up for second hour and need help from Sarah to get the computer running. The speed with which she moves between first and second hour. The nightly reading about whatever history topic she is teaching the next day.

I'm sure she was going to remember the oath, too.

Sometimes the realities of the teaching context ruin the best of intentions.

I interviewed Emma on a Sunday morning in January in a nearly deserted coffee shop. I asked her, as I asked all of them, were there any resources or materials we used in class that she remembers as being particularly useful, or that she goes back to for ideas now?

“I like the vocabulary book,” she said. “But I just don’t know. It takes a lot to prep all of that. Then it takes time to deliver it. I really like the way the book is set up, but it just seems very time intensive to prep and to teach. That doesn’t feel doable for me right now.”²²

²² Interview transcript – Emma – 1-22-2017

VII

Language Focus: Take Two

Three weeks after I begin, Sarah and I have our first planning session where we move away from the warm-up activities and begin to purposefully plan a language objective that is related to the content lesson and could be integrated into it. The lesson centers on isolationism versus interventionism and how this was conceptualized at the beginning of the 20th century. With support from Sarah, the students have read a short piece about the Monroe Doctrine, the Roosevelt Corollary, and President Wilson's Fourteen Points. For tomorrow, Sarah wants them to do an activity in which they briefly summarize these three policy items and say whether they were examples of isolationism or interventionism.

We decide quite quickly that we would support their answers with a sentence frame, but we have trouble figuring out exactly what the frame should be.

I suggest that Sarah think about what the students might say or write to complete this task.

“I always want to think about how I can help them make a sentence that's a little bit better than what they can do on their own,”²³ I say.

She thinks about this and decides that a complex sentence using *because* would be a good idea.

The Monroe Doctrine was an example of interventionism/isolationism because

_____.

²³ Planning Session Transcript – 3-14-17

But when I ask her what she was imagines the rest of the sentence might actually be, Sarah gets lost. It becomes clear that this sentence frame by itself won't be enough to support the students at this level to complete the task, at least not with a fully grammatical sentence. We both have a hard time trying to figure out what might work. We try multiple options but have trouble landing on a sentence that doesn't seem too complicated for them.

I suggest that, since Sarah had been repeatedly using "should" while we're talking about this, we think about something like:

The Roosevelt Corollary was an example of interventionism because Roosevelt thought the United States should help other countries.

"No, I think that would be too much if we add the conditional in there," Sarah says. "I think we should just leave it straight up 'because.'"²⁴

"Just see what they come up with?"²⁵ I ask.

She knows that they will need more but doesn't think she will have time for a language lesson on modals.

"You might want to try and see if you can get them to use 'should' without putting in a full grammar lesson. Just sort of demonstrate. Use 'should' over and over. Maybe write 'should' on the board. When you're going through each of them, you could say, 'You should' or 'You should not.' That would be like a little input flood."²⁶

²⁴ Planning Session Transcript, 3-14-17

²⁵ Planning Session Transcript, 3-14-17

²⁶ Plannign Session Transcript, 3-14-17

We go around and around but finally decide to use the sentence frame with *because* and use examples with *should*. This would be supported by a PowerPoint slide that offered some basic sentences about what isolationists believe and interventionists believe to help them form their sentences:

<p>Interventionism</p> <p>The United States should help other countries.</p> <p>The United States should work with other countries.</p> <p>The United States should try to change other countries.</p> <p>Isolationism</p> <p>The United States should stay out of wars.</p> <p>The United States should not work with other countries.</p> <p>The United States should not get involved with other countries.</p> <p>The United States should pay attention only to the United States.</p>

Figure 4.7. Language support PowerPoint slide.

The next day when I come to observe, I am genuinely excited to see how this activity goes. I have been coming to observe for almost one month and this will be the first time that we use purposeful language support for an activity that tries to teach the history content. But as Sarah gets to Wilson's Fourteen Points, it becomes clear that the students don't understand if the U.S. was fighting with Germany or against Germany in World War I. (How this could have happened when the AP for All syllabus allowed them to spend two whole days on WWI is a mystery to me.) Sarah then stops the lesson and reteaches a few important things about WWI. This take up any time we would have had

to have them describe the main idea of each of the featured policy initiatives using our sentence frame.

In the last few minutes of class, Sarah asks them to try and write the sentences she and I worked on for homework. There is no modeling, no guided practice, and no real focus on the language. She has also confided time and again that the students simply don't do homework.

In second hour the story is similar. There is less confusion about who was fighting whom in WWI, but the lesson runs long and we don't have time to do the summary activity with the language support.

“So do you think you'll start with that language activity tomorrow?” I ask Sarah. We are standing in the hall debriefing the lesson. I am heading out of the building, Sarah is heading up to her office, so we stop at the foot of the stairs in a windowless hall near the main office.

“Oh, I can't. Sorry, but I'm already two days behind and we have to get on to the twenties and the progressive era.”

So our first language-focused content activity gets dropped, a victim of the forward march through the AP U.S. History content. The planning conversation centered on this lasted thirty minutes and resulted in no purposeful focus on *should* and no attempts to help the students create a complex sentence using *because*.

I would have liked to push her on this, but I'm not here to push. I'm here to observe, to help as I can, and to try to understand what Sarah is thinking as she plans and teaches her lessons.

That day, what I understand is that Sarah was thinking that she couldn't take time for language, because she needed to get back to teaching by mentioning.

VIII

When Language Teachers Don't Teach Language

One day, shortly after the abandoned language activity, it suddenly becomes apparent to me that Sarah and I differ in our fundamental understanding of this situation. Sarah sees herself as a history teacher. I see Sarah as a language teacher. Her priority during instruction is to teach history. I think her priority should be to teach language. She told me once during a planning session that she felt “like I want to teach the language through the content, get them to understand history, but also build language skills. But my class is supposed to be a bridge to the next level of content instruction.”²⁷ I just didn't understand at the time that this meant that content was so far above language in her mind. That a teacher in a CBI setting favors content over language is nothing new. Multiple studies have described that this occurs and how this occurs (e.g. Fortune, Tedick & Walker, 2008; Lyster, 1998; Salomone, 1992; Walker & Tedick, 2000), but the majority of these studies have taken place in immersion contexts, and immersion teachers are licensed as content teachers. Sarah is a licensed language teacher (and technically shouldn't even be teaching a history class). Despite this, she still focuses almost exclusively on content in her classes.²⁸

Sarah described her goals to me as trying to bring in practices that helped with language, but I felt she was very vague about what, exactly, that meant.

²⁷ Sarah – Planning Transcript – 3-1-2017

²⁸ A study by Short (2002) was one of the few that documented ESL teachers in content-based setting, attending to the balance of language and content. The study analyzed sheltered social studies lessons by two social studies trained teachers and two ESL trained teachers. Both the ESL teachers and the Social studies teachers focused almost primarily on content.

“But the idea of also helping them build more complex sentences is not something that you try to tackle?”²⁹ I asked.

“No, not directly. And mostly because of the push of AP content,”³⁰ she replied.

Shortly after the realization that Sarah sees her primary role as teaching content, I realize something that is even more disturbing to me.

For some of these students, this sheltered history class is the only language support they get. Most of them also have a sheltered English language arts class. For some, however, that class didn’t fit into their schedule. Thus, this class is their only ESL class, but Sarah isn’t teaching English.

These are kids who are at a WIDA level 2 or 3 and are producing sentences like:

- She 40 she wear in old fashioned,short skirt close ,that in the old day women’s wear
- A big family who used to work at the farmers, name Timander, jack,John, and Shirley, had been suffer for a bad health care.
- you need to sent the hospital my son i love him i can’t see that’s his blinding his my everything.

(Ayaan, Leylo, Mohamed historical fiction assignment)

From a Can Do (WIDA, 2012) perspective, these students are getting their ideas across, and they are demonstrating that they know something of the historical period they were describing in these sentences. But despite these positive interpretations, it is clear that students who produce language like this still have much English to learn if they are

²⁹ Sarah – Planning Transcript – 3-1-2017

³⁰ Sarah – Planning Transcript – 3-1-2017

to achieve academic success, and if they don't learn it, their future options will be severely limited.

Yet *no one* in this school sees it as his or her job to help these three students improve their English. No one!

This is an enormously problematic consequence of replacing ESL classes with sheltered content classes. Receiving some kind of ESL "service" has become synonymous in the minds of school administration with being taught ESL.

One day in that windowless hallway as I am leaving Urbanville West for the day, I try to share my perspective with Sarah.

"No one would know if you just let some of that AP content go. Just think about what the really big ideas from U.S. history are, and focus on teaching language using those big ideas. I mean, I didn't know what the Roosevelt Corollary was before we talked about it in your class the other day. And I doubt your students really got what that was or will remember it. But if you help them improve their English, that will stay with them and help them in every class they have. And I think if you just let a lot of the content go and focused on teaching language and a few big ideas about history, they would probably even end up knowing more about history than they will now."

But she feels obligated to the content. This is the way her job has been described to her. She is supposed to teach the content standards. This is their *history* class.

From the Deweyian (1938) view of temporality, I am Sarah's past. What she learned in her coursework with me is her past. But the impact that these past experiences are bringing to her present experience is limited. The present day realities, not the least of which is her understanding of the job she must do if she is to keep getting paid, by far

outweigh the experiences of the past for her. Toward which imagined future she is looking, I can't say. It seems that the present is all she can manage most days.

The move to put teachers into content classes is based, theoretically, on the tenets of content-based instruction. The term is supposed to mean content-based *language* instruction. Creese (2005a) questioned whether what she saw happening in classrooms during her one-year ethnographic study should even be called content-based language instruction. From what I have seen at Urbanville West, I would have to say that no, this is not content-based language instruction. This is content instruction.

These students are not receiving English instruction at all.

IX

Language Focus: Take Three

Just when I am beginning to doubt that we will ever make any progress at all on bringing a language focus into Sarah's classes, a major shift in instruction happens. The summative project is upon us. At the end of each quarter, all students in all humanities classes complete a project meant to allow them to apply what they have learned in their social studies and English classes in an integrated, creative way. Sarah has told me that they don't really have time for these projects, and they have talked about ending them so they can spend more time on the history content, but for now, the summative projects are staying.

This quarter, the students will be writing a historical fiction short story. They will work on it in both their sheltered U.S. history class and their sheltered English Language Arts (ELA) class. (Most, but not all, students have both sheltered U.S. history with Sarah and sheltered ELA with Mr. Blomberg.) Each student gets a booklet to guide them through the project. Sarah and Mr. Blomberg have modified the booklet for the sheltered classes. Sarah has also modified the booklet for the ELs in her co-taught classes. The students are to pick a historical time period, do research on that period, and then write a story. Sarah is tasked with helping them do their research, and there are pages in the booklet for the students to fill out as they complete the research. Mr. Blomberg will be talking to them about story development, plot, conflict, etc., as well as dialogue. Once they have done their research, they will also be working on writing the story in Sarah's class.

Sarah and I have a planning conversation focused on the writing the students will be doing.

“Do you have any examples?”

“Well, they read *Of Mice and Men* with Mr. Blomberg, and that’s historical fiction. Except not the kids who don’t have that class.”

“I mean, that’s a whole novel. I was thinking more along the lines of examples of what you actually think they will produce. Like a simple, modified example of historical fiction.”³¹

“Well, I would either have to find one online or create one. I could work on it this weekend.”³²

Sarah gives herself Saturdays off. She works most of the day on Sunday.

I stress the importance of examples and having students analyze the examples. I modify an excerpt from *All Quiet on the Western Front* for them. Sarah writes two example stories on her own. She shares these examples with the students as she describes the project, but they don’t work together to read or analyze them. They are handed out more as a reference that the students can use.

Sarah and I have decided that we will try to focus on the past tense as a language objective for this project. We will introduce this to them once they have completed their research and are ready to begin writing the story.

When we move into the computer lab to begin the research, we are already behind. Sarah had intended to spend Fridays in March getting started on the research part

³¹ Planning Session transcript 3-3-2017

³² Planning Session transcript 3-3-2017

of the project. But they fell behind and ended up starting their projects with only nine schools days to complete them. Because they are working on the projects in both history and English, Sarah believes they will have enough time.

I'm not able to observe the day they begin their research. I am there, however, the second day. The first student I check in with is Ayaan.

"Hi, Ayaan. What did you decide to write your story about?"

"New Nationalism."

I have no idea what that is.

She has one of the research pages in the booklet filled out with the title of a website and a URL. She has copied something verbatim from the website.

"Is New Nationalism something you're interested in?" I ask.

"Oh, yeah." She giggles. I have come to translate this particular giggle of Ayaan's into "I'm lost."

"Can I see your booklet?" Ayaan hands me her book, and for the first time I look at the page that guides them to choose a historical period. Here is the list:

Pick a Time Period and Event/Concept from that time.

Unit 5: Reconstruction (1865-1877)

The 13th, 14th, and 15th Amendments

Andrew Johnson's Reconstruction Plan

Military Reconstruction Act of 1867

Black Codes

The Compromise of 1877

The Ku Klux Klan

Sharecropping

Plessy v. Ferguson

Jim Crow laws

The New South

Unit 6: The Gilded Age (1865-1898)

The Age of Invention

Thomas Edison and the light bulb

Factories and mass production

Assembly line production

Corporations and monopolies

Sherman Antitrust Act of 1890

Interstate Commerce Act

Social Darwinism

Gospel of Wealth

Women and Child Labor

Ethnic Neighborhoods/Housing Segregation (Black, Latino, etc.)

Political Bosses and Machines

Labor Unions

Haymarket Square Riot

Yellow Journalism

Newspapers (Joseph Pulitzer, William Randolph Hearst)

Transcontinental Railroad

Homestead Act

Battle of Little Big Horn

Reservation System for Native Americans

Women's Suffrage (Susan B. Anthony and American Suffrage Association)

Populist movement (the Farmers' Alliance and People's Party)

Socialism (Eugene V. Debs)

Spanish-American War

Expansionism/Imperialism

Good Neighbor Policy

Unit 7: Reform and Change (1890-1945)

Progressivism

Muckrakers

National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP)

Feminism (Margaret Sanger)

The Nineteenth Amendment (women's suffrage)

New Nationalism

Federal Trade Commission

Teapot Dome Scandal

Roosevelt Corollary to the Monroe Doctrine

World War I

US Neutrality

Submarine warfare (Zimmerman telegram)

Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI)

Woodrow Wilson's Fourteen Points

Automobiles

Radio and Movies

Flappers

Harlem Renaissance (W.E.B. Du Bois, Langston Hughes, etc.)

The Jazz Age

Prohibition and the 18th Amendment

The Gangster Era

The Great Depression

Hoovervilles
The Dust Bowl
The New Deal
Franklin D. Roosevelt and his fireside chats
World War II
Good Neighbor Policy
Neutrality Acts
The Attack on Pearl Harbor
D-Day
Homefront during WWII (rationing, propaganda, etc.)
Internment of Japanese Americans
Atomic bomb (Hiroshima and Nagasaki)
United Nations

After I look at the list, I ask Ayaan a few questions. It becomes clear that she and I both have the same amount of knowledge about the topic she has chosen (i.e., no knowledge).

