EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS'

MULTICULTURAL ATTITUDES AND SELF-EFFICACY FOR TEACHING ENGLISH

LANGUAGE LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

An increase in English Language Learners (ELLs) in public schools across the nation is forcing stakeholders to reexamine how teachers are being prepared to effectively teach culturally and linguistically diverse students. It is unclear to what extent inservice teachers feel prepared to work with ELLs and what factors impact their feelings of preparedness. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, general teaching self-efficacy, and multicultural attitudes. The study also explored whether teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs could be explained by variables that include years of teaching experience, highest degree earned, perception of preparedness for teaching ELLs, and actual preparation for teaching ELLs.

Two hundred twenty-three elementary teachers working in the Clark County School District in Las Vegas, Nevada, participated in this study. Data was collected using an online survey, which included two validated surveys, the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) and the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Survey (TMAS; Ponterotto, Baluch, Greig, & Rivera, 1998). A modified version of the TSES was included to measure teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. Factor analysis was performed on the modified instrument. Three factors emerged from the factor analysis: *self-efficacy in ELL classroom management*, *self-efficacy in ELL student motivation, and self-efficacy in ELL methods and strategies*.

Factor analysis, structural equation modeling, and path analysis were used in data analysis. Teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs and general teaching self-efficacy were found to be strongly correlated. However, multicultural attitude was not found to moderate this

correlation. Of the four demographic and background variables, only *perception of preparedness for teaching ELLs* was found to be a statistically significant predictor.

This study highlights important factors that need to be considered when preparing teachers to teach ELLs. The results of this study may help administrators understand how to prepare and support both preservice and inservice teachers to improve the learning outcomes for ELLs and, in turn, help to close the achievement gap between ELLs and their non-ELL counterparts.

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As I reflect back on these past few years, I am in awe of how far I have come. I went from once believing that a Ph.D. was insurmountable to successfully completing my doctoral journey. I have viewed this path not as a challenge, but as an opportunity to prepare myself to become a leader and contributor to the field of education. I am now confident that I have gained the knowledge and expertise needed to help me become a dedicated, committed scholar and researcher. However, I could not have achieved an accomplishment of this magnitude without the love and support of those around me.

First of all, I would like to begin by expressing my sincere gratitude to my supervisory committee members, Dr. Nate Wood (chair), Dr. Stacy Duffield, Dr. Lisa Arnold, Dr. Brent Hill, and Dr. Dina Zavala, for their assistance, feedback, and valuable insights. A special heartfelt thanks goes to my advisor/chair, Dr. Nate Wood, for his expertise, guidance, support, and trust. His words of encouragement were monumental in propelling me to the end of this long, arduous journey. Furthermore, Dr. Wood challenged me to think critically and helped mold me into a curious, thoughtful, and open-minded scholar. I am truly grateful for his willingness to share his unique perspectives and profound wisdom.

I would like to acknowledge and express my deepest appreciation to my husband, Dr. Vitaliano Figueroa, whose unfathomable love I continue to feel each and every day. They say that a journey of a thousand miles begins with a single step. He is the reason I took the very first step towards earning my Ph.D. This would not have been possible without him. Words cannot express how fortunate I am to continue life's journey with him by my side. For us, the sky is the limit, and the possibilities are endless.

I would like to acknowledge my two children, Isabella & Vitaliano III, for their unwavering love, patience, tenacity, strength, and encouragement. I cherished every moment that I was able to study and complete my homework with them. They say that children are great imitators, so I hope that I have given them something great to imitate. My hope is that their father and I have shown them that learning never ends and that hard work pays off. I love them both with all of my heart and soul.

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Last, but not least, I would like to wholeheartedly acknowledge the multitude of family and friends who played a role in my educational journey, especially my parents, Sarah and Lenny Ibanez. Their generosity, sacrifice, and hard work made me who I am today.

A mind that is stretched by a new experience can never go back to its old dimensions.

—Oliver Wendell Holmes, Jr.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family:

Dr. Vitaliano Figueroa—my husband, my best friend, my inspiration, my world;

Isabella—my intelligent, highly efficacious, determined, and beautiful daughter; and

Vitaliano III—my bright, curious, focused, and kindhearted son.

Without them, this dream would not have come true. Everything I do, I do for them.

I hope I have made you proud.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

The Center for Public Education (2012) reported that the United States continues to experience demographic changes in age, diversity, and family structures. The population of the United States is becoming increasingly diverse. Immigration to the United States has also led to rapidly changing demographics in the school-aged population (Center for Public Education, 2012). The number of families with school-aged children with limited English proficiency levels continues to rise. According to Ziegler and Camarota (2018), an estimated 25% of school-aged students in the United States live in households where a language other than English is spoken. Approximately 4.8 million students enrolled in U.S. schools in grades K-12 were considered English Language Learners (U.S. Department of Education, 2016).

The term English Language Learners, or ELLs, refers to students who are not able to communicate fluently in English, often come from non-English speaking homes, and need modified or specialized instruction in English. In the educational realm, there are many terms used when referring to ELLs, including English Learners (ELs), Limited English Proficient (LEP) students, English as a Second Language (ESL), and bilingual students. The federal government and several state governments use the acronyms ELL, LEP, and ESL interchangeably, and have acknowledged that these three terms are synonymous in that they refer to students with limited English proficiency. According to federal law, a limited English proficient student is defined as a student who is:

- Age 3 through 21;
- Enrolled or preparing to enroll in an elementary or secondary school;
- Not born in the U.S. or whose native language is a language other than English;

- From an environment where a language other than English has had a significant impact on the student's English language proficiency level;

- Living in an environment where the dominant language is not English; and

- Experiencing difficulties in English that may be sufficient enough in denying the student the ability to demonstrate proficiency on state assessments, succeed academically in an English-only class, and participate fully in society (Education Commission of the States, 2014).

ELL is the universally accepted term in K-12 school settings; however, Limited English Proficient (LEP) is often used to describe the subgroup of ELLs within a school or district. Referred to as the "Dear Colleague" letter, the U.S. Department of Education Office of Civil Rights, in conjunction with the U.S. Department of Justice (DOJ), outlined the State Educational Agencies' (SEAs) and school districts' legal obligations to ELLs and their parents to ensure that the lack of language proficiency does not pose as a threat or serve as an obstacle to accessing educational opportunities (U.S. Department of Education Office for Civil Rights & U.S. Department of Justice, 2015).

Throughout the educational system, a variety of acronyms have also emerged regarding ESL instruction and are often used interchangeably to describe specialized certification for teachers of ELLs. For example, Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) is an acronym generally used to describe educators of students whose native language is not English. Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) refers to teaching English to speakers of other languages and is most used interchangeably with ESL teachers. TESL/ESL teachers may work for public or private PK-12 schools.

In K-12 education, accountability for student achievement and educational outcomes has shifted. Previously, the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001 placed a strong focus on greater teacher accountability and standardized testing. However, NCLB exposed achievement gaps between underrepresented students and their peers, which led to even greater inequities, especially for ELLs (Reardon, Greenberg, Kalogrides, Shores, & Valentino, 2013). The current law, the Every Student Succeeds Act (Every Student Succeeds Act [ESSA], 2015), which replaced NCLB, placed a stronger emphasis on high academic standards for all students and more state and local oversight. At the signing of the new legislation, then President Barack Obama proclaimed the following:

> The goals of No Child Left Behind, the predecessor of this law, were the right ones: High standards. Accountability. Closing the achievement gap. Making sure that every child was learning, not just some. But in practice, it often fell short. It didn't always consider the specific needs of each community. It led to too much testing during classroom time. It often forced schools and school districts into cookie-cutter reforms that didn't always produce the kinds of results that we wanted to see… We've got to learn what works and do more of that, and we've got to get rid of the stuff that doesn't work. And that's exactly what the Every Student Succeeds Act does…It builds on the reforms that have helped us make so much progress already, holding everybody to high standards for teaching and learning…dedicating resources to our most vulnerable children. And this law requires states to invest in helping students and schools improve, and focusing on the lowest-performing schools and closing those big achievement gaps… It helps states and districts reduce unnecessary standardized tests… so that more teachers can spend time engaging in student learning…and it creates incentives for innovative approaches to learning and for supporting great teachers (Office of the Press Secretary, 2015).

States and school districts were empowered to develop their own plans for improvement and how resources would be allocated. One particular school district, the Clark County School District (CCSD) in Nevada, has made it a district-wide priority to prepare its teachers to meet the needs of its large ELL population. In 2016, CCSD developed the *Clark County School District Master Plan for English Language Learner Success*. However, in CCSD, ELLs continue be the second lowest performing subgroup in the elementary schools and the lowest performing subgroup on

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the annual science proficiency exam given to students in Grade 5, with a gap of 40 percentage points between the highest performing subgroup and LEP subgroup (CCSD, 2019). Additionally, for students in Grades 3-5, the gap between the highest performing subgroup and LEP subgroup on the annual English Language Arts (ELA) proficiency exam was 48.7 percentage points, and the gap between the highest performing subgroup and LEP subgroup on the annual mathematics proficiency exam was 44.6 percentage points (CCSD, 2019). Despite strong efforts by some school districts, such as CCSD, to address these issues and focus on the education of ELLs, the national pattern of achievement gaps between ELLs and their non-ELL peers still persists. The challenges faced by CCSD bring this issue to light. These figures highlight the need for schools throughout the nation to continue seeking ways to provide teachers with the necessary support and training to improve overall student academic performance.

As illustrated above, schools with larger proportions of ELLs still tend to perform below average on standardized tests (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). This suggest that ELLs may not be receiving the same access to a quality education and that teachers may not be properly equipped to adequately support ELLs to be as successful as non-ELL students. Although some teachers have received proper training in supporting ELLs, many have not (Menken & Atunez, 2001). In 2016, 32 states reported not having enough teachers to support and teach ELLs (Sanchez, 2017).

