

A STUDY OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF AN ALTERNATIVE LICENSURE
PROGRAM FOR URBAN ELEMENTARY TEACHERS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE
LEARNERS

by

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DEDICATION

This is dedicated to my loving husband, Courtney, and my two wonderful children, Naomi and Asa. With God all things are possible.

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I would like to thank my family, friends, and colleagues whose support and prayers have made this happen. My husband, Courtney, had faith when I doubted. My children, Naomi and Asa, tried hard to be patient while Mommy was working. A special thanks to Lynn Shaffer Wilner, Kristin Percy Calaff, and Diane Staehr, fellow George Mason University program graduates who provided immeasurable assistance throughout this process. Thanks to my committee members, Dr. Haley, Dr. Galluzzo, and Dr. Isenberg, who spurred me to professional excellence.

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ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF AN ALTERNATIVE LICENSURE PROGRAM FOR URBAN ELEMENTARY TEACHERS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

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This study examined the qualifying portfolios of graduates of an alternative teacher licensure program to determine the extent to which the teachers evidenced effective instructional strategies for English language learners (ELLs). All study participants taught during the 2004-2005 school year in elementary classrooms in New York City public schools where at least 20% of the students were ELLs. The teachers in this study graduated from the Mercy College New Teacher Residency Program, a master's degree and alternative teacher licensure program. This study used the standards for the preparation of teachers of ELLs produced by Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the relevant research on the effective instruction of ELLs as an evaluative framework. Data revealed that the study participants did not satisfy the requirements of the TESOL/NCATE standards. However, the teachers demonstrated some instructional

practices effective for ELLs as defined in the TESOL/NCATE standards and the research literature by implementing content-area instruction that was assessment-driven, standards-based, and differentiated according to students' academic needs.

1. Problem Statement

General Problem Statement

The linguistic, cultural, and ethnic diversity of America's population is steadily increasing. In 1980, 83% of the U.S. population identified themselves as white. In 1990, this percentage had dropped to 80% (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1992). In 2000, 75% of the U.S. population identified themselves as white (Greico, 2001). According to the U.S. Census, in 1990 13.8% of the population over the age of five years old spoke a language other than English at home (Shin & Bruno, 2003). In 2000, that number had increased to 17.9%. This diversity is readily apparent in the nation's public schools. Today's public school population is increasingly culturally and linguistically diverse. According to the National Center for Education Statistics, in 2003, 42% of U.S. public school students "were considered to be part of a racial or ethnic minority group" (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2005a). In 1972, only 22% of U.S. public school students "were considered to be part of a racial or ethnic minority group" (NCES, 2005b). However, culturally and linguistically diverse students are not performing well in many public schools (Solis, 1999). Among the 22.4 million culturally and linguistically diverse students are at least 9.9 million students for whom English is their non-native language (NCES, 2005c). English language learners (ELLs), students for whom English is their non-native language and who are still acquiring proficiency in

English, represent a substantially growing segment of the student population. From 1993 to 2000, the number of ELLs in U.S. public schools increased from two million to three million students (NCES, 2004). Between 1989-1990 and 2004-2005, ELL enrollment in U.S. public schools more than doubled. In 2004-2005 ELLs, represented 11% of the student population in U.S. public schools (National Clearinghouse for Effective Instruction of English Learners, 2006). During the 1999-2000 school year, 41% of U.S. public school teachers taught at least one ELL in their classroom. However, only 13% of teachers received 8 or more hours of training on how to teach ELLs during the previous 3 years (NCES, 2002).

When reviewing the literature related to the education of ELLs, there are various terms that reference this population. “Culturally and linguistically diverse students” is a broad term that generally applies to non-white and non-native English speaking student populations—students of color and students who speak languages other than English. “Language minority students” is a more specialized term that refers to students who speak languages other than English solely or in addition to English. ELLs and Limited English Proficient (LEP) are terms used specifically to describe students who speak a language other than English and are not proficient in English. According to the Center on Education Policy, 79% of all ELLs speak Spanish at home (Sullivan et al., 2005). Therefore, studies on the education of ELLs are often on Hispanic students, although not all Hispanic students are ELLs. Likewise, studies on the educational experiences of Hispanic students sometimes include within them the experiences of ELLs. Within some studies, little effort is made to separate the two populations. For purposes of this study,

the term ELLs will be used. This study's focus is on students who speak a language other than English and are not proficient in English. (When reviewing or referring to the work of others, the term used by the author or authors will be used.)

Although the number of ELLs in U.S. public schools continues to rise, it does not appear that schools are educating this population well. The overwhelming majority of ELLs are Hispanic. In 2001-2002, 77% of all ELLs were native Spanish speakers (Hopstock & Stephenson, 2003). English language learners consistently have lower rates of academic achievement, high school graduation, and college matriculation than their native English-speaking peers. In 1999, for example, over 28% of Hispanics ages 16 through 24 were high school dropouts (NCES, 2001a). In that same year 44% of Hispanics who were born outside of the United States, and therefore more likely to be ELLs, were high school dropouts (NCES, 2001a). The 2000 U.S. Census data reveal that only 10% of Hispanics over the age of 25 are graduates of a 4 year college and 23% of Hispanics have incomes below the poverty level (Garroogian, 2004).

On the New York State Department of Education English Language Arts exams, ELLs lag behind their English proficient counterparts. On the 2005 fourth grade exam, 61.4% of English proficient students in New York City public schools scored in the proficient or advanced ranges. Only 19.5% of ELLs scored in the proficient or advanced ranges. On the 2005 eighth grade exam, 34.8 % of English proficient students scored in the proficient or advanced ranges as compared to 3.4% of the ELLs (New York City Department of Education, 2005). Results are similar on the New York State Department of Education 2005 Math exams, where 81% of the fourth grade English proficient

students in New York City public schools scored in the proficient and advanced levels compared to 54.4% of ELLs. In eighth grade, 43.5% of English proficient students in New York City public schools scored in the proficient and advanced levels compared to 22.1% of ELLs (New York City Department of Education, 2005).

Improving the Academic Achievement of ELLs

Many proposals have been aimed at improving student achievement, especially the achievement of culturally and linguistically diverse students. The growing emphasis on high student achievement for all students and the evident achievement gap between ELLs and native English-speakers makes improving the educational attainment of ELLs of paramount importance. Underscoring the importance of the academic success of ELLs for the educational and economic progress of this nation, President George W. Bush concluded, “ensuring that all children, regardless of background, have the chance to succeed is the central purpose of the federal role in education” (Bush, 2001, p. 16).

Recognizing that any effort to improve student academic achievement is at least in part dependent on the teacher, the most comprehensive level of federal involvement in this country’s education system was codified with the passage of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB). Among other things, NCLB states that all children will meet their state’s standards of competence in core subject areas. A central tenet of the federal government’s task in the nation’s education system is ensuring equity in access, high levels of academic achievement, and high quality teaching for all students. In addition, NCLB required that every child be taught by a “highly qualified” teacher by 2006. A teacher who is “highly qualified” must have earned a least a bachelor’s degree and full

state certification. In addition, a “highly qualified” teacher has demonstrated content area competency in the subjects he or she teaches, usually measured by a content area standardized exam. According to President Bush, “teacher excellence is vital to achieving improvement in student achievement” (Bush, 2001, p. 12). In accordance with President Bush, former Secretary of Education Ron Paige asserted, “the quality of the teacher is the highest leverage point for change and effective student achievement” (Fletcher, 2002).

By examining the qualifying portfolios of alternatively licensed teachers, this research study examined one issue central to teacher quality and educational equity: alternative licensed teachers and ELLs in urban school districts. The purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which the teachers evidenced effective instructional practices for ELLs as measured by the national standards for the accreditation of initial programs in PreK-12 ESL teacher education developed by Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). With over 13,000 members in over 40 countries, TESOL is a world-wide professional association that works to “ensure excellence in English language teaching to speakers of other languages” (TESOL, n.d.). Founded in 1954, NCATE is recognized by the U.S. Department of Education as a professional accrediting body for teacher education. NCATE is a coalition of 33 organizations whose mission is to ensure high quality teaching by establishing professional standards of accreditation for colleges, schools, and departments of education (NCATE, n.d.).

The link between teacher quality and student achievement has led some to investigate the quality of the teachers in our nation's schools, sparking cries for improvements in and alternatives to the current system of teacher recruitment, preparation, and licensure. *A Nation at Risk*, the National Commission on Excellence in Education's 1983 report on education in the United States, heralded as a national crisis the condition of the American education system and asserted that the reformation of teacher preparation programs was essential to achieving educational excellence (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). This link between teacher quality and student academic achievement has been an impetus for increased scrutiny of how teacher recruitment, preparation, licensure, practice, and evaluation are performed. In addition, efforts toward improving student achievement by improving teacher quality include reforms in the recruitment of teachers, the expansion of alternative certification programs, and reforms in colleges of education.

The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future advocates implementing high standards and assessments for the accreditation of colleges of education, beginning teachers, and advanced certification of experienced teachers (National Commission on Teaching and America's Future, 1996). In an endeavor to improve teacher preparation, NCATE has begun continuously designing and instituting standards and assessments for education schools and their accreditation processes to determine which schools prepare teachers who demonstrate the "knowledge, skills, and dispositions" necessary to educate students successfully. According to Arthur Wise, president of NCATE, the current state-controlled teacher licensure system falls short of

its intended purpose, and independent accreditation of education schools is at least part of the solution. “Today’s certification processes are very uneven and collectively do not provide a basis for public confidence in the quality of new teachers” (Wise, 2002). Wise asserts that the accreditation of education schools adds quality and accountability to the process of preparing high-quality teachers for our nation’s schools. “Accredited education schools and those seeking accreditation are engaged in strengthening their programs and providing more information about the performance of their candidates and graduates” (Wise, 2002).

Moving further along the professional continuum from preparation to practice, the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) holds as its central goal the transformation of the current systems of teacher licensure and professional development. To achieve this goal, INTASC is designing “model standards and assessments for beginning teachers” to exemplify the knowledge base all beginning teachers should possess and demonstrate in the classroom (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2003).

The INTASC principles (1992) and assessment exercises followed the work of the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS) which designed professional standards for experienced teachers (National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 1989). According to their mission statement, the NBPTS seeks to “advance the quality of teaching and learning” and advocates excellence within the profession through voluntary national standards and assessments that would certify an accomplished teacher.

Purpose of the Study

Research into teacher effectiveness has examined teacher beliefs, preparation, and practice and their relation to student academic achievement (Ladson-Billings, 1994; Pease-Alvarez, Garcia, & Espinosa, 1991; Wayne & Youngs, 2003). As the number of alternative licensure programs increases and routes into the teaching profession diversify, researchers are now investigating the relationship between the content, structure, and characteristics of teacher preparation programs and teacher classroom performance. However, little research has been conducted specifically on teachers of ELLs (Flores, 2001). This study examined the intersection of teacher preparation and the instruction of ELLs, a particular crossroad that has received little attention to date.

Most studies incorporate ELLs into student populations labeled “students of color,” “minorities,” “culturally and linguistically diverse learners,” or “language minority students,” without regard to the native and English language abilities of the students themselves. As a subset of language minority students, ELLs face the unique challenge of mastering content and language simultaneously. Similarly, teachers who instruct ELLs also face the unique challenge of ensuring that ELLs learn English without falling behind their English proficient counterparts in content area knowledge and skills. As the number of ELLs increases and the social, economic, and personal consequences of the achievement gap are felt, classrooms where excellence in teaching and learning are the norm become an invaluable source of information. “[The improvement of the teaching of LEP students] becomes more urgent as numbers of LEP students increase and statistics on their educational progress continue to show lagging growth” (Solis, 1999, p. 89).

(Limited English Proficient, or LEP, is the term often used by the Federal government and many state governments to describe ELLs.)

The purpose of this study is to examine the extent to which graduates of an alternative teacher licensure program evidence effective instructional practices for ELLs as measured by the TESOL/NCATE national standards for preparation of teachers who teach ELLs. This study seeks to add to the corpus of literature on alternative licensure and teacher preparation with a specific focus on the instruction of ELLs. There has been little research that addresses the nexus of these research areas. The number of alternative licensure programs continues to increase and graduates of these programs are entering classrooms that serve culturally, linguistically, and ability-diverse students. This study examined the link between the content of an alternative licensure program and how their graduates evidence and conceptualize their practice in relation to ELLs in order to inform the preparation of teachers for ELLs.

Research Context

The New York City public schools serve a large number of ELLs. In 2000, 15% of students enrolled in New York City's public schools were classified as ELLs (New York Board of Education, 2000). In an effort to describe the educational experiences of recent immigrants in New York City distinct from the experiences of ELLs, Schwartz and Gershberg (2001) analyzed school reports from the New York City Board of Education for 1996-1997 and 1997-1998 and School Based Expenditure Reports from 1997-1998. The results from their analysis reveal the inequity present in the experiences of ELLs in New York City public schools when compared with their peers. The level of poverty

among ELLs is higher than the rate of poverty of the overall student population based on the number of students eligible for free lunch. In addition, the number of teachers with at least a master's degree declines as the number of ELLs in a school increases.

Furthermore, school performance, as measured by math and reading test scores, decreases as the number of ELLs enrolled at a school increases.

Boyd, Lankford, Loeb, Rockoff, and Wyckoff (2007) examined the inequity between teacher qualifications in New York City public schools with the highest and lowest rates of poverty between the years 2000 and 2005. The results of the study by Boyd et al. were published as this research was concluding. The analyses included “teaching experience, performance on state teacher certification exams, certification status and area, competitiveness of a teacher's undergraduate institution, pathway into teaching, and SAT scores” (Boyd, Lankford, Loeb, Rockoff, & Wyckoff, 2007, p. 4). The data reveal a general trend of narrowing the gap of teacher qualifications between schools with the highest and lowest rates from 2000-2005.

From 2000-2005 the gap between the percentage of teachers who failed a state teacher licensure exam, the Liberal Arts and Sciences Test (LAST), on the first attempt in highest-poverty schools and lowest-poverty schools decreased by ten percentage points. During the same period, the gap between the percent of teachers with less than three years of experience in the highest-poverty and lowest-poverty schools decreased by two percentage points. The authors report that a similar trend was found with other teacher qualifications largely resulting from improvements in the highest-poverty schools with the changes being most evident at the elementary level.

The authors suggest that the narrowing gap of teacher qualifications fueled by improvements in teacher qualifications at the highest-poverty schools was propelled by three policy changes enacted by the New York State Board of Regents and the New York City Department of Education: (1) September, 2003, temporary licenses for uncertified teachers were abolished; (2) in 2000 alternative certification routes were created that allowed teachers into the classroom who had passed required teacher certification exams and were enrolled in qualified alternative certification programs; and, (3) in 2000 the New York City Department of Education and The New Teacher Project (TNTP) began the New York City Teaching Fellows (NYCTF) program with its first cohort. (This study's participants were members of the 2003 NYCTF cohort.) These policy changes resulted in a decrease of temporarily licensed/uncertified teachers and an increase in the number of Teaching Fellows and Teach for America (TFA) participants in New York City public schools. (A more detailed review of the TFA program is included in chapter 2.)

Similarly to temporarily licensed teachers prior to the policy changes, Teaching Fellows and TFA participants were “disproportionately in high-poverty schools” (Boyd, Lankford, Loeb, Rockoff, & Wyckoff, 2007, p. 9). Temporarily licensed teachers in the highest-poverty schools represented 63% of newly hired teachers in 2000. In 2005 Teaching Fellows and TFA participants were 40% of the newly hired teachers in the highest-poverty schools. However, when compared to temporarily licensed teachers, Teaching Fellows and TFA participants had a lowered rate of failing the LAST on the first attempt (32.5% vs. 5%).

During the same time period the gap also narrowed between the highest-poverty student group and the lowest-poverty student group in the percent of students failing to meet the proficient level on state content area exams. Analyses were conducted on student achievement and teacher qualifications data by using a value-added approach and regression models to estimate the effects of teacher qualifications on student achievement. The effect of teacher qualifications on student achievement was small in the areas of English language arts and “modest” for middle school math. The authors report the results for grades 4 and 5 math achievement and conclude “...improvements in the measured teacher qualifications in the poorest decile of schools reduced the gap resulting from observed differences by 25 percent” (Boyd et al., 2007, p. 13). Since ELLs are more likely to be in high poverty schools (NYCBOE, 2000) improving the qualifications of educators who teach in those schools could improve the educational attainment of ELLs.

Research Setting

The Mercy College New Teacher Residency Program (NTRP) is a two-year Master’s degree and alternative teacher licensure program founded in 2002 in response to the growing need for alternative licensure programs in New York City. Mercy College partnered with The New Teacher Project (TNTP) and the New York City Department of Education (NYCDOE) to provide a Master’s Degree program specifically tailored to the needs of members of the New York City Teaching Fellows program (NYCTF) pursuing teaching licenses in elementary general education, elementary special education, middle school special education, and bilingual education. The NYCTF program was established

in 2000 to address severe teacher shortages in New York City through a partnership of TNTP and the NYCDOE. New York City Teaching Fellows are college graduates and mid-career professionals recruited, selected, and trained to address the teacher shortages in the New York City public school system. Most program participants have no teaching experience prior to entering the program. The majority of the program participants are assigned to teach in the city's under performing schools in the Bronx and Brooklyn boroughs. Many of the program participants are assigned to teach in high-need subject areas such as math, science, special education, and bilingual education. During their first two years teaching, program participants are concurrently enrolled in a 2-3 year Master's degree and teaching licensure program with a partnering college or university. Program participants are assigned to their college program based on their certification area and school placement. Through the NTRP, Mercy College serves as one of the partnering colleges that prepares and supports NYCTF program participants.

Mercy College is a private college based in Dobbs Ferry, NY. Mercy College serves an estimated 10,000 students with campuses throughout the New York metropolitan area, including in the Bronx, Manhattan, White Plains, Yorktown, Westchester County, and New York City. Founded in 1950 by the Sisters of Mercy to provide an opportunity for higher education for disadvantaged women, Mercy College became co-ed and non-sectarian in 1969. Its history reflects a commitment to providing community members access to postsecondary education regardless of resources. There are approximately 506 NTRP Fellows who graduated in May of 2005. These NTRP Fellows sought certification in childhood education grades 1-6 or students with

disabilities grades K-12. In addition, approximately 60 Fellows sought an additional endorsement in bilingual education. Given the ethnic and linguistic diversity of the New York City public schools, it is likely that all Fellows had ELLs as pupils in their classrooms.

The Mercy College NTRP's curriculum and assessments are guided by six program Outcomes. The program Outcomes represent what the College believes effective educators should know and be able to do. The Outcomes, listed in Table 1, are designed to work together to establish a vision for effective teaching and learning. Table 2 contains a summary of the Outcomes.

Table 1.
Mercy College New Teacher Residency Program Outcomes and Indicators

<p>Outcome 1: Passionate Commitment to Learning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Communicates love of learning to students <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Plans from self-examination. ○ Taps into students' intrinsic motivation ○ Draws students into subject-matter's essence <p>Outcome 2: Reflective Practice</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Philosophical Vision <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Distills to deep purposes ○ Examines assumptions ○ Translates philosophy into practice ▪ Purposeful Design <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Articulates deep goals ○ Plans toward goals ○ Checks student progress ▪ Articulate Observation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Interprets the details ○ Sees richly ▪ Flexible Perception <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Reframes problems ▪ Reflective Process <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Reflects articulately ○ Gets back to the drawing board. ○ Revises understanding ○ Moves on 	<p>Outcome 3: Accountability</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Designs accurate, fair, deep, authentic assessment. ▪ Prepares students for required, external exams ▪ Uses assessment for education as well as evaluation <p>Outcome 4: Teaching the Whole Child</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Teaching in Context <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Collaborates with students' out-of-school communities ▪ Teaching Responsively <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Adapts instructions to students ○ Creates a collaborative learning environment ▪ Teaching from Understanding <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Teaches to students' processes ○ Understands students motivation <p>Outcome 5: Improvisation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Tunes in deeply ▪ Tunes in widely ▪ Takes risks <p>Outcome 6: Educational Leadership</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Communicates a compelling vision ▪ Participates in school change ▪ Leads reform
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Table 2.
Summary of Program Outcomes

Passionate commitment to learning. Good teachers connect with and nurture their students' intrinsic love of learning while establishing why the subject matter is worth learning. Good teachers are able to integrate and apply what they've learned about learner processes with what they've learned about their own processes as learners.

Reflective practice. Good teachers work from the end to the beginning in both their practice and philosophy. They define what effective teaching and learning should be and work backwards to determine the assumptions, beliefs, and philosophies that one must hold to bring that vision to fruition. They define a clear statement of student outcomes and work backwards to determine what instructional strategies and learning experiences must occur to ensure that the students achieve those outcomes. This ability to work backwards is dependent upon the ability to see what actually is happening from multiple vantage points. Good teachers are able to see what happens in their classroom as a whole entity and its smaller parts. They are able to see what happens in their classroom from multiple perspectives, and, therefore, construct multiple solutions/responses. They are then able to see what is possible and move toward it.

Accountability. Good teachers use multiple assessments to inform and direct instruction and document student achievement. They ensure that plans for success are actualized and that their students are able to demonstrate their achievement to multiple audiences and stakeholders.

Teaching the whole child. Good teachers come to understand who their students are, what their students can do, and why their students do what they do. Good teachers are able to integrate who their students are and what their students do outside of the classroom to support student achievement within the classroom by adapting instruction to reflect student identities, interests, strengths, and needs, and by collaborating with students' families and communities.

Improvisation. Good teachers tune into their students to recognize and take advantage of unplanned opportunities for learning. They are calm and resourceful in the midst of the unpredictable by operating from a well developed knowledge base of their students and their subject matter.

Educational Leadership. Good teachers acknowledge that student success in the classroom is influenced by a myriad of complex and interrelated factors outside of the classroom. Therefore, good teachers work to realize change outside of the classroom in ways that will positively influence students' education. Good teachers seek to lead change in systems, structures, and organizations that surpass the limitations of time and space, reach beyond their specific classroom in a given school year, and positively affect students' long-term achievement and development.

At the end of the second year of the NTRP, participants submit a Culminating Assessment Project (CAP). The CAP is a summative, high-stakes assessment that requires documentation of and reflection upon effective planning, instruction, and assessment for various students. The CAP is designed so that participants can reflect upon and demonstrate the extent to which they have achieved the program Outcomes and proactively plan for their continued professional development. The CAP consists of six components which are described in Table 3.

Table 3.
Summary of CAP Components

The *CAP Classroom Framework Report* provides the context for the Fellows' PreK-12 classrooms. It includes demographic information about the students the Fellow teaches as well as a daily classroom schedule and any additional information the Fellow wishes to include. The Framework Report would describe the ethnic, economic, and academic make up of the Fellow's classroom. Each Fellow was asked to include in the Framework Report the English language proficiency levels of their students.

In the *CAP Professional Reflection* Fellows reflect on the progress they have made in relation to the Outcomes. They select 3-5 artifacts to demonstrate their progress and write a 5-7 page reflection paper outlining their progress as supported by the chosen artifacts. Suggested artifacts include examples of course assignments, journal entries, and work samples from the students the Fellows teach. An examination of the selected artifacts and the reflection upon the artifacts could provide evidence related to the extent to which the Fellows recognize the needs of ELLs in their classroom and demonstrate their progress in addressing those needs.

The *CAP Instructional Unit* is an instructional unit designed and implemented by the Fellows that integrates content area instruction and literacy development. The unit must include a minimum of 10 lessons. Included in the instructional unit is an outline of all 10 lessons and lesson plans for 5 consecutive lessons. In addition, the Fellows collect and analyze work samples from 6 students. For purposes of this research, the lessons plans could be analyzed to determine the extent to which the Fellows planned for the needs of ELLs and included instructional strategies effective for ELLs. Each lesson plan could be analyzed for evidence that the Fellow planned to differentiate instruction according to the language needs of his or her students. In addition, the Fellow's analysis of student work done by ELLs can be examined to determine the extent to which the instructional practices were effective for the ELLs in the class. The instructional unit could provide evidence of which factors the Fellows take into consideration when planning, instructing, and assessing ELLs.

In the *CAP Observation Report* a member of the program staff conducts a one-time, pre-scheduled observation of a Fellow's classroom. Following the observation, the program staff member records what s/he observed. After receiving the observation notes, the Fellows align the observation notes with the program Outcomes, write a brief reflection on the observation experience, and provide any information about their practice that they feel was unable to be captured during the observation. The CAP Observation Report could provide additional information regarding the extent to which the Fellows address the needs of ELLs in their classrooms by examining the observation notes and the Fellows' reflection on the observation to program Outcome four—teaching the whole child. In addition, an analysis of this CAP component could seek evidence in the observation notes that the Fellow implemented effective instructional practices for ELLs.