“Maybe you want to switch?” I suggest. I look at the list and pull out a few other topics that might be easier and more interesting for her.

We land on the women’s suffrage movement. She knows what this is and decides to switch. I guide her toward a website that might help her get started and then move on to another student. But for the next student and the next, the problem is the same. The research portion of the assignment isn’t scaffolded enough for them. They have understood that they are to go online, google their historical topic, find sources, and take notes in their booklet.

This is simply too difficult, too much language. Most are copying information verbatim from websites into the booklet, not understanding what they are writing, and certainly not understanding that what they write in the booklet will need to appear in their stories. The kids are excellent at “doing school” and filling in blank lines on a page with English words is how they understand they are expected to do school. Understanding the words seems to be optional.

Sarah has tried to scaffold this for them. The day I was gone, she showed them a PowerPoint that went over the project. There are a number of slides that could have been very useful for the students. For example, Sarah has suggested that they use photographs as research resources and take notes on the photographs. She included these two slides that modeled how this might look:

RESEARCH: CHARACTERS -- p. 12-13 & p.15-16



- Cotton farm
- African American workers
- Picking cotton
- Wearing a hat - sunny and hot
- Women, men, children
- Long pants, long sleeves, jacket
- Not smiling
- Busy working hard

Figure 4.8. PowerPoint slide for historical fiction project (Characters) Photo
URL: <https://www.kaufmann-mercantile.com/field-notes//images/organic-cotton-farming.jpg>

RESEARCH: SETTING - p.17



<http://www.history.com/topics/black-history/slavery/pictures/slave-life/slave-family-in-cotton-field-near-savannah>

- Cotton farm
- Outside
- A lot of space / A big farm
- Cotton plants
- Bags of cotton
- They are wearing bags for cotton
- They have a big basket of cotton
- Cloudy day ? Sunny day ?
- A big family
- African Americans

Figure 4.9. PowerPoint slide for historical fiction project (Research Setting).
Photo URL: <http://www.history.com/topics/black-history/slavery/pictures/slave-life/slave-family-in-cotton-field-near-savannah>

But these slides were embedded in a dense PowerPoint that covered the entire project.

For example, there was this slide, which tried to help them come up with search terms:

RESEARCH: CHARACTERS

Pages 12-16 and 26-35 in your booklet

- Main Characters
- Other Characters

Internet Search Examples:

- Family life in Reconstruction / World War I / etc.
- Daily life in America in the Progressive Era
- Soldier life in Spanish American War / World War I / World War II
- Social customs for African Americans in South Carolina in 1870

Figure 4.10. PowerPoint slide for historical fiction project (Research Characters)

Then, a little later, she had these slides:

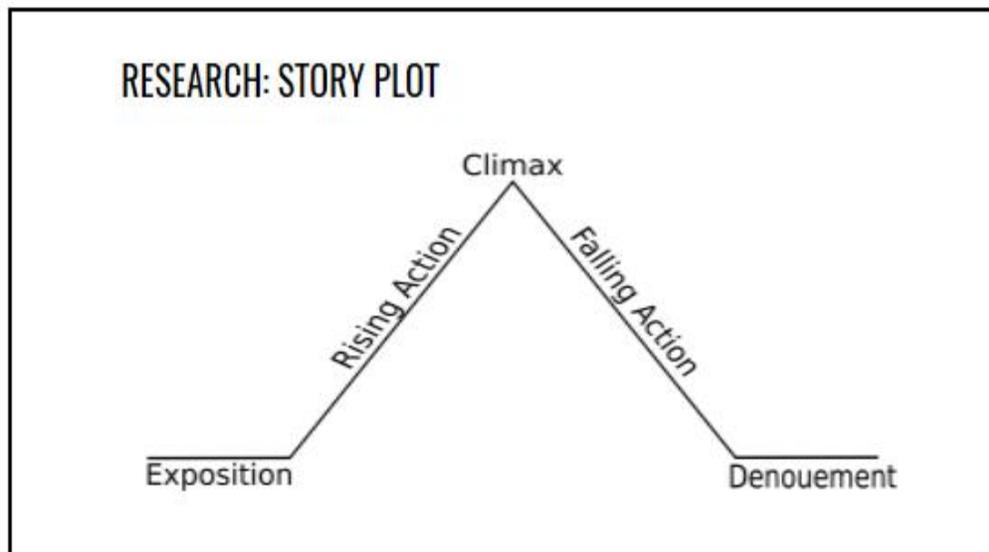


Figure 4.11. PowerPoint slide for historical fiction project (Research: Story Plot)

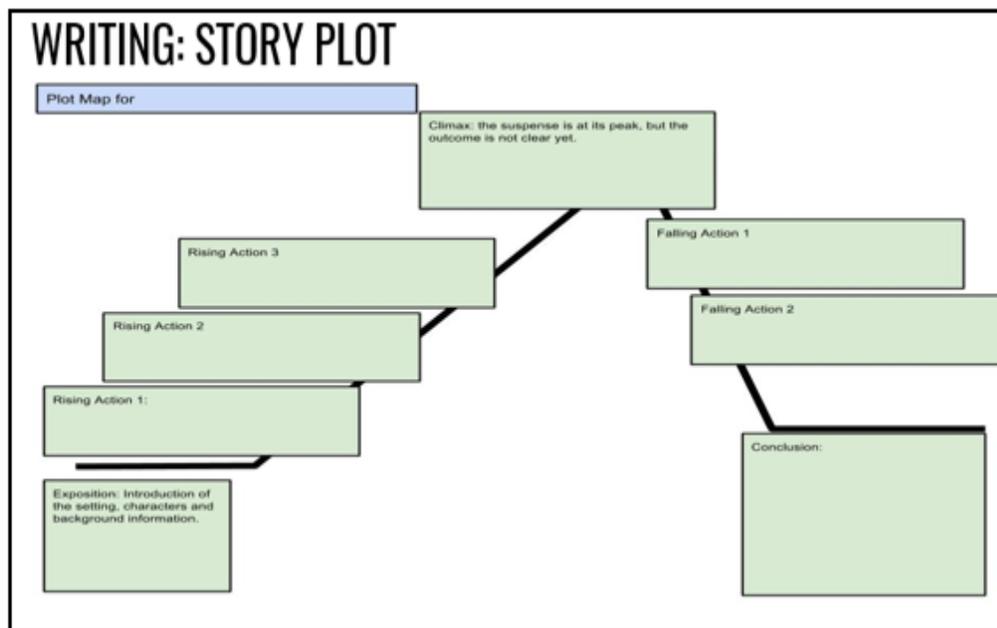


Figure 4.12. PowerPoint slide for historical fiction project (Writing: Story Plot)

So, while Sarah thought she had scaffolded the project, it was far too much all at once, and nothing was broken down into the steps that ELs at this level would need. Most of the students had seen the graphic for a story plotline in their sheltered English class before, so Sarah assumed that only a quick reminder would help them. But all of these slides overwhelmed the students, and they started their project with only a fuzzy idea about what their task actually was.

Sarah realized this, and throughout the week she tried to address it.

“I’ve been building my slides based on what they’ve needed. I think, ‘OK, this will work.’ But then, I try it, and it doesn’t. Then it’s like, let’s try this again. That’s been my week. Each night, I think, ‘Wait. I thought this made sense, but it didn’t. Let me add another slide and explain it a different way.’”³³

³³ Planning session 3-24-17

The slides do help. She models taking notes from a photograph and some of the students have some success with this. To me, however, it is clear that this won't be fully fixed by adding a few slides and going over the slides for ten minutes at the beginning of the period. They needed far more scaffolding for each phase of this project.

Eventually, we come back to the idea of using photographs as research sources. After several days where copying from websites was the norm and the students were falling behind, I suggest we switch to an only-photographs-from-now-on rule, and Sarah agrees. We have a week until spring break – the end of the quarter – and no one has started their story yet. I go home that night and print off photographs for each of the historical periods that the kids have chosen to write their story about. Child labor, the women's suffrage movement, share cropping, World War I. I mount them on construction paper and write the URL on the bottom.

The next day we hand pictures to any student who hasn't finished filling out the research pages in the booklet yet.

“Describe what you see on the picture,” we tell them.

We need to be done filling in these research pages, or we will never get to actually writing the stories.

On Tuesday of the week before spring break, Sarah introduces the language objective. Most of the students have described the setting and a few characters and will start writing the story today. Sarah and I decided we would spend some time focused on the past tense as they wrote. In addition to the fact that a narrative story is generally written in the simple past tense, the students in these classes have little conception of verb

tense. I have been observing their language since I entered the classroom. I've seen common irregular forms appear in their language, but for almost every student, the "ed" is absent. Many seem to have little conception of verbs at all, especially the idea that a sentence has a subject and a verb. Focusing on verbs and locating verbs in a sentences is likely to raise their metalinguistic awareness a great deal. The final reason for choosing the past tense as a language focus is that this is, after all, history class. The past tense is used constantly and appears in all the texts they read. There will be plenty of opportunities to reenter this learning in the weeks after this summative project is done.

Despite these reasons for choosing the past tense, I have mixed feelings about this language objective. On the one hand I am thrilled that we have landed on a language focus and that Sarah sees the value in teaching the past tense while the students are working on their stories. On the other hand, I remember the research by Bigelow (2010) and by Bigelow and Ranney (2005) and how verb tenses seemed to be one of the only forms that the preservice teachers in their studies were actually able to identify for inclusion in language objectives. I had hoped for something a bit more inspiring in a language objective, something that would push Sarah to a level that she wouldn't reach without me. Mostly, however, I am just thrilled that we finally have a language focus and at least a small amount of time that we can work on it.

In our planning, I suggest that, in addition to work on regular and irregular past tense forms, we talk to the students about action verbs, sensing verbs, and saying verbs (Derewianka, 2011) and tell them that a story will use all three kinds of verbs.

I create a handout (Appendix F) for the students, which we will use as they write their stories.

Sarah does a lovely job of introducing the ideas in the handout. We then have the students go through a few paragraphs in the example stories we created and underline verbs in the past tense. Sarah does this, and the students are quite successful. As they are going over their work, Sarah writes the verbs they found on their boards, asking the students if they are regular or irregular.

“This is very helpful,” Zahra says.

“This is good. This will help them,” Ms. Warsame, the bilingual ESL para tells me and Sarah after class.

The problem is simply that this is all very rushed, as they are down to their last three days (there is no class on Friday) and few have even started their story.

The next day, Sarah does a mini-lesson about the different kinds of verbs. She does a think-aloud, modeling how, when writing a story, she needs to describe what the characters are thinking and feeling. They look for each kind of verb in the examples.

Because we are so rushed, these two brief lessons at the beginning of the class periods are the only time we find to focus as a class on the language objective. As I circulate among the students, I see just how much difficulty they are having moving into writing a story. Abdi, a studious, attentive student in first hour is one of the most capable students in Sarah’s sheltered classes. When I check in with him, he is copying and pasting sentences from the research pages on to the Google doc where he is to create his story. He has pasted the photograph he found of a dilapidated sharecropper’s cabin onto the Google doc as well. I sit down next to him.

“What is your story about?” I ask. He tells me a bit about the 13th Amendment.

“OK, but how will you make that into a story?” We look at the list of characters he has created. “What will they do in the story?”

“They’re happy because of the 13th amendment.”

“OK. Well, if they live here,” I say as I point to the picture, “what might they be doing the day they find out about the 13th Amendment?”

He is confused about the entire idea of writing a story about the 13th Amendment.

“Well, it’s a story,” I say. “So you have to tell us about what your characters are doing and saying and feeling.”

He looks at the research pages he has filled out and at the paragraph he has mostly copied into his Google doc, and this capable, hard-working student looks at me with overwhelmed confusion.

“Where do I start?”³⁴

We take out the example stories. We look at how the stories started.

I talk him step-by-step through the idea of a story:

“Imagine what the characters might do.”

“Imagine what the characters might say.”

“There needs to be a problem in a story.”

“Can you start it with ‘One day...’ ‘One day, John was...’ What might someone who lived in that house be doing?”

This is how the next few days go, sitting down next to struggling students and talking them through what a story needs. Sarah tells me that their summative project for

³⁴ Field notes, 3-23-2017

second quarter was a History Day project in which they put pictures together and wrote about a historical event. She has figured out that a number of students seem to think that this story project is the same as that project.

This becomes triage work, trying to help the students finish their projects by the end of the week. I've stopped thinking about language-focused teaching, evidence-based practices, or teacher cognition. These kids don't quite know how their project should look, but they do know that they are going to get a grade on it. A big grade. I can't keep up with all the kids who need help.

I hear myself saying "one day" a lot: "Start with 'One day...'"

Then I hear Sarah start to use the same phrase with students, "Can you start with 'One day...?'"

The language objective becomes simply something that Sarah or I remind them of as we read over their work.

"What about this word right here?" I'll say, pointing to a verb once they have completed a few sentences. "Did that happen today or in the past?"

"Oh, yeah..." is usually the response, and then the student will change it. Sometimes we pull out the handout for help.

"What about this word?" I hear Sarah say a time or two as she is moving from student to student like me.

When a student's story is too short or when they don't know what more they can write, I have them look at the sensing verbs on the handout. "Can you tell us what your character is thinking or feeling? Can you use one of these verbs here?"

The last day they are writing, as Sarah starts the class, she reminds them about their handout. “Be sure to tell us what your characters are thinking or feeling. You can use these verbs here to add that to your story.”

It’s exhausting work. There are more students who need help than we have time for. The stories they are producing are very short, and there is no time for proofreading or a second draft. I help them slap something on the page to turn in. I feel complicit in helping them “do school” with little learning.

Later, as we are looking through the student work, Sarah admits that this didn’t go well. She never quite figured out how to scaffold the project, and it was too rushed. Too many of the kids simply did not have many experiences around short stories, or likely around fiction at all.

“What I did find, though, that really helped, was when I said, ‘Just start with, “One day...”’ That really helped them kind of shift their thinking to writing a story.”

The voice in my head assumed my teenaged daughter’s snottiest tone of voice and said, “Um, yeah, because *I* was doing that.” Then suddenly the voice in my head was the researcher once again. “Oh, *yeah*, because I was doing that!”

I had spent six weeks in Sarah classroom. I didn’t feel like Sarah had really grown in her teaching practices from all the conversations we had had or the co-planning we had done. But here she has learned something from me, not because I told her or even because I intentionally modeled it for her. Just by watching me interact with students around language, she has unconsciously picked up some small but effective strategies that I used.

This struck me as an important finding, and I held onto it through spring break. It helped me ease the sadness that came with the memory of the hopeless look on Abdi's face as he asked, *Where do I start?*

I know I taught her how to teach him where to start.