In addition to the achievement gap between ELLs and their non-ELL counterparts, a demographic gap exists between teachers and diverse students. Some researchers believe that pre-service educators, teacher educators, and inservice teachers lack of preparation in supporting culturally and linguistically diverse learners due to the pervasive White, middle-class hegemony present in today's school (Gay, 2010; Gorski, 2012; Zeichner, 1992). Experts agree that

multicultural awareness and sensitivity begins with the process of self-awareness and self-examination of one's own beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions regarding culturally and linguistically diverse learners, specifically ELLs (Gay, 2000, 2010; Islam & Park, 2015; Ladson-Billing, 1995; Nieto & Bode, 2012).

Teacher attitudes have been found to be an influential factor on the students in their classrooms. Ladson-Billings (1995) argued that in order for all students to gain equitable access to education, educators must be willing to embrace pedagogical principles that affirm, acknowledge, recognize, and honor the cultural diversity. Are teachers willing to adopt these important pedagogical principles or will their negative attitudes and low expectations impact the learning outcomes of different groups of students? Sims (2006) found that the levels of confidence or feelings of doubt held by an authority figure greatly influences minority students. Therefore, knowing, understanding, and gauging teacher attitudes is important because attitudes positively or negatively affect how teachers think, act, and perform. There is no question that teacher attitudes are crucial in all academic settings, and Brisk (1998) posited that teachers' attitudes towards ELLs are equally as important as their knowledge and skills. To ensure that ELLs receive the best education possible, teachers must not only have the confidence, skills, and knowledge to teach them, teachers must also possess positive attitudes and high levels of self-efficacy to put their skills and knowledge into practice.

In essence, teachers have a tremendous impact on student achievement (Aceves & Orosco, 2014; Ashton & Webb, 1986; Emdin, 2016; Tshannen-Moran & Woofolk Hoy, 2001) because they are charged with planning, implementing, and delivering curriculum to students. Ultimately, factors associated with teachers' self-efficacy, their beliefs, and attitudes have been shown to have strong influences on the academic success of students (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005;

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Garcia-Nevarez, Arias, & Stafford, 2005; Lee & Oxelson, 2006). According to Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997), self-efficacy refers to individuals' belief in their capacity to perform specific tasks or behaviors necessary to produce certain outcomes. Additionally, self-efficacy reflects confidence in individuals' own ability to be in control of their motivation, environment, and behavior which, in turn, influences the amount of energy exerted and likelihood of reaching certain goals or levels of performance. Today, ELLs are likely to be placed in classrooms where teachers lack the confidence that may be needed to meet their educational needs.

Having students who are not proficient in English can be uncomfortable, and some teachers may lack the confidence needed to teach them. Studies have shown that in order for teachers to be effective in teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students, strong understanding of their students' cultures and worldviews are needed (Gay, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Lee, 2010). Furthermore, teachers should be willing to interact and engage with *all* students, while being mindful of issues related to race, class, gender, and culture by viewing these interactions through a more culturally and linguistically diverse lens (Pewewardy, 2005).

Statement of Problem

This increase in ELLs in schools is an issue all teachers are likely to be faced with, regardless of their location (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2007; Lucas, 2010). The demographic shift affecting schools is impacting policies and practices, adding to the mounting pressure for districts and schools throughout the nation to help their teachers make the necessary adjustments to current teaching practices in order to be prepared to teach ELLs. Despite an abundance of instructional strategies available and an emphasis on teacher preparation and training, the achievement gap between ELLs and their non-ELL peers continues to widen. Progress towards closing these achievement gaps remains slow as research revealed that only 63% of ELLs

graduate from high school nationwide, as compared to the overall national average of graduation rate of 82% (Sanchez, 2017). Although the population of ELLs continues to grow, there continues to be a national shortage of qualified, well-prepared teachers for ELLs (U.S. Department of Education, 2017). It is unclear to what extent inservice teachers feel prepared to work with ELLs and what impacts their feelings of preparedness.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, general teaching self-efficacy, and multicultural attitudes. The study also explored whether teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs could be explained by a set of variables that includes years of teaching experience, highest degree earned, perception of preparedness for teaching ELLs, and actual preparation for teaching ELLs.

Research Questions

To achieve this purpose, the following research questions were explored.

1. To what degree does a relationship exist between a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners and a teacher's general teaching self-efficacy?

2. To what degree does a relationship exist between a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners and a teacher's multicultural attitude?

3. Is the relationship, if any, between a teacher's general teaching self-efficacy and a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners influenced, or moderated by multicultural attitude?

4. Can a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners be explained by variables that include total years of teaching experience, highest degree earned,

perceived level of preparedness for teaching ELLs, and actual preparation for teaching ELLs?

Significance of Study

Studies of teachers' general teaching self-efficacy are abundant. However, the focus on self-efficacy for teaching ELLs is limited. It is clear that teaching requires certain knowledge, skills, and dispositions that can only be gained through the completion of approved coursework, extensive training, and earned licensure. This should be no different for teaching ELLs, and theory informs us that specialized knowledge, skills, and dispositions are also needed to effectively educate ELLs. Yet, individual teachers differ based on background, experiences, attitudes and various other factors that affect them personally and their behaviors in the classroom setting. A more thorough examination was needed to understand how these factors interact and impact teachers and, ultimately, student achievement. The results of this study were intended to address the gaps in the existing body of knowledge that focus on examining and measuring teachers' multicultural attitudes and self-efficacy when teaching ELLs. More empirical research was needed to address the factors affecting the teacher preparation and teacher support as they take on the challenge of educating ELLs, and this quantitative study aimed to fulfill this need.

Definition of Terms

English Language Learner. Commonly referred to as ELs or ELLs, an English Language Leaner refers to any school-aged student enrolled or preparing to enroll in elementary or secondary school; not born in the U.S. or whose home language is a language other than English; and comes from an environment where a language other than English has a significant impact on their English language proficiency (Linquanti, Cook, Bailey, & MacDonald, 2016).

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Attitudes. A predisposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to an object, person, event, or institution (Ajzen, 1985).

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. An assessment used to test the assumption that variances are equal and should be significant ($p < .05$) for the data to be suitable for factor analysis.

Bilingual Education. Academic instruction delivered in one's own native language and a second language, most often in English (Bybee, Henderson, & Hinojosa, 2014).

Cronbach's alpha (or alpha coefficient of reliability). A measure of internal consistency amongst items used for multi-item scale. Deemed reliable if the value is between 0.70 and 0.79; highly reliable from 0.80 to 0.90; and very highly reliable if the value is greater than 0.90. (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011).

Comparative Fit Index (CFI). A statistic used to measure and analyze the model fit of a researcher's model in comparison to a baseline model. Values range between 0.0 and 1.0, and CFI *values greater than .90 may indicate good fit (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008).*

Differentiated instruction. The proactive and intentional planning and implementation of a wide variety of approaches to content, process, and product to address the diverse needs of students in readiness, interest, and academic needs (Tomlinson, 1999).

Immersion. The process of placing students in classrooms and teaching the content areas in English only (Berrol, 1995).

Inservice teacher. A person who has completed a teacher preparation program and earned certification/licensure, or is already working in a classroom (Feiman-Nemser, 2001).

Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) Test. A value of at least .5 is needed to determine the shared variance between the variables, to assess whether all variables correlate, and to ensure that the data is appropriate for further analysis

Limited English Proficient (LEP). Individuals who do not speak English as their primary language and may also have a limited ability to speak, write, read or comprehend English (Echevarria et al., 2007).

Preservice teacher. A student teacher or a student in a preservice teacher education program who is learning how to become a teacher (Feiman-Nemser, 2001).

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy refers to an individual's beliefs about his capability to learn or complete a task (Bandura, 1997).

Social desirability. An indicator that refers to the tendency of respondents to provide answers they think are more socially acceptable.

Teacher education program. A formal program offered by an approved teacher education institution which prepares individuals to become teachers by developing subject-matter knowledge, developing an understanding of all learners, instilling professional dispositions, and providing a wide range of tools and resources needed to effectively teach students (Feiman-Nemser, 2001).

Teacher Preparation Program. Approved courses of study or specific pathways followed by an individual to fulfill the educational or training requirements for initial certification or licensure to become a teacher. Completion of such coursework allows individuals to teach in elementary or secondary schools. Traditionally, but not necessarily, housed in institutions of higher education (Cash, 2016).

Validity. A demonstration that an instrument measures what it intends to measure. Recently, validity has taken on many forms, including construct, face, concurrent, and internal validity (Cohen et al., 2011).

Organization of the Dissertation

In Chapter 1, an overview, including an introduction, statement of the problem, purpose of the research, research questions, significance of the study, and definitions of important terms was provided. Chapter 2 presents a review of literature related to the history, educational contexts, and various factors affecting the education of ELLs. Chapter 3 provides a description of the methods used in this study. Chapter 4 presents the results of data analysis. Finally, Chapter 5 discusses answers to the research questions, implications, and recommendations for future study.

CHAPTER 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

What factors impact the education of ELLs? ELLs encounter many barriers that make living and learning in the United States difficult, including language barriers, access to core academic content (Losen, 2010), motivation issues (Alizadeh, 2016), and stereotypes to name a few. Many culturally and linguistically diverse students, such as ELLs, come from homes that are not congruent with the same norms, cultural assumptions, and values reflected in the school setting (Emdin, 2016). ELLs bring with them their own unique culture, which can be described as a collage of factors that encompass learned behaviors, attitudes, values and many more human dynamics (Koppelman, 2017). Many experts agree on the need for teachers to understand the factors that affect students in different ways, and that educators must be aware of these differences in order to ensure a safe and inclusive learning environment (Emdin, 2016; Gay, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Zeichner, 1992). Not only do these barriers affect ELLs on an individual level, the achievement gap between ELLs and their native-English speaking peers continues to persist (Garcia, Lawton & Diniz de Figueiredo, 2010).

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, general teaching self-efficacy, and multicultural attitudes. The study also explored whether teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs could be explained by a set of variables that includes years of teaching experience, highest degree earned, perception of preparedness for teaching ELLs, and actual preparation for teaching ELLs. In the following sections, an examination of the literature was conducted to provide a historical context of ELL education, a discussion of related issues, and an examination of literature related to factors impacting and influencing ELLs and the teachers tasked with educating them.

Historical Context

The education of ELLs has a long and complicated history. Historically, policymakers in the United States have held a range of views towards Native Americans, immigrants, and languages other than English. As a result, educational policy tended to mirror and reflect these views. To understand the current state and challenges surrounding ELL education, it is important to be aware of significant events and shifts that have occurred in the history of education in the United States.