The *CAP Student and Parent/Guardian Surveys* are distributed to six students and parents in the Fellows' classrooms. Since the surveys are anonymous and information regarding English language proficiency is not requested, it is possible that this component would not provide data that could be directly linked to the effective instruction of ELLs. However, the surveys can be reviewed to see if any parents include information that addresses how the Fellows support the academic and linguistic development of ELLs.

The *CAP Professional Growth and Development Plan* provides the Fellows with an opportunity to look at the areas of the program Outcomes where they still have room to improve. After reflecting on these areas, the Fellows identify 2-3 professional goals and outline the steps they plan to take to continue to develop in these areas. This CAP component can be examined to see if the Fellow identifies any areas with regard to the effective instruction of ELLs as an area for continued professional growth and, if so, to see the steps the Fellows plan to take to improve.

Although the CAP contains multiple components, the CAP is not designed so that all six Outcomes are demonstrated in each component. However, when examined holistically, all Outcomes should be demonstrated throughout the CAP. For purposes of this study, the most relevant program Outcome is Outcome four—teaching the whole child. This Outcome most directly parallels the research on effective instruction for ELLs.

Teaching the whole child is made up of three indicators that are supported by research on effective schooling of ELLs and other language minority students: 1) Teaching in context; 2) Teaching responsively; and 3) Teaching from understanding. Teaching in context involves establishing a classroom culture that relates to students'

home culture by regularly communicating and partnering with students' families and communities. Teaching responsively entails structuring instruction to take advantage of the strengths, capabilities, and interests that students bring from their lives outside of school by adapting instruction to meet individual students' needs and strengths and by employing cooperative learning methods. Teaching from understanding is comprised of recognizing and addressing the diverse ways students learn and process information by adapting instruction to students' processes, motivation, and products. Each of these attributes has been supported by evaluation and descriptive studies of effective teachers and programs for ELLs (Dalton, 1998; Garcia 1991a; Pease-Alvarez, Garcia, & Espinosa, 1991).

In their case study on the practice and philosophy of two early childhood teachers of ELLs defined as highly effective by their past and current administrators, Pease-Alvarez, Garcia, and Espinosa (1991) articulate various areas in which the teachers engage in practices that are beneficial for ELLs and collaborate with their students' families and community to ensure student success. According to the authors, effective teachers of ELLs integrate their students' home culture into the classroom through modes of interaction and instructional practices and engage in instructional practices that build upon their students' strength and knowledge gained from outside of school. In a review of research of effective instructional practices for students whose home language is not English, Garcia (1991a) concludes that classrooms where academic content is directly related to the students' own environment and experience outside of school are most effective for ELLs. Asserting that all teachers should engage in instructional practices

that are effective for the most disadvantaged students (defined in the study as ELLs and students with special needs), Dalton (1998) outlines five standards for effective teaching. They include: employing cooperative learning activities among students and between students and teachers; developing language and literacy across the curriculum; connecting content and classroom interaction patterns to students' lives, culture, and community; teaching cognitively demanding thinking skills; and, using conversation as an instructional tool.

In introducing Outcome four to program participants, the Mercy College New Teacher Residency Program Outcomes document states, "Teaching the whole child involves understanding how a student's life in his or her home, community, and school support his overall academic development" (Mercy College, p. 14). The research on effective instruction for ELLs supports the notion that the integration of students' home lives into their academic experiences through instructional methods, modes of interaction, and content is beneficial for ELLs.

Research Questions

Recognizing the complex context in which teaching and learning occur, Fang (1996) stresses the value of learning more about how teachers successfully navigate the situational characteristics of today's classrooms. "Rather than simply providing teachers with more theories, educators must help teachers understand how to cope with the complexities of classroom life and how to apply theory within the constraints imposed by those realities" (Fang, 1996, p. 59). This research sought to accomplish precisely this goal. By analyzing the artifacts and reflections the teachers included in their CAPs, this

study investigated what elements the teachers considered as they designed instructional activities and assessment practices for their classrooms. This study examined the factors teachers from the NTRP considered and how they considered them during the processes of planning, instructing, and assessing.

This study was designed to examine how teachers prepared by the Mercy College New Teacher Residency Program, an alternative licensure program, evidence their ability to address the needs of English language learners in their classroom. Research on effective instruction for ELLs and the TESOL/NCATE standards for the preparation of teachers who teach ELLs served as an evaluative framework for this study. The central research questions for this study are:

- To what extent do graduates of the Mercy College NTRP evidence effective instructional strategies for English language learners as measured by the TESOL/NCATE standards for the preparation of teachers who teach English language learners?
- In what ways do graduates of the Mercy College NTRP evidence effective instructional strategies for English language learners?

2. Literature Review

This chapter examines the literature on alternative routes into teaching and reviews research studies of alternative licensure programs, including the well-known and controversial Teach for America (TFA) program. In addition, this chapter discusses the literature on effective instructional strategies for ELLs, the TESOL PreK-12 English Language Proficiency Standards, and the TESOL/NCATE standards for the preparation of teachers of ELLs. This chapter concludes with an overview of the Mercy College New Teacher Residency Program's philosophy and coursework.

Alternative Routes into Teaching

The number of alternative teacher licensure programs in the United States continues to increase. In 1991 there were 90 alternative teacher licensure programs. In 2006, 48 states and the District of Columbia implemented 124 alternative teacher licensure programs (National Center for Alternative Certification, 2006). From 2000 to 2004 the number of teachers who completed alternative teacher licensure programs increased by 40%, constituting almost 20% of the nation's beginning teachers (U.S. Department of Education, 2006).

Considerable debate occurs regarding the degree to which alternative licensure programs are effective in preparing high quality teachers (Darling-Hammond, 2002; Walsh, 2001a, 2001b). One challenge with measuring the effectiveness of these

programs is that the term “alternative” is used to describe a wide range of licensure programs that vary in length, content, purpose, form, and effectiveness (Feistritzer, 1994; Holmes, 2001). According to Holmes (2001), one reason research on alternative licensure programs is inconclusive is because of “completely inconsistent definitions of traditional and alternative” (p. 380). Generally, alternative teacher licensure programs do not follow the traditional route of preparing teachers through undergraduate degree and licensure programs (Littleton & Holcomb, 1994; Holmes, 2001).

Another challenge with measuring the effectiveness of alternative licensure programs is determining what constitutes “effectiveness” in teacher education programs. Even when “effective” is defined as meeting stated goals, little consensus is reached because alternative licensure programs are created to achieve multiple and varied goals. Some programs are designed to license and bring into the teaching field specific populations such as minorities, men, para-educators, or career changers with significant content, career, or life experiences (Littleton & Holcomb, 1994). Advocates of alternative programs maintain that teaching and learning would benefit from a more diverse teaching force in terms of gender, ethnicity, content knowledge, and/or real-world experiences (Villegas & Clewell, 1998; MacDonald, Manning, & Gable, 1994). Other programs are designed to address teacher shortages in critical content areas, regions, or school districts (Robson, 2000; Schoon & Sandoval, 2000). Still others suggest that people who could be effective teachers are discouraged from pursuing a teaching career by the current structure, content, length of time, and costs of teacher education programs (Finn & Madigan, 2001; Littleton & Holcomb, 1994). Finally, some alternative licensure

programs are created based upon a combination of these factors. These programs seek to improve the quality of the teaching force by creating faster, less costly preparation and licensure routes and by bringing people with significant content area and career experiences into the teaching profession. Research that investigates the extent to which alternative licensure programs are achieving their intended goals reveals both successes and failures.

Previous Research on Alternative Licensure Programs

A review of research on the effectiveness of alternative licensure programs shows inconclusive results. Zumwalt (1996) asserts that alternative licensure programs are beneficial for urban areas because they are more likely to attract minorities and men. According to Zumwalt (1996), alternative licensure programs successfully attract populations into teaching that are diverse and possess content area majors and real world experience by allowing for abbreviated training prior to teaching and/or during their first few years of teaching. The abbreviated training associated with many alternative licensure programs may reduce the financial burden on people entering into the teaching field. The degree to which the abbreviated training results in teachers who stay in the teaching field and are effective as educators is unknown (Zumwalt, 1996).

In a study based on an analysis of the results of the 1993-1994 Schools and Staffing Survey, Shen (1998) compared the characteristics of traditionally licensed and alternatively licensed teachers. According to this study, alternatively licensed teachers were more likely to be racial or ethnic minorities and younger than 30 years old, more likely to have come into teaching from a non-education related field, and more likely to

teach in large central cities and work in schools where at least 50% of the students were racial minorities. Teachers who entered teaching through alternative licensure programs were more likely to teach math and science and in secondary schools but less likely to possess a bachelor's or higher degree or view teaching as a long-term career. Although graduates of alternative licensure programs in this study represented a diverse teaching population, whether or not the alternatively licensed teachers as a group were stronger academically than their traditionally licensed counterparts is unknown. Similarly, there is little data on how long alternatively licensed teachers stay in the profession in general, and in urban classrooms in particular. This leaves open the possibility that some alternative licensure programs produce a diverse teaching population with low academic skills and a low retention rate. Since these teachers are more likely to teach in urban areas the result could contribute additionally to the educational inequity that the students in those schools experience.

A research review requested by the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Educational Research and Improvement and conducted by Wilson, Floden, and Ferrini-Mundy (2002) investigated the components of high quality alternative licensure programs. The authors concluded that "... alternative routes have successfully recruited a more diverse pool of teachers, but they have a mixed record in terms of the quality of teachers recruited and trained" (Wilson, Floden, & Ferrini-Mundy, 2002, p. 198). According to the authors, high quality alternative licensure programs maintain high standards for program entrance and exit; provide comprehensive pedagogical training and practice teaching prior to becoming the teacher of record; and, ensure substantial

mentoring, supervision, and evaluation. Similar to Zumwalt (1996), Wilson, Floden, and Ferrini-Mundy (2002) concluded that alternative licensure programs have attracted a more diverse population into teaching with regard to age and ethnicity, and alternatively licensed teachers tend to teach minority students in urban areas. Data are unclear, however, as to whether students of alternatively licensed teachers achieve academically.

Further complicating the ability to draw conclusions of effectiveness from the research, much of the research on alternative licensure programs consists of descriptive studies of individual programs that rely on self-report data from the teachers and other stakeholders, limiting the generalizability of the studies. MacDonald, Manning, and Gable (1994) describe the Military Career Transition Program (MCTP), an alternative licensure program designed to facilitate the entry into teaching by people leaving the military. The authors highlight what they believe to be unique features of the program, and provide recommendations for the program's replication. The authors contend that military personnel are an ideal source of potential teachers because of their experiences giving and receiving military-related training. According to the authors, the MCTP is successful in part because the program was conceived to build upon the unique experiences of military personnel and through a strong coalition of military, university, district, and state personnel. The program utilizes full-time university faculty as instructors for the courses; K-12 teachers who serve as mentors and adjunct faculty; and counselors who address issues related to transitioning from the military, obtaining teaching certification, and job placement. The program employs a flexible approach to student teaching where the length of time spent in the classroom can be extended until the

candidate is judged to be competent. MCTP also offers a wide range of licensure areas so that the candidates can pursue the area that most closely aligns with their interest and experience. Furthermore, the MCTP undergoes ongoing evaluation that includes surveys of program participants and graduates regarding class, program and job satisfaction, and a review of artifacts from participants' coursework. These data inform the multi-member collaborative that worked to establish the program and continues to inform its development. Finally, the program offers classes at a variety of times and locations to provide a high level of convenience for program participants. Pointing to the growth in the number of teachers graduating from the program, the authors concluded that these program characteristics enable the MCTP to be successful and hold it out as a program worthy of replication. According to the authors, successful programs should have a base made up of a multi-member collaborative; faculty members dedicated to the program's philosophy, participants, and classes; extensive and varied field experiences; ongoing counseling; continuous evaluation; and comprehensive placement services. However, aside from citing the growth in the size of the program and in the number of program graduates who are hired as teachers, the authors do not provide any data on the performance of the teachers or of the students taught by program graduates.

Villegas and Clewell (1998) describe the program components, processes, and philosophy of the Pathways to Teaching Careers Program, which is designed to assist the entrance into teaching by racial minorities, paraprofessionals, emergency certified teachers, and Peace Corps volunteers. According to the authors, participants in the Pathways to Teaching Careers Program are different from the traditional teacher pool in

that program participants are more likely to be from a minority group and are, on average, older. The authors also contend that the Pathways to Teaching Careers Program is composed of unique characteristics that set it apart from traditional teacher licensure programs. For example, the program employs flexible selection criteria that go beyond grade point averages and college transcripts to assess the strengths program administrators believe nontraditional candidates bring to the field of teaching, namely knowledge of and commitment to minority communities and to teaching in urban settings. The program maintains strong collaborative ties, established during the program's planning stages, to the school districts that employ the program participants. The program also provides a range of academic and social support to its participants that include securing tuition assistance, establishing centers for child care, using a cohort structure to provide peer support, providing field supervision and mentoring programs, and providing academic counseling and tutoring to ensure the timely completion of the program. According to a program evaluation, the Pathways program has met its recruitment goals both in the number of program participants and in recruiting teachers of color. The attrition rate for the program dropped from 21% of the first cohort of emergency certified teachers to 6% of the fifth cohort. Program participants were evaluated for teaching effectiveness in four teaching domains based on the evaluations from university supervisors and principals. Program participants average a rate of over 4 points on a 5 point scale. The authors, however, do not provide definitions of the teaching domains or explanations of the evidence that was used to decide upon the ratings. The authors concluded that the Pathways Program taps into a rich pool of teaching applicants

and provides the training and support needed to ensure that they become effective educators.

Schoon and Sandoval (2000) describe the Urban Teacher Education Program - Option II at Indiana University Northwest. The Urban Teacher Education Program - Option II was originally designed as an alternative licensure program for teachers and who were already employed in cooperating urban districts and possessed content area experience but did not have full teaching licenses. The authors describe the alterations in purpose and content the program underwent during its first seven years. Based on data collected from a cycle of interviews and focus groups with the participants, professors, and school and district representatives, the program stakeholders instituted changes to course offerings and program admission standards. In addition, the target participant pool was extended beyond teachers with emergency licenses to include traditional graduate students with content-area expertise, long-term substitutes, paraprofessionals, and school clerical staff interested in pursuing a teaching license. Only teachers already employed with an emergency license or as a long-term substitute were permitted to be teachers of record prior to completing the program. Other program participants conducted field experiences and student teaching in professional development schools. Throughout the process program administrators worked to tailor the course content, mentoring, and supervision to the needs of their urban teachers. The authors suggest that the ongoing cycle of evaluation and revision to the program along with a commitment to specifically addressing the needs of the program participants are essential qualities of a successful alternative licensure program.

Teach for America

Teach for America (TFA) is a well known and controversial alternative route into teaching and has been studied by a variety of researchers. Founded in 1989, TFA recruits academically talented college seniors and recent graduates to teach for a minimum of two years in low-income communities in urban and rural school districts. These graduates are recruited from the nation's top colleges and universities. After a highly structured application and interview process, successful participants attend a summer training program conducted by TFA that includes seminars, workshops, and practice teaching. Participants who successfully complete the summer training are then assigned to partner school districts to teach for two years. During their first year of teaching, TFA teachers receive additional training and support through their TFA regional office. Depending on the rules of each school district, TFA teachers also pursue their teaching license or a teaching license with a Master's degree with local district or university-based alternative licensure programs while they are teaching. Although TFA has been in existence for over 15 years, only a few research studies have been conducted on the organization. Results of the limited research that exists are contradictory.

Decker, Mayer, and Glazerman (2004), researchers with Mathematica Policy Research Inc., examined the effect of TFA teachers on student achievement in elementary schools in six areas across the country. This study compared TFA teachers to non-TFA teachers who taught in the same schools and same grades. The background and demographic characteristics of the TFA and non-TFA teachers reveal some distinct differences which are outlined in Table 4. Although the majority of both TFA and non-

TFA were female, TFA teachers were more likely to be white. TFA teachers were less likely to hold a bachelor’s degree or Master’s degree in education when compared to non-TFA teachers. Non-TFA teachers, however, were less likely to have graduated from a “mostly, highly, or very competitive college or university.” Although non-TFA teachers were more likely to have completed 10 or more weeks of student teaching when compared to TFA teachers, many non-TFA teachers reported that they completed no student teaching prior to becoming a classroom teacher. In comparison, all TFA teachers completed at least 4 weeks student teaching because it was included in their TFA-designed summer training prior to the start of the school year. Non-TFA teachers, however, were more likely than TFA teachers to possess a regular teaching certification.

Table 4.
Effect on TFA Teachers on Elementary School Students

	TFA teacher N=41	Non-TFA teacher N=57
Percentage who were female	69%	87%
Percentage who were white	67%	11%
Percentage with a bachelor’s degree or Master’s degree in education	26%	55%
Percentage who graduated from a “mostly, highly, or very competitive college or university”	70%	2%
Percentage who completed 10 or more weeks of student teaching	4%	45%
Percentage who completed no student teaching	0%	29%
Percentage who held a regular teaching certification	29%	64%

Decker, Mayer, and Glazerman (2004)

The study by Decker, Mayer, and Glazerman (2004) was conducted in six of the 15 regions where TFA operated at the time of the study—Baltimore, Chicago, Los Angeles, Houston, New Orleans, and the Mississippi Delta. Students in first through fifth grades were randomly assigned to TFA and non-TFA teachers. Standardized tests in reading and math were administered in the fall and spring of the school year. Students taught by TFA teachers outperformed students taught by the non-TFA teachers in math and performed as well as students taught by the non-TFA teachers in reading. This effect held true when compared to all non-TFA teachers in the sample and to only novice non-TFA teachers (teachers with three or fewer years of experience). There were no disparate effects based on gender or race. In addition, the authors collected data from school records and teacher surveys. These data reveal students taught by TFA teachers were neither more nor less likely to require remedial academic efforts such as summer school or retention than students taught by non-TFA teachers.

Decker, Mayer, and Glazerman (2004) found that when examining classroom management, teacher perceptions and self-reports differed from data obtained through school and district records. When compared to non-TFA teachers, TFA teachers were more likely to report incidences of serious misbehavior in their classrooms. However, analyses of school and district records reveal no statistically significant differences between the probability of suspension and expulsions for students in the classrooms of TFA and non-TFA teachers. The authors concluded that these analyses are contradictory, and therefore, the data are inconclusive. They offer the plausible explanation that the difference may simply lie in the teachers' expectations. Teachers were asked about not

only the frequency of these discipline challenges, but also whether or not they perceived them as a “serious” problem. It appears that TFA teachers perceived their discipline challenges as more serious than non-TFA teachers, supporting the authors’ explanation of the results of the analysis. While this may be true, it also appears that the analyses examined different phenomena. The teacher surveys asked about physical altercations in the classrooms, disruptions that interrupted classroom instruction, and verbal abuse. It is unclear whether or not these incidences of misbehavior would automatically translate into expulsions or suspensions or whether there are other discipline problems that teachers define as “serious.” Tracking the number of expulsions and suspensions could depend on the rate in which teachers addressed discipline challenges within their own classrooms as opposed to sending them to the office.

According to Decker, Mayer, and Glazerman (2004), “the most important question this study addressed is whether students taught by TFA teachers performed at least as well on achievement tests as students taught by other teachers, and we found that they did” (p. 29). Students taught by TFA teachers performed at least as well as students taught by non-TFA in all analyses conducted by the researchers, directly addressing the concern commonly held about whether or not students taught by TFA teachers achieve academically. Furthermore, the study found that 45% of non-TFA teachers did not have degrees in education and 36% did not have a regular teaching license. When compared with non-TFA teachers in the same school and grades, the authors concluded that TFA represents a viable source of effective teachers.

Laczko-Kerr and Berliner (2003) assert that a teacher shortage in particular content areas and in regions that serve low-income students has given rise to hiring *undercertified* teachers, or those "... with insufficient teacher education course-work and training for traditional certification" (p. 34). As participants in one of the programs that the authors suggest provides *undercertified* teachers, TFA teachers were included in a study the authors conducted in Arizona (Laczko-Kerr & Berliner, 2002). Working with five school districts the study matched certified and *undercertified* newly hired teachers in grades 3-8. The *undercertified* teachers included teachers with no education coursework and those with some education coursework but not enough to gain a traditional certification, including some TFA teachers. In an analysis of 1998-1999 and 1999-2000 reading, math, and language standardized test scores of students of certified and *undercertified* teachers, the data indicate that students of certified teachers had higher scores than students of *undercertified* teachers. When students of TFA teachers were compared with students of other *undercertified* teachers, the authors found no statistically significant difference in the student scores. The authors concluded that having a certified teacher is the equivalent of two months of instruction from which students of *undercertified* teachers do not benefit.

In another study of TFA teachers, Center for Research on Education Outcomes researchers Raymond, Fletcher, and Luque (2001) examined student achievement in the Houston Independent School District (HISD) in 1996-2000. In this study, researchers examined the achievement of the average TFA teachers and that of the average non-TFA teachers, and they looked at the reading and math achievement of students taught by the

highest and lowest performing TFA and non-TFA teachers. The authors investigated the end-of-year standardized test scores in reading and math for the same students for multiple years and determined the gains the student made each year. In addition, demographic and background data on the students and teachers were collected. Since this study was done retrospectively, the students were not randomly assigned to their teachers. The study employed various analyses to control for student differences including regression analysis and econometric analysis. The sample size of TFA teachers was smaller than the comparison groups. Of the 1,802 new teachers hired during 1996-2000, only 117 were TFA teachers. To compare the average TFA teacher to the average non-TFA teacher, the authors looked at students' current performance on standardized tests as a function of their prior performance, student characteristics, teacher characteristics, and class characteristics. The authors also examined the variation among TFA teachers and non-TFA teachers and compared the results.

Similar to the study conducted by Decker, Mayer, and Glazerman (2004), non-TFA newly hired teachers in the study by Raymond, Fletcher, and Luque (2001) represented a more diverse group of teachers. Most TFA teachers were white while in each year of the study at least 50% of the non-TFA newly hired teachers were African-American or Latino. All TFA teachers had at least a bachelor's degree for each year of the study. However, the percentage of newly hired non-TFA teachers who had at least a bachelor's degree ranged from 94% in 1997 to 65% in 2000. The authors note that in some years the HISD hired teachers under emergency licensures. This may have contributed to the large percent of newly hired non-TFA teachers who did not have at

least a bachelor's degree. With the exception of 1998, newly hired non-TFA teachers had a higher attrition rate than TFA teachers within the first two years of teaching. The opposite was true after the first two years of teaching, largely reflecting the two-year classroom teaching commitment TFA teachers make.

When the authors examined the data on the schools in which the teachers in the study taught, it was revealed that TFA teachers were more likely than newly hired non-TFA teachers to be assigned to schools with a higher percentage of students who received free or reduced price school meals, an approximate measure of poverty. Although not all analyses revealed statistically significant differences between students taught by TFA teachers and non-TFA teachers, none of the analyses of student achievement resulted in students being worse off when taught by TFA teachers. In the analyses of achievement in elementary reading, the average TFA teacher produced higher gains than the average non-TFA teacher. In the analyses of achievement in elementary math, TFA teachers produced better scores than non-TFA teachers. The difference was significant when compared to other new teachers hired in the same year. For middle school students, the results of the analyses of reading scores were less conclusive because the majority of the students had multiple reading teachers in one year. In this case, the effect of having a TFA teacher was generally positive, although no statistically significant differences were found. The math results for middle school revealed that students of TFA teachers scored higher than students taught by non-TFA teachers. The results were significant when compared to all non-TFA teachers. When examining the range of student gains across both groups of teachers, the results indicated that "... the highest-performing teachers

were consistently TFA teachers, and the lowest-performing teachers were consistently not TFA” (p. 34). The authors concluded that students of TFA teachers do achieve academically and suggested that alternative entries into the teaching profession can provide effective teachers.