"We're going to write a love letter to my dog," I tell the students in my ESL Literacy class every year. I put a picture of Tucker, my fifteen-pound sheltie/terrier mix on the screen. "I love this dog, you guys, and you're going to help me write a love letter to him."

I'm using this silly lesson to model Gibbons' (2015) process for teaching writing, which she calls the Curriculum Cycle.

First, I **model the text** (Gibbons, 2015). We look at love letters. Napoleon to Josephine. Johnny Cash to June Carter Cash. Katherine Mansfield to her husband. We read them. We deconstruct them.

"How do these love letters start?"

"What kind of things do they say? What do they write about? What do you notice about the language?"

"What about this sentence right here? Can you find a sentence like that in another love letter?"

We notice the intimate way the letters start:

My dearest June,

My darling,

My beloved,

We notice the flowery vocabulary.

the incomparable Josephine

a glowing flame in my heart

to my very soul

We notice the use of superlatives:

the greatest soul, the noblest nature, the sweetest, most loving heart

the greatest woman I ever met

We notice how the writer will often share a special memory.

We look at how the letters end:

I am yours forever.

I love you very much.

Your servant,

We do activities to help us understand the text type. Vanishing Cloze. Underline the superlatives in an example. We pull sentence strips from an envelope – would this fit in a love letter? Why or why not?

Then, after we have fully deconstructed and analyzed the text type, we **jointly construct** (Gibbons, 2015) a love letter to my dog.

“My beloved puppy,” or “My most loyal friend,”

“You are the cutest dog!”

“I love the incomparable softness of your fur.”

“Write about the memory of the day you first saw him.”

When our letter to Tucker is complete, I tell them they are now ready to **independently write** (Gibbons, 2015) their own love letter.

This is one part of several lessons I do about the Curriculum Cycle. I wanted something engaging that would break down Gibbons' process with an easy text type. I wanted something memorable. I wanted to model this, to provide an experience they would remember. Their final project in the class is to create a sequence of lessons using the Curriculum Cycle. I assess them on this.

That is how I taught Sarah to approach writing tasks.

As I review all of these lessons and think about the impact they didn't have on Sarah's teaching, I feel incredibly discouraged. I don't know what else I can do.

I keep coming back to the "One Day" experience. Seeing something that works enacted in the classroom, in the appropriate context, that is what she needs.

Maybe I designed this research project the wrong way. Maybe I should have been the teacher and she the participant observer.

X

Sarah Teaches Language

I come back from spring break still feeling discouraged. We're making no progress. Sarah is overwhelmed by the history content and the school context. I'm feeling overwhelmed by how overwhelmed she is. Honestly, I'm counting the days until I can end this frustrating part of the study.

But in the weeks after spring break, a change occurs, and Sarah starts teaching some language.

The first change I notice comes in the planning conversations we have after spring break. She is less stressed. It's the beginning of the quarter, so the press to finish everything by a certain date is not on her yet. She has also had a week away and seems refreshed and rested. She is better able to concentrate and imagine. During our first talk in April, Sarah brings the AP PowerPoint from the co-taught class and has modified it like she always does. We go through the slides for the Great Depression and World War II, the next topics. After she talked about what she will be doing with the content, the first suggestions for language comes from me.

“We have a good start on the past tense from the stories, but I don't think anyone has got it mastered. So that might be something to just keep dropping in, here and there.”³⁵

We decide to continue with the focus on the past tense. Sarah gives them a reading of some kind about once a week. I suggest that the next time she does a reading,

³⁵ Planning conversation 4-12-17

she take a time out and do a second, closer read of a small piece of the text, asking them to find verbs and discussing tenses.

She likes this idea.

“It seems like it makes sense to do something where they are pulling out the past tense from something that they already have and then focusing in on language.”³⁶

I suggest she focus on “one paragraph”³⁷ and think of it as a “quick look.”³⁸

But when she gets into the classroom and does this activity, she ends up giving them an entire page to reread, and they spend more than half of the class period finding and underlining past tense verbs on the Smartboard. This was a successful activity. The students were very engaged; partially because they really like writing on the smartboard, but also because it was challenging for them to find the verbs and decide if they were in the past tense and, if so, if they were regular or irregular. However, because it takes so much of the class period to complete the activity, I know as I’m watching it that this is not something that she would be able to do on a regular basis.

As I watch Sarah complete this long, language-focused activity, and as I listen to the recordings of the planning conversations we have after spring break, I come to see that a major obstacle for Sarah’s planning for language-focused teaching during content instruction has been her conceptualization of a language focus as something big and different from the content focus. She sees it as something she would need to plan and teach separately and that would, thus, take large chunks of time away from her content

³⁶ Planning conversation 4-12-17

³⁷ Planning conversation 4-12-17

³⁸ Planning conversation 4-12-17

teaching and add greatly to her planning time. This internal representation of language teaching as a big, time-consuming thing is probably the biggest difference between how she conceives of language teaching in a sheltered context and how I conceive of language teaching in a sheltered context. This is an enormous barrier for her, and I try repeatedly to suggest ways that switching to a language focus can be simple and quick.

One day, while we are planning, she is going through PowerPoint slides.

“Wait. Back up a little to where you were today. One idea I had for something quick you could do, was when you were talking about FDR. See, right here, it says, ‘People liked him.’ ‘He spoke on the radio.’ You could just take like a ten-second mini-break and have the kids see if they could find one regular past tense verb and one irregular past tense verb on the slide.”³⁹

“Oh, oh sure,” she said. “Like ‘take a look.’”⁴⁰

“Yeah, just quick.” I use the word ‘quick’ a lot during these conversations, trying to get her to shift her thinking about focusing on language. I can’t say, unfortunately, that this shift ever really happens. She seems excited when I share these ideas, but they never start appearing in her lessons. She does do one more language-focused reread after the students complete a reading in small groups. This time, she only gives them one paragraph, and they only spend a few minutes on the activity. It was a positive experience, and Sarah says she can see doing those short rereads on a regular basis. This is one of the few activities she does that I think represents a sustainable model for bringing language into her teaching situation.

³⁹ Planning Conversation 4-17-2017

⁴⁰ Planning conversation 4-17-2017

The other thing we focus on during these weeks right after spring break is cause and effect language. Sarah has a number of photographs from the Great Depression. She comes to our planning session knowing that she wants to do some kind of language-focused activity with these pictures, but she isn't sure what. She was originally thinking about having them describe what they see in the photographs, but I suggest she focus on cause and effect language. What caused the people to be in the situations we see in the photographs and what language would be needed in order to express that. We land back on complex sentences using "because."

On her own, Sarah then prepares an activity where the students are walking around the room looking at different photographs. They are asked to make a sentence about each one. She gives them sentence frames. The idea for a complex sentence with "because" as a subordinating conjunction somehow got lost between our conversation and the activity, and she instead offers sentence frames that start with "Because of the depression" or "Because of the drought." She does however, demonstrate that this phrase could appear at the beginning of the sentence (i.e. – Because of the drought, people left their farms.) or at the end of the sentence (i.e. – People left their farms because of the drought.). The students were successful at naming something in the picture and using the "because of" phrase to make their sentences a bit longer and more precise in their expression of cause and effect than they otherwise would have been. Again, I felt this to be something that would be very manageable for her to do on a regular basis in her situation. The lesson was content focused. The day before she had introduced the major ideas about the Great Depression that they needed to complete this activity. The amount of time that she spent specifically on language was short, yet these language supports

helped them more clearly express their knowledge of the content and likely improved their knowledge of the content.

As we talk about continuing to focus on past tense and cause and effect language throughout the entire quarter, Sarah starts to imagine possibilities on her own.

“We’re about to start World War II. I could see doing this kind of thing, too, with that. So, *because Hitler invaded Poland*, then this happened.”⁴¹

The switch to having a predetermined language objective that she could focus on for a number of weeks was a turning point in her ability to bring some language into her sheltered history classes. Up until now, she approached a language objective as something that she identified daily or weekly by go through the texts and lessons after she had them planned. I can’t say that it was an amazing transformation or that I was satisfied with how much language she brought into the class, but she did, finally, begin to plan with teaching language in mind.

“This totally feels more doable to me,” Sarah said when we were talking about keeping the same basic language objectives for the rest of the year and just going more deeply into them. “Like, just knowing, as we’re going through fourth quarter, it will be like a continuing theme. So much easier”⁴²

In addition to the increased time spent on language, Sarah started talking to me more about what she noticed in the students’ language, especially around past tense. She was excited to see changes in their writing.

⁴¹ Planning conversation – 4-17-2017

⁴² Planning conversation – 4-17-2017

“Dahir, he really rose to the occasion. He started writing like ‘*fought* World War II’ and ‘*killed*.’ The words that he was choosing were based on the activities that we had done. I would say in the instructions, ‘Remember to use past tense’ and he was like, ‘Oh, OK. This is where I use that kind of verb.’”⁴³

Seeing the changes in their language was exciting for both of us. However, in the end, this positive focus on language only lasted for a few short weeks. Then the complexities of life and the teaching context got in the way again.

⁴³ Final Interview – 6-16-2017

XI

Hasta la Vista, Urbanville West

Sarah is quitting her job. She tells me this in early May. She's going to move to Honduras to teach English in an international school.

She's not tenured in the Urbanville district yet.

"So, you're not even going to wait until you're tenured so you can take a leave?" I ask.

"Nope. I'm just quitting. I'm rolling the dice." She shakes her hand, opens it, lets the imaginary dice fly.

She's not regretful. The job hasn't been what she thought.

"I never realized how many different directions I'd be pulled in. There's so many moving parts and moving rooms and moving people and moving students. I feel like I was mediocre at everything. I was mediocre at teaching what I needed to teach. Mediocre at building relationships with students. I just feel like I didn't have time. I did all this set up at the beginning of the year, meeting students, building relationships, getting to know each other activities. Fill out an index card. Let's set the rules. And then it was just like, ready, set, go and I never looked back."⁴⁴

In many ways, it isn't surprising that Sarah is leaving. Annual attrition rates for teachers are around 25 percent (Boe, Cook & Sunderland, 2008), and research has shown that teacher attrition is higher in urban settings where large numbers of students live in poverty (Haynes, 2014). Urbanville West certainly fits that description. However, more

⁴⁴ Final interview 6-16-17

nuanced research (DeAngelis & Presley, 2010) has shown that variation in school-level attrition is substantially greater *within* school type than *across* school type, which allows us to see attrition as more of an individual school problem than an urban or disadvantaged school problem. The culture and realities of the particular school have more to do with the teacher attrition rate than the type of school. When I think of Sarah's daily life – the running from room to room, the broken desks, the whiteboard she hauls out every morning, the EA who talks while she teaches, and, most importantly, AP for All and the way this policy affects Sarah and the other teachers – I have no trouble seeing her decision to leave as part of an individual school problem.

Once Sarah has made the decision to leave, she becomes a bit less engaged with our work together. She's wrapping things up, and at mid-quarter, the crush of everything she needs to do before she can finish is upon her again. My intention was to transition to where she was planning some language-focused activities on her own. I had hopes that she would continue to do an occasional language-focused reread with the students, focusing on our web of past tense language objectives or complex sentences expressing cause and effect relationships. She had felt that the addition of a short reread to her lessons was very manageable. But, she doesn't. She doesn't do one language-focused activity for the rest of the year.

In mid-May, I take two weeks away from Urbanville West to finish my own teaching and get my grades turned in. I return to help her with the final summative project. They will be doing a "multi-genre" project this quarter, a short essay and three "genres" all about the same topic. This is the same project that all students do, modified somewhat for the sheltered classes. There's another booklet to fill out, research pages to

complete, and more days in the computer lab. We plan together for this project, and I express concerns about the students trying to create so many different kinds of texts when they're not familiar with features of the text type.

“So you have short story as a possibility, and I am just thinking of how hard it was for them to write the historical short story. And now, they are going do that again, but with two other things on top of that?”⁴⁵

“This whole idea is we'll give them this list. Then we'll talk through what makes sense for them to do,”⁴⁶ she replies.

Her focus is on letting them decide for themselves what they will do.

“I don't want to be like ‘you guys are doing this, and you are doing this.’ I want to make sure that there is choice involved,”⁴⁷ she says.

My focus is on not asking them to complete written tasks unless she teaches them how to complete the text type.

“Are you guys thinking about what language will be in those different genres?”⁴⁸

Her response to this is, “um.”⁴⁹

We end up deciding to group the “genres” into categories, so students will pick two that have less language and only complete one project with heavy language demands.

The final choices are:

⁴⁵ Planning Conversation – 5-11-2017

⁴⁶ Planning Conversation – 5-11-2017

⁴⁷ Planning Conversation – 5-11-2017

⁴⁸ Planning Conversation – 5-11-2017

⁴⁹ Planning Conversation – 5-11-2017

<i>Genre options – choose one from each section:</i>		
<u>SECTION 1</u>	<u>SECTION 2</u>	<u>SECTION 3</u>
<i>Drawing</i>	<i>Timeline of important</i>	<i>Personal Letter</i>
<i>Painting</i>	<i>events</i>	<i>News Report/News Story</i>
<i>Collage</i>	<i>Song (write a song,</i>	<i>Picture book for Children</i>
<i>Visual Poem</i>	<i>rewrite a song or</i>	<i>Short Story</i>
<i>Comic Strip</i>	<i>lyrics)</i>	<i>Persuasive Letter or</i>
<i>Map with</i>	<i>Dialogue of a</i>	<i>Advocacy Letter</i>
<i>Map Key</i>	<i>Conversation</i>	<i>Autobiographical Essay</i>
	<i>PowerPoint/Google</i>	<i>Podcast</i>
	<i>Slide Presentation</i>	<i>Movie</i>
	<i>Facebook page</i>	
	<i>Character Profile</i>	
	<i>Fact Sheet</i>	
	<i>Website</i>	
	<i>Poem</i>	

Figure 4.13. Multi-genre project choices.

The scene is very similar to the days when we were working on the historical fiction story. Not enough scaffolding. Not enough time. Lots of copying word for word from websites. Many of their products from Section 1 are impressive and show some knowledge about the historical topic, but Section 3 is a mess. They also have to write a

short summary essay about their topic, and many of them spend so much time on the essay they don't get to their Section C genre. They are, in fact, surprised that the essay isn't the project. *You mean we have to do an essay and one of these?*

Sarah and I triage, moving from student to student, scaffolding one-on-one, and talking them through the project. We help them finish something so they can turn it in and Sarah can grade it.

We have no language objectives.

We help the students "do school."

I help Sarah finish the year so she can leave.

Sarah is not the only of my former students who didn't find teaching ESL to be what she envisioned.

"What I pictured is so different from what I'm actually experiencing, and I'm just like, 'oh man, I think I was picturing something else,'" ⁵⁰ Zamzam tells me. She is teaching in a self-contained elementary newcomer classroom. She is the classroom teacher, teaching all of the subject areas throughout the day. The district has provided her with a third grade curriculum that they expect her to use, even though many of her students have no academic skills at all and can't read. A third grade mainstream curriculum.