Native American Indians and Early Immigrants

Oftentimes, people think of ELLs as immigrants from other countries. In fact, by definition, Native American students are considered ELLs (Carjuzaa & Ruff, 2016). This can be traced back to the beginning of U.S. history when Native American children were stripped of their cultures, traditions, and languages and forced to assimilate to the European culture. For example, in 1879, the Carlisle Indian School was established to tame Native American children and force them to learn English (Emdin, 2016). As a result of colonization, English became the primary language in America as many early immigrants who immigrated to America came from northern Europe between the 16th and 17th centuries, most of who were Protestant and Anglo-Saxon (de Jong, 2011).

During the late 1800s and early 1900s, when the numbers of immigrants from Eastern Europe (e.g. Poles, Czechs) and Southern Europe (e.g. Italians, Greeks) grew exponentially, the focus was on assimilating these new immigrants into a society that viewed the American identity as "English-speaking, Protestant, and Anglo Saxon" (de Jong, 2011, p. 128). Many of these new immigrants didn't speak English upon their arrival, and many states passed laws that required them to learn English (de Jong, 2011). Dominant groups that held nativist views opposed foreign

influences and placed an emphasis on preserving status for established or native-born inhabitants of a nation (Olneck, 1989). The nativist groups focused on anti-immigration efforts to limit immigration and to exclude certain groups from coming to America. For example, anti-Catholic laws were passed during the early 1880s to limit the amount of Irish immigrants; the Chinese Exclusion Act was enacted in 1882. Then in 1906 Nationality Act made speaking English a requirement for seeking citizenship. During this time, speaking any language other than English was viewed as un-American, and many states passed laws making English the official language (de Jong, 2011). Nativist beliefs led to the implementation of early educational policies that centered on language. As World War I approached, language became a critical issue in the immigration debate (de Jong, 2011).

Early Language Policies Aimed Towards Immigrants

During the 1900s, there was much debate surrounding language and language instruction stemming from issues centered on immigration. According to Pavlenko (2002), the ideology of English as the *only* language of American national identity was a response to the large influx of immigrants from parts of Europe that did not speak English. Early educational policies for immigrant children were harsh. Immigrant students who were not able to speak English were submerged in English-only classrooms without any support. In some rare cases, students were provided minimal support in segregated classes, which led to the view that special classes were needed to assist students who did not speak English. At that time, recent immigrants, or newcomers, were placed in first grade classrooms regardless of age. However, in 1912, William Maxwell from the New York Board of Education proclaimed:

> It is absurd to place the boy or girl, 10 or 12 years of age, just landed from Italy, who cannot read a word in his own language or speak a word of English, in the same classroom with American boys and girls five or six years old (Berrol, 1995, p. 49).

In the years and decades that followed, although the practice of placing immigrant children in first grade classroom discontinued, immigrant children continued to be immersed in English-only classes or were separated from their peers to focus solely on learning to speak the English language (Berrol, 1995). Furthermore, students who were caught speaking a language other than English were punished. English-only instruction continued to be the dominant model until the mid 1900s.

Early Focus on Bilingual Education

Many immigrant groups resisted the English-only ideology by actively using and maintaining their native languages despite English-only laws and legislation (Bybee, Henderson, & Hinojosa, 2014). Several key legislative decisions were critical in shifting the focus from English-only immersion instruction to the incorporation of bilingual education. In 1924, the Supreme Court held that requiring English-only instruction in private schools in the state of Texas violated parents' fourteenth amendment right to choose the language used in their children's school, but reaffirmed English-only policies in public schools (Bybee et al., 2014). The Independent School District v. Salvatierra (1930, 1931) case in Del Rio, Texas, was the first to deem segregating Mexican-American students on the basis of race illegal. Though an appellate court later ruled that school districts were able to segregate according to special language needs. Linguistic segregation continued in Texas until 1948 when Delgado et al. v. Bastrop Independent School District of Bastrop County found that segregating Spanish-speaking students violated the Texas Constitution and the fourteenth amendment (Bybee et al., 2014).

Segregation in Schools

The educational system in the United States was not set up to include, nor educate diverse learners. Prior to the early 1900s, segregating students based on race, nationality, or physical

handicap was a common practice. In 1896 the Supreme Court ruled in Plessy v. Ferguson that segregation of public facilities, including schools, was legal as long as the facilities were separate but equal (Cates, 2013). However, despite the ruling of Plessy v. Ferguson, segregation continued and equality was never reached.

Then during the early onset of the Civil Rights Movement, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) aimed to change the laws to reform public education. As a result, in 1954, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled in Brown v. the Board of Education that segregation in public schools violated the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment and deemed racial segregation as unconstitutional (Patterson, 2001). Additional litigation and legislation followed before a free public school education was guaranteed to students regardless of race, creed or disability.

The Shift Towards Bilingual Education

Some major key legislative decisions contributed to the major shift towards bilingual education. First, the Bilingual Education Act of 1968 was passed. Spearheaded by President Lydon B. Johnson, this act allowed bilingual education programs to be offered. Then, the 1974 landmark case of Lau vs. Nichols was pivotal in making schools address the needs of their bilingual students in unprecedented ways (Brisk, 1998; Bybee et al., 2014; de Jong, 2011; Olneck, 1989). The Supreme Court ruled that Lau and the approximately 1,800 Chinese students in San Francisco were being denied access to equal educational opportunities due to their limited English proficiency. The decision required educators to provide "affirmative remedial efforts to give special attention to linguistically deprived children" (Lau v. Nichols 1974: p. 5). Although the Court did not specify any particular model of instruction, this decision required schools to adopt some kind of comprehensive plan to address the needs of non-English speaking students.

This was a significant decision as current research and policies surrounding best practices for educating ELLs can be traced back to the case of Lau v. Nichols.

The Complexity of Language

Requiring schools to provide supplemental language instruction for students with limited English proficiency should make it a priority for educators to understand how language works and the impact it has on academic success. Language is at the core of teaching and learning; serves as the basis for which concepts and skills are learned and assessed; and serves as the foundation for forming identities and relationships. Therefore, it is important to discuss language and how it is learned, or acquired, prior to delving into specific instructional and academic needs of ELLs.

Language Acquisition

According to Krashen (2003), language is the process by which humans communicate, whereas language acquisition is the process in which a person acquires a language. Researchers have divided language acquisition into two categories: first (or native) language (L1) and second language (L2). On one hand, language learning, associated with L1, refers to how infants universally learn their home language which is the language spoken in the home in which they are raised. Children learn their home language by listening, mimicking, and producing sounds. On the other hand, language acquisition refers to L2 and assumes knowledge in L1 as the basis for acquiring another language. Acquisition refers to the process that one goes through as one learns the elements of a new language (i.e. vocabulary, grammar structures, and writing systems). For the purposes of studying the education of ELLs, the main focus of this literature review will be on L2 and second language acquisition (SLA). Throughout the years, many experts have postulated theories to explain how language is learned or acquired.

Theories of Language Acquisition

Early theorists. Language is complex, and many people, including philosophers, linguists, and researchers, have dedicated their lives and careers to understanding and researching how one acquires it. One of the earliest attempts to explain language acquisition was Burrhus Frederic Skinner, a pioneer of behaviorism. Skinner (1957) asserted that language, or what he referred to as verbal behavior, was learned through operant conditioning and was a result of reinforcement from the environment. For example, if a child wanting a drink says "milk" and the parent rewards the child with a cup of milk, the child will then associate the word with the reward. The exchange between the child and parent would thereby reinforce the child's understanding of the word, increasing the likelihood that the child will later use the word in a similar situation. However, Skinner's behaviorist approach to language learning was highly criticized.

One of Skinner's biggest critics was Noam Chomsky. Chomsky (1959) wrote an article reviewing Skinner's book, *Verbal Behavior*. He disagreed with Skinner's view that language can be acquired solely by reinforcement. Chomsky's argument was that operant conditioning fails to take into consideration how children learn sentence structure (syntax) and grammar. Instead, Chomsky presented the Theory of Universal Grammar, which claimed that the process of language acquisition in humans must be innate and the human brain is wired with biological, grammatical categories that aid in language development.

Sociocultural Theory. Decades later, theorists began addressing how social interaction between children and the adults in their environment impact language acquisition. Most notably was Vygotsky's (1978) Sociocultural Theory, which asserts that learning is facilitated through social interactions with others. According to Vygotsky (1978), learning and development were

interrelated and occurred on both a social and individual level. Later, Vygotsky (1986) contended that children are born with abilities such as attention, memory, and perception; however, these abilities develop into mental functions with adults. Vygotsky's sociocultural approach had important implications for classroom instruction, and he argued, "learning is a necessary and universal aspect of the process of developing culturally organized, specifically human psychological function" (1978, p. 90).

   Theory of Second Language Acquisition. Since the 1980s, Stephen Krashen's (1982) Theory of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has had a strong impact in all areas of second language research. Krashen made a distinction between language acquisition of the native language (L1) and the formal language learning of L2. Krashen asserted that children acquire their native language at their own pace, surrounded by supportive family members, in an environment free of stress. On the contrary, ELLs must quickly learn the English language in a more stressful environment, with only support from the teacher and peers. He contended that classroom teachers are solely responsible for simulating and controlling the learning conditions of language acquisition. Teachers should know and understand how to make and present information in an understandable, or comprehensible, way. Krashen characterized comprehensible input as language input understood by students despite not being able to be fully proficient in the language. Later, Krashen and Terrell (1983) asserted that teachers should allow the student to progress at a rate that is natural for ELLs. They also noted that learning a language becomes more difficult as proficiency of the English language progresses. When studying the role of emotions on language learning, Krashen (1982) referred to the effect of emotions on learning as *affective filters*. He found that when affective filters are high, ELLs are placed in a stressful situation where language production is demanding, impairing the student's ability to

learn. In contrast, an environment where low affective filters are maintained, stress and anxiety are also low. This type of environment allows ELLs to learn and acquire language skills in a supportive, optimal environment.