Linda Darling-Hammond, a professor of education at Stanford University, has been critical of TFA since its inception. According to Darling-Hammond, TFA is harmful to students, schools, and the field of teaching. In a 1994 article, Darling-Hammond explains and counters what she asserts are the assumptions underlying TFA. According to the author, TFA assumes that all effective teachers need are content area knowledge and intelligence, that states and districts have the capacity to support the supervision and development of new teachers, that teacher education programs are unnecessary, and that students in teacher education programs are “among the least academically able” (Darling-Hammond, 1994, p. 21). Berry (2001) agrees that many alternative teacher preparation programs are based on the untrue assumption that content area knowledge is sufficient for effective teaching. In addition, Darling-Hammond (1994) draws from reports of former TFA corps members who struggled in the classroom to argue that TFA is harmful to students and the field of education because of inadequate training, poor assessment, and poor supervision. She suggests that TFA teachers enter the classroom lacking training in basic child development, pedagogy, and student motivation, among other things. With a focus on the organization’s first few years in operation, Darling-Hammond (1994) argues that TFA is a service organization created for the benefit of the corps members, not the benefit of the students they teach. Citing

district officials who worked with struggling TFA teachers, Darling-Hammond (1994) contends that TFA teachers blame students for academic failure caused by their own lack of teacher training. “The absence of concern for the children is coupled with an apparent disdain for the effort it takes to become knowledgeable about how to teach children well” (Darling-Hammond, 1994, p. 23).

Darling-Hammond, Cheung, and Frelow (2002) examined the results of a 1998 survey of New York City’s novice teachers. The survey addressed the teachers’ perception of preparedness with regard to 39 areas of teaching, their overall sense of preparedness, their overall feeling of self-efficacy, and their views on teaching as a long-term career. Darling-Hammond, Cheung, and Frelow (2002) compared data based on the routes the teachers took to enter into teaching. Looking at 2,302 teachers with 3 or fewer years of teaching experiences, 18 teacher education programs and TFA had a sample size of at least 20 teachers. The data revealed that on 39 of the 40 items TFA teachers felt less prepared than teachers who graduated from a teacher education program. The difference was significant on 19 survey items. In addition, TFA teachers consistently report a lower feeling of preparedness when compared to teachers in other alternative licensure programs.

TFA has been lauded and criticized in four areas: (1) who the TFA teachers are; (2) the preparation TFA teachers receive; (3) the academic achievement of students taught by TFA teachers; and (4) the extent to which schools, districts, and communities benefit from having TFA teachers. TFA teachers are college graduates who, for the most part, did not study education prior to joining the program. Advocates of TFA stress the

prestigious colleges and universities from which they recruit and the record of academic achievement and leadership many of the TFA participants possess (Kopp, 2000; Tell, 2001). In addition, proponents of TFA and alternative licensure programs contend that there are a high number of non-TFA teachers who enter the classroom with less preparation and support than TFA teachers (Tatel, 1997). Critics counter that TFA teachers are assigned to some of the most challenging classrooms with minimal preparation and overwhelmingly leave the classroom after two years, just when schools and students could begin to benefit from expertise sharpened through experience (Darling-Hammond, 2002). Proponents answer with surveys of principals who hire TFA teachers reporting a high degree of satisfaction with TFA teachers (Tatel 1997; Kopp, 2000). Furthermore, the majority of TFA teachers continue to work to improve the education of students in poverty from within and outside of the classroom beyond their two year commitment (Kopp, 2000; Tell 2001). Some critics assert that given the research that links licensure with student achievement full licensure should be required of all teachers prior to having full responsibility of a classroom (Berry, 2001; Laczko-Kerr & Berliner, 2003).

When compared to other teachers hired in the same school districts to teach in similar classrooms, TFA successfully recruits teachers with strong academic backgrounds and who tend to complete their two year commitment to teaching. Two studies, Decker, Mayer, and Glazerman (2004) and Raymond, Fletcher, and Luque (2001), have examined the achievement of students taught by TFA teachers and reveal that those students do as well as students of other newly hired teachers who teach in similar classrooms. Another

study, Laczko-Kerr and Berliner (2002), concluded that all students of teachers without full licensure, including TFA teachers, suffer academically. In addition, the brevity, content, and structure of the TFA summer institute do not appear to address all of the competencies suggested by the research on effective teaching (Darling-Hammond, 1994). The partnerships TFA forms with school districts leave the ultimate training and preparation of TFA teachers to be conducted while the teachers are teaching students and subject to local regulations. This could introduce a high rate of variability in the preparation and support TFA teachers receive based on the regions they are assigned. As a result of the very nature of the two-year commitment that TFA teachers are asked to make, TFA does not address the long-term question of how to ensure that a high quality teacher is in every classroom. Finally, questions still remain as to whether the costs of preparing, receiving, and replacing a teacher every two years outweigh the benefits some TFA teachers appear to bring to their classrooms.

Using research on TFA as the best developed line of inquiry, it seems that the current body of research on the traditional and alternate routes to teacher licensure offers conflicting conclusions regarding alternative teacher licensure programs. Alternative routes into teaching tend to attract a more diverse population in terms of age, ethnicity, and gender. In addition, graduates of alternative licensure programs are more likely to teach in urban areas and in schools that serve high numbers of minority students, directly addressing some areas of teacher shortage. Proponents of alternative licensure argue that graduates of alternative licensure programs possess content expertise and real-world experience and would not have otherwise entered the teaching field. Beyond TFA,

however, other alternate routes into teaching may bring into the profession teachers with a lower rate of academic achievement and who leave the field at a higher rate than their traditionally prepared peers. Critics of alternative licensure programs argue that the training in many alternative licensure programs is inadequate in duration and content and that these programs place poorly trained teachers into schools with the greatest need for high quality instruction. Proponents of alternative licensure programs assert that alternatively licensed teachers would not have entered the field through costly and lengthy traditional preparation programs. By all accounts, little is known about the instruction that occurs in the classrooms of alternative licensed teachers and about the academic achievement of their students.

Little research investigates how alternatively licensed teachers conceptualize teaching and learning or attempts to measure explicitly the effectiveness of alternatively licensed teachers specifically with addressing the needs of ELLs. English as a second language is considered to be one of the critical shortage content areas many alternative licensure programs are designed to address. In 1995, there were 2.44 million ELLs in U.S. public schools. This number had almost doubled from 1979 (NCES, 2004). ELLs were enrolled in at least 46% of all public schools during the school year 1993-1994 (NCES, 2004). In addition, large numbers of ELLs are students in urban areas where alternatively licensed teachers are more likely to be employed (Schoon & Sandoval, 2000). Given this status, ELLs could be disproportionately affected by alternatively certified teachers. Research into how well alternatively certified teachers address the learning needs of ELLs is needed.

Effective Instruction for English Language Learners

The education of ELLs in the United States has traditionally been the scope of bilingual education and English as a Second Language (ESL) programs. The debate over which language of instruction should be used and the question of how long it takes for ELLs to become proficient in English initially dominated research regarding the education of ELLs (Garcia, 1991b). Although these topics are still debated, a shift in focus has occurred from programmatic characteristics towards characteristics of schools, teachers, and instructional methods that enhance the long-term academic achievement of ELLs.

Many authors have conducted qualitative and quantitative research on the characteristics of effective schools and effective instruction for ELLs. In a review of descriptive research studies that sought to identify school settings that effectively educated ELLs, Garcia (1991a) summarizes the common effective instructional practices observed in those schools. According to the research review, effective instructional practices for ELLs focused on integrated, theme-based instructional units and collaborative learning. The effective instructional practices identified in this research review also included meaningful communication between the teacher and the student and among students and student-led transition from native language literacy development to literacy development in English.

Pease-Alvarez, Garcia, and Espinosa (1991) combine the results of a large-scale study and a case study of two effective teachers of language minority students to delineate characteristics of effective programs for and effective teachers of language

minority students. The authors assert that effective programs for language minority students: a) emphasize the relevance of school curriculum to the students' lives; b) establish a school and classroom culture that complements the students' background; c) support classroom interaction that promotes active and collaborative learning; and d) operate as an entire school community dedicated to realizing the cognitive, academic, and social benefits of bilingualism. The authors then describe the results of a case study on two early childhood bilingual educators. Pease-Alvarez, Garcia, and Espinosa (1991) concluded that the two bilingual teachers of the study were effective because they were constantly learning and adjusting their instructional practices to support the achievement of their students. In addition, the teachers had a considerable amount of experience and were bilingual and bi-literate. The teachers engaged their students in active learning and participated in collaborative exchanges with their students. The teachers were committed to community and parent partnerships. They also felt a certain degree of professional autonomy to implement research-based classroom innovations that they felt would benefit their students.

In another study of effective early childhood bilingual educators, Malave (1993) outlines the characteristics of an effective teacher as defined by nominations from other educators, parents, and administrators, and describes the gains in oral language proficiency made by students of teachers defined as effective using the study's criteria. Among the students taught by teachers nominated as effective bilingual educators, the level of the students' language proficiency correlated with the number of nominations a teacher received. A correlation of 0.68 was found with a Spearman correlation analysis.

Most students, however, received services from both a bilingual and ESL teacher; therefore, the influence of the effectiveness of each teacher is unknown. Also, students with the lowest pre-test scores made the most substantial gains in oral language development. With regards to the characteristics of effective teachers, bilingualism, cultural understanding, caring for the children, and organization were common characteristics cited by parents, teachers, and administrators. The affective qualities of effective bilingual teachers receive less attention in teacher preparation programs, although cited especially by parents and teachers in this study.

Although the establishment of an effective school environment and the implementation of effective instructional strategies for ELLs are largely dependent upon the quantity and quality of the educators who serve them (Boe, 1990; Garcia, 1991b; Gold, 1992), research on effective schools and instruction contributes highly to the field of bilingual education. In a longitudinal study on the academic performance of language minority students in five large school districts analyzing more than 700,000 student records from 1982-1996, Thomas and Collier (1997) detail their findings regarding two research questions: (1) How long does it take for ELLs to reach parity with native English speakers on widely used assessments? (2) What school programs and instructional variables most positively influence the long-term academic achievement of ELLs? Thomas and Collier conducted this study in school districts practiced in serving language minority students and who had well-implemented programs. The students in this study had no English prior to enrolling in school. The authors performed both cross-sectional and longitudinal statistical analysis across the entire sample and for each school

district. The authors document the long-term academic achievement of ELLs who were enrolled in a well-implemented program based on one of the following models: ESL pullout, ESL content-based instruction, transitional bilingual education with ESL, transitional bilingual education with ESL content-based instruction, one-way developmental bilingual education with ESL content-based instruction, or two-way developmental bilingual education with ESL content-based instruction.

Thomas and Collier's findings indicate that ELLs who are given high quality academic instruction in their native language along with cognitively demanding instruction in English for a minimum of 5 to 6 years are able to perform at least as well as their native English-speaking peers and maintain their achievement gains throughout their schooling. Therefore, encouraging second language learners' continued linguistic and cognitive development in their native language positively influences their linguistic, academic, and cognitive development in the target language. When a learner continues to learn academic content in his/her native language while developing a second language, he/she does not fall behind academically. According to Collier (1997), "Whatever cognitive and academic support in the first language can be provided...will benefit students' academic achievement in the second language" (p. 16).

In addition to the language of instruction, the academic and cognitive level of instruction, and the presence of first language support, in their prism model Thomas and Collier (1997) contend that socio-cultural factors also contribute to the successful language acquisition process of ELLs, and therefore, their academic achievement. Similarly Collier's (1997) research synthesis examines four major aspects of language

acquisition within school settings: linguistic processes, socio-cultural processes, cognitive processes, and academic processes. Her research synthesis provides a framework for employing effective schooling and instructional practices for ELLs and integrates instructional, program, and school-based characteristics that contribute to the effective schooling of ELLs.

Cognitive processes in second language acquisition include “the development of all academic skills in all subject areas” and “the internal processes that can be controlled by the learner and influenced by the teacher and classroom setting” (Collier, 1997, p. 31). Academic processes in school-based second language acquisition entail the ways in which language is acquired through content-based instruction. In educational settings, linguistic processes consist of the acquisition of both social language and academic language. These two forms of language represent a continuum along which the learner progresses in order to achieve academic parity with native speakers of the target language. According to Collier (1997), “a good teacher includes social and academic language development in every lesson” (p. 9).

Social language is conversational interchanges where communicated meaning can be supported by nonverbal and context clues. According to Collier (1997), “in social language, meaning is negotiated; in other words you [the speakers] help each other along through the feedback that you give...” (p. 8). Academic language includes the aspects of the target language needed to communicate across all four language modalities in content areas that increase in difficulty with each grade in school and that have their own vocabulary and linguistic structures (Collier, 1997). Academic language tends to be more

abstract, cognitively demanding, and de-contextualized (Cummins, 2000). Social and academic language development form a continuum. Cummins (2000) theory of basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency articulates this continuum. Based on research and observation, Cummins (2000) posits that second language learners appear proficient in the target language because proficiency in BICS, or conversational language proficiency, usually occurs within two years. However, it can take at least five years for second language learners to attain grade level fluency in the target language as it relates to academic content.

Current second language acquisition theory and research describe the process of acquiring a second language as developmental, with the learner progressing through various stages, or proficiency levels (Hill & Flynn, 2006). In addition, the socio-cultural context for second language learning in a school setting influences the cognitive, linguistic, and academic processes. Socio-cultural context for second language acquisition in school settings in the United States is often conceptualized in three levels. One level is when considering the learner's position in general society or the general community. This would include whether the learner is a member of a cultural, ethnic, or economic group that is afforded a high or low level of status in the United States. At the school and classroom level, similar inter- and intra-group interaction are at play along with the level of congruity between the learner's home culture and the cultural norms that operate in schools (Brown, 2000). However, educators can work to create school and classroom communities that afford equal status to both majority and minority languages and operate from the principle of equity (Collier, 1997). The learner's personal social and

cultural history is another level that would include such factors as whether or not the learner came to the United States from a war-torn country, whether or not the learner lived (or lives) in a high level of poverty, and whether or not the learner's first language is being supported and maintained at home (Collier, 1997).

The length of time ELLs need to reach academic parity in target language with native speakers of the target language can not be sped up, but it can be impeded. "The types of instructional support that we give and the socio-cultural context established at school have a lot of influence on acquisition of academic second language" (Collier, 1997, p. 11). Effective instruction for ELLs addresses both the need for language acquisition and continued cognitive development by teaching English through content and by developing English listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills simultaneously. Teaching language through the content areas allows for the meaningful interaction with language and reduces the rate at which ELLs fall behind academically while learning the target language. Collier (1997) concludes that there are specific instructional strategies that support students' meaningful interaction with English while developing listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills: "...Classes that are highly interactive, emphasizing student problem-solving and discovery learning through thematic experiences across the curriculum are likely to provide the kind of social setting for natural language acquisition to take place" (Collier, 1997, p. 18). In addition, "...Structuring our classes so that students naturally interact with each other as they work on acquisition of new knowledge will lead to natural second language acquisition" (Collier, 1997, p. 19). According to Collier (1997), "Second language acquisition research has clearly demonstrated that the

most important source of input in second language development comes from same-age peers, and peers are more important than the teacher as a model for the new language” (p. 35). Instructional methods such as cooperative learning in small groups and pairs provide the structure within which students interact with their peers.

The implications for educators of ELLs are clear. Schools are social entities. In addition to effective instructional strategies, ELLs require class and school structures that positively influence linguistic, academic, and cognitive development based on a comprehensive understanding of the socio-cultural influences in the students’ personal lives. Collier (1997) asserts that “...school practices that encourage inclusion and positive perceptions of school have real potential to break [negative] societal, social, and cultural patterns” (p. 26).

Effective instruction for ELLs includes the recognition of diverse cognitive and learning styles and the application of a variety of instructional strategies that address the cognitive variety present in a classroom at any given moment. The most effective schooling practices continue the cognitive, linguistic, and academic development of ELLs in their native language and in English and establish a school culture structured in a way that affords equal status to the two languages and cultures. This increases the home-school connection and positively affects the socio-cultural between-group forces inherent in a multicultural society. In addition, research supports instructional strategies for ELLs that include the explicit instruction of the learning strategies needed to master content in the target language, cognitively challenging content area studies, and multicultural perspectives. Effective instruction for ELLs includes a thematic, interdisciplinary

approach to learning based in a collaborative, interactive learning environment. Specific suggestions include: activating students' prior knowledge; making connections across the curriculum; making connections to students' culture, experience, and past; and creating classroom structures that involve all students in meaningful learning as equals.

These instructional strategies are supported in a research synthesis on effective instruction of ELLs by Waxman and Tellez (2002). Their research synthesis defines seven aspects of effective instruction of ELLs. According to the authors, effective instruction of ELLs involves (a) collaborative learning in small groups where the students interact in English with peers; (b) the use of words, realia, visuals, and graphic organizers so that information presented orally in English are also represented in multiple ways to facilitate comprehension; (c) instruction that builds upon the knowledge students have because of previous instruction and experiences, linguistic background, and cultural traditions; (d) "instructional conversations" where teachers extend exchanges in English beyond the goal of providing the correct answer and teacher-directed instruction toward the development of higher level thinking; (e) instruction that incorporates students' cultural background into the curriculum and patterns of classroom interaction; (f) instruction that explicitly teaches and models cognitive learning strategies; and, (g) instruction where technology is used to capitalize on student motivation and make learning more student-directed. Waxman and Tellez (2002) assert that above all teachers of ELLs must be aware that they are language and content area teachers and understand the processes involved in language development. "Of utmost concern is that teachers of

ELLs must be knowledgeable about language development and language acquisition” (Waxman & Tellez, 2002, p. 30).

In a more recent research review on effective instruction for ELLs, Hill and Flynn (2006) come to similar conclusions. Hill and Flynn (2006) reviewed the research on instructional methods effective with ELLs as it relates to nine categories: (1) setting objectives and providing feedback; (2) nonlinguistic representations; (3) cues, questions, and advance organizers; (4) cooperative learning; (5) summarizing and note taking; (6) homework and practice; (7) reinforcing effort and providing recognition; (8) generating and testing hypotheses; and, (9) identifying similarities and differences. The authors surmise that strategies beneficial for ELLs include direct instruction on vocabulary; the use of linguistic and nonlinguistic representation of content and concepts; the activation of students’ prior knowledge; instruction in learning strategies; and the use of cooperative learning structures. Hill and Flynn (2006) also maintain the importance of teachers understanding the language acquisition processes, noting that all instructional strategies need to be tailored to the students’ stage in the language development process.

To teach students a new language is to help them know its sounds (phonology), its words (lexicon), and its sentence formation (syntax and semantics). To help students learn content in a new language, we must use clear and concise articulation, make eye contact, use visuals, employ gestures/body movement/pantomime, use shorter and simpler sentences at a slower rate, use high-frequency vocabulary and eliminate idiomatic expressions. We also have to model, scaffold, access, and activate students’ prior knowledge; provide cooperative learning activities; and differentiate instruction. Making such accommodations helps provide better instruction for all of your students (Hill & Flynn, 2006, p. 2).

Current research implies that effective instructional practices for ELLs are employed within a classroom where the individual needs and strengths of each student

(including use of the students' native language at school) are validated and supported (Hill & Flynn, 2006; Wortham & Contreras, 2002). In addition, educators must recognize the multi-dimensional nature of second language acquisition and utilize instructional strategies that address negative socio-cultural influences (cooperative learning; placing students as equals). These instructional strategies not only address the affective needs of ELLs, but they also encourage language acquisition through meaningful interaction with verbal and written language, native English speaking peers, and cognitively demanding academic concepts.

In addition to research on instructional strategies, classroom environments, school cultures, and teacher characteristics most effective for ELLs, the professional organization Teachers of Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) produced national standards for the effective instruction of ELLs (Gottlieb, Carnuccio, Ernst-Slavit, Katz, & Snow, 2006). The TESOL *PreK-12 English Language Proficiency Standards*, listed in Table 5, focus on the development of English language oral proficiency and literacy through the content areas. The TESOL *PreK-12 English Language Proficiency Standards* integrate the 1997 TESOL *ESL Standards for PreK-12* students and content area standards developed by national organizations. The standards reflect the language usage across all four modalities related to functioning successfully within a classroom setting and “the unique contextual usage of language in the core content areas...” (Gottlieb, Carnuccio, Ernst-Slavit, Katz, & Snow, 2006, p. 29). The standards are organized into grade level groupings: PreK-K, Grades 1-3, Grades 4 and 5, Grades 6-8, and Grades 9-12; and divided into five language proficiency levels: starting, emerging,

developing, expanding, and bridging. A student acquiring English could perform within the same grade level grouping at various language proficiency levels across the four modalities.

Table 5.
PreK-12 English Language Proficiency Standards

Standard 1: English language learners communicate for social, intercultural, and instructional purposes within the school setting
Standard 2: English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of language arts
Standard 3: English language learners communicate information ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of mathematics
Standard 4: English language learners communicate information ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of science
Standard 5: English language learners communicate information ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of social studies

(Gottlieb, Carnuccio, Ernst-Slavit, Katz, & Snow, 2006)

The conceptual framework echoes the research in this field in its characterization of the nature of language acquisition. The TESOL standards assert that “language acquisition occurs over time with learners moving through developmental stages [and]...is learned most effectively when it is used in meaningful situations as learners interact with others to accomplish their purposes” (Gottlieb, Carnuccio, Ernst-Slavit, Katz, & Snow, 2006, p.14-15). The standards provide examples of numerous instructional strategies and supports. The authors conclude that “with instruction that supports students visually, graphically, or interactively and gives them multiple avenues

to access meaning, English language learners are able to engage in higher levels of cognitive involvement within lower levels of English language proficiency” (Gottlieb, Carnuccio, Ernst-Slavit, Katz, & Snow, 2006, p. 43).

In collaboration with the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), TESOL also created standards to define what high quality teacher education programs that prepare teachers to teach ELLs should address (TESOL, 2002). These TESOL/NCATE standards are divided into five domains and 12 standards, listed in Table 6. The TESOL/NCATE teacher preparation standards are intended to inform the preparation of teachers of ELLs so that their instruction is reflective of what is known from current research on second language acquisition and standards for the effective instruction for ELLs outlined in the TESOL PreK-12 standards.

Domain 1 of the TESOL/NCATE standards addresses teachers’ knowledge of language acquisition and how they use that knowledge to help ELLs develop content area skills and English language and literacy skills. Domain 2 discusses the importance of culture in teaching and learning. Within this domain, teachers must demonstrate knowledge of how culture influences within and across group interaction and students’ identity and how these influences come to play when learning language and academic content within a school setting. Domain 3 focuses on standards-based instruction that addresses diverse academic and linguistic levels through a variety of teaching strategies and learner appropriate materials and resources. This instruction integrates all four language modalities and facilitates language acquisition concurrent with the learning of academic content. For domain 4, teachers demonstrate knowledge of various types of

assessments, the purposes of each kind of assessment, and issues related to assessing ELLs including issues of linguistic and cultural biases. In addition, domain 4 addresses the use of language proficiency assessments for purposes of identification and placement, within special programs for ELLs and to evaluate the English language development of ELLs. Domain 4 also addresses the evaluation of ELLs' mastery of academic content through the use of multiple assessment processes. Domain 5 focuses on the profession of being an educator of ELLs. To achieve the standards of this domain, teachers advocate on behalf of ELLs and their families and act as resources for teachers unfamiliar with the effective instruction of ELLs and the particular needs of ELLs. Teachers demonstrate a command of the "history, research, and current practice" of teaching English as a second language.

Table 6.

TESOL/NCATE Standards for the Accreditation of Initial Programs in PreK-12 ESL Teacher Education

- Domain 1: Language
 - Standard 1.a. Describing Language
 - Standard 1.b. Language Acquisition and Development
- Domain 2: Culture
 - Standard 2.a. Nature and Role of Culture
 - Standard 2.b. Cultural Groups and Identity
- Domain 3: Planning, Implementing, and Managing Instruction
 - Standard 3.a. Planning for Standards-Based ESL and Content Instruction
 - Standard 3.b. Managing and Implementing Standards-Based ESL and Content Instruction
- Domain 4: Assessment
 - Standard 4.a. Issues of Assessment for ESL
 - Standard 4.b. Language Proficiency Assessment
 - Standard 4. c. Classroom-Based Assessment for ESL
- Domain 5: Professionalism
 - Standard 5.a. ESL Research and History
 - Standard 5.b. Partnership and Advocacy
 - Standard 5 c. Professional Development and Collaboration

Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, (2002).

A review of literature on the effective instruction of ELLs emphasizes the complex nature of the linguistic, cognitive, and socio-cultural aspects of second language learning in classrooms. However, according to research, schools and teachers who are successful in enabling ELLs to achieve academically have some things in common. Effective instruction for ELLs utilizes curricula that are structured to promote meaningful communication and interaction; relevant and connected to the students' home culture and language; and organized and integrated in a manner that encourages the simultaneous learning of content and the acquisition of language (Hill & Flynn, 2006).

Effectiveness research often leaves out specific details of the preparation the teachers defined as effective received. If characteristics of teacher preparation are included, they

usually are limited to whether or not the teacher is fully credentialed. Usually focusing on veteran teachers, additional indications of teacher quality, such as years of experience and tendency towards participation in in-service training, are included in some studies. Little research has been conducted to investigate the degree to which beginning teachers, alternatively or traditionally certified, are effective with ELLs.