⁵⁰ Zamzam Interview – 1-27-2017

Zamzam feels successful during the time each day when she is just teaching language, but when she switches to teaching sheltered content, her experiences are very different.

“For science, I’m teaching them the skills that are appropriate to them, because I feel like some things aren’t just really appropriate. They haven’t gotten there yet, and I’m just like, ‘oh my god, how am I supposed to do this?’ It’s very overwhelming.”⁵¹

Despite her stress, Zamzam tries to stay positive. “Of course, I am still first year.”⁵² She hopes it will get better with time.

Emma, who co-teaches 3rd and 4th grade for most of the day, is less stressed than Zamzam or Sarah, but still she expresses discontent, especially surrounding co-teaching.

“A huge part of what I do, I’m still confused about. What is my role as an ESL teacher compared to the classroom teacher? How to navigate some of that? How does [co-teaching] actually look or function in a working life? I feel like it’s an expectation and a lot of people are doing it, but I personally haven’t witnessed anyone doing it really well.”⁵³⁵⁴

Emma has taken a go-along-to-get-along attitude, focusing on what she is told to do. What she is not told to do is identify language objectives when she teaches.

“Examples,” she says, when I ask what might help move her toward a purposeful focus on language in her teaching. “Or seriously just if anybody seemed to care. I’m

⁵¹ Zamzam Interview – 1-27-2017

⁵² Zamzam Interview – 1-27-2017

⁵³ Emma Interview – 1-22-2017

⁵⁴ Gardner (2006) described and analyzed an example of co-teaching being done well. However, she also identified the analyzed incident as a rarity for the co-teaching partnership in the study.

pretty motivated by what people expect me to do. If nobody expects me to do something, I'm honestly probably not going to take my own initiative and do it."⁵⁵ Thus, no language objectives in Emma's co-taught classes.

Camila, who pushes in to 3rd and 5th grade classes, expressed the most anger at her teaching situation. "In my classes with you, I felt like I understood what the needs of the students are and what I should be doing. But the reality, when you get into the classroom, is completely different. They will not give us the time to do the things that we want to do."⁵⁶

"I get so caught up just trying to get along with the teachers. You start bumping heads with them, because you are trying to do this, and they don't want you to do it. Or you just start going along with them and don't do what you are supposed to do."⁵⁷

"Co-teaching is what everybody wants, and they don't understand any of it. The teachers are afraid of it. They fight it. They don't want to do it, so then they resent you. So that's the struggle. We know we should be doing so much more for our students."⁵⁸

⁵⁵ Emma Interview – 1-22-2017

⁵⁶ Camila Interview – 2-4-2017

⁵⁷ Camila Interview – 2-4-2017

⁵⁸ Camila Interview – 2-4-2017

XII

The Halls of a High School

Urbanville West High School was built at about the same time that the high school I attended was built. Both share a design feature that was popular in the 1970s: The Open-Space Plan (Staples, 1971). There were few traditional classrooms in these schools. The design instead ran to large open spaces where students would work independently, move from small group to small group, and where teachers could collaborate easily, sharing students and spaces. It was a new approach to teaching that had enough impact to change the way that schools were designed and built for a number of years.

It sounded like a great idea, and certainly for some students and some teachers it likely was. But by the time I reached my high school in the 1980s, the open work spaces were gone, partitions and semi-permanent walls had been put up to turn the open spaces into traditional classrooms. Ultimately, the open space plan was too loud and too distracting for the majority of students and teachers. What was based on excellent theory and sounded wonderful, just couldn't produce the hoped for results when enacted on a large scale in the real world.

Almost the entire second floor at Urbanville West was a designated open space when it was built in 1970. In the last decades, however, walls have been constructed to create traditional classrooms. This rebuilding has resulted in narrow, illogical hallways and some classrooms that can only be accessed through other classrooms. As I walk through those maze-like hallways, I think about my high school; I think about the many educational approaches that have not, in practice, lived up to the potential of their

theoretical undergirding; and I wonder if maybe we aren't living through a grand educational experiment in ESL with all of this sheltered instruction and co-teaching.

“Remember when we stopped teaching ESL and just put the ESL teachers in the history classroom? Yeah, that didn't really work out so well,” future language educators might say.

Because there are so many days when I watch Sarah teach, and I just know that this is not working for these kids. I'm no fan of the grammatical syllabus (Wilkins, 1976) and ample research has shown that, in both theory (Grabe & Stoller, 1997) and often in practice (e.g., Alonso, Grisaleña, & Campo 2008; Howard, Christian, & Genesee, 2004; Serra, 2007), teaching language through content offers the best, most effective opportunities for language growth. Yet research also clearly shows that the language outcomes of students in CBI programs can be limited unless teachers integrate a focus on language into the content lessons (e.g., Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Fortune et al., 2008; Harley & Swain, 1984; Harley, Cummins, Swain, & Allen, 1990; Lyster, 2007; Swain, 1988). Teachers must purposefully and skillfully employ methods that are most likely to increase students' language abilities (Gibbons, 2003; Kong, 2009; Kong & Hoare, 2011) and some focus on form is necessary to help students attain high levels of proficiency (Norris & Ortega, 2000; Ellis, 2002). Balancing the focus on language and content in CBI is absolutely essential, yet the skills and knowledge needed to successfully do this are complex. Too complex, it appears, for the reality in this school.

For me, this would work. For Pauline Gibbons and Roy Lyster and other master teachers and language educators who, had they been in third grade with me, would have fought me for that Spanish Little Bear book, this would work. But, like those open-space

schools in the 1970s, this just isn't working for the majority of teachers. What should be CBI nirvana, the ultimate manifestation of the functional-notational language syllabus (Wilkins, 1976), is simply a watered down history class with no language syllabus at all. This is not content-based language instruction, yet the theoretical and practical successes of the CBI model are what is being used to justify this curricular organization.

This is happening with Sarah. It is happening in almost all of the classes I have visited for student teaching observations over the past 12 years; and it is happening, by their own admission, in the classrooms of my former students whom I interviewed.

I often think that putting Sarah into her own ESL classroom with a traditional ESL curriculum would be a vast improvement for these kids. They would at least be looking at language and talking about language and developing some metalinguistic awareness. I am not advocating for a return to mechanical grammar drills or implying that learning about language leads directly to language acquisition. We have sufficient evidence (e.g., Krashen, 1982; Wong & Van Patten, 2003) to understand that this kind of language pedagogy is not effective. We also, however, have reason to believe that learning about language can lead to noticing and that this noticing, in turn, can lead to acquisition (Schmidt, 1990). In addition, we have strong evidence that when a child is 15 or 16 years old and is at a WIDA Level 2 or 3, that child is going to need to develop a metalinguistic monitor if he or she is going to succeed in future academic settings and explicit language instruction is needed for this (Myhill, Jones, Lines, & Watson, A, 2012; Wang & Wang, 2013).

As I walk through this patched up building, I often wonder if the students who went through school when this grand sheltered/co-teaching experiment was underway

will end up with language that looks like the second floor of Urbanville West; language that is limited and haphazardly assembled. Like the teachers and students who are now coping with the challenges of those open plan schools, today's English learners will try to make the best with what they have, knowing, perhaps, that different choices by those in charge long ago could have led to far more effective linguistic futures.

XIII

Talking about Language Objectives

In my conversations with my former students, only one felt confident that he was purposefully bringing enough of an intentional focus on language to his teaching. He was teaching lower level students in a self-contained ESL classroom and had an ESL book that he liked and from which he took most of his language objectives. The other five of my former students were struggling with this. They all knew they should be doing more, but for multiple reasons, most often because they found it difficult, they weren't doing this.

Zamzam, who was teaching newcomers in a self-contained elementary classroom all day, felt confident about her focus on language during the part of each day when she was just teaching English Language Development. I asked her about the rest of the day, when she was teaching math or science, for example, if she was clearly thinking about what the content focus and what the language focus were.

“I think, Cari, sometimes it's clear. Sometimes it's not,” she said. “Sometimes I feel like I'm teaching the subjects and then I'm teaching the language of the subjects. But sometimes it feels like ‘Oh my God, I think I'm struggling here.’ ...how am I supposed to...? I feel like it was a lot more clear when we were in school.”⁵⁹

For Anna, who came to ESL after twenty years in the elementary classroom, not identifying language objectives was a source of a certain amount of guilt, but she had decided that this was too much for her at the beginning of her ESL career.

⁵⁹ Zamzam interview – 1-27-2017

“How do you decide what the language focus will be?” I asked her. “Are you thinking in terms of a content and a language objective?”⁶⁰

“I am thinking about that but not doing that,”⁶¹ she replied. “That is my end game.”⁶²

She described trying to teach with few or no resources, googling constantly for ideas. In the end, she approached her ESL teaching like she had taught elementary school. Guided reading, writer’s workshop. She mentioned using handouts from her second grade classroom to help students create paragraphs. She also cited a lack of planning time as a reason for a lack of language focus. Not enough planning time is key, because she feels she just isn’t naturally talented at, or fast at, pulling language out of the content.

“It takes me a while,” she said. “I can’t do things like that, you know, I don’t think like that.”⁶³

Emma also talked about experiencing the formation of language objectives as skill that wasn’t fully developed in herself yet.

“I think I’m so-so at it,” she said. “I definitely don’t think I’m good at it, but I don’t think I’m bad either. I think it’s something that if I practice more, I will get better at. But I definitely think I’m so-so.”⁶⁴

⁶⁰ Anna Interview – 2-1-2017

⁶¹ Anna Interview – 2-1-2017

⁶² Anna Interview – 2-1-2017

⁶³ Anna Interview – 2-1-2017

⁶⁴ Emma Interview – 1-22-2017

Emma, as I mentioned before, found that no one expected her to have clearly conceived language and content goals, so her expressed need to practice more to become good at setting language objectives, is unlikely to occur. The first year she was teaching, she was given a mentor teacher by the district, but that teacher was not an ESL teacher. The second year, the year I interviewed her, her mentor teacher was an ESL teacher. However, that seemed to make no difference when it came to conversations around language objectives.

“This year you had an ESL person as a mentor?” I clarified with Emma. “But that still wasn’t something she’d discuss with you?”

“No. Never at any point did we discuss language objectives.”⁶⁵

Emma talked about how there were so many issues with classroom management when she began teaching that this was the only thing she and her mentor really had time to discuss.

The conversation with Camila surrounding language objectives echoed these same themes. She sees them as important, but she lacks confidence in this skill.

“I don’t. I don’t make language objectives, and there’s a couple of reasons for that,” she told me. “Number one, I think that that’s an area in which I am lacking. I am not as comfortable planning those.”⁶⁶

She went on to describe how the teaching context and the realities of her job do not create an environment where she would practice and eventually become more confident and proficient at planning language objectives.

⁶⁵ Emma Interview – 1-22-2017

⁶⁶ Camila Interview – 2-4-2017

“Whenever I have approached the third grade teacher who is the person that is most willing to work with me, she is extremely uncomfortable with that. Teachers are extremely uncomfortable.”⁶⁷

Like Anna and like Sarah, Camila also found that a lack of time kept her from focusing on language the way that she knew she should.

“I think if I had more time, I think it would be easier to do it. I think there is usually such a rush to turn in the lesson plans that I don’t do it. And I am going from class to class. So, there isn’t a lot of time for me to prep. I get their plans Monday morning. I have to turn mine right in the same day, and then I have to get into the classroom. Because we don’t have a lot of common prep time, we are not really planning for how we are getting to the language.”⁶⁸

Like Anna, Camila expressed a certain amount of guilt.

“I do think that, although I am not very good at it, I understand how important it is to be thinking about the content objective and the language objective. I am just not very good at it. And because there is so much resistance [from the teachers] ... I know that’s not right, but that’s how it is. It is bad.”⁶⁹

When I try to conceive of how my former students experience teaching ESL and their attempts to identify specific language objectives, I see the role of their past experiences in their teacher education program primarily as something that makes them feel guilty. Something that tells them they should be doing more. But the realities of their

⁶⁷ Camila Interview – 2-4-2017

⁶⁸ Camila Interview – 2-4-2017

⁶⁹ Camila Interview – 2-4-2017

present situations overpower these influences from the past. This is how Sarah experienced language teaching in her sheltered history classes. This is how most of my former students experience teaching ESL.

I helped set ideas in their minds for what they should be doing, but I wasn't able to give them the skills to do it in the contexts they encountered in "the real world." Instead, they found themselves in schools where the teaching of language was not important. This happened sometimes overtly and almost hostilely with mainstream co-teachers. Often, however, it was the lack of concern coming from mentor teachers, lead teachers, or other district personnel that engendered this language-is-not-important aura at the school. Gallagher and Leahy (2014) found a similar attitude toward language in some of their research sites and conceptualized an interesting dichotomy to describe schools where immersion instruction was occurring. They compared five Irish immersion schools and five English-medium schools where language minority students were learning English in mainstream classes. Although acknowledging that the mainstreaming of ESL students is generally not considered "immersion," the authors argued for the conceptualization of the Irish immersion setting as "immersion by design" and the English-medium setting as "immersion by default" and examined the differing attitudes toward language held by teachers in both schools. They found an enormous difference in the way that language and learning are viewed by teachers in the two types of schools. Teachers in the Irish immersion schools spoke positively of their students' developing bilingualism and saw multiple benefits to being multilingual. They "celebrated the linguistic resources" (p. 63) of their students. These teachers saw the school as a place where language learning should occur. They never saw learning Irish as something that

would negatively impact the students' English skills. In the English-medium school, where "immersion by default" was occurring, the teachers also spoke positively about the students who were learning English. However, these positive attitudes focused on the cultural benefits that they saw these students bringing to the schools. They celebrated the diversity and the multicultural contributions of these students and worked hard to create a welcoming, tolerant environment in the school. Language, however, was not something that most teachers spoke of. The teachers in the "immersion by default" school didn't see affirming the linguistic identities of their ESL learners as important. In fact, many were only vaguely aware of what the students' L1 was. They viewed bilingualism as a disadvantage.

Urbanville West High School felt very much like an "immersion by default" school. The cultural diversity of the students was celebrated and the linguistic diversity of the students was ignored. That this occurred even with the teachers and district personnel who were assigned to teach language, however, is remarkable. The teaching of language itself seems to have been marginalized or even forgotten at the school, and based on my interviews, this was not unique to Sarah's school.

XIV

Toward the Conceptualization of a Language Curriculum

During a planning session in the beginning of May, after we have spent about three weeks focusing on the simple past tense and cause and effect language using *because*, Sarah tells me how much easier it has been to bring more language into her teaching when the language objectives, or at least the language areas for her to focus on, have been predetermined. She gets excited, imagining how this might work over an entire school year.