Stages of Language Development

The stages of language are universal among humans, though the rate at which each milestone is reached depends on the individual. According to Krashen and Terrell (1983), students learning a second language move through five predictable stages: (1) Preproduction, (2) Early Production, (3) Speech Emergence, (4) Intermediate Fluency, and (5) Advanced fluency. Table 1 lists the five stages of language acquisition, a brief description, and approximate timeframes for each stage. However, the rate at which each student progresses through each stage is dependent on many factors (e.g. level of education, family background, and length of time in the United States (Krashen & Terrell, 1983).

The general consensus among language researchers is that it takes between 5-7 years for an individual to reach advanced fluency (Cummins, 1998; Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Wong Fillmore, 1985). However, this generally applies to individuals with strong L1 and literacy skills. In contrast, an individual who has not fully developed L1 and literacy skills may take between seven to ten years to reach advanced fluency. It is important to be aware that every ELL student comes with a different and unique language and educational background. This, in turn, will have an impact on their ability and rate to acquire the English language. Knowing and understanding the stages of language acquisition is important for teachers in that this information will help prepare them to teach and support the academic success of ELLs in their classrooms.

Determining Language Proficiency

It is important for teachers to know the language proficiency levels of their ELLs. Within the K-12 system, ELLs are annually assessed, identified, and labeled as ELL by a state-selected language proficiency exam. Once identified as ELL, students are deemed as needing additional academic support (Ballantyne, Sanderman, & Levy, 2008). Defining language proficiency is a complex process. Cummins (1998) explained language proficiency as mastery of both Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). BICS refers to the language skills used in everyday situations, whereas CALP encompasses the formal academic language used in the classroom and textbooks. Furthermore, Cummins' (1984) *Iceberg Theory* posits that ELLs have language knowledge and skills that are shared between the first and the second language. These common skills below the surface create a foundation that assists and supports the learning of new languages. This theory creates a distinction between English used for everyday communication and more formal English used in academic settings.

To determine the best way to educate and assess the language proficiency levels of ELLs, approximately 39 states have joined the WIDA Consortium, which was formerly known as the World-class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA, 2014). This organization develops standards, designs assessments, and creates teaching tools to support the language development and academic success of ELLs (WIDA, 2014). The English Language Proficiency Assessment developed by WIDA assesses students in the four domains of language: reading, writing, listening and speaking. Based on individual student scores, the following English proficiency levels are assigned: (a) Level 1 Entering; (b) Level 2 Emerging; (c) Level 3 Developing; (d) Level 4 Expanding; (e) Level 5 Bridging and; (f) Level 6 Reaching. Students progress through

each level until they reach Level 6, in which their proficiency in English is comparable to that of

a native-English speaker, and no longer require additional support or services in the school

setting (WIDA, 2014)

Table 1

Stages of Second Language Acquisition and Characteristics

Stage	Characteristics	Approximate Time Frame
Pre-production	Usually referred to as the "silent period," the individual has minimal comprehension, hesitates to speak, nods "Yes" and "No", draws, and points.	0-6 months
Early Production	The individual begins speaking, has limited comprehension; produces one- or two-word responses; uses key words and familiar phrases; and uses present-tense verbs. The emphasis during this stage is still on listening and absorbing the new language.	6 months to 1 year
Speech Emergent	The individual has good comprehension; produces simple sentences; makes grammar and pronunciation errors; and frequently misunderstands jokes and idioms. During this stage, speech becomes more frequent. Words and sentences are longer, but the individual still relies heavily on context clues.	1-3 years
Intermediate Fluency	The individual has good comprehension; can speak almost fluently in new situations and in the academic setting; and makes few grammatical errors. Communicating in second language is fluent, especially in social situations. The individual is able to demonstrate higher level thinking skills in the second language, such as giving an opinion or analyzing a problem.	3-5 years
Advanced Fluency	The individual communicates fluently in all contexts; can maneuver in new contexts, and process new academic information. The individual may still have an accent but is almost essentially fluent and close to a native speaker's level of speech.	5-7 years

Note: Adapted from Krashen and Terrell, 1983

Factors That Impact the Education of ELLs

A tremendous amount of research has been done to determine the factors that impact the

education of ELLs. Much of the research focused on teachers' lack of knowledge and

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preparation for teaching culturally diverse students, yet others focused on identifying the attitudes of preservice and inservice teachers. Common factors that surfaced during this literature review include the following: (a) specialized knowledge and skills, (b) attitudes, (c) self-efficacy, (c) teacher education programs/teacher preparation programs, and (d) professional development and training. Another factor, the emphasis on objectivity, was included in this review based on the researcher's own personal experiences in the classroom setting.

Knowledge and Skills of Teachers

A considerable amount of research has been conducted to identify what teachers should know and be able to do to support the academic success of ELLs. The reality is that most teachers can expect to have ELLs in their classrooms and must be prepared to support them. This comprehensive review revealed four key areas consistently found in the literature related to what teachers should know and be able to do to support and teach ELLs: (a) develop oral language while simultaneously teaching literacy, (b) teach academic language, with a focus on vocabulary across content areas, (c) implement specific instructional strategies to differentiate instruction for ELLs, and (d) be willing to implement culturally responsive instruction (Richards-Tutor, Aceves, & Reese, 2016; Cummins, 1998; August & Shanahan, 2006; Samson and Collins, 2012;).

Understanding of oral language development. Due to the complexity of language, it is important for teachers to know and understand how the system of language works in order to better assist them in promoting and supporting the development of oral language. Additionally, research suggests that teachers be trained in L2 acquisition because understanding the characteristics of language learners (see Table 1) at different stages could assist teachers in making instructional decisions that would best support students in their oral language and reading development (Cummins, 1984). Further, it is suggested that teachers be able to highlight

the type of language being used in classroom settings, which is essential for both first and second language learning (Lee & Oxelson, 2006).

Samson and Collins (2012) discussed the important roles that teachers serve in the development of oral language. They recommended that teachers be aware of the similarities and differences between first and second language development, as well as identify common patterns and characteristics of L2 acquisition, in order to select materials and plan activities that promote oral language development. Additionally, Samson and Collins argued that teachers need to recognize the role oral language development plays in the development of literacy skills. The authors further suggested that teachers should support and model appropriate oral language to help ELLs communicate their ideas, ask questions, listen effectively, interact with peers and teachers, and become successful learners. Hence, students need multiple opportunities for language interaction daily in class and be encouraged to work together to solve problems in English because these types of activities support language development by giving ELLs authentic reasons to communicate with one another (Krashen, 2003; Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2007).

Cummins (1984), an expert in bilingual education and L2 acquisition, presented theories that are still highly regarded in the field of ELL education today. He is known for making the distinction between BICS and CALP. Cummins (1984) suggested that in order to develop oral language and literacy, ELLs should be given the opportunity to participate in cooperative learning activities and provided ample opportunities to interact with peers to give them practice in using BICS.

In another study, Cummins (1998) discussed and analyzed immersion programs in Canada. He presented the results and findings of over 30 years of research on French immersion

programs. He described features of immersion programs in which students were immersed in a second language (L2). He pointed out problems that he observed during the implementation of immersion programs and made suggestions for improvement. Cummins also argued that teachers should become aware and embrace pedagogical principles of immersion and provide ample opportunities for their students to practice communicating orally in the language they are trying to acquire.

      Knowledge of academic language. In addition to having a strong foundational understanding of oral language development, studies showed that teachers need to understand academic language and the specific types of language used for instruction, including those found in textbooks, used in lectures, identified as content specific vocabulary (e.g. science, mathematical terms), and included in assessments (Islam & Park, 2015; Echevarria et al., 2007; Cummins, 1998). Being able to recognize the differences between conversational language and academic language is crucial (Cummins, 1998). Because extensive research revealed that it takes ELLs longer than their non-ELL peers to become proficient in academic language, teachers should have an understanding of the linguistic demands of academic skills and tasks in order to be able to address the role of academic language in their instructional practices (Walker, Ranney, & Fortune, 2005).

      The recent adoption of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) stressed the importance of knowing and understanding academic language. Recent research has begun to examine the academic language demands of these standards, as well as the implications of these demands for ELLs. In one study, Sato, Lagunoff, and Yeagley (2011) applied an academic language demands taxonomy, *Language for Achievement* (Sato, Lagunoff, & Worth, 2008), to the high school standards for English language arts and mathematics of the CCSS in order to

identify the academic language functions reflected in the standards. Their findings provided

information on the most common academic language functions reflected in the ELA and

mathematics standards. They found that the five most common language functions found in the

ELA standards were explanation, description, interpretation, analysis, and evaluation. In the

math standards, they found that the five most common language functions were: (1) explanation,

(2) comparison and contrasting, (3) description, (4) symbolization and representation, and (5)

argumentation. The authors assert that this information will be able to help teachers understand

the academic language demands of standardized assessments on ELLs. This valuable information

could assist teachers with planning and incorporating a variety of instructional strategies to help

ELLs gain access to grade-level content. The next section discusses instructional strategies that

have been designed to specifically address the academic needs of ELLs.

Competence in effective instructional strategies. The next area of focus identified by

the review of literature is the need for teachers to be able to plan and implement effective

instructional strategies. Research-based teaching strategies have been developed to support the

learning of ELLs (Echevarria et al., 2007). One approach, referred to as sheltered instruction,

provides students the necessary time and support for language development. The goal of

sheltered instruction is to complement and enhance methods and strategies that are beneficial for

both bilingual and mainstream classrooms. When taking the sheltered instruction approach,

many issues must be considered, including emphasizing academic language, fostering the

socialization of students, and integrating language and content. There is, however, a lack of

consistency in the way sheltered instructional strategies and practices are incorporated or

delivered. Sheltered curricula vary from school district to school district, and even within the

same schools. Echevarria et al. saw this lack of a systematic delivery of sheltered instruction as

an opportunity to develop the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) model, a research-based and validated instructional model that was designed to improve the academic success of ELLs.

   Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) Model. Echevarria et al. (2007) based their model on many research studies they have conducted together throughout the years. The theoretical underpinning of the model is that language acquisition is enhanced through meaningful use and interaction. Some of the components of this model are grounded in the work of Lev Vygotsky, a psychologist whose work has become the foundation of educational research and theory. According to Vygotsky (1978), learning is a social activity where knowledge is constructed through interaction and collaboration with others. Grounded in constructivism, his theory asserts that students play an active role in their learning, and social interaction plays a critical role in cognitive development.