This research study examined the qualifying portfolios of alternatively licensed teachers in a diverse urban school district. The nexus of alternative teacher licensure and the instruction of ELLs has not been addressed fully in the literature. The goal of this study was to determine the extent to which the alternatively certified teachers evidence effective instructional practices for ELLs. The TESOL/NCATE standards for the preparation of teachers of ELLs and research examining the effective instruction of ELLs served as the framework for the analysis of alternatively certified teachers' qualifying portfolios. The TESOL/NCATE standards' rubric was used to assess the extent to which the participants evidence effective instructional strategies for ELLs in their qualifying portfolio.

Mercy College New Teacher Residency Program Philosophy and Coursework

The underlying philosophy of NTRP is explained in the *Masters Program Overview and Outcomes* document (Mercy College New Teacher Residency Program, n.d.). According to the NTRP curricular vision, the Program Outcomes:

...serve as the building blocks of the Mercy College New Teacher Residency Program's curriculum. They form both the roots from which all NTRP coursework and program assessments stem, as well as the interlacing cords that tie together all courses and program assessments.The interrelation of the courses ensures a coherent and consistent

curriculum, while addressing the individual needs of special education, bilingual education, and general education teachers.

NTRP participants spend two years completing coursework for their master's degree and initial teaching certification. The NTRP coursework is comprised of 11 courses organized around four themes: Essentials of effective practice, Designs for learning, Re-imagining schools, and The Student and Community. In addition, participants complete a mid-program and end-of-program assessment, the Culminating Assessment Project (CAP). The program assessments are designed to determine the extent to which the program participants have developed competency in each of the Outcomes. The courses are the tools through which the participants develop those competencies. The NTRP curricular vision describes the courses' themes in detail.

The Essentials of Effective Practice courses will exemplify what effective teaching and learning look like and challenge participants to chart their own course towards becoming a reflective practitioner. The Student and the Community courses will help participants develop a keen understanding of the "whole student" and the multiple communities to which their students belong. The Designs for Learning courses will help participants develop methods to best teach all students, with a particular emphasis on literacy and numeracy instruction. In combination, these foundation courses will help participants see their students holistically and differentiate their instruction for all students, including those with special needs and those for whom English is a second language. The Education Policy and Education Philosophy courses will provide participants with the opportunity to step back and examine their notions of teaching and learning, their role as an educator, and the larger education community.

As the director of curriculum, I participated in and facilitated monthly meetings with staff and the NTRP director where the goals, objectives, and guidelines for the NTRP curriculum were defined. My notes from those meetings document a consensus among all involved that the content, delivery, and assessment of the NTRP curriculum

should prepare teachers to be effective educators for the diverse student populations served by the New York City public schools. We agreed upon a “blended curriculum” as our curriculum model. The process for creating the blended curriculum involved examining the New York State Education Department, Council for Exceptional Children (CEC), and TESOL/NCATE standards for teacher preparation programs and integrating the content of those standards throughout the NTRP coursework. It was decided that we would not offer specific courses in specific areas such as “introduction to special education” or “ESL methods.” Instead, the NTRP curriculum was designed to weave the competencies needed to successfully educate students with special needs and ELLs as defined by the TESOL and CEC standards throughout all of the courses. During the creation of the curriculum, NTRP staff conducted an audit of the NYSED, CEC, and TESOL standards. The purpose of the audit was to determine the extent to which the curriculum addressed these standards, to identify gaps in the curriculum, and to improve the curriculum to adequately address these standards. As the courses were created, NTRP staff regularly consulted the standards audit to ensure that the courses integrated the content of the standards.

In its program philosophy and course descriptions, NTRP’s stated purpose is to prepare effective teachers for all students within the cultural, linguistic, and ability diverse context of New York City public schools. With a specific focus on ELLs, this study examined the extent to which the program has realized this goal.

3. Methods

This chapter describes how participant selection, data collection, and data analysis occurred in this study. In addition, issues related to validity, reliability, and ethical matters associated with this study are discussed in this chapter.

This study examined the extent to which graduates of the Mercy College New Teacher Residency Program (NTRP) evidence in their qualifying portfolio instructional practices effective for ELLs. The Mercy College NTRP is an alternative licensure and Master's degree program that seeks to prepare effective educators for culturally, linguistically, and ability-diverse student populations through an integrated teacher education curriculum. The creation of the Mercy College NTRP curriculum was informed by the Mercy College NTRP Program Outcomes and the teacher preparation standards of the Council for Exceptional Children, Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages/ National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, and New York State Education Department. Participants in the Mercy College NTRP complete two years of coursework while simultaneously teaching in NYC public schools. In order to successfully complete the program, NTRP teachers also submit the Culminating Assessment Project (CAP), a qualifying portfolio designed to allow the teachers to demonstrate the extent to which they have achieved the NTRP Program Outcomes. This study assessed the CAPs according to the TESOL/NCATE standards and rubrics and

used qualitative analysis to examine the ways in which the teachers evidence effective instructional practices for ELLs in their CAPs.

The CAPs were evaluated according to the TESOL/NCATE standards' rubrics, to address the research question, "To what extent do graduates of the Mercy College NTRP evidence effective instructional strategies for English language learners?" Descriptive statistics provide the results of this analysis. In addition, qualitative methods were used to analyze the content of the CAPs and address the research question, "In what ways do graduates of the Mercy College NTRP evidence effective instructional strategies for English language learners?" The TESOL/NCATE rubrics for the national standards for the preparation of teachers of ELLs and research on the effective instruction of ELLs served as the context for this analysis.

Participants

This study utilized 2005 graduates of the NTRP. The 2005 graduating cohort consisted of 506 teachers. For purposes of this study, teachers who were assigned 2004-2005 placements other than general elementary education were excluded. This excluded teachers in special education, bilingual education, and English-as-a-second language placements from the population for this study. The remaining cohort consisted of 223 teachers. The teachers were placed in 70 schools. In many cases, small groups of NTRP teachers were assigned to the same school.

In 2000, 15 % of students enrolled in New York City's public schools were classified as ELLs (New York Board of Education, 2000). Those NTRP 2005 graduates who received a general elementary certification and taught in a general education

placement in a school where at least 20% of the students were classified as ELLs during the school year 2004-2005 were eligible to participate in the study.

The Mercy College NTRP strives to establish a standard in teacher preparation that acknowledges the cultural, linguistic, and ability diversity of the urban school districts it serves. The Mercy College NTRP's Curricular Vision states that

Recognizing the inherent diversity in the public school student population in urban areas, our program defines good teaching as differentiated instruction that meets the individual learning needs of all students. Therefore, the program of study reflects a blended approach to teacher education weaving special education theory and practice throughout the curriculum. The interrelation of the courses ensures a coherent curriculum, while addressing the individual needs of special education, bilingual education, and general education teachers.

It is a reasonable expectation that teachers assigned to teach the general student population in schools with at least 20% ELLs, a rate higher than the citywide average in 2000, would exhibit instructional practices demonstrated through the literature and the work of TESOL/NCATE as benefiting ELLs. All NTRP teachers experienced the same curriculum written by the NTRP curriculum team and taught by faculty and adjunct instructors hired, trained, and supervised by the NTRP staff. Therefore this study investigated the instructional practices as evidenced through the CAPs of NTRP graduates in elementary level placements in schools with a high number of ELLs.

Data Collection

Once the list of eligible participants was created, all eligible participants were sent an invitation to participate by the director of the NTRP on behalf of the researcher. This effort did not result in any participants. The invitation to participate in a study was

rewritten and sent out again by the program director. This resulted in two participants. The program director and another program staff member reviewed the list of eligible participants, identified graduates from the list with whom they had a relationship, and sent personalized invitations to participate in the study via email. This resulted in one additional respondent. The NTRP also had in storage some CAPs of successful graduates who had agreed to give their CAPs to the NTRP for use in training and research. The researcher examined the CAPs the NTRP had in storage. Four of those CAPs were eligible to participate in the study. The program director sent out a final email to all eligible participants. Four additional graduates agreed to participate. At least two copies of each CAP were made. Original copies of the CAPs were returned to their owner if their address was known. Of the 11 CAPs that collected, one was disqualified because upon review of the CAP it was discovered that the teacher did not have a general elementary placement in 2004-2005, although he had received a general elementary certification. Another CAP was used to establish inter-rater reliability. Of the remaining nine, six were randomly chosen to be analyzed for this study.

Validity

In conducting this research, threats to validity were addressed through the use of memos, soliciting feedback from colleagues, and triangulation. Researcher bias is one of the most relevant threats to validity for this study. I realize that as a researcher I am influenced by my work with the NTRP, its curriculum, and the CAP, and my work as an educator with a focus on the education of second language learners. I am no longer employed by TNTP and left with intact, positive relationships. I would receive no benefit

in skewing the data in a flattering or an unflattering manner. My commitment to the preparation of teachers who are effective educators with diverse populations works to counter any bias towards making the data more positive than it reveals itself to be. Although I hope that I was not a participant in preparing hundreds of substandard teachers, I am more concerned with contributing to the body of knowledge that will improve the preparation of future teachers. After all, teaching licenses, once granted, are not easily revoked. I am aware that the sum total of my experiences contributes to who I am and serve as the lens through which the research will be viewed. I monitored for areas for potential bias through the use of reflective, descriptive, and analytic memos (Maxwell, 1996). Glesne (1999) advises that “continual alertness to your own biases . . . assists in producing more trustworthy interpretations” (p. 151). In addition, I periodically enlisted colleagues to offer feedback on the analytic processes while rating and coding the CAPs and during the development and articulation of the research findings. According to Maxwell (1996) seeking comments from colleagues is beneficial for addressing potential threats to validity, biases, and methodological flaws.

Reliability

Miles and Huberman (1994) suggest that having a colleague code a small section of the data in addition to the researcher, comparing the results, and working toward a high rate of inter-coder reliability increases the reliability of the data and findings. This was the method pursued to increase the reliability of the findings of this study.

Inter-Coder Agreement

The CAP guidelines and literature on effective instructional practices for ELLs were reviewed. A list of themes that emerged from this review was created. The themes, which became the first list of codes, were: 1) instruction, 2) issues of language and culture, 3) classroom environment, and 4) issues of family and community. The code “other” was added to make note of other themes that emerged from the data.

Using the initial codes, one section of one CAP was coded. The particular CAP section was chosen because it contained both text and pictures. This served to ensure that the codes would be applicable to a variety of evidence. The researcher then met with two colleagues who coded that same CAP section with the initial codes. In the meeting it was discussed how each person coded the CAP section, including how the codes, CAP text, and CAP pictures were interpreted and which codes were unclear or repetitive until an agreed upon understanding of the codes was established. The initial codes were then revised. The second set of codes was: 1) instruction, 2) language and culture, 3) family and community, 4) classroom interaction, and 5) other. The researcher then coded six CAPs, randomly selected from all collected CAPs.

The researcher then again met with the same two colleagues who coded and scored a section of the CAP using the revised list of codes. The inter-coder agreement rate was 75%. The researcher and two colleagues discussed the areas where the assigned codes did not agree along with the meaning and application of each code. The code family/community was clarified to refer to the out-of-school community. The meaning of “classroom interaction” was clarified to refer to interplay among students, between

students and teachers, and student in-class behavior. The “other” code was discarded and “professional development/leadership” was created as a code because most of the data that was coded “other” in the first round of data analysis referred to the teacher’s professional development, professional collaboration, or professional leadership. The list of codes was again revised and the CAP section re-coded, using colored highlighters as an additional visual tool. Table 7 lists the revised codes and their corresponding colors. An inter-coder agreement rate of 90% was reached. The revised list of codes included:

Table 7.
Coding Categories for Inter-coder Agreement

Pink	Instruction, Instructional structures, assessments,
Blue	Language and culture: Mentions of race, ethnicity, language
Orange	Classroom interaction Interplay among the students Behavior (not daily schedule)
Green	Family/community- out of school community, SES
Yellow	Professional development/ leadership

Inter-Rater Agreement

A similar process occurred with the TESOL/NCATE standards. The researcher met with two colleagues to discuss the meaning of each of the TESOL/NCATE performance indicators and the need for an additional “no evidence noted” section. A

“no evidence” section was added to the TESOL/NCATE rubric used to score the CAP section. The six randomly selected CAPs were scored by the researcher using the TESOL/NCATE rubric. The researcher’s two colleagues also scored a section of a CAP using the TESOL/NCATE rubric. Inter-rater agreement was measured. There are 70 performance indicators. All agreed on the ratings for 48 performance indicators, an agreement rate of 69%. During a second meeting, the researcher and her two colleagues discussed the performance indicators where the scores did not agree, along with the meaning and application of each score. It was agreed that “NE” would be used as the score when no evidence was noted. It was clarified that the ratings are cumulative, i.e., receiving a rating of “meets the standards” implies that evidence for the descriptors of “approaches the standards” (the lower rating) were also present. In addition, there must be evidence of at least half of the descriptors of the higher ratings. For example, if evidence of “approaches the standards” is present and there are two descriptors under “meets the standards,” there must be evidence of at least one of the two descriptors in order for the rating to be “meets the standards.” If there are three descriptors, there must be evidence of at least two of the three descriptors to warrant that rating. The researcher and her two colleagues revised the scoring of the CAP section together and came to agreement on the ratings for 59 performance indicators, an inter-rater agreement rate of 84%.

The previously scored and coded CAPs were discarded. Using clean copies of all eligible CAPs, six CAPs were randomly selected. Using the revised list of codes, the researcher coded all of the data and scored the data using the TESOL /NCATE rubric.

After she coded and scored the data, the researcher gave a section of a different CAP to two colleagues who coded and scored it. Inter-coder agreement was measured. There was an inter-rater agreement rate of 80% with one colleague (agreeing on 56 of 70 performance indicators) and 81% (agreeing on 57 of 70 performance indicators) with the other colleague.

Triangulation is often thought to occur by using multiple data sources, multiple data collection methods, and/or multiple researchers. To these methods of triangulation Miles and Huberman (1994) add triangulation by data type where multiple kinds of data are used. The content of the CAP itself offered multiple data sources and types of data. The CAP was designed to achieve triangulation by providing for multiple kinds of data from multiple sources. The CAP components include anonymous parent and student surveys, observations by NTRP staff members, teachers' reflections on professional practice, an instructional unit designed by the teacher, and evidence selected by the teachers from multiple sources—coursework, student work samples, and teacher created instructional materials. The CAP contains multiple pieces of evidence that examine effective teaching from diverse perspectives. The CAP was designed to maximize the evaluation of effective teaching through the convergence of these data. Thus the analysis of the CAP components within each individual CAP and across the participants could provide opportunities to see the data through multiple means, identify patterns, and identify discrepant cases.

Limitations

This study examined the portfolios of six graduates of one alternative teacher preparation program. The data source, the participants' CAPs, contained rich and varied data. However, the general topic of this study, the evidencing of effective instruction for ELLs, lends itself to a number of data collection methods that are beyond the scope of this research including classroom observations and analysis of student achievement data. The study's limitations make both of these data collection methods unfeasible. As a culminating portfolio assessment, the CAP is completed at the end of a two-year graduate degree and licensure program. This study is being conducted on data submitted in the spring of 2005; therefore, classroom observations of the school year that led up to the completion of the CAP are not possible. Furthermore, student achievement data at the individual teacher level for ELLs is not available. The researcher worked to maintain the transparency of the limitations of the data in an effort to display the trustworthiness of the data as Glesne (1999) suggests.

Ethical Issues

The participants of this study are members of the NTRP cohort that graduated in May 2005. During five of the six semesters that this cohort attended the program, the researcher served as the Director of Curriculum for The New Teacher Project (TNTP) and worked with the Mercy College NTRP. According to the mission and vision statement posted on their website, TNTP is a non-profit organization that "... partners with educational entities to increase the numbers of outstanding individuals who become public school teachers and [to] create environments for all educators that maximize their

impact on student achievement [so that] one day, our nation's public schools will be thriving organizations that offer all children an excellent education.”

TNTP had a contract with Mercy College to support the NTRP director and faculty in the administration of the program. The researcher and other TNTP staff members served as consultants to the Mercy College NTRP director and faculty. Based on discussions with and input from the NTRP director and colleagues at TNTP who also worked on the NTRP contract, the researcher created the guidelines for the first CAP completed by the 2004 cohort. In addition, she was directly involved in the creation of the coursework and program assessments. She authored the CAP guidelines and scoring rubric, the mid-program assessment, and a few of the courses. Based on feedback from the implementation with the first graduating cohort, the researcher revised the CAP guidelines for the cohort from whom the study's participants were drawn. However, she had no direct contact with the program participants. She worked closely with the program staff and, to a lesser extent, program instructors. During their last semester the researcher met, in an official capacity, six program participants who served on the program participants' advisory committee to receive feedback on the curriculum.

Although the researcher was highly invested in the creation of the program the participants received, her main motivation was to ensure that the children in New York City public schools were provided high quality instruction. It is this motivation that sustains her interest in looking back at the participants' CAPs to measure, in a focused manner, the extent to which the program has contributed to that goal. The researcher is no longer working with the program. However, her motivation remains constant. In

addition, her relationship with program staff remains positive. She worked with people committed to improving and progressing toward a shared goal. She welcomes the opportunity to provide any information that will aid in their future work by illuminating their strengths and areas of growth. As a result of her commitment to the program's ultimate goal and lack of investment in maintaining the status quo of the program, the researcher does not feel that she has been biased in the analysis of the CAPs. Her involvement in the creation of the NTRP curriculum and CAP guidelines contributes to this study as a rich source of data. However, her lack of involvement with the teachers enrolled in NTRP and in the process for scoring the CAPs helps to avoid ethical conflicts.

Data Analysis

The focus of this study can most effectively be investigated through an in-depth examination of the CAPs—the data source for this study. Given that the teachers in this study participated in a teacher education program whose stated goal is to prepare teachers to effectively teach all students regardless of their culture, language or ability, what do teachers choose to include in their CAP to demonstrate their competency? Does the evidence provided in the CAPs address the TESOL/NCATE standards? The CAPs were assessed according to the TESOL/NCATE standards' rubrics. Each CAP was scored using the TESOL/NCATE rubrics to determine the extent to which the teachers met the standards. The mean scores for each CAP are reported. Through qualitative analysis, trends and patterns that emerged from these data as they relate to teaching ELLs were identified. The data were examined numerous times to identify codes and patterns as they emerged. Memos written during data analysis document themes that emerged

during the analysis process and the progression of theory development. Single case and cross-case analysis were conducted.

After multiple coding passes through the data and scoring the data according to the TESOL/NCATE standards rubrics, descriptive statistics were used to determine the extent to which the CAPs demonstrated the TESOL/NCATE standards. The coded data also were entered into NVIVO 7 (QSR International, 2006), a qualitative data analysis computer application. NVIVO 7 was used to examine the data at deeper levels. In addition to the codes that resulted from the initial coding pass, additional codes emerged from the participants' words. These were coded in NVIVO 7. Subsequent data analysis revealed patterns among CAPs. NVIVO 7 allowed for the identification and aggregation of the data according to the emerging patterns within and across participants. For example, many of the teachers referenced the use of balanced literacy approach and the workshop model as instructional structures for reading and writing. Therefore, these data segments initially coded as "instruction" were additionally coded as "balanced literacy" and/or "workshop model." In addition, many of the teachers included course assignments as artifacts. When the coded data was part of an additional artifact, these data segments also were coded as "additional artifact." Teachers also referenced when their ELLs were receiving or supposed to be receiving English language instructional support outside of their classroom. These references were also coded during subsequent rounds of data analysis as "outside ESL support." Table 8 provides examples of how the data was coded.

Table 8.
Examples of Coding

Data	Code(s)
<p><i>At 9:15 am, the students begin literacy groups. Literacy groups are my reading workshop. While I do guided reading with one group, four other groups are completing their assigned reading or writing tasks. There is the independent reading group. In addition, one group is doing Take Flight books (basal readers for the lower functioning students) while one group reads the short stories (novellas) provided with our reading series. Another group is working the Write on Track books, which are writing manuals. At the beginning, I pass around to make sure each group understands their assignment. Then I move to my guided reading group. After about 45 minutes, I give them a question to close the story we read. I make a second rotation around the room to make sure each group has completed their assignment.</i></p>	<p>Instruction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Workshop model
<p><i>Integral to communicating with students' families is educating myself to speak Spanish, which I hope to continue to do next year. As much as this ability can be downplayed by teachers who remind themselves that their class is not designated as a bilingual class, it is simply impossible to communicate with many of my students' families without the use of Spanish. I want to send every letter home in two languages, and I will feel that I have succeeded at attaining this goal when I can confidently conduct a parent-teacher conference in Spanish.</i></p>	<p>Language and culture</p> <p>Family and community</p>
<p><i>Five students are designated to receive services for 45 minutes, five days a week. Currently the only services include attending the bilingual first grade class during ESL two times per week for 45 minutes. In reality, several more students have difficulty processing English and communicating orally in the language.</i></p>	<p>Language and culture</p> <p>Instruction</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Outside ESL support

Significance of the Study

An examination of the CAP as a product in an in-depth and concentrated manner is one tool that reveals the extent to which teachers in the Mercy College NTRP address

the needs of ELLs as defined by the TESOL/NCATE standards. The CAP is a rich source of data because it was designed as an assessment tool of Program Outcomes that explicitly seek to prepare teachers to be effective with all students. The CAP is a high-stakes assessment tool for the program. Therefore, it motivates teachers to incorporate their best evidence to demonstrate program standards and reflect on their practice.

This study contributes to the knowledge base regarding the educational experiences of ELLs in general education settings. In addition, the results of this study speak to the void in research regarding the preparation of teachers through alternative licensure programs and address the use of the TESOL/NCATE standards as a tool for examining teacher preparation and practice.

4. Findings

This study examined the Culminating Assessment Projects (CAPs), or qualifying portfolios, of graduates of the Mercy College New Teacher Residency Program (NTRP) to determine the extent to which the teacher education program graduates demonstrated effective instructional strategies for English language learners (ELLs). The CAPs were assessed according to the TESOL/NCATE national standards for the preparation of teachers of ELLs and within the context of the research literature regarding the effective instruction of ELLs. This chapter provides a brief introduction of each of the study's participants. The results of an evaluation of the CAPs according to the TESOL/NCATE standards follows addressing the first research question: To what extent do graduates of the Mercy College New Teacher Residency Program evidence effective instructional strategies for English language learners as measured by the TESOL/NCATE standards for the preparation of teachers of English language learners? Qualitative analyses of the CAPs address the second research question: In what ways do graduates of the Mercy College New Teacher Residency Program evidence effective instructional strategies for English language learners? For ease of analysis, consideration of the CAPs for the second research question is organized thematically according to the five domains of the TESOL/NCATE standards.

Participants

This study analyzed the CAPs of six 2005 graduates from the Mercy College New Teacher Residency Program. Each graduate taught in a general education elementary classroom during the 2004-2005 school year in a school that had a student population consisting of at least 20% ELLs. The number of ELLs taught by each study participant is listed in Table 9. Ashley's first grade class consisted of 26 students, including four ELLs. Emma taught a third grade class of 15 students including four ELLs. Elaine, a fifth grade teacher, taught 30 students. Two of her students were ELLs. John taught kindergarten and had the highest percentage of ELLs, with ten ELLs in his class of 21 students. In the fourth grade class taught by Linda, four of the 23 students were ELLs. Melody taught 28 sixth grade students including one ELL. Seventeen per cent of the students taught by the teachers in this study were ELLs.

Table 9.
Number of ELLs in Study Participants' Classrooms

	Grade	ELLs	Number of Students
Ashley	1	4	26
Elaine	5	2	30
Emma	3	4	15
John	K	10	21
Linda	4	4	23
Melody	6	1	28
Total		25	143

The classes the participants in this study taught were not uncommon for large urban school districts. Students of urban school districts are more likely to be racial minorities, live in homes where English is not spoken, and live in poverty than students living in other parts of the country (Council of Great City Schools, 2007). All of the students taught by the teachers in this study qualified for the federal government's free lunch program, an approximate measure of poverty, and all of the students, except one, were racial or ethnic minorities. Two of Emma's students were in monolingual English classrooms for the first time. John's class had a large number of ELLs because the school's bilingual program was overcrowded.