“Ideally, we would we start the year off like this. There could be a monthly or quarterly language focus. Things that you’re going to focus on. Like, do the subject matter, but you’re also going to talk about capital letters and periods or past tense. Yes, a theme of the month or a theme of the quarter or something as far as language goals.”⁷⁰

“And that feels like it would be manageable to you?”⁷¹ I ask

“Yeah it does,” she says enthusiastically. “When I started I was finding the learning targets and then I was picking out like a language target and being very specific about one thing. Having to do that over and over was too much. Especially when I was thinking, but I have to make sure I’m getting to this content!”⁷²

We imagine a web of related language objectives for her class, this quarter’s web might look something like Figure 4.14, with the circles that are farther from the center as “challenge” items for students who master the other items and need some differentiation.

⁷⁰ Planning Conversation, 5-2-2017

⁷¹ Planning Conversation, 5-2-2017

⁷² Planning Conversation, 5-2-2017

Sarah can see using several of these webs that fit with history over the course of the year. She talks about mini-lessons and a handout that would focus on each area. The idea that she would think about the language objective as she was planning her lesson rather than after she was done planning it as an additional task, feels like a relief to her. She conceives of it as an umbrella.

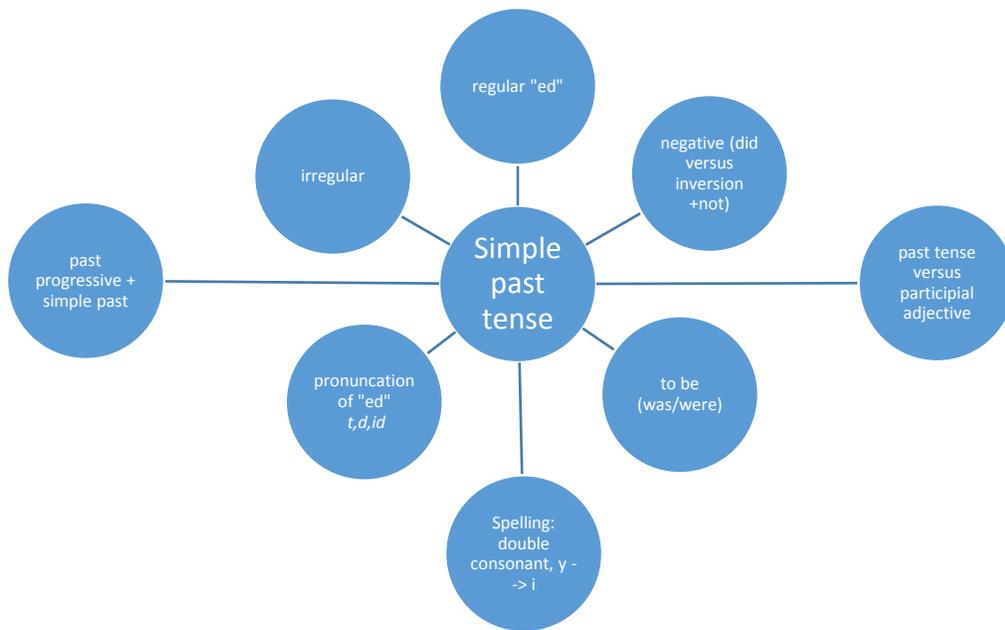


Figure 4.14. Web of language objective topics

“Like, the umbrella to hang your ideas off of. That’s how I picture it. Here’s the overarching thing, but from that you can also teach this. It’s like a mobile and you’ve got pieces hanging off of it. If they’re getting this, then you can also focus on this.”⁷³

She talks about how she would begin the year, focusing on complete sentences with subject, verb, capital letter and period. It is the most creative thinking that she does about language teaching in the four months we spend together.

It’s interesting to examine Sarah’s reaction to the idea of teaching with a few predetermined language foci in light of Bigelow and Ranney’s (2005) findings surrounding how their student teachers were able to conceptualize language objectives and plan for language-focused instruction. Bigelow and Ranney described two paths that teachers take to planning for language instruction. In the first, the language form is the curricular starting point, and teachers create lessons that address that form in context. The second path has teachers beginning with the content materials and trying to identify the focal language forms in those materials. Bigelow and Ranney found that the first path, the one that started with the linguistic form, was easier for their research participants and produced the creation of more effective language-focused lessons.

Bigelow and Ranney (2005), however, concluded that teachers need to be able to follow both of these paths and made suggestions for how to help students learn to identify language in content materials. Like Bigelow and Ranney, I have spent a great deal of time in my courses trying to help my teacher candidates develop skill at pulling language out of content materials. But my students struggle to do this and, despite conscious effort

⁷³ Planning Conversation, 5-2-2017

and repeated adjustments in my curriculum, I clearly have not been able to effectively facilitate the development of this skill in them. What if, at least in teaching situations like Sarah's, there was a recognition that asking the teacher to identify the language in the content was likely going to be too much. What if the language objectives were broken down and given to the teacher, so she could start her planning with them in mind, rather than feeling the daily pressure of needing to identify a language objective in the content and then the daily guilt at not having been successful in doing this? What if we did for ESL teachers what we do for most other teachers: tell them what we expect them to teach?

Viewed in this way, when we ask ESL teachers to consider the content standards and materials for a course and then, on their own, decide what language they will teach, we are asking them to do something that we rarely ask other teachers to do: Create a curriculum completely on their own. Most teachers are given district or school-designed curriculum and materials to base their lesson plans on. They take these high-level plans, plans that curriculum writing teams have often been paid to develop during the summer, and from there break the content down into daily lessons.

At Urbanville West, there is no ESL Curriculum. There is no language syllabus for any of the sheltered or co-taught classes. The content area, however, has an established curriculum that teachers are told to follow. Is it any wonder, then, that addressing content is seen as more important than addressing language?

Davison and Williams (2001) and later Davison (2006) discussed this problem, identifying a gap in curriculum planning for ESL at the level of curriculum or syllabus design. This lack of focus on the language syllabus was also a concern mentioned by

Dalton-Puffer (2007), who examined CLIL contexts. Similarly, Creese (2005a) asserted that a lack of a language syllabus in co-taught classes is a reason that language instruction finds itself “on the periphery of school and classroom learning agendas” (p. 202).

Maybe a number of webs like the one Sarah and I created could be a tool to help ESL teachers construct a language syllabus in co-taught and sheltered courses.

In June, the day after school gets out, I am sitting on the patio of a restaurant overlooking the Mississippi River with Sarah, Mr. Williams, Mr. Blomberg and three other teachers from Urbanville West. They are enjoying fancy drinks adorned with umbrellas and fruit and getting a ride home from Uber. We talk about the challenges of teaching at Urbanville West. Everyone has something to tell me about AP for All.

“Like my first hour!” Mr. Blomberg, the other ESL teacher says. He has just completed his first year of teaching. “I mean, it’s all ELs in there except three White kids. And I’m supposed to be getting them ready for the AP Language and Composition Test? All ELs except three? It was crazy!”

Mr. Blomberg asks me about my study and what I found during my time at Urbanville West. We talk about language objectives and about the idea of having a web of related objectives that a teacher could focus on during content teaching throughout a month or an entire quarter.

“Oh my God,” he says, relief pouring out of him. He has had enough to drink that his face is open, and he is less guarded than he has been the other times I’ve spoken with him. “That would be so much easier. I mean, I was taught you have to have a language objective every day. And then I got here and I’m like, no way. I couldn’t do it. If you just

had a couple of things that you were working on for the whole quarter. That would be so much better. So. Much. Easier.”

Two weeks after I share drinks on the patio with the teachers from Urbanville West and talk about making language objective webs for different sheltered content, I spend a day with two students. One is a former student who has become a friend. The other is a student teacher, teaching in summer school.

My friend and I talk about language objectives over coffee. She is always telling me that the way I can just see them in content is so rare and that this is so hard for everyone else.

“What would really help would be if you could just make a list of ten language objectives to focus on for Level 1 and ten things to focus on for Level 2 and ten things for Level 3 and ten things for Level 4. That would be 40 things! That’s what we need. We just need someone like you to tell us, here are things that would be good language objectives at that level.”

I’m thinking about the web I created with Sarah. I don’t know if I can list ten things at each level, but maybe webs like this for different content areas would give her what she needs.

When I’m done having coffee with this friend, I go to watch my student teacher. Rachel is a dream student teacher, a current art teacher who imbues a social justice perspective into all of her art teaching, she is adding an ESL license. Her husband is from Mexico. Her sister-in-law is a long-term English learner who is struggling in high school

and Rachel has been heavily engaged in trying to help her. She is completely and enthusiastically dedicated to becoming the best ESL teacher she can be.

It is a fourth grade science class with mostly English learners. Their curriculum focuses on the characteristics of living things and the great variation among living things. Today Rachel is teaching about characteristics – what they are. What the word means.

It is a fabulous lesson on so many levels being enacted by a practiced teacher. There are visuals to guide the students and a high level of student engagement is required from the activities. She has just the right balance of friendly and fun and firm all wrapped up in one calming presence.

But.

The language.

She has put a sentence frame on the smart board

A characteristic of a dog is _____.

Then she has a picture of a cute dog running toward the camera with a stick in its mouth. She asks the students to look at the picture and tell her characteristics of the dog. And they create sentences together like: A characteristic of a dog is, it is cute. A characteristic of a dog is, it likes to play catch. A characteristic of a dog is, it is brown and white. They each write a characteristic of the dog on a post it. Then she switches to another smart board slide and there is a T chart with “physical characteristics” on one side and “personality characteristics” on the other. They stick their notes on the side of the T chart that fits. Things like “big eyes” and “brown spots” under the physical and “friendly” and “likes to play” under personality.

But, of course, when we say “a dog” in science, what we really mean is *all* dogs. A dog has four legs. A dog is covered with fur. A dog can be trained, but a cat can’t be trained. A Chihuahua is small. A Saint Bernard is big. Rachel has the students describing one specific dog, not all dogs, and is using “a dog” to talk about it. I start thinking about language like *all* dogs and *some* dogs and *most* dogs and using “a dog” in science versus “a dog” in a sentence like “I see a dog.” Another language objective has reached out of the content and slapped me across the face.

The problem is, I don’t think this would have ever made a language objective web or a language objective list. There is just too much language, and this is a language objective that needed to be pulled from the content by a language teacher who had enough language sensitivity to notice it.

I think back to the summer before, to Halima’s guided reading and the participial adjectives in the story that I noticed and she didn’t. That objective, too, could never have been taken from a predetermined group of language objectives. It needed to be pulled from the text of that book by the ESL teacher.

Bigelow and Ranney (2005) were certainly right. ESL teachers need to be able to start their planning with both the language form and with the content materials.

Rachel and I conference afterwards. We have an enthusiastic conversation of the many, many positive features of her lesson. Then we get to the language objective.

“My language objective was really just vocabulary today. Helping them understand characteristic.”

I share my observations and ideas about “a dog” and how it is used academically versus what she was doing.

“Wow. That is so smart. Of course. Of course that’s what I should have done. But I don’t think I would have ever seen that on my own.”

I feel on this day, two weeks after I have finished collecting data for this study, that I have simply come full circle. In so many ways, I’m right back where I started, with a student teacher who, despite enthusiastic engagement with all of her coursework, still couldn’t see the language that needed to be taught. A predetermined language syllabus would certainly help, but it could never be enough. Teachers need to attend to the language around them, consciously watching for the language that needs to be taught.

I understand so much more now, more about the complexity of the teaching context, more about how difficult this is for teachers, and more about the guilt they often feel for not being able to teach the way they think they should. Ultimately, I just feel that something is fundamentally broken.

Rachel will have three visits from me this summer. But she’ll see her cooperating teacher every day. Her cooperating teacher, however, isn’t bringing a clear language focus to her lessons. Her cooperating teacher likely experienced the same challenges as Sarah and Anna and Camila and Zamzam and Emma when she began teaching and is now simply teaching the best way that she can: simplifying and managing language so the content can be understood.

In the end, Rachel’s cooperating teacher and the other teachers with whom Rachel teaches will have far more of an influence on how she teaches than I ever will. The complexity of the teaching context and the enormous challenge of teaching both language and content will be difficult for her, and there will be no one in her school to socialize her into the kind of teaching that her students will need.

The realities of her present situation will overcome the ideas of the past.

But maybe, from this study, new experiences for my future students will emerge:
experiences that will make more sense when they begin their teaching careers.
Experiences that will impact their understanding of teaching language and, in the end,
improve the future for their K-12 students.

Chapter Five: Discussion

In Chapter Four, I presented, through a storied analysis, the major themes identified during the analysis of the data collected during this study. In this chapter, I move into a discussion of the theoretical and practical implications of these data. To begin, I would like to return to the research questions, using them to ground this discussion before moving into an exploration of potential new theoretical and practical knowledge.

The study focused on these questions:

1.) How do several new teachers from one teacher education program describe their understanding of and ability to apply evidence-based practices surrounding the conceptualization of language objectives and the integration of language and content in ESL lessons?

2.) How does one early career ESL teacher apply the learning from her teacher education program surrounding the conceptualization of language objectives and the inclusion of language-focused learning activities in her teaching practice?

3.) What factors support or prevent the application of this learning in her K–12 setting?

The analysis presented in Chapter Four demonstrated the great extent to which the teachers who served as research subjects for this study, especially teachers working in co-taught or sheltered settings, struggled to choose a language focus for their lessons, conceptualize language objectives, integrate language and content, and apply the evidence-based practices they encountered in their preservice program to their teaching.

Chapter Four also attempted to depict the complexity of the problem by making salient the numerous barriers these teachers face. I turn first to a review and discussion of the barriers which were narratively represented in Chapter Four, as much of the theorizing that follows is grounded on these findings.

Barriers to Language-Focused Teaching

The barriers described by the teachers during interviews and observed in Sarah's school can be organized into three main categories: 1.) Barriers arising from the teaching schedule and workload; 2.) Barriers related to the beliefs of school and district personnel; and 3.) Barriers related to the beliefs and identity of the ESL teachers themselves surrounding language focused instruction. I will explore each of these in depth.

Barriers arising from the teaching schedule and workload. The first kind of barrier is the least complex to cognize but was perhaps the most significant barrier source identified. Barriers arise because teachers do not have the time they need to complete the planning that is required to integrate language and content into a content-based lesson.

These barriers include:

- A lack of dedicated planning time – both solo prep time and also common planning time with their co-teachers.
- The large number of different “preps” included in a single teacher's work day.
- The enormous duties and pressures placed on teachers outside of teaching.

I cannot overstate the impact that these factors had on the teacher I observed and the teachers I interviewed. I come to the end of this study with the impression that many of

these teachers are, quite simply, overwhelmed. While many early career teachers feel overwhelmed by the demands of the job (Meister & Melnick, 2003), we must keep in mind that preparing for content-based instruction requires more planning and a focus on a larger range of variables than does preparing for content instruction or for language instruction alone. Teachers must plan for language, for content, and for the integration of both, endeavors that take time.

When the teachers in this study found that they did not have the time for adequate planning, as they usually did, the default was to plan for content and let language go. This finding is consistent with what others have seen in CBI (e.g., Cammarata, Tedick, & Osborn, 2016). While the teachers often planned for content instruction in a way that supported their students in accessing the content by reducing the language demands of the lessons, through use of visual support, graphic organizers, or modified readings, for example, these teachers rarely or never purposefully planned a language focus. When there is a lack of planning time, a focus on language is what is sacrificed.