   The instructional activities and strategies of the SIOP Model were designed specifically to assist teachers in educating English language learners. The authors provided an overview of the issues related to ELL education and supported the assertion that teachers need to adjust their teaching styles to help ELL students learn and succeed in the classroom setting. The SIOP Model provides a framework for "well-prepared and well-delivered sheltered lessons for any subject area" (Echevarria et al., 2007, p. 7) and has been proven to be effective in addressing the academic needs of ELLs. The SIOP Model consists of eight interrelated components (see Figure 1).
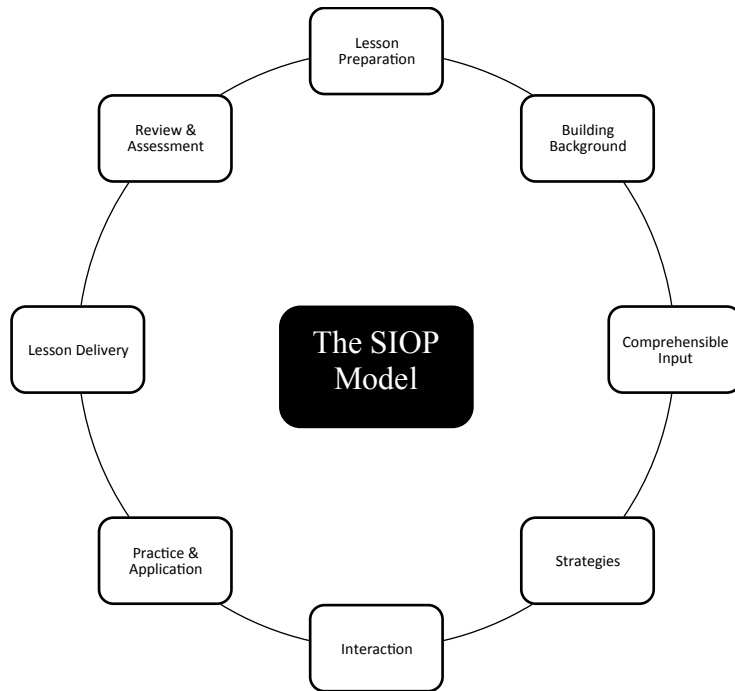
Figure 1. The SIOP Model of Sheltered Instruction. Adapted from *Making Content Comprehensible for English Language Learners: The SIOP Model*, by J. Echevarria, M. Vogt, and D. Short. Copyright 2012 by Pearson, Inc.

When implemented, the SIOP Model allows teachers to be able to design and deliver lessons that address the academic and linguistic needs of ELLs by incorporating instructional methods and strategies connected to each of the eight components. Each component of the SIOP Model is explained and described below.

Lesson preparation. According to Echevarria, et al. (2007), the first component of the SIOP Model emphasizes the importance of carefully planning and preparing to deliver effective lessons. Lesson planning is important to the success of both students and teachers. Lessons must be carefully crafted to allow students to make connections from their own knowledge and experiences to the new content being taught. Additionally, well-planned lessons must explicitly incorporate content and language objectives, be age-appropriate, use supplemental materials, and include meaningful activities that promote language development. Teachers should plan to

incorporate activities that require students to practice all four domains of language (reading, writing, speaking, and or listening).

Building background. Building Background focuses on making connections to students' experiences and prior knowledge. Students' knowledge of the world, or *schema*, serves as a foundation for learning. Students with prior knowledge of a topic have better recall and grasp of certain topics than those with limited knowledge or experience (Echevarria et al., 2007). Therefore, it is essential that teachers explicitly link the concepts to students' prior experiences. They must link past learning to the new content being taught. Part of building background also includes introducing, emphasizing, and highlighting key vocabulary.

Comprehensible input. The component of Comprehensible Input directs attention to adjusting teacher speech to meet the needs of linguistically diverse students, as well as modeling tasks and using a variety of techniques to promote comprehension. According to Echevarria et al., there are several ways that communication could be made more understandable, or *comprehensible*, to students. First, teachers should enunciate when speaking and be aware of their rate of speech. They must speak slowly, but in a natural way. ELLs, as well as native English speakers, learn better when teachers give clear instructions for projects, activities, and assignments. Therefore, content must be made understandable by using techniques such as visual aids, modeling, and graphic organizers.

Strategies. This component is centered on teaching different learning techniques and study skills to students. Information is retained, recalled, and connected in the brain through mental pathways that are linked to a student's existing schema. Students must be taught various strategies that initiate and activate these mental processes that promote comprehension and

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retention of information (Echevarria et al., 2007). To accomplish this, scaffolding techniques must be used during instruction.

Interaction. In the next component, interactions between ELLs and other students, as well as ELLs and teacher, is emphasized. In most classrooms, Echevarria et al. (2007) contend that teachers do most of the talking and "dominate the linguistic aspect of lessons" (p. 99). This SIOP component emphasizes the importance of balancing "talk" between teachers and students, as well as between students. To support the development of language and literacy, teachers should allow for ELLs to participate in cooperative learning activities and give ample opportunities to interact with peers (Cummins, 1998).

Practice and application. To meet the needs of diverse learners, Echevarria et al. (2007) state that teachers should provide ELLs with many opportunities to practice and apply newly learned material. For example, ELLs must be given hands-on materials and/or manipulatives for students to practice new content knowledge. Students must also be provided with activities that encourage them to apply content and language in the classroom. Furthermore, planned activities must integrate all language skills, including reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

Lesson delivery. Lesson Delivery ensures that teachers present lessons that meet identified objectives. This component addresses the manner in which a lesson is delivered, how well the objectives are supported, to what extent the students are engaged, and whether the pacing is appropriate for the students' levels (Echevarria et al., 2007). Before teaching lessons, teachers should explicitly share both content and language objectives with students. One goal of this component is having students engaged 90-100% of the time to avoid wasted instructional minutes. Lastly, the rate at which information and concepts are delivered must be monitored.

Review and assessment. Echevarria et al. (2007) identified *Review and Assessment* as the final components of the SIOP Model. Teachers should become aware of how critical it is for ELLs to review content. They must carve out time to review and summarize information throughout, and more importantly, at the end of each lesson. When working with ELLs, teachers should constantly assess student comprehension and retention of information and key vocabulary. Echevarria et al. (2007) asserted that teachers must use a variety of formative assessments throughout lessons to check for understanding and provide regular feedback to students. In addition to focusing on oral language development and academic language, studies showed that implementing culturally responsive instruction is critical in educating ELLs.

Ability to incorporate culturally responsive instruction. Finally, the review of literature revealed the need for teachers to have the ability to be culturally responsive, requiring them to be aware and inclusive of students' unique cultures. Culturally Responsive Teaching (CRT) requires teachers to incorporate information about ELLs' backgrounds and culture to engage them in the classroom in meaningful ways. According to Wlodkowski and Ginsberg (1995) teachers should make explicit connections and relate "teaching content to the cultural backgrounds of their students" (P. 17). For example, allowing students work in pairs or groups to share their perspectives and make their own connections to the content of the lesson provides the intrinsic motivation to participate.

Before teachers can incorporate this information into their lessons and activities, they must first make an effort to become familiar with their students' cultures. Zeichner (1992) asserted that the demographic makeup of teachers would continue to be white monolingual, females, whereas student populations will continue to become increasingly diverse. This is further supported by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES)'s report that during the

2015-2016 academic school year, 84% of the nation's public school teachers were white. Zeichner further argued that the life experiences and backgrounds of teachers would differ greatly from the students they will be teaching. For example, cultural norms (e.g. behavior, communication, interactions) of ELLs often do not match the expectations and norms of their teachers or those that guide the rules enforced at schools. Additionally, cultural conventions that ELLs learn in the home about eye contact, turn taking, or participation may conflict with the teacher's expectations in the classroom (Samson & Collins, 2012).

This notion is further supported by Bartolomé's (2002) assertion that dominant cultural norms can be harmful to culturally and linguistically diverse students. After conducting interviews to explore the perspective of teachers of ELLs, Bartolomé concluded that educators must challenge the status quo in regards to the achievement gap between middle-class, White students and their minority and low-income counterparts. She argued that teachers should embrace and achieve political and ideological clarity. She further emphasized the need for cross-cultural competency of teachers.

Samson and Collins (2012) argued that teachers should "have a working knowledge and understanding of the role of culture in language development and academic achievement" (p. 10) and that Cultural Responsive Teaching (CRT) must be utilized. This model, proposed by Wlodkowski and Ginsberg (1995), takes into account students' individual cultures and uses a holistic approach to involve them in classroom instruction. It was found that teachers who utilized CRT instruction tended to value students' cultural and linguistic differences; view knowledge as valuable rather than as a barrier to learning; and bridge student background to instructional content and activities to facilitate student development (Samson & Collins, 2012; Wlodkowksi & Ginsbert, 1995). Further, teachers who use CRT make learning interactive and

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incorporate collaborative teaching techniques. Therefore, literature suggested for teachers to be willing to implement CRT into their work, while attempting to understand and appreciate student differences to help create a reciprocal learning environment (Aceves & Orosco, 2014).

Emphasis on Objectivity

Not only must teachers possess the necessary skills and knowledge to teach ELLs, they must also be able to gain trust and build relationships with this vulnerable community of learners. These actions would require teachers to enter the realm of subjectivity where feelings and emotions are involved in decision-making and relationship building. These actions push teachers forward and motivate them to try to make positive changes in our world. Love, as defined by hooks (2003), is "a combination of care, commitment, knowledge, responsibility, respect, and trust" (p. 131). The classroom environment must be grounded in these basic principles of love in order to foster an environment conducive to teaching and learning. Otherwise, the freedom and autonomy of teachers may be limited and, ultimately, affect the educational experiences of all students, including ELLs. As a result, objectivity can limit the freedom of teachers, especially of those who teach ELL students, and restricts their ability to show care and compassion towards a group of students that come to school already at a disadvantage as compared to their native English speaking counterparts.