Quantitative Analysis: TESOL/NCATE Standards Rubrics

According to its theoretical framework, issues of language, culture, and assessment are the main areas of focus of the TESOL/NCATE standards, and issues of pedagogy are considered within those three main categories (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 2002). The standards themselves are organized into five domains: (1) language; (2) culture; (3) planning, implementing, and managing instruction; (4) assessment; and, (5) professionalism. Within the five domains, the TESOL/NCATE standards are organized into 12 standards, which in turn are divided into 70 performance indicators. The TESOL/NCATE rubrics are arranged around three levels of performance: approaches the standard, meets the standard, and exceeds the standards. The details of the performance indicators are explicitly directed towards to the instruction of ELLs. For example, performance indicator 3.a.1 "plan standards-based ESL and content instruction" could not be demonstrated through evidence of standards-based

content instruction only. ESL instruction also is required. Likewise, performance indicator 5.c.1. “establish professional goals and pursue opportunities to grow in the field of ESL” obliges teachers to have professional goals explicitly linked to the education of ELLs. Although the Mercy College NTRP worked to integrate the TESOL/NCATE standards into their curriculum, the integration process diluted the singular focus on ELLs required in many of the TESOL/NCATE standards. This is reflected in the overall low ratings the CAPs received as reflected in Table 10.

Table 10.
TESOL/NCATE Standards Mean for each CAP

Domain	Ashley	Elaine	Emma	Linda	Melody	John	Mean
Domain 1 Language	1.13	0.52	0.70	0.52	0.91	1.09	0.81
Domain 2 Culture	0.89	0.11	0.11	0.33	0.22	0.11	0.30
Domain 3 Planning, Implementing, and Managing Instruction	1.00	0.65	0.53	0.41	0.94	0.59	0.69
Domain 4 Assessment	0.67	0.17	0.08	0.33	0.75	0.50	0.42
Domain 5 Professionalism	0.67	0.44	0.67	0.78	0.78	0.67	0.67

Approaching Standard	.5 - 1.0
Meets Standard	1.1 - 2.0
Exceeds Standard	2.1 - 3.0

Using the TESOL/NCATE rubrics, quantitative analysis of the CAPs reveals that the teachers in this study demonstrated their relative strengths in domains 1, 3, and 5. For the most part the study participants were able to provide evidence of approaching the standards for these domains. Domain 1 requires teachers to demonstrate knowledge of

English morphology, phonology, semantics, pragmatics and syntax. The descriptions of reading and writing in the teachers' classrooms often revealed a basic understanding of the structure of the English language, addressing semantics and syntax. For some performance indicators in domain 1 this was all that was necessary to reach the first level of proficiency (approaches the standard). The teachers in this study were limited in their ability to address domain 1 by their lack of knowledge of second language acquisition processes. The teachers provided some evidence that addressed the performance indicators of domain 1 when describing their literacy instruction. Domain 1 also addresses the creation of a learning environment that supports language learners. The performance indicators for domain 1 call for "meaningful interaction," "comprehensible input," and the development of academic language. The teachers were able to address the "approaches the standard" performance indicators in domain 1 in various ways. The study participants' instructional practices included small group instruction and cooperative learning instruction, the use of instructional scaffolds to make the academic content accessible to their students, and cognitively demanding content area curricula.

Many of the performance indicators under domain 3 also could be linked to the instructional design approach the teachers demonstrated in their CAPs. The backward instructional design model (Wiggins & McTighe, 2001) and differentiated instruction (Tomlinson, 2001) served as the basis for teaching and learning in the study participants' classrooms. The teachers provided evidence of approaching domain 3 by crafting content-area instruction that was assessment-driven and standards-based. The requirements for meeting and exceeding the standards under domain 3 necessitated ESL

specific knowledge and instruction. Therefore, most of the evidence presented in the CAP satisfied the “approaches standard” requirements for domain 3 and was not able to demonstrate the performance indicators under “meets the standard”.

Directed by the CAP guidelines, the teachers in this study were able to articulate professional goals and a philosophy of teaching and learning. In addition, educational leadership, an NTRP outcome, set as a standard influencing the teaching profession outside of one’s classroom. Both of these areas can be seen in domain 5. However, domain 5 requires a teacher’s knowledge, goals, philosophy and demonstrated leadership support ELLs, their families, and other professionals who work with ELLs. Again, the limitation the teachers in this study faced was that the evidence they provided of educational leadership did not focus on ELLs in particular.

The domain 2 performance indicators require culturally responsive instruction that attends to both language proficiency and content area objectives. The teachers in this study worked to know their students and their students’ parents on an individual basis. Little attention was given to overarching aspects of the students’ cultural heritage. The teachers did not provide evidence of knowledge of their students’ cultural communication and interaction patterns or evidence of the use of cultural artifacts as instructional tools, essentials of culturally relevant pedagogy (Wortham & Contreras, 2002). Cultural diversity among the students and its possible influence on teaching and learning were not discussed in the CAPs. Furthermore, the teachers did not see themselves as teachers of the English language. They saw themselves responsible for teaching content area curricula and did not pair content area and language objectives, as required by domain 2.

Domain 4 focuses on assessment of ELLs in relation to language proficiency and content area achievement. In addition, domain 4 addresses content area assessment of ELLs at various stages of the English language acquisition process and issues of bias in the assessment of ELLs. Although the participants in this study implemented assessment-driven content area instruction, they did not adequately address the performance indicators of domain 4. The teachers in this study provided evidence of the implementation of a variety of content area assessment tools and used the results of those assessments to inform future content area instruction. No evidence was provided of language proficiency assessment or assessment designed to match the diversity of language proficiency levels among ELLs.

Overall, the CAPs selected for analysis in this study did not show sufficient evidence to meet all TESOL/NCATE standards. The data reveal that the CAPs contained evidence that “approached” the TESOL/NCATE standards in the majority of the domains. The teachers provided evidence of (1) literacy instruction based on knowledge of English semantics and syntax; (2) standards-based content area instruction and assessment that was differentiated according to students’ academic needs; and, (3) educational leadership that sought to positively influence the field of education outside of each teacher’s classroom. The teachers did not specifically address the needs of ELLs by implementing culturally relevant pedagogy; supporting their students’ English language development by using language objectives to guide instruction and assessing their English language development; or developing into professional advocates on behalf of ELLs. The minimal extent to which the standards were addressed could be a by-product

of the integrated nature of the NTRP curriculum. By integrating the TESOL/NCATE standards into the general teacher education curriculum, the fixed focus on the ELL was diluted. The areas where evidence was shown reflect the patterns also revealed in the qualitative analysis of the CAPs.

Qualitative Analysis

Domain 1: Language

Domain 1 – Language. Candidates know, understand and use the major concepts, theories, and research related to the nature and acquisition of language to construct learning environments that support ESOL students' language and literacy development and content area achievement.

1a. Describing Language. Candidates demonstrate understanding of language as a system and demonstrate a high level of competence in helping ESOL students acquire and use English in listening, speaking, reading, and writing for social and academic purposes.

1b. Language Acquisition and Development. Candidates understand and apply concepts, theories, research, and practice to facilitate the acquisition of a primary and a new language in and out of classroom settings.

Domain 1 of the TESOL/NCATE standards addresses teachers' knowledge of second language acquisition processes and how they use that knowledge to help ELLs develop content area, English language, and English literacy skills. In this domain teachers are expected to demonstrate knowledge of second language acquisition research and theories by providing specific feedback, support, and instruction appropriate to the ELL's English language proficiency level. Using this knowledge, teachers construct a classroom learning environment that supports ELLs' continued English language development as well as their mastery of content area objectives.

The teachers in this study provided little evidence of their knowledge of second language acquisition processes. Two teachers noted the progress their ELLs made in

their oral language development over the course of the school year in general terms by stating that their students had improved. Ashley described some of the students in her classroom who are not yet proficient in English.

Four students are designated to receive [ESL] services for 45 minutes, five days a week... While five students are officially supposed to receive ESL intervention, in reality, several more students had significant difficulty processing English and communicating orally in the language at the beginning of the school year. In all of these students, I have seen a marked improvement in oral language development and vocabulary over the course of the school year.

Emma also noted a general degree of improvement in one of her ELLs.

... is an ELL student and she is making tremendous improvements over this year. When she came into my class in September, she could barely write in English. Over the course of the year, she has worked very hard in her reading, writing, grammar, and spelling, and she is able to express herself very well in English. She still makes mistakes in spelling and grammar, but they are easily corrected.

Two teachers in this study attributed an ELL having difficulty achieving content area objectives to their lack of English proficiency as opposed to their academic ability.

This idea is illustrated by Elaine when reflecting on the academic performance of an ELL in her class. "...is my ELL student. She currently receives ESL services. Her work, like many of my students, is well below grade level. Her work is unquestionably suffering because of her limited proficiency in English..."

John described one of the ELLs in his kindergarten class as exhibiting writing behaviors appropriate for his grade level but still influenced by his lack of English proficiency. "... is still writing with pictures, which is developmentally appropriate but partially due to a lack of confidence expressing himself in English."

According to the daily schedules included in the CAPs, all teachers followed the workshop model for language arts instruction. Ashley explained that the school district adopted this instructional model based on the work at Teacher's College. "This year my school is implementing the region-mandated Teacher's College Reading and Writing Project model of balanced literacy for the first time..."

The reading workshop is an approach to literacy instruction that integrates independent reading with reading in small groups guided by a teacher. Typically, a reading workshop begins with a read aloud by the teacher where effective reading strategies are modeled and the class discusses the selection that was read. The teacher may then provide a mini-lesson to the class on a specific reading strategy. Later the students rotate through a period of independent, pair, or small group reading and centers with focused literacy development activities. During this time, the teacher observes the students reading and meets with students individually or in small groups (conferencing) to provide reading instruction based on their literacy development level. The reading workshop period often ends with a whole class discussion of what was read during the reading workshop or on what strategies were used. The writing workshop follows a similar structure where the students engage in independent writing after a read aloud and mini-lesson on a writing strategy. The teacher may conduct an interactive writing session where writing is done collaboratively with the entire class and the teacher models effective writing strategies. The teacher also confers with students regarding their writing to provide support or direct instruction. The writing workshop often ends when students share what they have written with the whole class (Calkins, 2001).

The reading and writing workshop model for literacy instruction led to some instructional strategies beneficial for ELLs and their language development. Ashley, for example, noted the oral language development that some of her students have achieved over the course of a school year. She explained that one benefit of the writing conference she used in her writing workshop was to allow the children to explain orally what they were attempting to write but were unable to do so because of their lack of proficiency in writing English. She recognized the need for instructional modifications or additional help (scaffolding) when concepts are presented orally only and worked to include visuals and hands-on artifacts. “Conferencing with students, especially during writing provides students the chance to orally describe what they want to write or to tailor delivery expectations for various ability levels or learning styles.”

John found that the conferencing aspect of the workshop model was beneficial for his ELLs, too.

I have been conferencing with him (an ELL) more frequently, and he has been receiving a lot of help from the other independent writers at his table. He did label his mother and himself, showing skill at using the word wall. He attempted to begin writing a sentence, using the only sight word he knows, I.

Although the teachers in this study recognized that ELLs benefit from instructional modifications, this only provided evidence of approaching the standard for domain 1. For example, one of the criteria needed to meet the standard for domain 1.a.1 is that the teacher must “apply knowledge of developmental and contrastive phonology to identify difficult aspects of English pronunciation for their students, noting how ESOL students’ first language and identity may affect their English pronunciation.” For domain

1. b. 6 teachers must “vary the types of questions, activities, and assessments so that ESOL learners at different levels of language and literacy development are able to participate meaningfully in instruction.”

The teachers linked their instructional modifications to the fact that a student was an ELL and not to a student’s particular stage in the process of acquiring English as a second language. Teachers referred to their ELLs as a homogenous group, thus not recognizing the diversity of English proficiency levels among ELLs. No evidence was provided to show that the teachers tailored their instruction to the language proficiency level of their ELLs or geared their instruction to help their ELLs progress through the English language acquisition stages.

In a review of literature on effective instruction for ELLs, Hill and Flynn (2006) assert that classroom teachers who have ELLs as students are teaching both content and the English language. Furthermore, classroom teachers must set both content and language objectives in order to provide instruction according to the ELLs’ level of language proficiency. According to Hill and Flynn (2006), knowing the stage of English language acquisition for each ELL is key to effective instructional differentiation. The authors contend that “it is critical to set both content objectives and language objectives for ELLs. Just as language learning cannot occur if we only focus on subject matter, content knowledge cannot grow if we only focus on learning the English language” (Hill & Flynn, 2006, p. 22).

Teachers in this study were cognizant of their role in teaching academic content to their ELLs. Only two teachers noted that their ELLs received additional instruction

specific to their status as ELLs either with pullout services or with a push-in teacher. However, the teachers did not provide evidence that they understood that they were responsible for teaching the English language to their ELLs, too. The unit and lesson plans included in the CAP contained content area objectives and instructional strategies the teachers thought addressed the learning needs of their students. No evidence was provided that the teachers systematically outlined English language development objectives for their ELLs.

Domain 2: Culture

Domain 2 – Culture. Candidates know, understand and use the major concepts, principles, theories, and research related to the nature and role of culture and cultural groups to construct learning environments that support ESOL students’ cultural identities, language and literacy development, and content-area achievement.

2a. Nature and Role of Culture. Candidates know, understand and use the major concepts, principles, theories, and research related to the nature and role of culture in language development and academic achievement that support individual students’ learning.

2b. Cultural Groups and Identity. Candidates know, understand and use knowledge of how cultural groups and students’ cultural identities affect language learning and school achievement.

Domain 2 of the TESOL/NCATE standards discusses the importance of culture in teaching and learning. Within this domain, teachers must demonstrate knowledge of the influences of culture on within and across group interaction, students’ identity, and learning language and academic content within a school setting. Teachers should be able to systematically learn about various aspects of the culture of their students, including but not limited to cultural values and beliefs, learning styles, and patterns of communication and interaction. In addition, teachers should apply what they learn to teaching, learning,

and interaction within their classrooms by making the content and processes of teaching and learning culturally compatible when possible.

When describing the demographics of their class, two teachers noted the cultural and ethnic background of their students. Ashley explained the demographics of her class.

At the current time, my class consists of 26 students, 9 boys and 17 girls. A twenty-seventh student recently transferred to a different school placement. One of my students is a recent addition to the class, having relocated from Trinidad and Tobago. Approximately 19 students are of Hispanic descent, from countries such as Dominican Republic, Puerto Rico, and Mexico, one is from Trinidad, and the remaining six students are of African American background.

Elaine also described the student population in her class. “My classroom always contained about 65% Hispanics, 25% African-Americans, and 10% Asian Indians.” John described the cultural and ethnic makeup of the community that surrounds his school. “Our school is situated in an overwhelmingly Caribbean, Spanish-speaking neighborhood, that is becoming increasingly West African.”

In their CAPs, none of these teachers detailed the influence of their students’ cultural and ethnic identity on teaching and learning except with regards to identifying a student’s native language or lack of English language proficiency. Although language is a key part of one’s culture, only one teacher in this study, Emma, allowed her students to complete academic work in their native language. When reflecting on how he could improve his teaching practice, John noted that incorporating more Spanish language development into the curriculum in his kindergarten class would be beneficial for the native Spanish speaking ELLs.

No teacher in this study linked choices in instructional design or implementation to their students' cultural heritage and resources. Nieto (1996) contends that "effective pedagogy is...finding ways to use the language, culture, and experiences of students meaningfully in their education" (p. 199). The study participants did not integrate their students' cultural resources into teaching and learning in their classrooms. Most of the teachers in this study worked to implement student-centered instruction that began with and built upon students' prior knowledge, interests, and abilities. Linda described how she changed the topic of a writing assignment when she realized that her students were more interested in something different.

I have tried whenever possible to tap into their [the students'] interests to make writing an inspiring process...So one of my initial writing units of scary stories became one about birthday parties because that is what the current class wanted to talk and think about. I learned that the main goal of the unit was not the type of story, but the passion and attention to detail that accompanied it. We have continued to build on our writing skills by taking subjects that challenged my current students' tentative imaginations by writing extended narrative poems about fantasy characters.

Reflecting on a graduate course reading, Melody felt that identifying student interest and learning styles could help her plan more effective learning opportunities.

Another specific method of planning and instruction that I will draw from *Differentiating Instruction* is to create and use more developed student readiness, interest, and learning profiles. The value in diagnosing these profiles early on is immeasurable when one considers the time that is possibly wasted teaching in ways that the students will not, and cannot, learn and benefit from. A proper diagnosis and attention to different student types assists in planning across all types of activities and projects.

Emma was able to learn more about her students' interests when she reviewed their book reviews after reading *Sadako and the Thousand Paper Cranes* as part of a unit

on post-war Japan. Emma planned to use what she learned about her students to inform her future instructional plans.

[The students'] reactions to the book gave me tremendous insight into their interests as much as their ability levels. I learned that I had to give more informational texts to the three boys...In my experience, many boys like informational texts better than narratives. As a result, I am going to provide a more balanced literacy block with more choices of books...

Ashley worked to establish a learner-centered classroom and described the learning environment she wanted to maintain. Her instruction included a variety of learning experiences designed to address the various learning styles and needs of her students, including her ELLs.

Over the past two years, I have begun to naturally shift the emphasis of my teaching away from myself as the center of activity toward my students as active participants and contributors to their own learning, finding that this not only invigorates my students but me as well.

The teachers expressed an appreciation of their students' home life and cultural and familial resources. Although they described the inherent value, the teachers did not provide evidence of systematically integrating these resources into teaching and learning. The teachers focused on establishing effective communication with their students' parents. In Ashley's school, one-fourth of the classes were classified as bilingual English/Spanish, reflecting the sizeable Spanish speaking community that the school served. Ashley worked to communicate effectively with her students' families. She sent all home communication in both English and Spanish. She also used translators to communicate with the Spanish speaking parents.

To note, all written communications to parents are translated into Spanish. There are no parents in my class who cannot read in Spanish or English or else I would look into the feasibility of translating

communications into other languages as well. When meeting with parents face to face, such as during the “Meet the Teacher” event, a translator is available or non-English speaking parents are paired with parents who can serve as translators for them.

Ashley referenced a course reading by Sonia Nieto as it relates to multicultural education in her reflection on how she works with her students’ families.

Nieto (1999) argues that learning does not take place in a vacuum, but rather is influenced by the relationship between teacher and student, culture, race, politics, individual experiences, and expectations to name a few. Student achievement is influenced by all of these variables, and as such, in order to be successful, teachers need to take all of these variables into account when attempting to teach their students. While Nieto takes on issues ranging from inappropriate distribution of funds to transforming schools, I find it difficult to attempt multicultural education from this level at this time, given my inexperience and current coursework commitment. The text, however, encouraged me to re-evaluate what is meant by multicultural education and reaffirmed for me what kind of teacher I want to be. In the short-term, the book encouraged me to strengthen ties with my students’ parents this year.

Ashley worked to strengthen ties with her students’ families and rethought her own philosophy on what multicultural education meant. She expressed a desire to tap into the experiences and cultures of her students and their families to incorporate them into her classroom. Ashley recognized that tapping into her students’ experiences and background knowledge could serve as a springboard for academic development and as a method for building ties with and among her students.

...I try to send home a monthly letter to parents. Next year, I hope to take this a step further by over-viewing what will be covered in class and inviting parents to contribute to the units or topics that will be covered (i.e. parent interviews when discussing community workers, incorporating local traditions or customs into the classroom when celebrating the winter holidays). I made a small step toward doing this with the winter holiday party that the class will be having the Wednesday before the winter break.

She began the school year working to learn about her students' out-of-school personal lives by sending each family a questionnaire as a tool through which parents could share insights about their children. She continued learning about her students throughout the year. Her focus was to build relationships with her students and their parents. She did not work to include aspects of their culture in the classroom instruction.

In the future, I would like to involve my parents more closely with planning so that their interests, expertise, and culture can better be incorporated into the curriculum. I have not felt comfortable with doing this yet. . . .As I begin to involve parents at this level, I hope to be able to tap into their ties in the community to bring this aspect of the students' world in to the classroom...The parents of my students' bring with them a world of experience, new cultures, and points of view that I as an educator can only benefit from tapping into. I am trying to learn more about my students' culture and lives in their ancestral countries by friendships with the parents of my students. In the future, I hope to organize workshops where parents can teach teachers about their culture and both parties can brainstorm ways to bring the parents' expertise into the classroom.

Ashley's knowledge about her students as individuals is evident as she analyzes the student work samples included in her CAP.

... is a highly literate and enthusiastic student. She is an avid reader, as well as an articulate and very courteous individual. She participates in a range of extra-curricular activities, including our schools' art and drama program and an outside ballet program to name two.

Elaine recognized the importance of learning about her students' families. However, when reflecting on her first year teaching, Elaine didn't feel that she had accomplished that goal. She defined a plan for her second year teaching that she felt would enable her to learn more about her students' home lives and use this information to implement more effective instruction.

The whole child was never really perceived in my class [last year]. I want to change that this year. I want to know my students thoroughly and use

this information to create lessons...This will give me a chance to understand my students from their own perspective. ...My parents will be sent another introductory letter but this time it will be translated into Spanish. This letter will have a part to be returned where I ask the parents to tell me where they need help. I want to create a plan where my students are the center piece.

Unfortunately, Elaine did not implement this plan during her second year teaching. Undeterred, Elaine outlined an alternative plan for getting to know her students and their communities.

My second plan for the immediate future will be to take a more active role in my school community. I will volunteer as a teacher liaison to the parent association. This will help me to spend more time with parents and families in my school community. To aid in this endeavor, I will take a Spanish class this summer and spend a week in Mexico. This will help me to communicate with the parents... I will use my new language skills along with my family interactions to make my classroom a more welcoming place for my students' culture and families. ...By interacting with the parents and families I will be better able to teach the whole child by collaborating with students' out of school community... I definitely want to participate in school reform as part of my developing educational leadership qualities.

At the time when she submitted her CAP, Elaine had already begun taking Spanish lessons.

Similarly, John saw learning Spanish as key to learning more about his students' out-of-school lives. John sought to improve his ability to communicate with Spanish-speaking parents and support the literacy development of his students in both English and Spanish.

I feel that teaching the whole child is an extremely important goal and one of the most important things I want to continue to do is reach out to student's families more proactively...One way I'd like to connect to families is by learning more Spanish, and improving my selective use of it in our supposedly monolingual classroom. There are opportunities for building literacy in both languages by labeling the room in both languages,

as well as giving attention to other languages spoken at home. I hope to conference with some students at the beginning of the year, to write phonemically in Spanish, the way many already use their sounds to spell family words, like “Tia.”

Emma focused on establishing open lines of communication with her students’ parents. She provided no evidence of plans to learn about her students’ home cultures and to incorporate them into her classroom instruction.

Just as teachers are expected to be accountable for student performance to administration, we must also be accountable and responsible to parents for a child's emotional, physical and academic well-being. They are entrusting teachers to take responsibility for their children for more than six hours of the day. As teachers, we must take that responsibility very seriously...I try to be as proactive with the parents of my students as I can be. I send home frequent communications as a class. I also send home or request conferences if I see that a student is struggling behaviorally or academically...In addition to being proactive, I feel that I am approachable...Whenever I am with a parent, I ask for their guidance as well since they will always know their own child better than I will!...The best resource to tap into is the parent and if the teacher and parent work in tandem, most issues can be resolved.

Linda established ongoing, bilingual communication with her students’ parents. She sent home notes to inform the parents of what the students were working on each week and conducted a parent workshop to help the parents understand the year-end standardized tests the students would take. According to Linda, her students’ parents were her clients. Linda felt accountable to them, “I feel that my clients are actually not the administration, not Mercy and almost not the children, it really is their parents...I have a very deep admiration for my students' families...”

Linda also worked to involve parents in her classrooms as fieldtrip chaperones, donators of class snacks, and audiences for school performances. Linda did not provide evidence that she worked to learn about her students’ out-of-school lives. Although Linda

worked to establish a classroom where parents felt welcomed, she did not incorporate her students' home cultures into classroom instruction or interaction.

Melody defined increased parental involvement in the class and improved communication with parents as goals at the end of her first year teaching. At the end of her second year teaching, Melody felt that she had made significant progress toward those goals. Looking forward, Melody wanted to go farther toward connecting with her students' families. However, even as she described this worthwhile goal, Melody did not address how learning more about her students' out-of-school-lives should influence teaching and learning in her classroom.

Next year, I intend to work on reaching out to more than just the parents who reach out to me. It is a goal to build parent involvement in my class, and to bring more of the community to the classroom. I plan on doing this by holding informal meetings with parents to discuss the curriculum and our plans for the school year. I plan on reaching out to the community more by having class trips into the community and by performing community service (with parents and relatives). And I plan on making it a strong initiative to have consistent contact with parents about their students' progress. I, of course, cannot call parents every night, but a friendly letter sent home, or an occasional phone call is how I intend on beginning.