These barriers centered on workload and scheduling issues resulted directly from the teaching context. The second category of barriers I identified also grew out of the teaching context, but in a very different way.

Barriers relating to the beliefs and dispositions of colleagues. Barriers to language-focused teaching and the purposeful planning of language objectives for lessons also arose out of the beliefs and dispositions of the district-level personnel and teachers with whom the ESL teachers I interviewed and observed work. Many of these barriers were also identified by Creese (2002, 2005a) and Arkoudis (2006) and include:

- unwillingness or disinterest of mainstream teachers to allow language-focused practices into co-taught classes;
- lack of communication by supervisors and district personnel – including ESL personnel – that planning for language-focused instruction is an important part of the ESL teacher’s job, or a part of an ESL teacher’s job at all;
- lack of professional development for ESL teachers in this area;
- lack of modified or ESL specific materials to support planning in sheltered classes; and
- a belief by nearly all teachers, often including the ESL teachers themselves, that the content goals supersede language goals.

These contextual barriers manifested in a lack of guidance for new teachers from schools or districts surrounding language objectives as well as in a lack of materials to help teachers identify a language focus and teach that language. All of the teachers that I encountered in this study who were teaching grade-level content were doing so with materials created for native speakers. Not only was Sarah forced to modify the materials on her own, which took a great deal of her time, but she did not benefit from guidance on language objectives that would have come with models created by educational linguists and included in sheltered content materials.

In summary, the contexts in which the new ESL teachers in this study found themselves employed created an environment that worked against any attempts or desires they might have had to apply their preservice learning surrounding language-focused

instruction. The learning that they completed with me was not enough to overcome time constraints, lack of materials, lack of professional development, and school and district-wide attitudes that hindered the kind of evidence-based, language-focused instruction they encountered in their preservice coursework. This study is in no way the first to find that the teaching context had a major impact on the instruction that was actually enacted by language teachers. Andrews (2007) used Benner, Tanner, and Chelsa's (1996) notion of "situated possibilities" to discuss how teaching contexts limit teachers' success in accessing and applying their Teacher Language Awareness (TLA) during instruction. Tsui (2003) also found a strong association between the differences in the cultures of the particular institutions where L2 teachers are working and the way that those teachers are teaching. In a study that examined tensions between teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching and their actual grammar teaching practices, Phipps and Borg (2009) found that many contextual factors, such as student expectations and classroom management concerns, influenced teachers to teach in ways that were contrary to their stated beliefs about how they should be teaching. In another study that examined the connections between teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching and their actual classroom practice, Sanchez and Borg (2014) also concluded that teachers' decisions surrounding grammar teaching are "profoundly impacted" by contextual factors. The findings of the present study add to this established work and give additional insight into how these contextual barriers have been experienced by teachers in K–12 co-taught or sheltered ESL settings in the United States

The beliefs and identity of the ESL teachers themselves. A final barrier category I witnessed arose from cognitions of the study participants themselves. These barriers included:

- teachers' lack of confidence in their ability to identify a language focus in content materials and create language objectives;
- the misconception by the ESL teachers that a focus on language must be a major instructional activity, requiring a great deal of class time to complete; and
- the belief by the study participants that teaching content is more important than teaching language, often because it is how the duties of their jobs have been described to them.

It is easy to see how these issues internal to the teachers themselves combined to create the final obstacles to the enactment of language-focused instruction. When already overwhelmed by the time demands of the job and when receiving messages from colleagues that language is not important, a teacher's sense that he or she is not good at this particular aspect of planning may well be the final reason the teacher gives up trying to plan language objectives. As demonstrated in Chapter Four, most of the study participants believed they are either bad at, or at least not good at, conceptualizing language objectives, especially in content-based settings. Again, this is a finding consistent with other work (Song, 2016). In contexts where they are asked to do more than they have time to do, something has to go. It is logical that they would let go of that which they feel they are not good at, especially if they are not receiving the message

from others in their professional setting that it is important that they continue to develop skill in this area.

These numerous barriers all worked together to create my sense, as I expressed in Chapter Four, that something, quite simply, is broken in the development of ESL teachers right now. It was out of this sense of brokenness that the two major theoretical implications of this study grew.

A Broken System of ESL Teacher Development.

My interviews with my former students and my work with Sarah indicated that while they had all come out of their licensure program understanding *the need* to focus on specific language objectives in the course of content instruction, they did not come out of their program with an adequate knowledge of *how* this could be done. Bruner's (1987) conception of two distinct modes of thought (the logio-scientific mode and the narrative mode), one of the theoretical frames of this study explored in Chapter Two, can provide a useful theoretical basis for understanding how this disconnect might occur. Bruner's theory stressed that the logio-scientific mode seeks explanations that allow humans to assign items and experiences into groups or categories. Conceptions in this mode are context free, focusing on the qualities of the phenomenon itself, unrelated to context. The narrative mode, however, is heavily context dependent, connecting actions together in a temporal frame. These two modes work together, but each are used for different purposes.

Upon a deep review of the materials and activities that my students experienced in their coursework with me, I suspect that too much of the learning that we did together developed their logio-scientific mode of knowledge rather than their narrative mode of

knowledge. Stated more simply, at the end of their preservice licensure program, my students lacked adequate *experiences* with the enactment of language-focused pedagogy to allow them to develop the narrative knowledge that they could draw from in the contexts in which they found themselves teaching.

For me, the most interesting part of this finding isn't that examples of good teaching are necessary. It is the finding that the amount of examples that preservice teachers must be exposed to if they are to develop skill in this area is enormous – far greater than I had thought. Using examples is a mainstay of the methodology I use in my teaching. The teachers in this study all participated in classes in which I assumed the role of ESL teacher and placed them in the role of English Learner and enacted a number of sample lessons which were centered on clear language objectives and demonstrated effective language-focused teaching. I knew that examples were important, but I misjudged the amount of learning they could do from the limited number of examples I exposed them to. Their narrative understanding of how to teach was not developed well enough in their coursework and they were not able to access the logio-scientific knowledge that they developed in their preservice classes once they entered real teaching contexts.

We know that teachers often teach as they were taught. Lortie (1974) called this the “apprenticeship of observation,” which Borg (2004) described as “default options” or “a set of tried and tested strategies which they can revert to in times of indecision or uncertainty” (p. 274). It is interesting to contemplate Lortie’s theory while considering Bruner’s conceptualization of narrative knowing. Indeed, the entire set of “default options” that teachers acquired as part of their apprenticeship of observation were learned

through experience and are stored as narrative knowledge. ESL teachers who are asked to teach language in content-based settings are not likely to have personal experiences in classrooms where this kind of teaching occurred. This is likely one factor that influences their tendency to revert to content instruction rather than pushing themselves toward the integration of language and content. They have years of experience as a student with content instruction and no experience as a student with sheltered language instruction. We must remember that we are asking them to use teaching methods that are completely foreign to their conceptions of teaching and learning as they experienced it as students. We must create numerous opportunities for them to experience successful, contextualized language-focused teaching.

Sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1986, 1997), especially the well-known concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), also offers us a frame to help identify the ways in which the development cycle for language teachers is broken. Ideally, preservice teachers would, in their coursework, become prepared to plan lessons with scaffolding. Planning and teaching language-focused lessons would move from being something that they cannot do prior to beginning their program to something that they can do with assistance during this time. As they witness effective language-focused teaching in their practica and student teaching placements and as they work intensely with an experienced cooperating teacher during their student teaching, they would receive the final scaffolding they need to move their ability to identify language objectives and plan and teach language-focused classes from something that they can do with assistance to something that they can do unaided (Figure 5.1). It is also reasonable to expect that some additional

scaffolding might still be needed as they enter their first places of employment and are mentored by the teachers there.

Of course, this is not what is happening. Not only are preservice ESL teachers entering schools and witnessing instruction that fails to scaffold effective language-focused teaching, they are also entering schools and witnessing the teaching and the beliefs of their colleagues that actually dissuade them of the importance of learning to apply the concepts they encountered in their preservice courses. This social process of developing ESL teachers, which should start with the preservice program and end in K–12 schools, is broken.

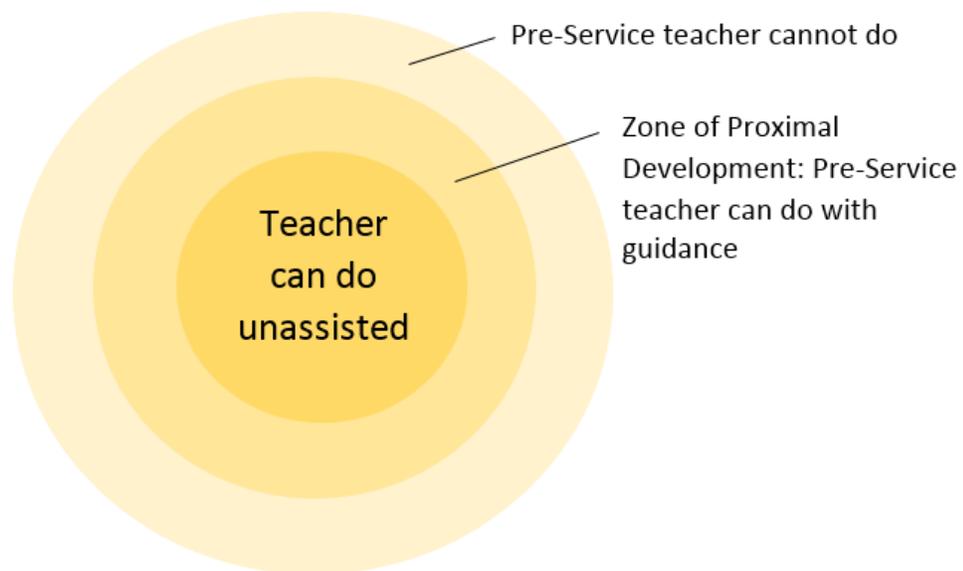


Figure 5.1: Zone of Proximal Development applied to CBI teacher development.

The ways in which witnessing and experiencing effective language-focused teaching contribute to a future teacher's ability are myriad and not always easily identified. Batstone (2007) offered one analysis of a language-focused lesson that

demonstrated this. In his analysis of a lesson in which a teacher and her students successfully switched between a focus on meaning and a focus on form, Batstone identified discourse “frames” (p. 92) that the teacher and students used to shift the emphasis of the lesson from meaning to form, or, to “a stage in which linguistic precision and matters of negotiation of forms are seen as appropriate” (p. 96). Batstone argued that facility with these discourse frames was a necessary precursor for successfully steering a lesson between using language as the medium of communication and analyzing that language. When applied to Lyster’s (2007) work on counterbalanced instruction in CBI, Batstone’s conclusions imply that in order for a teacher to successfully practice counterbalanced instruction, she must have in her linguistic arsenal discourse patterns that allow the focus of instruction to shift between content and language.

Batstone’s (2007) work identifies one aspect of knowledge that teachers need and would likely acquire implicitly in a classroom where effective teaching strategies are being modeled: the linguistic patterns to use during instruction to allow shifts between language focus and content focus to occur. In Chapter Four, I represented the experience I had working with Sarah, in which she began to copy my ways of speaking with students about language. This occurrence in the data, when considered in light of Batstone’s work, emphasizes the necessity of exposing preservice teachers to lessons and classroom situations in which teachers are successfully shifting their focus between content and language. They need to experience successful lessons in order to form internal representations of how such lessons could be constructed. Batstone’s work reminds us that the enactment of successful language-focused pedagogy also occurs on a linguistic level, and learning these sociolinguistic patterns is best done when teachers witness this

kind of teaching and internalize the linguistic tools being used to carry it out. It is only from seeing, hearing, and – most important to the theoretical frame of this study – experiencing the evidence-based practices in action that they will be able to develop the skills needed to move theory into practice in their own classrooms.

The data gathered during this study clearly show that this is not happening for the teacher participants. This is likely because the cooperating teachers, mentor teachers, and lead teachers were also not exposed to enough examples of this kind of teaching and therefore are not able to pass on this learning. The preservice instruction the research participants received from me was not adequate to overcome this broken cycle. Ultimately, I likely prepared them well to learn from experiencing language-focused instruction when they encountered it in a school setting. However, as they never encountered it, they were never able to attend to and assimilate the skills they needed to enact this kind of teaching. The teaching that I did was not, despite my best intentions, enough to overcome the broken cycle that currently exists in their schools.

The practical implications of this finding are clear. Preservice teachers need to be exposed to far more examples of effective language-focused content-based instruction before being asked to teach in CBI settings; and, because it appears that this kind of teaching is not occurring on a regular basis in ESL classrooms, teacher education programs need to find ways to produce this exposure that do not rely solely on the practica or on student teaching experiences. Preservice teachers need to enact successful experiences with content-based instruction so they can develop narrative knowledge about how to teach it.

The barriers discussed here are enormous and the broken cycle of social learning is discouraging. Nevertheless, with deep enhancement of teacher preparation, it might be possible to bring changes to CBI classrooms. However, my data also led me to a second major theoretical conclusion which I believe is also vital to the successful enactment of language-focused teaching. This conclusion is more concerned with the internal cognitions of the individual teacher than on the social processes through which teachers gain experience enacting curriculum.

Language Alertness

Even if Sarah had been exposed to more examples of language-focused teaching, I believe that she would continue to struggle to identify language objectives unless she also developed new habits to use when thinking about her content materials and teaching activities. Similar ideas about this kind of thinking have been touched on or partially named by multiple theorists. Bigelow and Ranney (2010) described a “spirit of inquiry” (p. 217) surrounding language that they believe teachers must develop and posited that this spirit of inquiry “is more important than the impossible task of learning all of the “rules” of the language” (p. 217). Tarone (2009) discussed her wish to develop teachers who were “language explorers” (p. 8), noting that “the language teacher learner must develop the ability to use facts about language for language analysis and then do something with the analysis that will help language learners” (p. 9). Andrews (2007) designated a teacher’s “sensitivity to language” (Kindle loc 581) as an important component of Teacher Language Awareness (TLA). In identifying aspects of his model of content and language knowledge for teaching (CLKT), Morton (2016) named the ability to “unpack” (p. 151) how content ideas are expressed linguistically as well as the

ability to “see language” (p. 151) in teaching materials as important. Andrews and McNeil (2005) described “language-aware behavior” (p. 174) and named its qualities as:

willingness and ability to engage with language-related issues; self-awareness (with particular reference to awareness of the extent of their own subject matter knowledge) accompanied by a desire for continuing self-improvement of their teacher language awareness; willingness and ability to reflect on language-related issues; awareness of their own key role in mediating input for learning; awareness of learners’ potential difficulties; and a love of language. (p.174)

All of these ideas seem related to me, as they begin to conceptualize something that must be present in addition to a knowledge base about language. These concepts come close to naming what I felt was a significant difference between my thought processes in the classroom and Sarah’s thought processes, yet none of these ideas fully encapsulated my experiences. While I certainly have a greater knowledge about language (KAL) than Sarah and likely a greater natural sensitivity toward language than she does, the difference between my thinking and her thinking in the classroom didn’t seem to be as much about knowledge, ability, or willingness, as it seemed to be about paying attention. About alertness. I was constantly scanning the teaching materials, the oral language in the classroom, and any language written by students, actively looking for opportunities to teach language, to point out language, or to clarify misunderstandings that arose from language. When I worked one-on-one with a student surrounding a learner task, I would focus first on the content meanings, but would often point out an error in something written, prompting students to correct it or challenging them to use a more appropriate or complex form. Sarah rarely moved her interactions with students from content to

language. She seemed only to be actively looking for language to teach when we were engaged consciously in our planning time or when she was leading a “language teaching activity.” She did a certain amount of this while the students were working on their historical fiction stories, but only about the past tense, the form we had decided on as our language target. Beyond those days in the computer lab, she rarely switched from a focus on meaning to a focus on language. On the few occasions when she did and in our conversation about language, it became clear to me that she had a well-developed KAL, she just hadn’t developed the mental habit of attending to language during content instruction and accessing her KAL.