The educational system in the United States is set up where teachers are expected to remain unbiased and objective in order to be just or fair. hooks (2003) contended that we live in a society "where the mind is valued above all else, where the idea that one should be and can be objective is paramount" (p. 127). The role of teachers is heavily influenced and guided by a set of standards, approved curriculum, and standardized tests. With the pressure of receiving positive teacher evaluations on their performance, oftentimes teachers are forced to remain as

objective and neutral as possible. Objectivity aims to remove biases and preconceptions in order to create a blank slate, and in a sense, dehumanizing teachers (hooks, 2003).

Many proponents of objectivity argue that neutrality allows teachers to be free from any one particular standpoint, or perspective. Objectivity has become synonymous with 'an unbiased standpoint' (hooks, 2003). Objectivism is a way of knowing that has placed us in an adversarial relation with the world (hooks, 2003). Most teachers feel pressured to follow a prescribed curriculum with fidelity. Yet that same curriculum reflects that of "imperialist white-supremacist capitalist patriarchal values" (hooks, 2010, p. 15). Textbooks used in the classrooms, especially those used to teach history and social studies, expose students to a one-sided perspective. Therefore, teachers should be given the opportunity to be able to make curriculum adjustments and provide supplemental materials to reflect a diversity of perspectives. Teachers should have the freedom to expose their students to a broad range of perspectives in order to give them hope for the future and equip them with the critical thinking skills needed to live and work in a global society.

Lastly, objectivity requires teachers to stay distanced and disconnected from their students. However, many ELLs come from homes that are not congruent with the same norms, cultural assumptions, and values reflected in the school setting (Samson & Collins, 2012). So it is imperative that teachers gain trust in order to facilitate the teaching and learning process. According to Tschannen-Moran (2011), trust can be defined as the willingness of one (individual or group) to be vulnerable to another based on the hope that the latter party is reliable, honest, confident, and benevolent. An argument can be made that fear is cultivated in the absence of trust. Fear-based classrooms reinforce hierarchies of power and control, which are ultimately grounded in the principles and values of the dominant culture (hooks, 2003). Teachers who try to

stay objective find themselves on a quest for equality without getting to know their students as individuals. Rather than strive for equality, ELLs benefit greatly when equity is valued because students, especially from low-income areas, require more resources to meet their needs.

Ultimately, teachers and ELL students enter classrooms with their own thoughts, opinions, emotions, and experiences. These human aspects shape and influence the classroom environment and can provide hope to all those involved. The notion of maintaining objectivity in the classroom dehumanizes teachers and becomes an enemy of *hope* that limits the freedom of teachers to teach with love and care. Furthermore, objectivity does not allow teachers to acknowledge and embrace humanity. Without the push for objectivity, teachers would possess the freedom to build relationships with ELLs and feel empowered to engage with their students in meaningful ways. As hooks (2003) asserted, "Contrary to the notion that love in the classroom makes teachers less objective, when we teach with love we are better able to respond to the unique concerns of individual students…" (p. 133).

Teachers' views towards ELLs, as well as their own confidence and self-efficacy in teaching diverse students, clearly have significant impacts on the education and academic success of this group of students. These factors, combined with other factors discussed in this section, illustrate the barriers faced by ELLs.

Teacher Attitudes

According to Valdes (2001), assessing the attitudes held by teachers towards ELLs is critical because teachers' attitudes and beliefs about ELLs play an essential role in developing programs and outcomes for students. Attitudes are defined as mindsets that positively or negatively affect how people think, act, and perform (Ajzen, 2005). There is a plethora of research focused on identifying the attitudes of teachers (Sleeter, 2001). Some research suggests

that teacher perceptions of ELLs, both positive and negative, are based on previous experiences with diverse students and will have a tremendous influence on the success of ELLs in classrooms (Karabenick & Noda, 2004; Youngs & Youngs, 2001). Having ELLs can cause a level of discomfort for some teachers, especially if they were raised in small, rural, homogenous towns or have limited exposure to diverse populations. Walker et al. (2004) found that many teachers in migrant schools are unwilling to take responsibility for their students' grades and possible failures in school.

In contrast to studies that found previous experiences with diversity to be impactful on teacher attitudes, Lee and Oxelson (2006) found that neither years of experience in the classroom, nor prior experiences with ELLs, affected teachers' attitudes towards ELLs. Their study was based on previous research that demonstrated teacher attitudes toward home language had a direct effect on the effectiveness of instruction. They hypothesized that teacher attitudes are more strongly influenced by professional development and training than by any other factors, such as years of experience. A survey was administered to 69 teachers across seven schools in four school districts in California. The survey was designed to gauge teacher attitudes toward bilingualism and find out if they were wiling to embrace and encourage students' native languages in their classroom. They found that attitudes towards bilingualism and classroom practices were more favorable for teachers who had completed specific ELL trainings, such as English as a Second Language (ESL) or Bilingual Cross-Cultural Language and Academic Development (BCLAD) programs. They also found teachers' fluency in at least one language other than English to be a significant factor influencing teacher attitudes towards bilingualism.

Sims (2006) supported the notion that the levels of confidence or feelings of doubt held by an authority figure can positively or negatively impact diverse students. This was later

supported by Walker and Cormier's (2014) study in which they examined the beliefs, practices and attitudes of teachers towards diverse student populations. They set out to determine which factors led to success for non-dominant student groups. They found that teachers whose diverse students showed no discrepancies in grades or assessment results with the dominant group of students in their respective schools held a positive attitude toward their diverse learners, including ELLs. Additionally, those teachers who had no achievement gap between their students viewed the non-dominant group as bringing in a different set of skills rather than viewing the group of diverse students as being deficient in skills or behaviors. They possessed a positive attitude, held high standards, and viewed the skills and diversity of the non-dominant students as enhancing the learning environment (Walker & Cormier, 2014).

According to Krashen (2003), societal attitudes about ELLs and the educational programs that serve them have become increasingly negative in the United States. Furthermore, change can be difficult, and the "unknown" can be even more unsettling. Teachers who hold negative, ethnocentric, or implicitly biased beliefs about ELLs or who believe numerous fallacies about the education of ELLs, often fail to or refuse to meet the academic and social needs of ELLs (Tse, 2001; Valdes, 2001; Youngs & Youngs, 2001). Furthermore, negative attitudes and low expectations from educators can lead to low self-esteem or failure for many diverse students.

Attitudes towards multiculturalism. A teacher's multicultural attitude encompasses both multicultural awareness and sensitivity (Ponterotto et al., 1998), and this attitude may stem from a lack of understanding of the impacts of cultural diversity. Gay (2010) asserted that multicultural awareness is key in helping teachers to successfully teach students from cultures other than their own. Multicultural awareness entails possessing an awareness of one's own cultural identity and views about differences. Studies have shown that teachers who have high

levels of multicultural awareness and sensitivity are more motivated to learn and build on the different cultural and community norms of their students. Multicultural awareness and sensitivity also inform and enhance the selection of instructional methods and techniques in the classroom. The literature reveals that the lack of understanding of the impacts of cultural diversity is linked to a disconnection between teachers' and students' home cultures (Emdin, 2016; Gay, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1995). In 2018, the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) reported that 80% of teachers in U.S public schools during the 2015-2016 academic year were White. Because an individual teacher's instructional practices and treatment of students are shaped by their perceptions and experiences, increasing the multicultural awareness and sensitivity of educators would assist teachers in being more empathetic and understanding of the needs of ELLs.

Some researchers hold the belief that pre-service educators, teacher educators, and inservice teachers lack of preparation to support culturally and linguistically diverse learners can be attributed to the pervasive White, middle-class hegemony present in today's school (Gay, 2010; Gorski, 2012; Zeichner, 1992). Experts agreed that multicultural awareness and sensitivity begins with the process of self-awareness and self-examination of one's own beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions regarding culturally and linguistically diverse learners, specifically ELLs (Gay, 2000, 2010; Islam & Park, 2015; Ladson-Billing, 1995; Nieto & Bode, 2012). Examining teachers' beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions would help to better understand how to prepare and support teachers in meeting the needs of ELLs.

Self-efficacy and the Social Cognitive Theory

Bandura's (1986) Social Cognitive theory will be used as a theoretical lens through which to interpret the ideas and issues that have been discussed thus far and moving forward.

Social cognitive theory posits that individuals are proactively engaged in their own development and can impact the outcomes of their actions (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief in one's capacity to perform specific tasks or behaviors necessary to produce certain outcomes (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997). Further, self-efficacy reflects one' confidence in one's ability to be in control of one's own motivation, environment, and behavior which, in turn, influences the amount of energy exerted and likelihood of reaching certain goals or levels of performance and control how events are experienced. Self-efficacy encompasses many aspects including one's beliefs, actions, efforts, determination, resiliency, and coping mechanisms.

Four ways in which self-efficacy beliefs can be improved include the following: mastery experiences, social modeling, social persuasion, and perception of states of physiology (Bandura, 1997). According to Bandura (1986, 1997), the first way of developing a high level of self-efficacy is through mastery experiences. Bandura (1977) asserted that the strength of individuals' beliefs in their own effectiveness is likely to affect whether their efforts and ability to cope when problems arise. The second way of increasing self-efficacy beliefs is through experiences provided by social models (Bandura, 1986, 1997). The impact of modeling or coaching on the development of self-efficacy is strongly influenced by perceived similarity to the models—the greater the perceived similarity, the greater the impact of the models' successes and failures. Thirdly, Bandura (1986, 1997) identified social persuasion as the third way of improving individuals' sense of self-efficacy. He asserted that a person who receives praise, acknowledgement, encouragement, and support from others tends to put forth more energy and greater effort, as well as sustain that effort, which will then lead to mastery experiences that foster self-efficacy. Finally, Bandura (1986, 1997) asserted changing mindsets and views of a person's state of physiology (i.e. moods, emotions, stress, and physical states) builds self-

efficacy. He asserted that individuals with a high sense of self-efficacy are more likely persevere in difficult situations and push forward despite negative moods or emotions, while those with low self-efficacy tend to give up easily and deem themselves failures.