The teachers in this study focused on learning about and from their students and their students' families. A few of the teachers in this study indicated that one of their professional goals was to learn Spanish in order to more effectively communicate with Spanish speaking parents. For John and Elaine, learning Spanish was seen as a key professional goal mainly for the benefits of communicating more effectively with their students' parents. John also wanted to increase the Spanish-language instruction he was able to provide his students. Emma focused on effectively communicating with her

students' families. Melody also wanted to improve her communication with her students' parents, but did not link that goal with learning Spanish. Linda and Ashley valued learning from and about their students' parents as a way to better inform their classroom instruction. In addition, they also stressed the importance of providing information to their students' parents. For Linda it was imperative that the parents become better informed about the high-stakes tests the students would take at the end of the year. Ashley shared information with her students' parents about developing literacy, the curriculum and the New York City content area standards.

The teachers in this study did not show evidence that they incorporated the "less explicit aspects" of their students' culture. The participants did not provide evidence that they knew how to learn about their students' cultures or to view their students' out-of-school lives as resources for enhancing academic achievement. Instead, the teachers in this study focused on building relationships with their students' and their students' parents individually, and learning their students' native language to improve communication with their students' parents.

Domain 3 Planning, Implementing, and Managing Instruction.

Domain 3 - Planning, Implementing, and Managing Instruction.

Candidates know, understand and use standards-based practices and strategies related to planning, implementing, and managing ESL and content instruction, including classroom organization, teaching strategies for developing and integrating language skills, and choosing and adapting classroom resources.

3a. Planning for Standards-Based ESL and Content Instruction.

Candidates know, understand and apply concepts, research, and best practices to plan classroom instruction in a supporting learning environment for ESL students. Candidates serve as effective English-language models, as they plan for multilevel classrooms with learners from diverse backgrounds using standards-based ESL and content curriculum.

3b. Managing and Implementing Standards-Based ESL and Content Instruction. Candidates know, manage, and implement a variety of standards-based teaching strategies and techniques for developing and integrating English listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and for accessing the core curriculum. Candidates support ESOL students in accessing the core curriculum as they learn language and academic content together.

3c. Using Resources Effectively in ESL and Content Instruction. Candidates are familiar with a wide range of standards-based materials, resources, and technologies, and choose, adapt, and use them in effective ESL and content teaching.

Domain 3 focuses on standards-based instruction that addresses a diversity of academic and language proficiency levels through a variety of teaching strategies and learner appropriate materials and resources. This instruction integrates all four language modalities and facilitates language acquisition through high quality instruction in academic content areas.

3a. Planning for Standards-Based ESL and Content Instruction

All teachers in this study engaged in standards-based, content area instruction. The CAP guidelines required that the included instructional unit be linked to content-area standards and integrate literacy development with at least one other content area. The school district's curricular focus and standardized testing schedules also influenced instruction. In addition, key for these teachers was instruction that was meaningful, motivating, and differentiated.

Ashley and Melody saw "meaningful instruction" as vital to engaging their students in learning opportunities. Reflecting on graduate course readings, Ashley came to believe that hands-on classroom experiences and connecting content to students' interests would make instruction more meaningful for her students.

The remainder of the unit was developed as the result of a combination of students' interest, the science curriculum, and my own desire to bring real-life, hands-on experiences to the classroom in a meaningful and organic way. I had noticed that since returning from the December break my students and I were getting extremely bored with the predictability of the workshop model and the separation of the day into distinct reading and writing blocks that at times were not inter-related. I felt that I needed to make the lessons more engaging and integrated, partly in response to how we were all feeling and partly after having had my previous intuitions about planning validated by some of the course readings.... I was particularly captivated by some of the readings on designing interdisciplinary instruction. Although not integrated at the level referred to in Drake's *What is integrated curriculum and why does it work?* (1998), my unit attempts to teach my students basic literacy skills "within the framework of meaningful and relevant contexts, with guided instruction where equal emphasis is put on both the answer and how the students do the answer" (17). In many cases, my students' "answers" are the writing pieces they produced after participating in and obtaining a range of real-life experiences within the classroom. A heavy emphasis is placed on skills in first grade, particularly in reading and writing, so I was excited to read in *Weaving the Web* (Krogh, 2000, p. 342) that "when learning is done along the line of themes interesting to the children, skills need not be neglected." Rather, "the skills become much more meaningful to the children."

When describing how the content of her CAP demonstrated proficiency in the NTRP Program Outcomes, Melody linked what she had learned in graduate course content and providing her students with meaningful instruction.

Another artifact which I chose to show my progress with respect to Outcome One is the Content and Pedagogy Connection paper I wrote over the past summer. In this paper I outline some of the ideas I took from the texts of Wiggins (*Understanding by Design*) and Tomlinson (*Differentiating Instruction in Mixed Ability Classrooms*). The paper also concluded with my goals for the past year, which include: meeting all my students' needs, better lesson and unit planning, and creating engaging and meaningful themes that drive my teaching throughout the year. These goals speak to Outcome One: Passionate Commitment to Learning, Outcome Two: Reflective Practice, and Outcome Four: Teaching the Whole Child. I have made great strides to meet these goals with much success. I have incorporated much of what I have learned from Wiggins with respect to meaningful instruction that engages students.

Four teachers discussed in their CAPs the importance of tapping into their students' motivation to learn. Elaine designed a literature unit based on a book that had also been made into a movie. She used a trip to the theatre to see the movie as a motivator for her students who successfully completed the book. Elaine's CAP observation occurred while she was conducting writing conferences with students writing about the book.

I see five of the six Outcomes reflected in this observation if you just look wider. Outcome 1 is satisfied if you look at the unit surrounding the conferences. The "Because of Winn-Dixie" unit was planned to tap into my students' motivations to make them more passionate about literacy.

Emma sensed her students were motivated by an upcoming national holiday. So she timed the study of the vocabulary and content of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.'s "I Have a Dream" speech close to the national holiday. "The subject matter was Martin Luther King's speech, "I Have a Dream" because we were celebrating his upcoming birthday. The students were very interested and motivated to study about MLK Jr."

Linda worked to use motivating instructional materials to introduce her students to content area concepts. When teaching about equal parts, Linda found that using money was motivational for her students.

Now that the "parts of whole" stage was set, my next lesson was to make sure that the students understood that the pieces needed to be equal ones. With post-its students created a stained glass window of fractions. The next few lessons related to fractional parts of a dollar to investigate the relationship between numerator and denominator. I had decided during the summer between my first and second year that I should try whenever possible to link our math learning with currency. I personally find that I rely on adding by visualizing coins and I have found that my students also find solutions based on money math to be motivating and clear.

Melody's CAP observation occurred when she was working with her class in preparation for an upcoming poetry performance. When reflecting on her CAP observation, Melody summarized:

Students were responsive to each other and I politely corrected them when they were not exercising accountable talk. They worked together, in front of the class, when they were practicing the voice volumes and body movement exercises. The class was also motivated by the activity and the culminating performance and those students who were not motivated, I spoke to in a calm and careful manner and was able to make those students productive members of the lesson anyway.

In addition to tapping into their students' motivation, all the teachers in this study worked to differentiate instruction to meet their students' academic needs. Ashley described how one activity was differentiated to address her students' varying literacy abilities. "The activity will be differentiated for writing levels – some with just pictures and a teacher conference, some with labeled pictures, some with complete sentences. This book will be used to determine students' prior knowledge of the topic and student misconceptions as well as to measure student growth over the course of the unit." John also differentiated activities to meet his students' literacy levels. "Literacy Centers are often one of my favorite parts of the day because it is the most obvious expression of differentiation at work in our classroom. Kids work independently and individually tailoring their activities to their own reading and writing levels."

Linda described how in one unit she tailored instructional materials to match each student's interest and their writing ability.

Preparing for this lesson I choose readings for each child and a question for each child to answer from the *Time to Write* kits that I had not used last year. It was fun going through the cards (on a wide variety of topics) and choosing ones that fit each child's interests. It was also challenging to find

the right question or group of questions for each child to respond to in the reader response journals.

Melody described the importance of differentiated instruction by making connections to graduate course readings.

Academic diversity, as Tomlinson refers to as mixed-abilities, exists in all of our classrooms and needs to be addressed by educators. There is a stress on not confusing differentiated instruction for different assignments for each student, which would be both cumbersome and not enjoyable for the teacher. Instead, "differentiated learning experiences," where many different things are happening in the classroom and "multiple avenues to learning for varied needs" are occurring, address multiple intelligences and mixed-abilities in a manageable and efficient way, for both student and teacher. Tomlinson also stresses the role of teacher as diagnostician to have a better understanding of their students as learners so that learning matches the needs of the learner (p. 15). Beyond that, "when teachers differentiate instruction, they move away from seeing themselves as keepers and dispensers of knowledge and move toward seeing themselves as organizers of learning opportunities" (Tomlinson, 16). Differentiated instruction not only shifts the definitions of education, respect, growth, fairness, and success, but also of an important facet of instruction, the role of the teacher.

In a literature and social studies unit on Japan, Emma differentiated her instruction for her ELLs. "I made sure to make a more detailed vocabulary list for my ELL students. They used the list when I read aloud to the students or when they were answering questions about the text. The vocabulary words helped these students because they were more unfamiliar words and not used every day (i.e. kimono, leukemia, etc.)." Elaine saw differentiated instruction for the varying students' interests and abilities as an area where professional development was needed. "My main weakness as a teacher is my inability to create wholly appropriate modifications for my different groups of students such as special education of ELLs." However, Elaine listed possible instructional modifications on the CAP instructional unit, including repetition of lesson

content, the use of games, and the use of videos. In addition, she described multiple reading groups based on students' literacy level as part of her reading instruction.

At 9:15 am, the students begin literacy groups. Literacy groups are my reading workshop. While I do guided reading with one group, four other groups are completing their assigned reading or writing tasks. There is the independent reading group. In addition, one group is doing Take Flight books (basal readers for the lower functioning students) while one group reads the short stories (novellas) provided with our reading series. Another group is working the Write on Track books, which are writing manuals.

For the most part, teachers in this study established a classroom environment that demonstrated effective practices for ELLs in both the physical setup and the socio-emotional environment among the students and between the students and teachers. The teachers described classrooms set up to facilitate cooperative learning in small groups, walls covered in print materials related to the academic instruction occurring, and instruction that incorporated nonlinguistic representations of content, concepts, and processes.

Ashley, Linda, and Melody described the physical surroundings of their classrooms as print rich. Ashley portrayed the physical setup of her classroom as supportive of the way teaching and learning occurred in her classroom.

My classroom is set up for a combination of whole-class, small group, and independent work. There is a large meeting area, a cluster like arrangement of desks for center work and cooperative learning, clearly defined and stocked centers, a computer area, and a science/art section for activities where the students need a sink. The room is very organized, colorful, stocked with an abundance of books, supplies and materials, and student centered with personal storage areas and student work samples throughout the room. Each and every student has a class job that allows him/her to be responsible for keeping the classroom running smoothly and efficiently. They take this responsibility very seriously and approach their work with great pride.

Reflecting on her first year teaching, Linda commented on how she had improved in creating a classroom environment rich in print. “Last year I did not have the "print-rich" look down until about half way through the year. This year the assistant principal made note that although I still need to have more student work on the walls, I had managed to have the right posters up on the walls. I try to have a cheerful environment.”

In another description of her classroom, Melody detailed the location of the educational resources.

Along the walls there is color and print... Towards the back of the room along this wall are four brand-new, white, Apple computers. In the middle of the room along the wall is a writing center, complete with faux-flowers in a vase and dictionaries, as well as other writing tools and references. Directly to the right of the writing center are the reference book shelves. Besides the usual atlases and encyclopedias, these shelves also hold a selection of my most loved and special books that are available for students to read in class, but not take home... The wall in the back of the room is a long bulletin board. A section on the left holds charts created to remind students of reading strategies, the class library lines the shelves underneath the bulletin board. The middle and right section is covered by student work, including writing and art with post-it note rubrics detailing the grades. About the bulletin board, a few feet from the ceiling, hangs more student art [and] art that was given to me as a gift by various students... On the closet doors there are word walls – for math, literature, social studies, and science. Above the closet is considered storage space for retired charts as well as extra materials such as manipulatives and work books. As much excitement as the perimeter of the class brings, the most important part is the center – the place where the students and I spend most of our time.

All of the teachers documented in their CAPs the use of a word wall. Two teachers used multiple word walls to provide their students access to content area vocabulary. Melody described the physical environment of her classroom. “On the closet doors there are word walls – for math, literature, social studies, and science. Above the closet is considered storage space for retired charts as well as extra materials such as

manipulatives and work books. As much excitement as the perimeter of the class brings, the most important part is the center – the place where the students and I spend most of our time.”

Elaine used two word walls in her class with one specific for math related vocabulary. “As you enter, there is a blackboard to the right...There is a writing process chart on the board. Along the windows are student created charts, as well as lists of what good listeners and good readers do...There is also a reading word wall and a math word wall.”

John also used a word wall as part of his literacy instruction and encourages his students to copy sight words from the word wall and incorporate them into their writing.

John described how the word wall is beneficial to one of his ELLs:

... began to talk and write more about his big brother as we progressed through the unit. He also made substantial improvements using the word wall and initial consonants to label family members with the appropriate vocabulary.

John also used a word wall as a resource during his literacy instruction. “Students write at least once a day in our class, strengthening their ability to use the word wall, which contains all of our sight words, and writing new words using their sounds and phonemic, inventive spelling. Time permitting, 3 or 4 students read what they've written to the class, and we assess their writing together using our class writing rubric.”

Linda included a diagram that pointed out the locations of the word wall, portfolios, guided reading books, rug area, and computers in her classroom. Ashley included photographs of her class word wall along with posted classroom labels and posters that described effective literacy strategies.

Liam, a fictional leprechaun created by Emma to serve as a creative writing prompt for her students, visited Emma's class leaving a mess and a note requesting relationship advice from her students as a writing prompt and added words to the class word wall. In various ways, some of the teachers also worked toward establishing a classroom culture that supported risk taking and learning. Linda held a morning meeting with her students daily to set a cooperative tone in her classroom and used "table points" to positively reinforce desired behaviors.

My students have a much better sense of cooperation than last year because I have learned how much more effective positive reinforcement is. This year I also instituted a 5-10 minute meeting each morning. The idea for this regular meeting comes from Roxann Kriete's 2002 work, *The Morning Meeting Book*. She states, "When our programs don't provide constructive ways to meet our students' needs for fun, the students will devise their own, often not-so-constructive ways." [The morning meeting has] ...four basic components, the greeting, the share, a game (often a math game), and the daily announcements. The meeting is student run and requires that students make a commitment to each other.What the observer noticed in terms of the flow of students throughout the room has been made possible by the reward system that table points has made possible. It has helped students maintain a sense of being on task and cooperative even though there have been countless changes to our schedule and to the way we are supposed to be teaching.

Melody saw the creation of a classroom environment conducive for teaching and learning as integrated with instructional planning. Reflecting on a course reading, Melody explained:

Tomlinson, in *Differentiating Instruction in Mixed Ability Classrooms*, also talks about the need to broaden teaching to go beyond the one lesson that should suit the needs of all the children. Differentiated instruction calls for a classroom where all learners, be it of different abilities, different interests, or different intelligences, are engaged and are stimulated. Tomlinson calls for a classroom environment where everyone feels welcomed and safe and there are high expectations of growth. There is also collaboration between students and teacher for mutual growth and

success. In this model for education, respect, growth, fairness, and success have been alternately defined and build an atmosphere of trust and true learning in the classroom. . . . Knowing that in my students' past they were used to spending most of their day in their seats and working on material that would be tested, I wanted to create a learning environment where they could be challenged, build character and confidence, and be engaged. I found that poetry, especially poetry performance does just that. Using what I know about differentiating instruction and teaching with multiple learning styles in mind, I created a unit that created the environment that I described, while engaging all students, of multiple styles as well as levels, and that created critical thinkers and open minded children.

Ashley felt that effective classroom management allowed her to become a more student-centered teacher, guided by graduate course readings.

As the school year progressed and I became more comfortable in the classroom, with management and procedures, and with planning, I began to naturally shift the emphasis of my teaching away from myself as the center of activity and toward my students as active participants and contributors to their own learning. . . . We learned with one another and from one another and I feel the classroom became a richer and more dynamic place to work and learn. I was struck by the words of Freire that “while no man liberates himself by his own efforts alone, neither is he liberated by others (p. 66).” I agree and believe that this is critical to transforming our students' lives and their thoughts about their role in the classroom and the larger society that exists outside of the school walls.

The teachers worked to support their students' learning styles and academic needs by employing various instructional structures including small group, pair, individual, and whole group instruction. The teachers modeled and used visuals, graphic organizers, and manipulatives along with written and oral instructions to address various learning styles. They modified both the learning process and expected outcome to best meet the needs of their students.

Ashley detailed a few of the instructional strategies when she described an instructional unit she planned to implement.

This unit addresses various types of learners given the various components of hands-on activities, written reflection, fieldwork, and class discussion. It incorporates a variety of teaching strategies from whole class discussion to individual and cooperative group work. Student journals and Venn diagrams will be adapted to meet the writing and language development of the students with expectations ranging from using pictures to represent thought to words to full sentences. The observatory nature of this unit allows students with limited English proficiency to fully participate. Written and oral pieces can be adapted to fit their language needs. Diverse students' needs will also be met through extension activities that cover a range of activities and content areas, such as art, science centers, field trips, and literature, to name a few.

To address the variety of academic needs of her students, Ashley differentiated activities based on student interests, abilities, and learning styles through the use of learning centers and small group instruction. She designed assessment-driven instruction that incorporated content area standards. In addition, there were many aspects within the workshop model Ashley followed for instruction in reading and writing that were beneficial to ELLs. Ashley included hands-on activities designed to serve as a basis for introducing new vocabulary and to prompt oral discussions and writing topics. She asserted that many of the instructional strategies she employed were beneficial to students with varying abilities and to ELLs and cited a course reading to bolster her case.

Many of the techniques that are successful for students of various ability levels and learning styles have also been shown to be successful when working with English language learners: group and cooperative learning, hands-on activities, use of visuals, graphics, colors, organizers and charts, building on/tapping into prior knowledge and previous content experience, and using exaggerated hand gestures and facial expressions. As a result, I attempted to build these different learning strategies into the unit. Social interactions between the students were also included as they “provide L2 learners with multiple language and academic learning opportunities” (Samway & McKeon, 1999, 42).

Ashley worked to create integrated units that contextualized skills, differentiated instruction, and engaged students in hands-on, real life learning experiences as demonstrated in the instructional unit she included in her CAP. This is how Ashley defined “meaningful instruction.” She involved her students in authentic learning through an instructional unit on their neighborhood. During the week of Election Day the students voted in class on their favorite place in the neighborhood. They used the votes to practice math skills like graphing and tallying and to extend their literacy skills.

On the Monday before Election Day, we had our own election in class, where we voted on our favorite neighborhood place. Students registered to vote, created ballots, and their votes on places they decided on as a class. After the votes were counted, students created individual tally and bar graphs of the results. Later in the week, students used their tally graphs to answer questions on a math assessment designed to measure if students were able to interpret the information in the graphs. ...The full day of activities surrounding the election exposed students to the rights and responsibilities they have as citizens, as well as provided additional exposure to places that exist in their neighborhood. For homework, students represented in pictures and words, the places we had voted on in class.

The instructional unit outline Emma included in her CAP described standards-based lessons that built on the students’ prior knowledge, included partner, small group, and whole class work, and incorporated the assessment of listening skills. When describing some of the unit’s assessments, Emma outlined a few of these instructional strategies.

I will employ a variety of assessment methods throughout the unit. I will collect their research piece about Japan. I will grade them on their research presentation in front of the class. Their homework and reading comprehension questions at the end of each chapter will be collected and graded...There are also other ways for me to evaluate whether or not my students understand the unit. During group/partner work, I will drop in on the groups to see if students are using Accountable Talk and staying on

task. I will review their literacy notebooks to make sure that they are taking notes throughout the unit. Oral recall and answering higher order questions verbally are strengths in my classroom and I always assess my students based on their listening and re-telling skills.

In addition, lessons used a KWL chart, a Venn diagram, graphic organizers, read alouds, the development of vocabulary, and teacher questioning. The teacher also modeled “accountable talk,” an instructional technique that teaches students to use content-related evidence and reasoning skills during class discussions (Resnick, 1999). Emma allowed students who were not yet proficient in English to complete some of their work in Spanish, facilitating the continued development of their native language.

Melody used the work of Jay McTighe and Grant Wiggins as taught in the graduate education program to help her create “meaningful instruction that engages students.” The backward design model for instructional planning allowed her to create engaging units of study that supported differentiation according to student ability, multiple intelligences, and learning styles.

Better planning, better unit development and design, will lead to higher student achievement, part of every teacher’s larger purpose. Using a more structured and supported design process, I feel that the students will not only do better, but also learn more and retain what they have learned. I very much support the backward design process and have made it a goal to be the standard by which I plan because it provides me with a model that I both like aesthetically, and agree with philosophically. Essential questions, and planning with the end results in mind, seem like a natural way to plan. It is difficult, but like anything, with practice, and the support of my colleagues and professors, I believe I can do it successfully.

Elaine designed a unit that integrated social studies and language arts. “This unit builds on some prior knowledge that the students should have. They were introduced to the U.S. constitution as part of a grade-based initiative to prepare them for the statewide

social studies test. I tried my best to integrate literacy with social studies in a way that would be fun, interesting, and interactive.”

John’s instructional unit also integrated social studies and language arts.

I feel that my students did not have the chance to reflect on their own families as much as they should have during our families unit and decided to design an integrated curriculum unit for my kindergarten class that would allow them to explore their own families in depth, and teach one another about their own families... Our unit on the family draws on what students already know to allow them to find their own voice in writing, express themselves, and teach their classmates about their lives outside of school. They use their previous knowledge of their families to develop reading, writing, and math skills...

Linda’s instructional unit integrated language arts and math content standards.

She felt that her students needed to improve their abilities to use all four language modalities in the math content area. “Students have used listening, speaking, reading, and writing as ways to explore many topics but their facility in using these skills in math is an area that requires growth and strengthening.”

The teachers in this study designed instruction that integrated multiple content areas to satisfy the requirements of the CAP guidelines. In addition to the integrated unit required as a CAP component, some teachers also described how they integrated instruction throughout the year. The instructional units included in the CAPs all addressed standards from multiple content areas. Those units addressed at least two curricular areas and detailed instructional modifications that could be made for ELLs and students with special needs.

3b. Managing and Implementing Standards-Based ESL and Content Instruction.

All the teachers in this study described the use of instructional strategies that benefit ELLs including the use of visuals, manipulatives, and graphic organizers. When designing instruction the teachers were mindful of the linguistic demands of content area instruction and made modifications to reduce these demands for their ELLs while simultaneously providing ELLs access to the curriculum. For example, in one lesson, Melody described how she worked to reduce the linguistic demand for her ELLs while focusing on the content area learning objectives.

In this activity, as with all activities, I will try to take into account the needs of my students with disabilities and who are English language learners. Specifically with this lesson, I will provide a template of the circle graph and pre-made labels so both students with disabilities, as well as ELL students, will be able to focus more on the math than on the labeling and completing the graph. Though the labels are important, my main concern is that the students understand the math involved, i.e. the percent of the circle graph. For those students who are having difficulty completing this lesson and the accompanying assessments in written format, I will also allow for an oral assessment, where student can either work together, one dictating to the other, or where the students may explain their work to me.

Referring to a graduate course reading, Ashley described some instructional modifications she used with her students. For Ashley, hands-on activities provided her students with enjoyable, “authentic” learning experiences. In addition, they served as informative assessments and addressed a variety of learning styles.

Many of the techniques that are successful for students of various ability levels and learning styles have also been shown to be successful when working with English language learners: group and cooperative learning, hands-on activities, use of visuals, graphics, colors, organizers and charts, building on/tapping into prior knowledge and previous content experience, and using exaggerated hand gestures and facial expressions. As a result, I attempted to build these different learning strategies into the unit. Social

interactions between the students were also included as they “provide L2 learners with multiple language and academic learning opportunities” (Samway & McKeon, 1999, 42).

Melody’s instructional unit incorporated various modifications, including providing pictures to ELLs to reinforce vocabulary, allowing ELLs to draw responses to vocabulary questions instead of responding orally, and providing visual references and pre-constructed time lines. She also stated that she would “pre-teach content specific vocabulary...provide hands-on artifacts, possibly replicas of artifacts, or allow the student to explore interactive websites about ancient Greece.” Melody’s unit plan also described ways to use graphic organizers and visuals to reinforce information conveyed in print. For example, “for English language learners you can provide pictures and photographs to reference and help understand different vocabulary related to the lesson ...”