To me, language alertness is a “habit of mind” in which a content-based language teacher constantly shifts between thinking about content and thinking about language. It is a purposeful action by the teacher, not merely knowledge about, awareness of, or sensitivity to language. I would like to propose that it would be helpful to see this as a construct that is separate from, rather than a subset of TLA. Indeed, it is possibly this habit of mind which provides teachers access to their KAL during instruction. Conceptualizing language alertness as different from language awareness helps explain why teachers who have the greatest explicit knowledge of language are not always those teachers who access it most during instruction.

Models of Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) (Shulman, 1986) are often represented with a Venn diagram. In such models, areas of overlap between content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge are highlighted and labeled as PCK (figure 5.2).

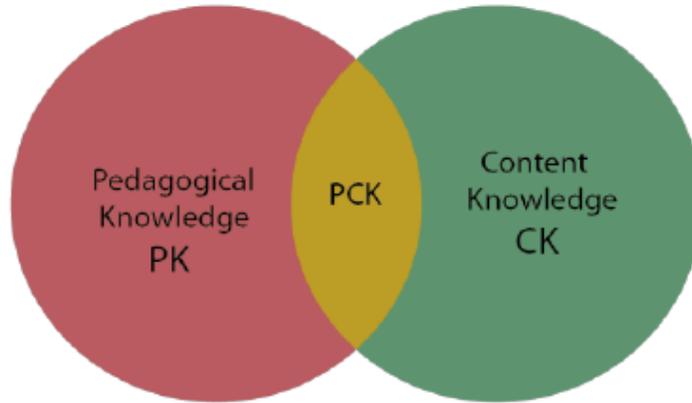


Figure 5.2: Common Visual Representation of PCK

URL https://www.researchgate.net/figure/256454801_fig1_Figure-1-Pedagogical-Content-Knowledge-PCK

Many models add different areas of knowledge to the Venn diagram, such as the conception Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (Mishra & Koehler, 2006)

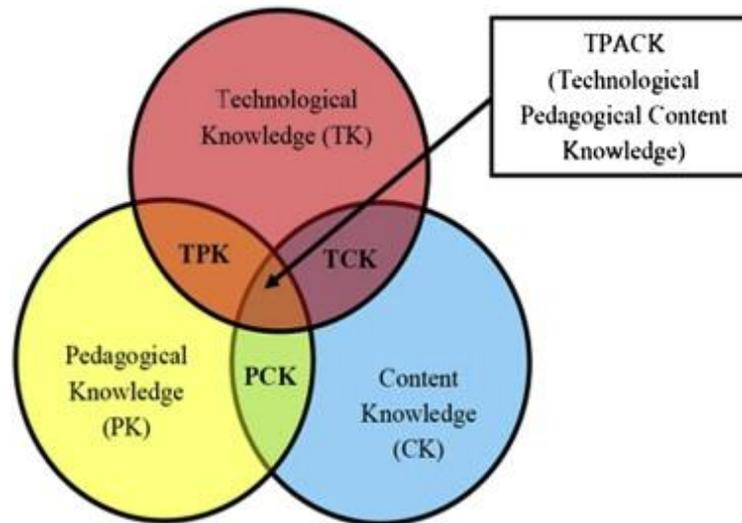


Figure 5.3: Mishra and Koehler's (2006) conceptualization of TPACK

(Figure 5.3) or Cochran, DeRuiter, and King's (1993) model of Pedagogical Content Knowing (Figure 5.4), which I described in Chapter Three and have used as a theoretical frame for this study.

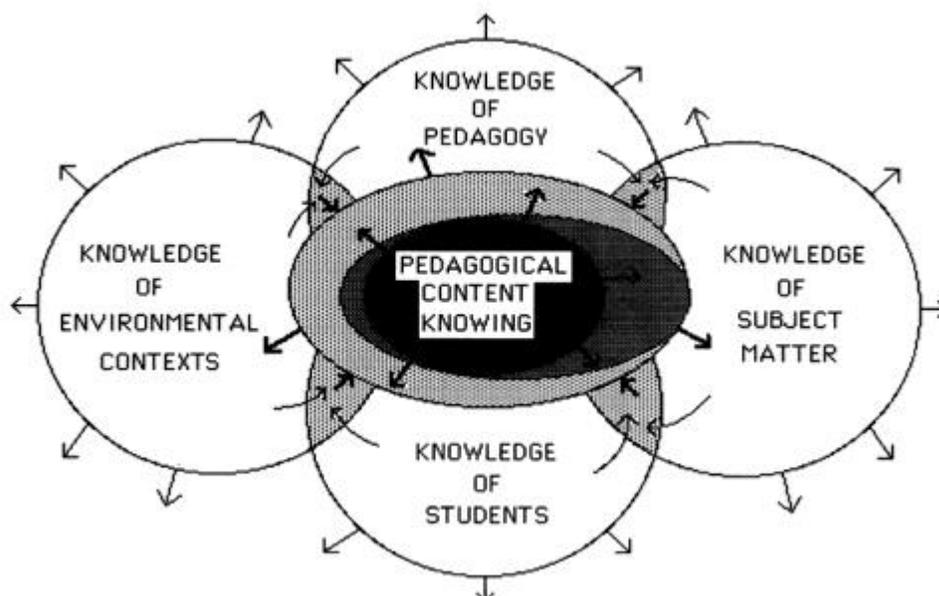


Figure 5.4: Cochran et al.'s (1993) Pedagogical Content Knowing

Representations of these models with forms of Venn diagrams suggest that where differing kinds of knowledge exist in the teacher, a new form of knowledge, some version of PCK, will arise as these areas intersect in the teacher's mind. Language teaching, however, especially content-based language teaching, differs from other content areas in that the topic of instruction is also the means of instruction. Furthermore, in CBI, the *topic* of instruction (the L2) is also the *means* of instructing a second topic (the content). This is a situation unique to language teaching and requires a different level of attentiveness. I would, therefore, like to offer a revised model of Pedagogical Content Knowing for CBI; one which includes the construct of language alertness (Figure 5.5). The concept of language alertness is represented in this model as separate from the other

kinds of knowledge the teacher draws upon to create the knowing that is necessary for CBI. I have represented language alertness with an arrow that connects Knowledge about Language to the other aspects of Pedagogical Content Knowing for CBI in order to stress that this kind of knowledge is not automatically or easily accessed by teachers during instruction. It is my belief that a form of intentional alertness to language is what is necessary to connect knowledge about language with the other kinds of knowledge that teachers use during CBI.

The practical implications of this theory add a new dimension to language teacher education. In addition to helping preservice teachers develop knowledge about language, teacher educators need to help teacher candidates develop habits of mind in which they are constantly alert to language, looking for language to teach or language that is causing misconceptions, as well as the opportunities to teach the language and clarify these misconceptions. Think alouds by the teacher educator which model language-alert thinking might be one effective way to begin to help preservice teachers develop this habit. Analyses of teaching materials or of recorded lessons might be another opportunity to assist preservice teachers in developing this way of thinking about language and content.

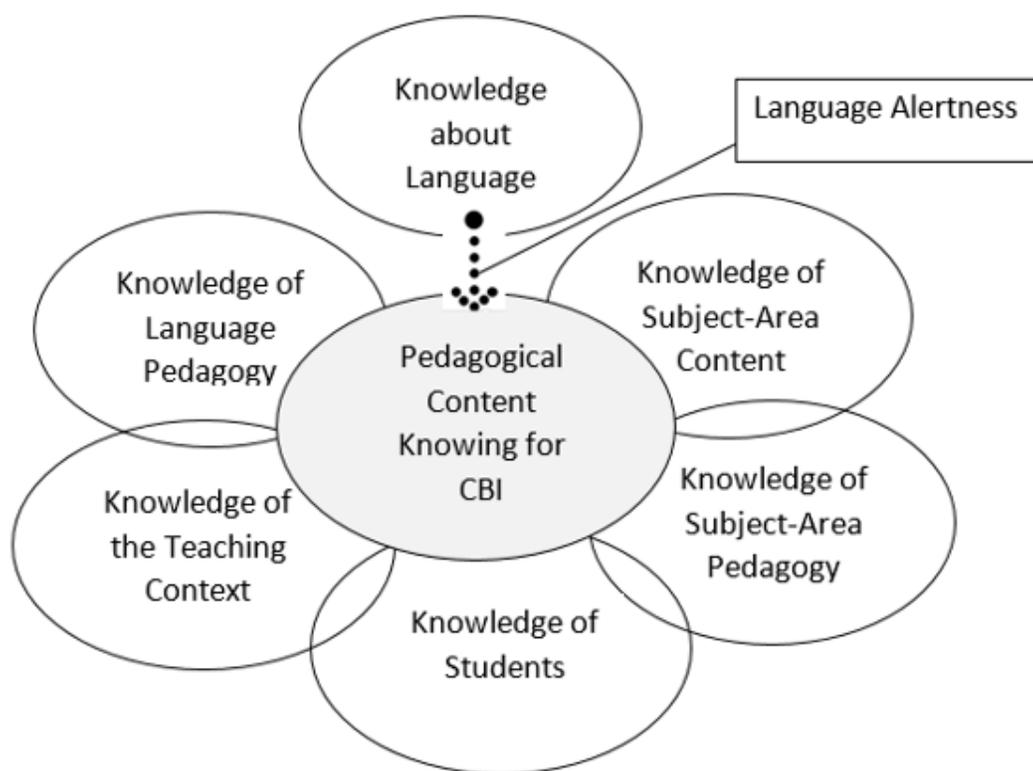


Figure 5.5: Pedagogical Content Knowing for CBI.

Another practical implication of the study might be that teachers, especially teachers who are new to this way of thinking, would benefit from expert help in representing the components of language that they should be “alert for.” Sarah’s ability to conceptualize a language focus for her daily lessons was greatly and positively impacted by the web we created that broke down different aspects included with focusing on the past tense over a number of weeks. The development of a number of such models that focus on areas of accuracy and complexity, might help ESL teachers as they purposefully attend to language, watching for opportunities to switch from a focus on content to a focus on language.

Limitations of the Study

There were two major limitations to this study that should be considered when reflecting upon the findings presented in this chapter. The first limitation was that there were relatively few incidents of language-focused teaching enacted by Sarah. Therefore, I had limited opportunities to represent her experience and analyze her thought processes around language-focused instruction. Certainly, the fact that there were so few examples of language-focused teaching over a four-month period is itself an important finding. However, another four months in the classroom with Sarah in which I might have encouraged her to use some of the new thinking that was only emerging as this study ended would have given much deeper insights into what is necessary to move a teacher from no focus on language teaching to a more thoughtful, attentive focus on language teaching. In other words, her development as an effective teacher of CBI was never complete and therefore my ability to analyze what is most helpful in moving a teacher toward this kind of teaching was limited.

A second limitation of the study was the extreme nature of the chaotic situation in the research site. While I suspect that most schools present contextual challenges to content-based instruction, the AP for All situation at Urbanville West High School had an outsized influence on Sarah's teaching and her experience trying to bring a language focus to her lessons. This limited my ability to fully understand what arose because of Sarah's understanding of ESL methodology and what arose because of the demands of the AP content. One of my goals in this a qualitative study was to create narrative verisimilitude through rich descriptions of the teaching situation, enabling readers to recognize similar situations in their own contexts and transfer (Lincoln & Guba, 1985)

learning from this study to their own situation. The fact that Urbanville West High School had this extreme policy of AP for All might limit the transferability of the study's findings.

Recommendations for Further Research

An enormous range of foci for future study emerged from this study. First, an increase in research that attempts to describe co-taught and sheltered ESL settings, especially when the teachers in these settings are successful at identifying and teaching language objectives, is vital. As it now stands, we have had an enormous change in the way that ESL instruction is delivered to students in K–12 schools without a very deep research base to validate this change. In fact, much of the rationale for a switch from pull-out to push-in ESL and most of the methods suggested for enacting this change rely on data generated in special education settings (e.g., Adams, Cessna, & Friend, 1993; Cook & Friend, 1995). More research, both qualitative and quantitative, that investigates the experiences of ESL teachers and students in co-taught and sheltered settings as well as the impact of different models on language learning by students should be undertaken in order to guide administrators and teachers in constructing effective ESL programs.

A second area of investigation might focus on language objectives. It would be helpful to learn more about how this concept is understood by researchers, teachers, and teacher educators. My experiences in this study and also my review of materials currently available for ESL teacher development indicate that there is a great range in how language objectives are understood and communicated, which leads to confusion for ESL teachers in the field. Research that examines how this concept is currently understood and practitioner-focused work that offers greater accessibility to the concept for preservice

and in-service teachers is necessary. In addition, theoretical pieces that propose clearer ways of conceptualizing the concept of a language objective or at least describe the different conceptualizations that now exist would be very helpful.

Research that seeks to understand how ESL teachers use materials developed for L1 speakers in CBI would also be useful. Sarah's reliance on mainstream materials as well as her need to modify materials emerged as an area of focus in this study. Resulting from such research might then be the design of materials for sheltered or co-taught settings that help teachers bring a greater language focus to their teaching.

A final suggestion for future research would focus on how ESL teachers are prepared for CBI, especially co-taught and sheltered CBI. This area might present opportunities for a Design Based Research (Brown, 1992) project that attempts to develop a preservice curriculum to provide teacher candidates with the experiential learning necessary to enact language-focused CBI as well as develop in them a language-alert habit of mind as they engage in instruction.