In education, self-efficacy is one of many factors that influence teachers' beliefs of whether or not they can impact student learning and achievement. Teacher efficacy can be classified into two dimensions of self-efficacy: *a sense of teaching efficacy* and *a sense of personal teaching efficacy* (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984). These two independent concepts affect teachers' overall self-efficacy for teaching in general (Ashton & Webb, 1986). On one hand, *sense of teaching efficacy* refers to teachers' expectations that their actions and instruction can impact student learning and the role environmental factors. On the other hand, *sense of personal teaching efficacy* refers to teachers' assessments of their own individual teaching competence and abilities. To illustrate this, teachers with a low *sense of teaching efficacy* experience universal helplessness (Ashton & Webb, 1986) in which they fail to believe that they, nor any other teacher, can impact the learning of low-performing students. As a result, these teachers experience feelings of universal helplessness and often fail to attend to students in need of additional support and extra assistance (Ashton & Webb, 1986). This is different than teachers who possess a low *sense of personal teaching efficacy* because these teachers experience *personal* helplessness, not *universal* helplessness. These teachers hold strong feelings of self-doubt in their ability to make a difference in the achievement of low-performing students. In this case, teachers do not blame student failure solely on the students, but believe that a more knowledgeable or experienced teacher (other than themselves) could make a positive difference (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Ultimately, teachers of ELLs may fail to recognize the positive or negative impact that teachers have on their students. Teachers with higher teaching

efficacy and higher personal teaching efficacy are better able to serve the individual needs of the diverse student populations, especially ELLs.

General teaching self-efficacy. General teaching self-efficacy is a factor related to attitude. As noted above, perceived self-efficacy is the belief that one has about their capability to perform a certain task or goal. It is the belief that one can attain the learning of specific tasks, regardless of any hurdles or adversity, and being persistent when trying to achieve those tasks (Bandura, 1986, 1994). An individual who possesses high self-efficacy believes that when they act, they will achieve positive outcomes and, therefore, approach situations with a high level of confidence. If unsuccessful, an individual with high self-efficacy will seek ways to improve. Individuals with low self-efficacy tend to give up easily and will try to avoid difficult situations (Bandura, 1986). This is especially important in the teaching realm.

Self-efficacy can have a significant and lasting impact on students and the learning environment (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Teachers' sense of self-efficacy strongly affects their thoughts and feelings, the types of learning activities selected, the amount of effort, and level of persistence when faced with challenges (Bandura, 1986, 1997; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Teachers with a low sense of self-efficacy are more likely to ignore students' needs or set low expectations (Echeverria et al., 2007; Karabenik & Noda, 2004; Reeves, 2006). In contrast, teachers with a high sense of self-efficacy are more likely to set higher standards for students, use class time more effectively (Hoy, Hoy, & Davis, 2009) and select engaging and effective instructional strategies to meet the needs of all students (Echeverria et al., 2007).

Unfortunately, experiences with ELLs in the mainstream classroom have left some teachers feeling underprepared to instruct them. Jones (2003) administered a national survey in which over half of the teachers indicated that they worked with culturally diverse students, yet

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only 20% of those teachers believed they were competent in meeting their diverse students' needs. Unfortunately, teachers who feel incompetent or ill-prepared tend to ignore or reject ELLs in the classroom (Echeverria et al., 2007; Karabenik & Noda, 2004; Reeves, 2006).

Self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. As discussed in the previous section, the attitudes, beliefs, and confidence levels of teachers towards students or certain student populations can be captured in the construct of self-efficacy (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Teachers' self-efficacy plays an integral role in influencing important academic outcomes because it involves the beliefs about their own personal abilities and effectiveness in the classroom, as well as the belief that they can make a difference in student learning and achievement. The National Center for Education Statistics' (1999) report on teacher quality revealed that most teachers feel "moderately" or "somewhat" well prepared in the classroom, except in the area of addressing the needs of ELLs. In regards to educating ELLs, only 53% felt "very well prepared" or "moderately well prepared" to teach ELLs, while 17% of teachers admitted that they "did not feel at all prepared" when working with ELLs.

Research on teacher efficacy has shown that teachers' sense of efficacy strongly affects teachers' thoughts and feelings, the types of learning activities selected, the amount of effort, and level of persistence when faced with challenges (Bandura, 1986, 1997; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Teachers with a low sense of self-efficacy are more likely to ignore students' needs or set low expectations (Echeverria et al., 2007; Karabenik & Noda, 2004; Reeves, 2006). In contrast, teachers with a high sense of self-efficacy are more likely to set higher standards for students, use class time more effectively (Hoy, Hoy, & Davis, 2009) and select engaging and effective instructional strategies to meet the needs of all students (Echeverria et al., 2007). Therefore, self-

efficacy can have a significant and lasting impact on students and the learning environment, especially for ELLs (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

Teacher Preparation Programs

There are inconsistent, and often conflicting, ideas of how to prepare teachers for teaching linguistically diverse students (Cochran-Smith, 2003). Walker, Ranney, and Fortune (2005) discussed how a pre-service K-12 teacher course on language and instructional practices for ELLs evolved. The authors claimed that most universities have included the topic of ELL education and diversity only within foundational courses, but they argue that courses aimed at learning effective teaching strategies for ELL students should not be integrated but rather taught in separate courses. The researchers examined a seminar-like course that divided students by level and content area. This differentiated approach helped content area instructors understand their roles as both language and content experts. Pre-service teachers who took this course gained specific knowledge regarding ELL students. It helped pre-service teachers understand that ELL students require adequate time to demonstrate academic achievement on standardized tests; know the difference between conversational and academic language proficiency; learn specific instructional strategies designed to benefit all students, especially ELLs; understand that students' native language plays a role in acquiring a second language; and view language as a resource, not a barrier to education. The researchers further stressed the importance of specific teacher training and preparation to meet the unique needs of ELL students.

In another study on teacher preparation programs (TPPs), Walker and Stone (2011) examined two programs aimed at preparing teachers of ELL students. The first program, designed for K-12 pre-service teachers, was a one-credit course. The other program was a site-based, collaborative two-year professional development initiative designed for elementary school

staff. The researchers wanted to explore ways that both pre-service and in-service teachers were being prepared to teach ELL students. The key elements of these initiatives and information gathered from evaluations of participants' experiences were presented and discussed. The researchers found that an effective way to build teacher capacity and improve their efficacy for working with ELLs is to incorporate required specific coursework focused explicitly on ELLs in teacher education curriculum.

Lee and Herner-Patnode (2010) were also concerned that teacher education programs were not adequately preparing pre-service teachers with the necessary knowledge, skills and dispositions to meet diverse populations, including low socio-economic, culturally diverse, English Language learners, and at-risk students. In this particular study, the researchers investigated how a Master of Education (M.Ed.) teacher licensure program prepared teacher candidates to teach diverse students in hopes of identify ways to addressing equity and diversity in teacher education programs. Using a mixed methods approach, the researchers compared preservice teachers who were placed in an urban school with the first year Professional Development School (PDS) model to middle grade teachers who were placed in urban and suburban schools that did not have the PDS model adopted in their schools. They found that early childhood candidates who had placements in a PDS model school displayed a stronger awareness of the needs of diverse student populations.

In contrast to simply integrating topics of ELL education within courses, other colleges and universities offer separate and exclusive courses that provide a comprehensive and thorough understanding of ELL students, including understanding language proficiency levels, learning specific instructional strategies, and assessment techniques (Walker et al., 2005; Walker &

Stone, 2011). The consensus is that there are only a few colleges and universities that require preparation or certification for working with ELL students (Menken & Atunez, 2001).

According to Menken and Atunez (2001), the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (NCBE), in partnership with The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), conducted an investigation into the preparation of all teachers of ELL students, including mainstream teachers and bilingual education teachers. The study combined wide-scale survey data (417 usable responses were garnered) with qualitative analysis to explore the preparation and certification of teachers of ELLs. The three areas of knowledge that were identified include the following: pedagogy, linguistics, and cultural diversity. Of the three areas, the researchers found that the area of linguistics receives less emphasis at both state and institutional levels. They also reveal that only a small number of colleges/universities offer bilingual teacher preparation, and less than 15% of those surveyed require preparation and/or training for mainstream teachers to work with ELLs. The findings and conclusions of this investigation are relevant because they can lead to further suggestions and recommendations for changing or improving policies and procedures in teacher education programs.

Sleeter (2001) reviewed data-based research studies on preservice teacher preparation for multicultural schools. The author argued that despite the amount of research conducted on methods and strategies, little work has been done to examine and identify which specific strategies actually prepare stronger teacher candidates. Furthermore, the author asserted that most of the research focuses on identifying the attitudes and lack of knowledge of predominantly White preservice teachers. Sleeter's work demonstrated the cultural and linguistic mismatch between those who teach (primarily White, middle class women) and those who are taught (students).

Tellez and Waxman (2006) acknowledged the fact that the issue of teacher quality has become of great concern in the United States. They asserted that very little research or policy studies have been conducted to specifically examine and assess teacher preparation for meeting the needs of ELLs. They cited studies that have shown mainstream teachers to be unprepared and ill equipped to teach linguistically diverse students. Because of the increasing achievement gap between ELLs and that of their counterparts, Tellez and Waxman examined important topics such as research, current policies, and the lack of opportunities for increasing teacher quality. Most of their work focused on research, policy and practice.

Zeichner (1992) further provided evidence for the claim that in-service teachers needed explicit and specific professional development to help them reach and teach ELL students. Furthermore, Zeichner also asserted that teacher education programs must make adjustments to their curricula in order to help pre-service teachers acquire the skills, knowledge, and attitudes needed to teach culturally and linguistically diverse students.

Professional Development and Training

Many experts attribute the lack of confidence working with diverse learners to the lack of adequate training. Professional development and training can also have a strong influence a teacher's sense of self-efficacy. The positive impact of training on attitudes has been examined in other areas of education. Trainings and interventions have been shown to increase teachers' self-efficacy for teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students (Walker & Stone, 2011; Sleeter, 2001). Accurate measurement of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs can help determine the effectiveness of interventions for increasing self-efficacy beliefs and consequent student and teacher outcomes.