John used visuals and modeling to help his ELLs comprehend content area instruction.

This year, I have learned the hard way that because of the large number of English language learners in our class every activity must be modeled by me. ...For this reason, the lessons in our family unit contained visual representations of what I expected, such as exemplars made by me before class, or, I usually just did the activity in front of the whole class directly before they went to their tables for independent work.

Elaine felt that repeating instructional content was beneficial to one of her ELLs.

...Based on my previous experience with ESL students, they actually benefit from repetition of the subject matter. It [also] takes them some time to reflect and have a chance to revisit material to reach any kind of understanding. The lessons in this unit continue to revisit the same concepts and give the students a chance to see the concepts in different ways. She was a little bit more successful during this unit than she normally does when we do literacy-based work.

Sometimes the modifications were implemented to address a wide range of student needs, including those of ELLs. Other times modifications were specifically for the ELLs. Emma provided an example of the latter. “I made sure to make a more detailed vocabulary list for my ELL students. They used the list when I read aloud to the students or when they were answering questions about the text. The vocabulary words helped these students because they were more unfamiliar words and not used every day (i.e. kimono, leukemia, etc.).”

Emma also found that hands-on activities were an effective way for her students to learn. “This year, I do not know if I would survive without centers! I use them throughout the day and it gives me an opportunity to work with small groups of students or with individuals...I have found that hands-on instruction and independent study (after a mini lesson) are the best ways for children to learn.”

Melody identified additional hands-on activities as modified instruction specifically to address the needs of ELLs. In addition, pictures and other visuals were used to aid instruction and as forms of communication by the students. In lesson plans that were part of a unit on studying ancient Greece through art and culture, Melody described modifications for ELLs. “For students with special needs and ELLs you may provide a graphic organizer to help organize their thoughts. You may provide, or encourage the use of a pre-made interview sheet (for interviewing local Greek community members) as well as a voice recorder...[I]t would be very valuable to present a model. Also, a trip to the museum would be invaluable.”

The teachers' daily schedules included small group instruction and read alouds, often daily as part of language arts instruction based on the workshop model. Read alouds are one of a variety of literacy instructional strategies that the teachers implemented as part of their reading workshop. Ashley described how read alouds were a part of her daily routine. "Despite the impact that the Art in AM program has on the reading workshop at times, in planning reading workshop for my class, read alouds, shared reading, guided reading, and center-based activities are a daily part of the schedule."

For Elaine read alouds gave the class a shared experience, provided access to texts that the students would be otherwise unable to read independently because of their literacy skills, and provided opportunities to model effective literacy strategies. Elaine explains how this benefited her class.

My students often read with little comprehension and/or interest. I adapted my read-aloud with this in mind. I pointed out ways to understand the events. Additionally the multiple readings gave the students a chance to really tackle the book's content. I realized some of my students' abilities were so minimal that shared reading helped also. I adapted at that point and allowed the students who were lower functioning to follow along with the book as I read. Thus my read aloud became a shared reading experience for some of my students.

The teachers in this study provided modifications for a variety of student needs in the instructional materials they used, how the students interacted with instructional material, and how the students demonstrated competence with regards to the learning objectives. The teachers chose hands-on artifacts and manipulatives as instructional materials, along with audio books, pictures, and other visuals. They varied instruction so that students worked as a whole class, in small groups, in pairs, and individually. The expectations for student work were modified to reduce their linguistic demand by

allowing the students to complete work in their native language, with visual representations, and oral presentations.

3c. Using Resources Effectively in ESL and Content Instruction

All the teachers in this study took students' interests into consideration and tapped into their students' intrinsic motivation when planning instruction. The teachers worked to motivate their students to learn by linking the instructional content to outside interests (such as a movie), by using instructional materials and methods that are attractive to students (such as money, art, or games), or by designing instructional units that lead up to an intrinsically motivating culminating activity (such as a poetry performance).

The teachers chose instructional materials that have connections to their students' interests. Ashley taught a unit on writing "how-to" pieces and found that what she learned about her students' abilities and interests could serve as a foundation on which to build future instruction. For a literature unit, Ashley chose a book that dealt with interpersonal relationships among friends when she noticed her students having difficulty getting along in the class. As a result she saw increased cooperation among the students.

...I was further concerned as the class was having some difficulty getting along the week before and wasn't sitting through lessons without bickering with one another. I attribute this in part to the weather and in part to a number of changes that were taking place in the school that were having an impact on the classroom environment. In developing this lesson, I chose the story *The Little Yellow Chicken* for the reasons outlined in the Reflection Form, but also to address what I had seen happening between the students the week before. In retrospect, the book seemed to have the intended effect, at least at the time of this observation, as the students participated enthusiastically, related to the chicken in the story whose friends were unkind to him, and then worked in their partnerships with an enthusiasm and courteousness that was not visible the week prior.

Similarly, Melody chose a book of poetry whose contents would be familiar to her students for reading aloud.

I also spent a lot of time trying to find a poetry book that really resonates with the students, and so I found, and read to them on a daily basis *Bronx Masquerade* by Nikki Grimes. I read the book ahead of time so I can plan my think-aloud and high-level questions to get the students involved, as much as I am, in the characters, their situations, and more importantly, their poetry and how it speaks of them and their lives.

When her students were working with a text that discussed a difficult topic, the aftermath of the atomic bomb, Emma worked with her students to make text-to-self connections to increase their comprehension. When analyzing the student work included in her CAP, Emma described the text response of a few students.

One student...was very interested in the history of Japan and wanted to learn more about the atomic bomb and what happened during the war. [Two other students] are very sensitive. At times, I could tell that they may cry because the book is very sad. Their text-to-self responses were very thoughtful and empathetic.

Emma also believed that allowing her students to work in their native language would help them make more connections with the text.

Also, I allowed two students to answer one question per page in Spanish. I wanted them to feel comfortable responding to the text, especially with text-to-self connections. But I wanted to make sure that they were writing in English for the rest so that they could improve their spelling and grammar.

John gave his kindergarten students space to develop literacy skills based on their own personal lives. He used what the students knew from outside of school as a basis for developing academic knowledge within the school setting.

Our unit on the family draws on what students already know to allow them to find their own voice in writing, express themselves, and teach their classmates about their lives outside of school. They use their previous

knowledge of their families to develop reading, writing, and math skills....The content goals of this unit come from students' own unique experience within their personal family life.

Most of the teachers in this study used technology as a tool for instruction and learning. Ashley's students rotated daily through various learning centers, including a literacy-based computer program. "Students rotate throughout the week through a range of differentiated center activities, with such regularly occurring ones as working with a literacy-based computer program, a listening post, and reader's theatre with big books, art, word study, or grammar."

Linda's classroom had three computers for student use. However, she had not developed a management plan for ongoing use through rotations. Linda used technology to create presentations for parents on the district's standardized testing program. "...by the end of the first month I had three functioning computers in my classroom. I have not worked out a management piece to allow for systematic use of the computers during course time, it is mainly an incentive for good behavior, but I plan now that the ELA test has been given to begin experimenting with how to integrate the computer and research capabilities of the internet."

Melody's students systematically used four classroom computers. "A typical daily schedule spans seven periods with two homerooms. In the morning the students come in at 8:30 am. The morning homeroom goes until 8:35 am. Everyday each table of students has a schedule for the computer use and so from 8:30-8:50 am those students are on the computer." Melody also piloted the use of a SMART Board for classroom instruction. In addition, she collaborated with her students and other classes in the creation of a class

website for student use and references; gave online assessments to her students; and used websites as instructional materials.

Another way in which I show all my students that I care about their education and by which I try to teach to the whole child is my effort to create an environment for the class virtually as well as in the "real world." I've created a class website; see <http://www.kornal.com/508/508favorites.html> which students visit on a weekly, if not daily basis. This website is a product of collaboration with the students of my class, as well as with the students and teachers of other classes in our school.

For the teachers in this study, instructional design occurred within a multifaceted context that included region and school curricular requirements and expectations, graduate program instruction, and each teacher's developing professional philosophy. Instructional design focused on teaching that was student-centered, assessment-driven, differentiated, and integrated. The theoretical underpinnings of the NTRP graduate program provided the teachers in this study a strong foundation for assessment-informed instructional design and differentiated instruction. Instructional design was assessment-driven based upon the work of Wiggins and McTighe (2001); differentiated to address the academic diversity present in the classroom according to the work of Tomlinson (2001); and resulted in standards-based content area units of study.

Domain 4: Assessment

Domain 4 – Assessment. Candidates understand issues of assessment and use standards-based assessment measures with ESOL students.

4a. Issues of Assessment for ESL. Candidates understand various issues of assessment (e.g. cultural and linguistic bias, political, social, and psychological factors) in assessment, IQ, and special education testing (including gifted and talented); the importance of standards; and the difference between language proficiency and other types of assessment (e.g. standardized achievement tests of overall mastery), as they affect ESOL student learning.

4b. Language Proficiency Assessment. Candidates know and use a variety of standards-based language proficiency instruments to inform their instruction and understand their uses for identification, placement, and demonstration of language growth of ESOL students.

4c. Classroom-Based Assessment for ESL. Candidates know and use a variety of performance-based assessment tools and techniques to inform instruction.

To achieve the standards of domain 4, teachers use multiple assessments to measure their students' academic progress and language proficiency and inform their instruction. Teachers also demonstrate knowledge of the purposes of various kinds of assessment and concerns related to assessing ELLs, including issues of linguistic and cultural biases. In addition, domain 4 addresses the use of language proficiency assessments within special programs for ELLs to identify, place, and evaluate their language development.

The teachers in this study used a variety of assessments to inform instruction, address student learning styles, and evaluate student academic achievement in the content areas. Ashley described how she used multiple assessments to inform literacy instruction for her students.

As students worked independently in centers, I worked with individual students to assess their reading progress since the beginning of the school year on ECLAS-2. The results of the assessment, in combination with guided reading anecdotal [records] and running records, were used to determine students' independent and guided reading levels, as well as to drive my future instruction.

Elaine coupled observations of students working with the results of formal assessments to inform how she tailored writing instruction to fit her students' needs.

I usually keep all grades on formal assessments...I will also add my informal observations...so that I can see which students are struggling and

which are progressing. This will also let me know how to structure each individual student's writing conference in the last few days of the unit.

When discussing a unit on life in post-war Japan, Emma outlined the assessments she intended to implement during the unit.

I will employ a variety of assessment methods throughout the unit. I will collect their research piece about Japan. I will grade them on their research presentation in front of the class. Their homework and reading comprehension questions at the end of each chapter will be collected and graded.

Linda linked the use of multiple assessments to addressing various learning styles. Reviewing one unit of instruction, she concluded that the variety of assessment methods used allowed the children to interact with the content in numerous ways.

The other assessments that I used during this unit tended to be formative in nature as you will see in the students analysis and the descriptions of each lesson. The unit began with a response to literature, Parts of a Whole Booklet, and an art project, Equal Parts of a Whole Construction Paper Project. Students also wrote a variety of reflections, including journal entries, a write-in math sheet, and a final reflection on the unit. I developed these assessments to give the students a chance to learn about fractions through a variety of different modalities (aural, visual, written, and tactile).

Melody's students completed a monthly update where they engaged in self-assessment and assessed Melody as a teacher. She felt that the monthly updates provided valuable insight into her students and used this information when structuring cooperative groups for content area instruction.

Outcome Three: Accountability is another outcome to which the monthly student update speaks. In the update I assess students as well as myself. Using the monthly update I can also see where students are struggling and provide remedial work in those areas. I can also assess where students feel they are excelling. This information can be used when forming collaborative learning groups based on levels, as well as on interest.

Melody linked the improvement she made in her assessment practices to NTRP coursework, noting the value of using multiple assessments to create a more complete picture of student needs and abilities.

Another way in which I have improved my practice is with other types of more formal assessments. In the Designs for Learning I course, taken during the fall of 2004, I spent some time assessing my own assessments (see Artifact E). Through this analytical eye I realized that the assessments I was making last year were predominately testing recall. I was not creating high-level assessments where my students could accurately show what they knew. This year I have made many changes to my assessments and use a variety of methods. This year I assess informally using games, such as Around the World (see Component 4 - Observation Report), and formally using a variety of projects (see Component 3 -Instructional Unit) as well as more traditional quizzes and tests, some even given on-line (using a website called unitedstreaming.com). Most importantly I have learned that assessment needs to be planned in advance, as well as given in a variety of ways in order to get a truly accurate picture of students.

In the instructional unit included in his CAP, John outlined multiple assessments used with his kindergarten students. John's CAP instructional unit integrated language arts and social studies. The assessments used in the unit allowed the students multiple opportunities to write about their families and distinguish between needs and wants.

...I have favored mostly formative assessments at the end of each lesson, with only the non-fiction family books created as a kind of summative, final assessment. For this project, students chose their own repetitious sentence structure from the writing we did about families as a class, and used pictures of family members brought from home on each page. Students then took the books home to share with their families. The other culminating activity for the unit was referred to as a 'test,' because this usually excites and motivates precocious, young learners. Our test was a work sheet I used to assess the students' ability to distinguish between wants and needs...After the lesson on families' needs and wants, students labeled various pictures with either an 'N' or 'W'. The third assessment to be used during our unit is the writing rubric that we use for all the pieces in our class, which is the same for every activity. For this unit it was only altered slightly to include the use of new, family vocabulary, some of which we had to put on the word wall during the writing lessons.

New York City Department of Education requires annual testing in English Language Arts and Math for students in grades 3 through 8. All the teachers, except John who taught kindergarten, addressed high stakes tests in their CAP. Ashley was mindful of how skills she taught to her first graders would serve them in the future when they take high-stakes tests. Elaine's students took weekly practice tests to prepare for the citywide exam. Elaine used the results of the weekly practice tests to inform her instruction.

These reading test results [included as artifacts] come from the practice tests my students are required to take in preparation for the citywide tests. ...These test results show how I am preparing my students for their required external exams...I do use these scores [from the weekly practice tests] to help drive my instruction. I see that the majority of my students are failing so I begin to teach them different reading techniques.

Emma's students were grouped together in her class based on the results of a standardized test, and she was aware that her students are required to take the citywide exam at the end of the year. Emma taught in a school that tracks its students and assigns them to homogeneous classes for third grade based on their academic achievement. According to her daily schedule, test prep instruction was shared with a push-in teacher daily according to the schedule included in her CAP. "...Each third grade teacher is assigned a "push-in" instructor to assist with test prep. Connie (my push-in instructor) introduces the genre for the week. She and I alternate teaching the lessons..."

Test preparation also was listed on Linda's daily schedule and one area of focus of her instruction. "I have spent a lot of time during the past year and a half trying to figure out how to teach my students to take these high stakes tests with confidence and ability. I am constantly revisiting how I approach this teaching because I can see what

works and what doesn't and because I have learned new approaches from my graduate courses and from professional development at my school.”

Melody used games to sharpen her students’ skills with the explicit purpose of preparing her students for the citywide exam. “I play this game, ‘Around the World,’ often and with different content areas. It also provides a less stressful forum for the students to show what they have learned. In addition, students can practice their mental math and speed at answering questions, which will help them tremendously on the city-wide exams as well as in life in general.”

Emma’s instructional unit outline described standards-based lessons that built on the students' prior knowledge and included partner, small group, and whole class work and the assessment of listening skills. In addition, lessons used a KWL chart, a Venn diagram, graphic organizers, read alouds, the development of vocabulary, and questioning. She used informal assessments and alternative assessments for students with special needs and modeled “accountable talk.”

Special needs students... spent time with me in guided reading to work on *Sadako*...I spent more time discussing the book with them than having them write about the text. Their skills are better in listening so I wanted to hone in on their strengths so that they established more confidence. Then, I asked them to do alternative assessments, such as drawing what they wrote. I found that small group instruction worked very well for them.

Similar to Emma, Linda taught in a school where the classes were organized homogeneously according to the students’ academic achievement. Teaching third grade, the high stakes tests that occurs at the end of the year influenced most of Linda’s instruction. Most of Linda’s CAP content was linked to her focus on the end-of-the-year

standardized tests her students took. For Linda, the end-of-the-year test cast a shadow over the daily teaching and learning that occurred in her classroom.

...the bottom line in fourth grade is that I need to prepare our students as best as possible for the state assessments...In a testing year it seems clear that the major summative assessment will be the math test that my students will take in May...That's why some of the assessments that I use in this unit and in general are taken from test prep material or actual tests.

As evidenced in the instructional unit included in her CAP, Linda also used instructional activities as assessments.

The other assessments that I used during this unit tended to be formative in nature as you will see in the students analysis and the descriptions of each lesson. The unit began with a response to literature, Parts of a Whole Booklet, and an art project, Equal Parts of a Whole Construction Paper Project. Students also wrote a variety of reflections, including journal entries, a write-in math sheet, and a final reflection on the unit. I developed these assessments to give the students a chance to learn about fractions through a variety of different modalities (aural, visual, written, and tactile).

Ashley described her general instruction as being driven by assessment. In addition, the instructional unit included in her CAP provides evidence of multiple, ongoing assessments including pre-, during, and summative assessments. She described a variety of assessments as the backbone of instructional activity in her class.

Throughout the year, I used many other forms of assessment to measure my students' mastery of content areas, progress in reading, writing, math, and social growth. These assessments included anecdotal observations, running records, center based activity work products, unit exams, projects, and class participation to name a few. Often times, one lesson, read aloud, or shared reading, lent itself to many opportunities for assessment.

The attitude Ashley expressed regarding standardized tests has a different focus than the one expressed by Linda. Standardized tests did not drive Ashley's instruction. This could have been because she taught first grade, a grade that usually does not require

high stakes testing. However, Ashley did recognize the skills her students would need to succeed on standardized tests. “In developing my students’ ability to determine the main idea of texts, I am arming them with a skill that will enable them to be lifelong learners and purposeful readers, as well as providing them with a tool they will need to succeed on standardized exams.”

Elaine’s description of her use of assessments is limited. For writing instruction, Elaine used a writing rubric and, as part of writer’s workshop, writing conferences to assess students and inform future instruction. She also used assessments provided in the curriculum to help plan future instruction. However, she didn’t characterize the curriculum provided assessments in a positive light. Using more authentic assessments was one of her professional goals. “Most of my assessments come directly from the provided curriculum which can be unauthentic and unfair. However, many of them provide a window into my students’ overall abilities. In my future teaching I know I will use assessments more widely and accurately with the goal of helping my students to be prepared for the required exams.”

John gave little information about how assessments were used in his kindergarten class. He used a writing rubric co-created with his students and assessed children at the end of most lessons to inform the next stage of instruction. He detailed a keen awareness of the developmental level of his students, both emotionally and academically.

The distinction between summative and formative assessment takes on a slightly different relevance to units designed for kindergarten. Many kindergarten students have difficulty retaining information for long periods of time and using skills that they learned long ago. For this reason, I have favored mostly formative assessments at the end of each lesson, with only the non-fiction family books created as a kind of summative,

final assessment. For this project, students chose their own repetitious sentence structure from the writing we did about families as a class, and used pictures of family members brought from home on each page. Students then took the books home to share with their families. ...The rubric lists the characteristics of a complete writing piece as containing the students' name, words from the word wall, use of phonemic spelling for new words, and the use of pink spaces and periods. ...I have had problems with sad faces and student self-confidence before, so this year we use the silly face, explaining that the child was temporarily in a silly mood and can do better next time.

Melody reflected on the growth she experienced from her first to second year teaching, especially in the area of designing assessment and instruction. She linked a lot of what she has learned to graduate courses and course readings, especially the work of Tomlinson on differentiated instruction and of Wiggins and McTighe on backward instructional design. The unit outline Melody included in her CAP listed independent and pair work, group presentations, group debate, reader's theatre, and an art project as some of the instructional activities. In addition, the unit included quizzes, tests, observations, self-assessment, and writing in response to prompts as some of the assessments. The curricular calendar Melody provided in her CAP addresses various content-area standards for English, math, and science. It included instructional activities related to a variety of reading strategies, texts, and writing purposes. The curricular calendar included pair and small group work and referenced a community action plan related to recycling and the environment. The curricular calendar outlined a variety of assessments, including informal, formal, performance-based, and self-assessments. The assessments included the use of visuals and graphic organizers.

Another way in which I have improved my practice is with other types of more formal assessments. In the Designs for Learning I course, taken during the fall of 2004, I spent some time assessing my own assessments

(see Artifact E). Through this analytical eye I realized that the assessments I was making last year were predominately testing recall. I was not creating high-level assessments where my students could accurately show what they knew. This year I have made many changes to my assessments and use a variety of methods. This year I assess informally using games, such as Around the World (see Component 4 - Observation Report), and formally using a variety of projects (see Component 3 -Instructional Unit) as well as more traditional quizzes and tests, some even given on-line (using a website called unitedstreaming.com). Most importantly I have learned that assessment needs to be planned in advance, as well as given in a variety of ways in order to get a truly accurate picture of students.

John, Elaine, Linda, and Melody noted the use of rubrics in their classroom as part of their assessment system. Elaine, John, and Linda explicitly stated that the students were involved in the creation of the rubrics. Elaine and John's rubrics were specifically for use in writing. Linda described a project-specific rubric.

The data for this study provided evidence that most directly related to standard 4c Classroom-based assessment for ESL. The study participants did not address language proficiency assessments or possible linguistic and cultural biases in the assessment their students took as required in standards 4a issues of assessment of ESL and 4c language proficiency assessment. The teachers in this study did not provide evidence that they assessed the language proficiency of their ELLs or used the results of language proficiency assessment done by other ESL professionals in their school to inform their classroom instruction. Other than stating the number of students who received services from an ESL teacher, the study participants did not comment on the language proficiency levels of their ELLs. When discussing standardized tests, the teachers in this study did not address the need for accommodations for ELLs when they took the standardized tests.

The teachers in this study used multiple assessments to measure ELLs' mastery of academic content. The results of these assessments informed instructional design. However, the study participants did not address issues of assessment specifically as it related to ELLs, including language proficiency assessment, the use of assessment to identify students as ELLs, and issues of linguistic and cultural bias within assessments.

Domain 5: Professionalism

Domain 5 – Professionalism. Candidates demonstrate knowledge of the history of ESL teaching. Candidates keep current with new instructional techniques, research results, advances in the ESL field, and public policy issues. Candidates use such information to reflect upon and improve their instructional practices. Candidates provide support and advocate for ESOL students and their families and work collaboratively to improve the learning environment.

5a. ESL Research and History. Candidates demonstrate knowledge of history, research, and current practice in the field of ESL teaching and apply this knowledge to improve teaching and learning.

5b. Partnerships and Advocacy. Candidates serve as professional resources, advocate for ESOL students, and build partnerships with students' families.

5c. Professional Development and Collaboration. Candidates collaborate with and are prepared to serve as a resource to all staff, including paraprofessionals, to improve learning for all ESL students.

Domain 5 focuses on the profession of being an educator of ELLs. To achieve the standards of this domain, teachers advocate on behalf of ELLs and their families and act as resources for teachers unfamiliar with the effective instruction of ELLs and the particular needs of ELLs. To demonstrate the standards of domain 5, teachers demonstrate a command of the “history, research, and current practice” of teaching English as a second language.

All the teachers in this study discussed the importance of collaborating with other educators. In addition to weekly team teaching with the school's librarian listed on her

class schedule, Ashley conducted grade level planning sessions with other teachers at her school and with the AUSSIE literacy consultant. She planned to continue this level of professional collaboration:

...I would like to become involved with the curriculum committee at my school to help refine and develop the balance literacy curriculum at my school, while attempting to broaden our approach to incorporate integrated instruction. In addition, I am also collaborating with my grade level, as well as inter-grade level colleagues in planning instruction for my class and for school-wide projects. I am also taking opportunities to observe other teachers currently practicing interdisciplinary instruction at other schools to begin to think about how this might be able to manifest itself in my school setting.

Elaine worked with others on a committee to support teachers with challenging students. “The only leadership [role] I have taken is as a member of the Pupil Personnel Team... We as a team provide suggestions to the teacher as to how to teach this student. I am proud of this assignment because I can take a role in figuring out how to help students and teachers.”

Emma’s class schedule listed weekly team-teaching with the test prep instructor. She also planned integrated units with other teachers at her school. Working collaboratively with other teachers, Emma organized an after-school basketball tournament for students at her school. John collaborated with other teachers to present a workshop on early-childhood writing and worked with the physical education teacher to re-establish an after school basketball program for students at his school.