Conclusion

Research, especially qualitative research, is fundamentally about stories: understanding people's stories and drawing knowledge from their lived experience. Narrative research puts this storied nature of experience front and center, attempting to show rather than simply tell the knowledge that humans hold in storied form. If I have been successful in honoring this research methodology, this work has shown how new ESL teachers enter their profession and feel disempowered to teach as they were prepared to teach. It has shown how overwhelmed they feel. How frustrated. If I have done this well, this project has shown the disappointment of a teacher educator who tried to fix,

through her own teaching, a problem she witnessed, only to realize that she has not yet been successful in this endeavor.

Ultimately, however, it is not the stories of the teachers or of the teacher educator that matter most to me. It is the story of Abdi, the serious and focused young man who did not know where to start his story and the hopelessness that emerged from this. It is the story of Ayaan, who chose to write a story about something she knew nothing about because she was presented with too many options for an assignment that was too enormous. It is the story of Zahra, telling her teacher how very helpful it was to finally have some grammar explained to her. It is the story of the students who sat in history class and heard the word punish, not knowing what it meant and not able to learn because of it. It is the story of all the students who copy from webpages, fill in blanks, and “do school,” certain in their belief that this will open opportunities to them in the future.

As I stated in the first chapter of this dissertation, the problems facing the students in Sarah’s classes are many and are complex. Poverty, racism, fear of deportation, family trauma; all of these combine to make the challenges these students must overcome enormous. Society puts the responsibility for helping young people overcome these barriers on schools, and teachers are right when they say they can’t do it alone. Even the most masterfully constructed language-focused lessons will not resolve all of the challenges that these student face.

But all of these complexities obligate us to offer the very best instruction we know how to offer to these students. What I witnessed in this study leads me to conclude that we have a great deal of room for improvement. If we are going to design our ESL instruction as content-based, then we must ensure that content-based *language* instruction

is actually occurring in these classrooms. We must ensure that teachers are not only bringing language down to the students' current level but are also pushing students' language skills ever higher. If we say we are teaching language through content, then we must do that purposefully and planfully. We need language teachers to teach language.

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Appendix A: Semi-structured Interview Protocol

Interview Protocol:

- 1.) Tell me about the courses you teach. What level are the students? Do you co-teach or teach alone?
- 2.) How do you decide what your language focus will be? Do you use the same process for every class, or is it different depending on which class you are planning for?
- 3.) Do you try to create language objectives? In what ways do you feel you are successful with this and in what ways do you struggle?
- 4.) What are your experiences trying to find a language focus in the classes you co-teach? Are your experiences different in co-taught classes than in the classes where you are the only teacher?
- 5.) Can you describe a unit you taught recently and tell me about the language focus of the unit and the language objective you used?
- 6.) Are there specific things you learned or read or remember from your teacher education courses that you draw on a lot as you plan your units and lessons? I'm especially curious about things that relate to the language focus of your teaching.
- 7.) Is there anything you learned or were introduced to as professional development since you have been in your teaching position that you draw on or find helpful as you plan the language focus of your lessons?
- 8.) What help/training do you think would make the process of identifying a language focus easier for you?

Appendix B: University of Minnesota IRB Approval – Interview Phase

The IRB: Human Subjects Committee determined that the referenced study is exempt from review under federal guidelines 45 CFR Part 46.101(b) category #2 SURVEYS/INTERVIEWS; STANDARDIZED EDUCATIONAL TESTS; OBSERVATION OF PUBLIC BEHAVIOR.

Study Number: 1701E03264

Principal Investigator: Caroline Maguire

Title(s): The application of Pre-Service Learning in K-12 ESL Settings

This e-mail confirmation is your official University of Minnesota HRPP notification of exemption from full committee review. You will not receive a hard copy or letter.

This secure electronic notification between password protected authentications has been deemed by the University of Minnesota to constitute a legal signature.

The study number above is assigned to your research. That number and the title of your study must be used in all communication with the IRB office.

Research that involves observation can be approved under this category without obtaining consent.

SURVEY OR INTERVIEW RESEARCH APPROVED AS EXEMPT UNDER THIS CATEGORY IS LIMITED TO ADULT SUBJECTS.

This exemption is valid for five years from the date of this correspondence and will be filed inactive at that time. You will receive a notification prior to inactivation. If this research will extend beyond five years, you must submit a new application to the IRB before the study's expiration date. Please inform the IRB when you intend to close this study.

Upon receipt of this email, you may begin your research. If you have questions, please call the IRB office at [\(612\) 626-5654](tel:612-626-5654).

You may go to the View Completed section of eResearch Central at [http://eresearch.umn.edu/](http://eresearch.umn.edu) to view further details on your study.

The IRB wishes you success with this research.

Appendix C: Interview Consent Materials

INFORMATION SHEET FOR RESEARCH The Application of Pre-Service Learning in K-12 ESL Settings

You are invited to be in a research study of the ways in which new ESL teachers are able to apply their pre-service learning in their teaching. You were selected as a possible participant because you were a student in Cari Maguire's ESL Literacy class. We ask that you read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

This study is being conducted by: Caroline Maguire, PhD Candidate; Department of Curriculum and Instruction; University of Minnesota

Procedures:

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

Complete an interview with Caroline Maguire, lasting on average an hour to an hour and a half. Our conversations in the interview will center on your experiences applying the learning from your pre-service courses to your teaching. I will also be seeking a few teachers who would like to conduct a second interview on the topic. Participating in one interview in no way obligates you to participate in a second interview.

The interview will be recorded, and the recordings will be transcribed. Pseudonyms will be used; thus, your name will not appear on the transcripts, nor will your name or any other identifying information be included in any write-up of this research.

Confidentiality:

The records of this study will be kept private. In any sort of report we might publish, we will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a subject. Research records will be stored securely and only researchers will have access to the records. After transcription, the recordings will be deleted. To these extents, confidentiality is not absolute. Study data will be encrypted according to current University policy for protection of confidentiality.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with the University of Minnesota. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

Contacts and Questions:

The researcher(s) conducting this study is (are): Caroline Maguire and . You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact them at 10730 Spoon Ridge; Eden Prairie, MN 55347, 612309-4785, wolk0005@umn.edu. You may also contact the researcher's advisor: Diane Tedick, (612) 625-1081, djtedick@umn.edu.

Appendix D: University of Minnesota IRB Approval – Observation Phase

PI: Caroline Maguire

IRB HSC: 1611E99761

Title: The application of pre-service learning in a content-based ESL classroom: A narrative study

From: Institutional Review Board (IRB) The IRB determined your planned activities described in this application do not meet the regulatory definition of research with human subjects and do not fall under the IRB's purview for one or both of the following reasons:

1) The proposed activities are a) not a systematic investigation and/or b) not designed to develop or contribute to generalizable knowledge [45CFR46.102(d)].

Quality assurance activities and evaluation projects designed for self-improvement or program evaluation, not meant to contribute to "generalizable" knowledge, do not meet the threshold of research with human subjects.

Although IRB review may not be required for case studies, you still may have HIPAA obligations. Please contact the Privacy Office at [612-624-7447](tel:612-624-7447) for their requirements.

and/or

2) You will not obtain private identifiable information from living individuals [45 CFR 46.102(f)].

Interviews of individuals where questions focus on things not people (eg. questions about policies) do not require IRB review.

You will be analyzing aggregate data that cannot be linked to a living individual.

The above referenced IRB Human Subjects Code (HSC) will be inactivated in the database and you will have no further obligations for this project. Please do not hesitate to contact the IRB office at [612-626-5654](tel:612-626-5654) if you have any questions. Thank you for allowing the IRB to make the determination about whether or not review is required.

HRPP Staff

Appendix E: Observation Consent Materials

CONSENT FORM

The application of pre-service learning in a content-based ESL classroom: A narrative study

You are invited to be in a research study investigating how ESL teachers are able to apply their pre-service learning once they reach the K-12 classroom. You were selected as a possible participant because you were a student in the researcher's (Caroline Maguire's) ESL literacy course. I ask that you read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

This study is being conducted by Caroline Maguire, a PhD candidate at the Twin Cities campus of the University of Minnesota in the College of Education and Human Development, in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Second Language Education.

Background Information

The purpose of this study is to better understand how early career ESL teachers are able to apply what they learned in their teacher education coursework in the classroom once they begin teaching. Ultimately, the study hopes to make suggestions about how to improve pre-service coursework and how to better support new teachers during their first few years of teaching.

Procedures:

If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to do the following things:

Allow the researcher to observe your teaching. All observations would take place during regularly scheduled class time. I would like to observe you teach one unit as you regularly would teach it. Thus, no special preparations should be made before these observations. After observing this unit, I would like to plan a unit with you, making suggestions about how to apply concepts from your pre-service coursework. I would then like to observe you as you teach the unit that we planned together.

In addition to these observations, I would like to interview you about your planning practices and how you see yourself drawing from your pre-service coursework as you plan. I would also like to audio record our joint planning conversations.

Please note, no student data will be gathered and no identifiable student information will be collected.

Risks and Benefits of being in the Study

The study has minimal risks. I might ask you a question that may make you uncomfortable. Know that you are free not to answer any questions you prefer not to answer.

There are no direct benefits to participation.

Compensation:

There is no compensation for participating in this study.

Confidentiality:

The records of this study will be kept private. Your record for the study may, however, be reviewed by departments at the University with appropriate regulatory oversight. In any sort of report I might publish, I will not include any information that will make it possible to identify you. Research records will be stored securely and only the researcher will have access to any recordings of the interviews or planning conversation and, after transcription, the recordings will be deleted. To these extents, confidentiality is not absolute. Study data will be encrypted according to current University policy for protection of confidentiality.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with the University of Minnesota. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

Contacts and Questions:

If you have questions about research appointments, the study, research results, or other concerns contact the researcher. You may ask any questions you have now, or if you have questions later, **you are encouraged to** contact her:

Researcher Name(s): Caroline Maguire

Phone Number: 612 309-4785

E-mail Address: wolk0005@umn.edu

You may also contact the researcher’s advisor: Diane Tedick, (612) 625-1081, djtedick@umn.edu.

To share feedback **privately** about your research experience, including any concerns about the study, call the Research Participants Advocate Line: 612-625-1650 or give feedback online at www.irb.umn.edu/report.html. You may also contact the Human Research Protection Program in writing at D528 Mayo, 420 Delaware St. Southeast, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455.

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

Statement of Consent:

I have read the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Signature of Investigator: _____ Date: _____

VERB TENSES IN STORIES

Verbs tell what is happening in a sentence. Every sentence needs a verb. In a story, most of the verbs will be in the past tense.

The Past Tense

Regular and Irregular Verbs

The rules for making the past tense in English are easy. You just add an “ed” to the end of the verb:

Every day, I walk to school. (present tense)

Yesterday, I walked to school. (past tense)

If the verb already ends in an “e”, you just need to add the “d.”

They wave to their friends in the hall.

Last week, they waved to their friends

Many English verbs follow this rule and add “ed” to form the past tense of a verb. Verbs that follow this rule are called **regular verbs**.

However, many verbs don’t follow this rule. Verbs that break this rule are called **irregular verbs**. They have their own way to change from present to past tense. You will need to memorize these verbs. Most of the irregular verbs are very common. You probably already know many of them.

On Saturdays, I go to the store.

Last Saturday, I went to the store. (go → went)

We see Mr. Aponte in the hall every day.

Last week, we saw Mr. Aponte in the hall. (see → saw)

Negatives (saying what did *not* happen):

Making a negative in the past tense is a little different. We need to use a **helping verb** to make a negative. This is usually the helping verb “did.” Because “did” is the past tense of “do,” we do NOT need to change the other verb that “did” is helping. The other verb stays in the present tense.

Usually, the students eat breakfast in the cafeteria. (present tense)

This morning, they ate breakfast in the classroom. (past tense - eat → ate)

This morning, they did not eat breakfast in the cafeteria. (past tense, negative)

Kinds of Verbs

Stories describe what actions the characters are doing. (Are they *walking*? Or *dancing*? Or *eating*?) They also tell us what the characters are *feeling*, *thinking*, and *saying*. When you write a story, you will want to tell your reader all of these things about your characters. What are your characters doing? How do they feel about this? What do they say? If we think about verbs as groups that tell us what characters are **doing**, **feeling**, or **saying**, it will help you to write an interesting story.

1. Action Verbs

Action verbs tell us what the characters are doing or what is happening in a story. If we close our eyes and imagine the characters in a story we are reading, we will usually see them doing an action verb.

Here are some examples of action verbs you might use to help you write your story.

Regular Action Verbs

Present Tense	Past Tense		Present Tense	Past Tense		Present Tense	Past Tense
walk	walked		play	played		live	lived

jump	jumped		work	worked		fold	folded
open	opened		close	closed		look	looked
talk	talked		call	called		finish	finished
follow	followed		watch	watched		look	looked
arrive	arrived		start	started		stop	stopped

Irregular Action Verbs

Present Tense	Past Tense		Present Tense	Past Tense		Present Tense	Past Tense
eat	ate		come	came		get	got
make	made		buy	bought		put	put
stand	stood		read	read		fall	fell
take	took		run	ran		sleep	slept
sing	sang		give	gave		go	went

Example sentences using **action verbs**:

One day, Sarah walked to school. When she arrived at school, she played with her friends until her teacher called them to class. Sarah followed the other children up the wooden stairs of the schoolhouse and sat down in her desk.

2. Sensing Verbs:

Sensing verbs tell us what the characters are *thinking* or *feeling*. They tell us what is happening inside of our characters' minds. We can't see these things when we look at people. When you write a story you will use these sensing verbs to describe what your characters think or feel.

Regular Sensing Verbs

Present Tense	Past Tense		Present Tense	Past Tense		Present Tense	Past Tense
want	wanted		remember	remembered		like	liked
notice	noticed		decide	decided		hate	hated

Irregular Sensing Verbs

Present Tense	Past Tense		Present Tense	Past Tense		Present Tense	Past Tense
feel	felt		see	saw		know	knew
think	thought		hear	heard		forget	forgot

Example sentences using **sensing verbs**:

Sarah wanted to leave the schoolhouse. She didn't like to study and she hated math. She remembered all the fun she had last summer and thought about how fun it was to play outside.

3. Saying Verbs:

Saying verbs tell us what the characters in the story say to each other. We can use these verbs when we write dialogue. The most common **saying verb** is “said.” However, if you use other saying verbs, you can give us better details about HOW your character said something.

Regular Saying Verbs

Present Tense	Past Tense		Present Tense	Past Tense		Present Tense	Past Tense
ask	asked		whisper	whispered		promise	promised

Irregular Saying Verbs

Present Tense	Past Tense		Present Tense	Past Tense		Present Tense	Past Tense
say	said		tell	told			

Example sentences with **saying verbs**.

“I hate working in the factory,” said John.

“Shh,” whispered Sarah, “you don’t want to boss to hear you.”

When you write your story, you will use all three of these kinds of verbs.

Can you find the verbs in this example and tell what kind of verbs they are?

Helen sat by the window and watched the other children playing outside. She wanted to go outside, too. She hated being sick. She stood and walked over to her bed. She lay down and closed her eyes. She remembered what it was like to play outside, and she felt sad.

“One day, I will be healthy again,” she said.