Linda worked with teachers at her school to present a bilingual parent workshop that described the end-of-the-year high stakes tests the students would take. In addition,

Linda participated in region-level professional development seminars with the goal of developing social studies curricula.

One of the NTRP Outcomes is Educational Leadership. This outcome lays out the expectation that NTRP graduates work to improve teaching and learning in ways that reach beyond the confines of their classrooms. The outcome does not specifically address the field of ESL education as the context within which NTRP graduates are to effect change. Similarly, when the teachers in this study described the ways in which they addressed or planned to address this outcome by serving as a professional resource or as an advocate, they did not specifically address the field of ESL education or ELLs.

Ashley, John, and Melody have defined contributing to the professional development of other teachers as a professional goal. For Ashley, this goal grew out of her own professional struggle. She learned about designing integrated instruction through coursework and professional development workshops and felt that integrated instruction was an effective way to engage and motivate students. She then saw the benefits with her own students. One of her professional goals was to advocate for improved instructional design modeled on integrated units and contribute to the implementation of integration instruction throughout her entire school.

...I would like to become involved with the curriculum committee at my school to help refine and develop the balance literacy curriculum at my school, while attempting to broaden our approach to incorporate integrated instruction. In addition, I am also collaborating with my grade level, as well as inter-grade level colleagues in planning instruction for my class and for school-wide projects. I am also taking opportunities to observe other teachers currently practicing interdisciplinary instruction at other schools to begin to think about how this might be able to manifest itself in my school setting.

For John being a kindergarten teacher emphasized the importance of early childhood literacy development. As he developed as a teacher, John realized that he had received inaccurate tips from colleagues early in his career. He delved deeper into the literature on early childhood education and worked to create an effective language arts instruction program for his students. Seeing his students' progress encouraged him to share his developing knowledge on early childhood literacy development with other teachers.

...the packet I created for my presentation at the Fellows at Five Conference, a workshop entitled, "Early Childhood Writing: Do's and Don'ts." Working along with another kindergarten teacher at my school, I compiled valuable, relevant materials to help teachers who have questions about how to begin creating great materials to help teachers who have questions about how to begin creating great writers in their classrooms. I did outside research that I think helped me realize the importance of pictures in early childhood writing, and the experience of creating this informational packet has given me the desire to continue educating myself until I truly am an expert in early childhood writing, with the maximum benefit to my students. In addition, I have come closer to realizing my roles as an educational leader, sharing resources with my co-workers when I had previously only borrowed resources from them. I ...have developed...into an experienced early childhood writing specialist, who possesses something of real value to share with other educators.

Melody also worked to contribute to the development of other teachers. She took on leadership roles in her local school and asset for herself the professional goal of expanding her contribution beyond her school walls.

I have taken great initiatives in making it clear to my supervisors that I would like to take a more active role in both professional development as well as other leadership duties in the school. I have been recognized for my exemplary teaching practice as well as for my leadership and organization skills. I am also in charge of organizing the budget for the Per Session money in the school. During the rest of the year I will continue both of these responsibilities as well as be the sixth-grade teacher

responsible for turn-keying training for a new science program for my grade. In the summer and next year I have also been asked to train teachers and administrators on the SMART Board technology (an interactive white board that my class is piloting). I will continue to take the initiative to make positive changes in the school and in the region and hope that my impacts will be positive and long-lasting.

Both Ashley and Elaine saw skills they developed in their careers prior to becoming teachers as useful tools for their continued growth as educators. Ashley wanted to help other teachers develop integrated curricular units. She felt she had past experiences that will help her accomplish this goal.

...I would like to put my previous career skills in project and personnel management to work by becoming a staff developer within the school system to help teachers integrate rich, dynamic interdisciplinary curriculum in their classroom.

Elaine focused her first two years teaching on classroom instruction, but wanted to affect change within the larger school district.

I have not advocated for reform in the school or district. I hope to change this in the near future. I want to use my background as an attorney to advocate on behalf of the individual participants in the educational system, mainly the students and teachers.

The teachers in this study did not directly address domain 5 mainly because they did not see themselves as teachers of ELLs exclusively. They regarded themselves as teachers of diverse learners and intended to empower others to become more effective teachers of diverse learners. The teachers in this study planned to serve as advocates and professional resources as the TESOL/NCATE standards require. However, they did not focus these professional goals to the field of English as a Second language education.

Summary

This study examined the qualifying portfolios of graduates of an alternative teacher licensure program that sought to prepare teachers to teach culturally, linguistically, and ability diverse students. All participants in this study taught in New York City public schools during the 2004-05 school year in schools where at least 20% of the student population were ELLs. The TESOL/NCATE standards for the preparation of teachers of ELLs were used as a framework for analyzing the portfolios. The portfolios were examined to determine the extent to which the teachers demonstrated effective instructional practices for ELLs as defined in the TESOL/NCATE standards and the literature on the effective instruction of ELLs.

The structure of the participants' schools provided a foundation for the integration of ELLs in mainstream classrooms and content-based instruction for all ELLs. The teachers provided instructional modifications and adaptations to support ELLs during content area instruction. However, these modifications were not explicitly linked to students' home cultures or stage in the second language acquisition process. The teachers acquainted themselves with their students individually and used that knowledge to make their instruction more relevant to their students. The teachers also sought to establish relationships and effective communication with their students' parents often through the parents' native language. However, the teachers did not attend to deeper issues of culture and incorporate the students' cultural resources into classroom instruction, aspects of culturally relevant pedagogy.

The NTRP curriculum provided an instructional design approach that emphasized differentiation based on students' needs, interests, and abilities and assessment-driven instruction that began with students' prior knowledge. This approach to instructional design produced teaching and learning beneficial to ELLs. Nevertheless, the teachers in this study did not address the TESOL/NCATE standards with an adequate level of detail and depth.

The evidence provided in the CAPs did not demonstrate the teachers' understanding of language acquisition processes. The teachers did not express awareness that they were simultaneously responsible for teaching the English language and content areas to their ELLs and failed to define their instruction through the use of language objectives in conjunction with content area objectives. In addition, there was little evidence that the teachers attended to issues related to the assessment of ELLs including assessment of language proficiency and questions of linguistic and cultural bias in assessments. Furthermore, the teachers did not focus their professional advocacy on issues directly related to ELLs as required in the TESOL/NCATE standards. These results were shown in both the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the CAPs.

5. Conclusions

In January 2002 the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) was signed into law by President George W. Bush. NCLB requires that schools ensure that all students achieve content area standards. Schools are held accountable for “increases in English proficiency and core academic content knowledge by LEP students” (U.S. Department of Education, 2002). Teacher quality is seen as one key to ensuring student academic success. Therefore, NCLB also required that every student be taught by a “highly qualified” teacher by 2006. Only 20% of public school teachers feel prepared to address the needs of ELLs and culturally diverse students (Bush, 2002). Given the cultural, linguistic, and ability diverse student population in U.S. public schools it is imperative that all teachers are able to effectively educate all students. The number of teachers entering the profession through alternative teacher licensure programs is increasing (U.S. Department of Education, 2006). Graduates of alternative teacher licensure programs are more likely to teach diverse student populations in urban school districts (Shen, 1998).

The nexus of alternatively licensed teachers and the effective instruction of ELLs was the focus of this study, an intersection not often examined in the literature. This study examined the Culminating Assessment Portfolios (CAPs) of successful 2005 graduates of the New Teacher Residency Program (NTRP) at Mercy College. The NTRP, an alternative teacher licensure program, has as a stated goal the preparation of its

teachers to effectively educate all students within New York City public schools. The graduate teacher education program worked to integrate standards for preparing effective teachers of culturally, linguistically, and ability diverse students within the teacher education curriculum. This study sought to determine the extent to which the teachers evidenced effective instructional practices for English language learners (ELLs) as defined by the TESOL/NCATE standards for the preparation of teachers of ELLs and the literature on the effective instruction of ELLs. The central research questions for this study were:

- To what extent do graduates of the Mercy College NTRP evidence effective instructional strategies for English language learners as measured by the TESOL/NCATE standards for the preparation of teachers who teach English language learners?
- In what ways do graduates of the Mercy College NTRP evidence effective instructional strategies for English language learners?

All NTRP 2005 graduates who taught a general education class in a school with at least 20% ELLs were invited to participate in this study. The researcher collected the 11 CAPs. Ten CAPs were eligible for inclusion in the study. The researcher randomly selected six CAPs for analysis. To address the first research question, the CAPs were scored according to the TESOL/NCATE standards rubrics. Mean scores for each CAP were reported according to the five domains of the TESOL/NCATE standards. Within and cross case qualitative analyses of each CAP were conducted to address the second

research question. Results of the analyses were discussed according to the five domains of the TESOL/NCATE standards.

Summary of Findings

Research Question 1: To what extent do graduates of the Mercy College NTRP evidence effective instructional strategies for English language learners as measured by the TESOL/NCATE standards for the preparation of teachers who teach English language learners?

The data in this study failed to meet the TESOL/NCATE standards. In domains 1, 3, and 5, the mean for all CAPs approached the standard. The mean for all CAPs failed to approach the standard in domains 2 and 4.

Analyses of the CAPs revealed that the teachers in this study addressed many of the TESOL/NCATE standards and the literature on effective instruction of ELLs. However, there was insufficient evidence presented in the CAPs to draw the conclusion that these teachers achieved a rating of “meets the standards” on the TESOL/NCATE standards for the preparation of teachers of ELLs.

Through the data presented in the CAPs, the teachers in this study implemented an approach to instructional design and instructional strategies beneficial to ELLs. In addition, the study participants demonstrated some aspects of student-centered instruction and educational leadership. However, the teachers implemented instructional strategies exclusively focused on content area objectives. The teachers did not set language objectives to facilitate their ELLs’ continued English language development, assess students’ English proficiency, or provide instruction linked to their ELLs’ particular level of language proficiency. Furthermore, there was no evidence that the teachers in this study acted as advocates on behalf of ELLs. The study participants did not implement

culturally relevant pedagogy by attending to the implicit aspects of their students' culture. Most of the teachers in this study did not seek to incorporate or further develop the students' heritage language, and no references were made aligning classroom interactions to patterns of interaction common to the students' home culture. As general education teachers of a class of students that included ELLs, the teachers did not see themselves as language teachers.

Research Question 2: In what ways do graduates of the Mercy College NTRP evidence effective instructional strategies for English language learners?

Instructional design

The teachers in this study implemented an approach to instruction and assessment that was presented in their graduate education program and based on the backward design model (Wiggins & McTighe, 2001) and differentiated instruction (Tomlinson, 2001). These teaching methods facilitated classrooms where instruction was driven by assessment; based on student's prior knowledge; and tailored to meet students' academic needs. The teachers in this study worked to create such classrooms. They worked to differentiate content area instruction to make it accessible to their ELLs. The NTRP curriculum sought to integrate the competencies needed to effectively teach the culturally, linguistically, and ability diverse students of New York City public schools.

Instructional strategies

The study participants provided content area instruction that was assessment-driven and standards-based. They implemented various content-area assessment tools and used the results to inform their instruction. The teachers sought to design instruction that

was based on their students' prior knowledge, interests, and abilities. They modified instruction in ways that addressed the needs of the students by using both linguistic and visual instructional tools, graphic organizers, and technology. These strategies and techniques are supported in the TESOL/NCATE standards and the research literature as effective with ELLs (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 2002; Waxman & Tellez, 2002; Hill & Flynn, 2006).

Student-centered instruction

The study participants learned about their students' interests and build relationships with their students' parents. In some instances, the teachers used what they learned about their students' interests to inform their instruction. They sought to establish effective communication with their students' parents and, in some cases, worked to learn their native language.

Although the structures of their schools were not designed to facilitate the continued development of the students' native language, the teachers in this study had other options that could have made their pedagogy more culturally relevant. In their study of a bilingual paraprofessional, Wortham and Contreras (2002) described the ways in which the paraprofessional was able to make her classroom culturally relevant to the Latino students in her school. "She went beyond curriculum materials that draw on Latino cultures, and beyond the use of Spanish, to incorporate a culturally familiar way of organizing time, space, and student participation...and also recognize[d] less explicit aspects of minority students' cultural practices" (Wortham & Contreras, 2002, p. 137). Ladson-Billings' (2001) theory of culturally relevant pedagogy contends that integrating

students' culture into classroom instruction enables students to achieve academically. She goes on to explain that "culturally relevant teachers know that it is their job to learn about the students' cultures and their communities. They need to bridge the divide between the school and the students' homes. They do not assume that students have to learn their ways and rules" (Ladson-Billings, 2001, p. 99). The teachers in this study provided no evidence of systematically studying their students' culture. The CAPs contained no evidence of home visits or community studies, two strategies that have been shown in the research to yield rich information about the cultural resources of diverse student populations (Moll & Gonzales, 2004; Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

Educational leadership

Outcome 6 of the NTRP is educational leadership. In addressing this outcome in the CAPs, the teachers in this study touched upon domain 5 of the TESOL/NCATE standards. The study participants described experiences where they contributed (or planned to contribute) to the field of education by having an influence outside of their classrooms. The teachers served as resources and advocates and conveyed professional goals and a philosophy of teaching and learning.

Implications

Recognizing the increasing diversity in U.S. public schools, the NTRP sought to prepare teachers who could effectively teach the diverse student population of New York City public schools. The NTRP's goal was to create a teacher education curriculum that integrated the competencies needed to teach culturally, linguistic, and ability diverse students. However, when compared to the expectations laid out in the TESOL/NCATE

standards, the teachers in this study were limited in the way they addressed the needs of their ELLs. The data analyzed in this study produced many implications for the preparation of teachers for America's diverse classrooms.

Domain 1: Language

The teachers in this study did not demonstrate knowledge of second language acquisition processes. Second language acquisition in school settings includes the development of social and academic language (Collier, 1997). In a research synthesis on the effective instruction of ELLs, Waxman and Tellez (2002) conclude that effective educators of ELLs must teach both language and content, declaring that "of utmost concern is that teachers of ELLs must be knowledgeable about language development and language acquisition" (Waxman & Tellez, p. 30, 2002). Similarly, Hill and Flynn (2006) assert that effective instruction for ELLs is tailored to each learner's language proficiency level. This level of differentiation necessitates a comprehensive understanding of language acquisition processes. The authors argue that in order to be effective with ELLs, teachers should provide direct instruction in vocabulary and learning strategies tailored to the ELL's proficiency level (Hill & Flynn, 2006). Addressing teachers of ELLs, Hill and Flynn (2006) affirm that "one of the most important things you should know about each of your ELLs is which stage of acquisition they are in. Knowing and understanding the stage and its characteristics are critical for effectively differentiating instruction for those students" (p. 14). Teachers should be able to design instruction that ensures continued English language development as well as achievement in the content areas. Including education about second language acquisition processes in

teacher preparation programs could improve teachers' ability to address the linguistic needs of ELLs.

Domain 2: Culture

Teachers in this study did not demonstrate knowledge of their students' cultural resources or home lives. Although the study participants worked to establish relationship with their students' parents and learn about their students interests, the teachers did not capitalize on the cultural resources their students possessed. It would be impossible for all teachers to know everything there is to know about every culture represented in their classroom. However, Moll and Gonzalez (2004) assert that teachers could be taught how to systematically learn about and incorporate their students' cultural resources into classroom instruction, content, and patterns of interaction.

Moll and Gonzalez championed identifying and incorporating students' "funds of knowledge." The funds of knowledge approach incorporates methods from anthropology and ethnography "...to give teachers theoretical and methodological equipment to address diversity" (Moll & Gonzalez, 2004, p. 700). This approach has three dimensions. Teachers visit their students' homes to observe; conduct interviews and build relationships with their students and their families; and document their students' "knowledge base." Teachers then participate in study groups to examine, reflect upon, and discuss the "meaning and implication" of what they learned about their students. Finally, teachers integrate what they learned into classroom instruction. Moll and Gonzalez (2004) assert that the "theoretical knowledge" teachers gain by learning about their students' funds of knowledge helps the teachers create pedagogy particular to their

students' strengths and experiences, improving the ways in which teachers meaningfully connect curriculum to their students. According to the authors, the processes of documenting students' funds of knowledge "make obvious" the wealth of resources in diverse families that may not otherwise be recognized in a school setting. Incorporating ethnographic and anthropological methods into teacher preparation and in-service programs would equip teachers with the tools necessary to study their students and incorporate what they learn into teaching and learning, making their instruction more culturally relevant.

Domain 3: Planning, Implementing, and Managing Instruction

The teachers in this study were able to implement assessment-driven differentiated instruction that included instructional modifications that supported ELLs' access to content area curricula. Often times the evidence the teachers provided that addressed the TESOL/NCATE standards was linked to backward instruction design and differentiated instruction, the approach to content area instructional design and implementation based on the works of Wiggins, McTighe, and Tomlinson and taught in the teacher education program.

Instruction can be differentiated by content, process, or product. In addition, instruction can be differentiated according to students' readiness, interests, or learning profile (Tomlinson, 2001). Some of the teachers in this study included evidence of differentiated instruction as part of literacy development in their classroom. At times students read varying text (content) and produced differentiated products to demonstrate mastery of instructional objectives. The study participants also worked differentiate

content to match the student's literacy level demonstrating differentiation according to readiness. Some teachers in this study worked to include instruction that was relevant to their students' interests and that addressed various learning styles. However, the teachers did not provide evidence that their student's language proficiency level factored into instructional design or that differentiation occurred according to students' interests and learning style. Instead, the study participants designed instruction that included multiple learning experiences as part of an overall unit plan, but they did not differentiate these learning experiences for individual students or groups of students. Although the teachers in this study provided evidence of various forms of differentiated instruction, each was exclusively focused on content area instruction without regard for the learner's language proficiency level. Expanding differentiation to multiple content areas, differentiating the process through which students engage in content, and differentiating according to students' interests and learning styles would also be beneficial.

The approach to instructional planning and implementation taught in the NTRP teacher preparation program could be used in other teacher education programs. Linking this approach to instruction with knowledge about second language acquisition processes could result in differentiated instruction that addresses language and content area objectives tailored to the English language proficiency level of each student. This would help teachers to effectively fulfill their responsibility to teach language and content to ELLs.

Domain 4: Assessment

The TESOL/NCATE standards assert that assessments when used with ELLs need to be evaluated for potential linguistic and cultural biases. The teachers in this study did not provide evidence of evaluating the validity of the assessments their ELLs completed. In addition, the TESOL/NCATE standards address two broad categories of assessments of ELLs: content area assessment and language proficiency assessment. The teachers in this study provided evidence of the use of multiple content area assessments to evaluate student performance and inform future instruction. The use of multiple assessments increases the accuracy of judgments made about an ELLs' achievement and is supported in the research on the effective instruction of ELLs (Peregoy & Boyle, 2005).

ELLs are tasked with the simultaneous responsibility of learning content area objectives and acquiring English. Therefore, educators who teach ELLs should ensure that their students reach both goals. The teachers in this study did not provide evidence of assessing their ELLs' language proficiency or of using the results of language proficiency assessments to inform instruction. The TESOL/NCATE standards explain that language proficiency assessments are used to identify a student as an ELL, to place the student in the appropriate instructional program, to measure language proficiency, progress, and to ensure that the instruction an ELL receives is appropriate to their language proficiency level. By not assessing their students' language proficiency levels or using the results of assessments done by other school officials, teachers are unable to design appropriate instruction with both language and content area objectives and support

their students' multiple learning needs. Even in school districts where language proficiency assessments are coordinated at the school or district level, teachers should use the results of these assessments to inform their classroom instruction and understand any biases in the assessment instruments to ensure that the results are interpreted accurately. Peregoy and Boyle (2005) contend that teachers of ELLs "...need to be informed about language proficiency and standardized testing instruments and procedures used in [their] school district[;]...need to understand the strengths and limitations of these tests[;]...know how to interpret test results ...and consider them in instructional planning" (p. 112).

In the area of assessment, the implications of this study focus on identifying areas of potential bias in assessments and utilizing language proficiency assessments as required by the TESOL/NCATE standards. Similar to the need for improved knowledge of language acquisition processes and for content area instruction that is paired with continued English language development, teacher preparation should re-examine the way prospective teachers are prepared to assess the language proficiency of ELLs. Peregoy and Boyle (2005) assert that "assessment should be based on current research and theory concerning language, literacy, and knowledge construction" (p. 113). In addition, teachers can be educated to examine the potential biases in assessments to ensure fair and accurate measurement of student achievement. Ultimately, teachers should be able to assess student's English language proficiency to inform instruction that is geared toward the continued their ELLs' English language development and academic achievement.

Domain 5: Professionalism

The TESOL/NCATE standards require that teachers work to positively influence the education of ELLs beyond the confines of their own classrooms, focusing on advocacy, professional development, and professional collaboration. Similarly, the NTRP Program Outcomes include the expectation that their teachers become educational leaders seeking to systematically improve the educational experiences of all students. Although the TESOL/NCATE standards focus exclusively on ELLs, both the standards and the NTRP Program Outcomes seek to develop educators who do not see the physical confines of their classrooms as the limits of their professional responsibility. The lower rates of academic achievement experienced by ELLs and urban public school students in general necessitate the expectation that effective teachers become advocates on behalf of their students, engage in ongoing professional development to stay abreast of emerging research in effective schooling of diverse populations, and collaborate with other professional to ensure that all students achieve high academic standards. Equipping effective educators of culturally and linguistically diverse students to address inequities at levels beyond the classrooms could bring about positive systemic improvement in the educational experiences of ELLs.

Recommendations for Future Research

The study participants were able to approach many of the TESOL/NCATE standards based on how instruction and assessment occurred in their classrooms. The teachers' approaches to instruction and assessment were based on the backward design model (Wiggins & McTighe, 2001) and differentiated instruction (Tomlinson, 2001).

More research is needed with larger populations and in diverse educational settings to determine the extent to which these teaching methods benefit ELLs. In addition, more could be learned through additional research that utilizes triangulation by conducting classroom observations over time, examining student work, and analyzing teachers' reflection on their practice. As reflected in the TESOL PreK-12 English language proficiency standards (2006) and required in the No Child Left Behind Act, ELLs need to develop competency in both the English language and in core content areas. This line of research should work to measure ELLs' progress towards content area objectives and English language proficiency.

The TESOL/NCATE standards are designed for teacher education programs that prepare educators to work exclusively with ELLs. Given the number of general education teachers who have ELLs as students, additional research is needed to explore the most effective ways to imbed the essence of these standards into the curricula of preparation programs for all teachers. When developed, this line of inquiry could be used to support the preparation of teachers for the reality of today's diverse public schools.

Although this study focused on an alternative certification program at only one college, the results of this study could have implications for many areas in teacher preparation. The results of this study could help to inform the preparation of teachers through alternative certification programs, specifically those programs that place teachers in diverse school districts with high numbers of ELLs, and contribute to the knowledge base on the use of the TESOL/NCATE standards as a tool for examining teacher practice.

Conclusion

“The attainment of challenging, world-class educational standards by all students . . . calls for shared responsibility and collaboration among all educational professionals working with English language learners. It also calls for professionals to expand their knowledge to encompass issues of relevance to the education of English language learners. This expanded knowledge base includes an understanding of the similarities and differences in first and second language acquisition; the role of the native language in second language and content learning; instructional practices that accommodate individual differences in learning styles; the interrelationships among culture, cognition and academic achievement; alternative approaches to assessment; and the importance of community-school linkages in education. These are all part of the professional development of ESL specialists that general educators must tap into if educational reform is to result in the attainment of high standards for all students.” (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 2006, p. 12).

The Mercy College New Teacher Residency Program set out to prepare educators who effectively taught culturally, linguistically, and ability diverse students that is the reality in the New York City public school population and the student population of many other urban centers. The NTRP established a worthwhile goal. Unfortunately, when measured by the TESOL/NCATE standards for the preparation of teachers of ELLs, the NTRP was failed to meet the standards. However, the teachers whose CAPs were examined in this study were successful graduates of the NTRP. They successfully submitted CAPs that addresses the NTRP Program Outcomes. The NTRP Program Outcomes purposed to establish a teacher education program that included the competencies teachers needed to be effective with the diverse student population of New York City public schools. Further research is needed to determine where the breakdown occurred within the inter-relation among the TESOL/NCATE standards, NTRP Program

Outcomes, CAP, NTRP coursework, teachers, and classrooms. Similar to a complex machine with multiple moving parts, there may be more than one area where improvement is needed. However, further research into each of the components could yield a teacher education program that is able to realize the goal of preparing general education teachers who are effective with culturally, linguistically, and ability diverse students.

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Curriculum Vitae

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