For many teachers, neither preservice training, nor current opportunities for professional development were adequate in preparing them to meet the needs of ELLs (Tellez, & Waxman, 2006; Youngs & Youngs, 2001). According to Lucas, Villegas, and Freedson-Gonzalez (2008), classroom teachers have very little preparation or training to meet the needs of ELLs. In most cases, ELLs are placed in regular education classes where teachers lack the training, knowledge, and confidence to effectively educate linguistically diverse students.

Walker, Shafer, and Iiams (2004) found that many teachers begin teaching with little to no training in ELL education. As a result, beginning teachers were vulnerable to the fallacies circulated by the media or community. Their research also revealed that many teachers with some experience working with ELL students appeared to be unbiased, open-minded, or at least neutral about the specific challenges. Additionally, they noted that some teachers even actively sought out experiences with ELL students, and that the majority of teachers who had encounters with foreign exchange students or who were able to devote time to only one or two ELL students at a time, had positive experiences to share. They found that teachers reported having negative experiences when faced with a challenge that they perceived as insurmountable (Walker et al. 2004).

Walker, et al. (2004) also discussed how negative teacher perceptions about minority students negatively affect student performance. They recommended that more training programs for our teachers need to be provided and is necessary to dispel possible negative perceptions. The authors warned that many teachers could overlook their ELL students because the ratio of ELL students to non-ELL students may be low. Furthermore, the authors cautioned that teachers may not realize small groups of students, such as ELLs, have unique needs and challenges, which can be brought to teachers' attention with more training and professional development.

Teacher preparation for teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students, especially ELLs, has come under scrutiny in recent years. Although some teachers never receive training or professional development in teaching ELLs, efforts have been made across the nation to assist teachers in meeting the needs of ELLs, including add-on endorsements or supplemental certification in teaching English as a second Language (ESL), as well as professional development and training in sheltered instruction. Researchers contend that high quality professional development positively impacts teacher efficacy for teaching ELLs (Echevarria et al., 2007; Walker & Stone, 2011; Sleeter, 2001). Additionally, research-based professional development is essential for teachers across the nation as they face the challenge of educating ELLs. Experts recommend that teachers gain the necessary knowledge and skills in several key areas in order to be prepared to meet the demands associated with teaching ELLs (Echevarria et al., 2007) either by earning additional endorsements/certification or engaging in professional development in sheltered instruction.

Training in the SIOP model. One way of preparing teachers to teach ELLs is to train them on how to implement sheltered instruction. Sheltered instruction aims to make grade-level content more accessible to linguistically diverse students while promoting English language development (Echevarria et al., 2007). One such model of sheltered instruction, the SIOP Model, was described in great detail earlier in this chapter. Often used by individual schools or district-wide, the SIOP Model is also frequently used in professional development and trainings across the nation. Echevarria, Vogt, and Short (2004, 2008) developed the SIOP Model through the National Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence (CREDE) in 1996. It has been deemed a best practice in educating ELLs (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008). The SIOP Model is empirically validated and provides teachers with various approaches in lesson planning

and delivering engaging lessons. The SIOP Model includes 30 strategies divided into the following eight components: Preparation, Building Background, Comprehensible Input, Strategies, Interaction, Practice and Application, Lesson Delivery, and Review and Assessment. In SIOP trainings, teachers are taught how to implement the SIOP Model to scaffold instruction and make content comprehensible for English language learners through various specific instructional supports.

Supplemental certification. Another method of preparing teachers to teach ELLs is by having them earn add-on endorsements or receive supplemental certification in teaching ELLs. Synonymous and equivalent to one another, ELL endorsements and ESL certificates are often added to an existing teaching license. Hereafter, both "ELL endorsement" and "ESL certification" will synonymously be referred to as "supplemental certification," and allude to teachers who have earned supplemental certification by meeting rigorous standards, completing the necessary coursework at an accredited institution, and receiving in-depth training to teach ELLs (TESOL International Association, 2019).

Policies regarding teacher qualifications for teaching linguistically diverse students are inconsistent nationwide. Most states require teachers of ELLs and bilingual teachers to have earned supplemental specialized certification or endorsements, several states lack certification requirements (Wixon, 2015), leaving individual school districts to make their own decisions whether to require ELL certification, regardless of state policy. For example, Colorado does not have state policies requiring ELL teachers to have specialized supplemental certification, but some school districts in Colorado can choose to require the certification (Wixon, 2015).

In other states such as North Dakota, teachers that serve ELL students are required to earn an ELL endorsement, which is equivalent to supplemental specialized certification. Both

pre- and in-service teachers are given the opportunity to earn an ELL endorsement because federal and state legislation require school districts to provide language support and programs to help students who are not proficient in the English language (ND Department of Public Instruction, 2016). It can be difficult, however, to stay in compliance with the federal and state requirements because these laws are not strictly enforced.

Summary

The primary purpose of this literature review was to identify and investigate the factors that influence the education of ELLs. To understand the issues surrounding the complex process of educating ELLs, background information was presented to help put ELL education into context. First, an abbreviated version of historical events that were significant in paving the way to the current state of ELL education was provided. Next, the complexity of language was discussed because language theories, the stages of language development, and language proficiency all serve as the foundational knowledge for understanding the experiences of ELLs and the issues that inform ELL education. The remainder of the literature review focused on factors affecting the education of ELLs, including teacher attitude, self-efficacy, teacher education programs, and professional development and training. Overall, this review of literature highlighted the complexities involved in educating ELLs. The next chapter will describe the methods used to further explore factors that influence teachers and, ultimately, impact the education of ELLs.

This review of literature also revealed that self-efficacy is a powerful, complex, and multifaceted construct that can be influenced and impacted by various factors including, but not limited to, age, race/ethnicity, years of experience, and educational attainment (Bandura, 1986,

1997). The general hypothesis for this study was that various factors impact teachers' general

teaching self-efficacy, as well as their self-efficacy for teaching ELLs (see Figure 2).
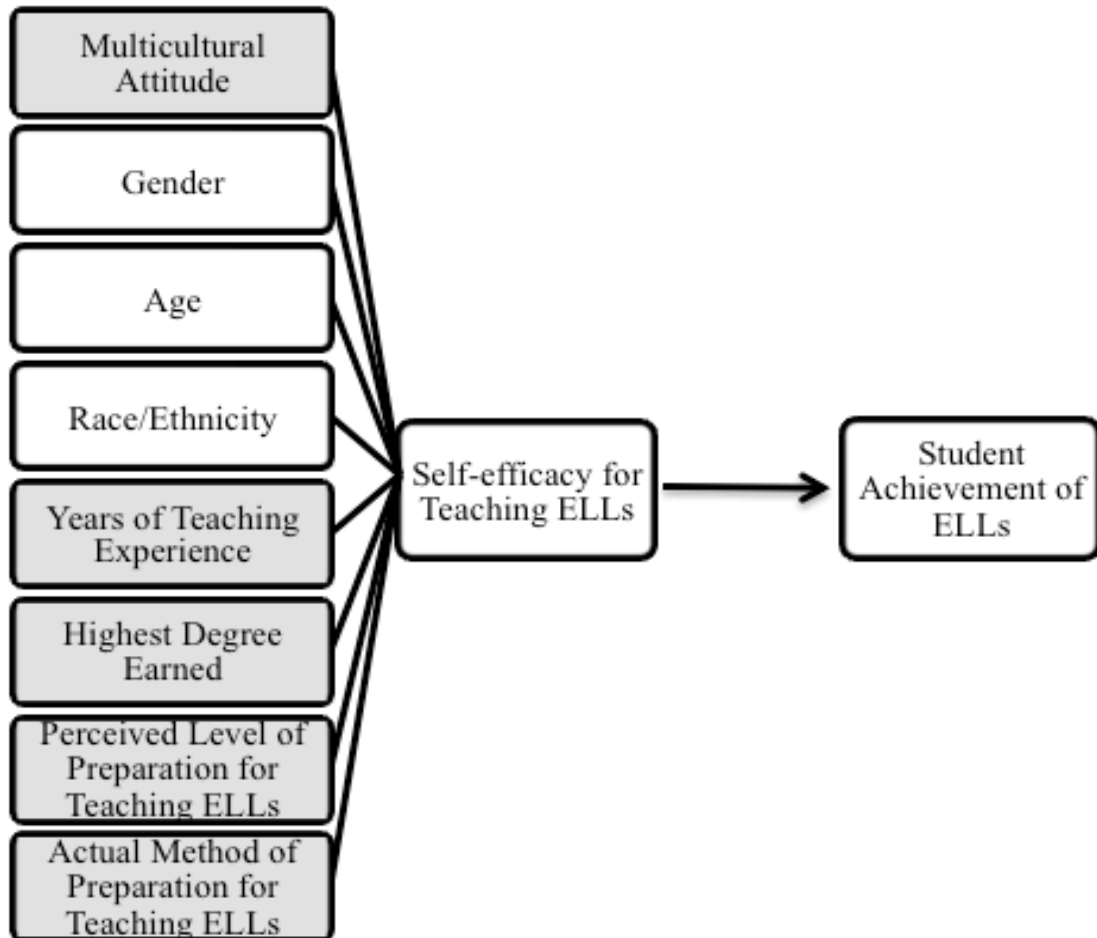

Figure 2. Theoretical Framework: Factors Impacting Student Achievement of ELLs.

Teacher view towards ELLs, as well as their own confidence and self-efficacy in teaching

diverse students, clearly have significant impacts on the education and academic success of this

group of students. The factors discussed in this section illustrate the hurdles that exist when

educating ELLs.

CHAPTER 3. METHODS

Purpose

This quantitative study utilized survey research to examine the relationships between teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, general teaching self-efficacy, and multicultural attitudes. The study also explored whether teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs could be explained by a set of variables that includes years of teaching experience, highest degree earned, perception of preparedness for teaching ELLs, and actual preparation for teaching ELLs. The research questions, research design, participants, data collection and analysis procedures are discussed in this chapter.

Research Questions

Grounded in Bandura's (1977) Social Cognitive Theory, specifically its central concept of self-efficacy, the hypothesis is that a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching ELLs is impacted by various factors. The following research questions guided this project:

RQ1. To what degree does a relationship exist between a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners and a teacher's general teaching self-efficacy?

RQ2. To what degree does a relationship exist between a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners and a teacher's multicultural attitude?

RQ3. Is the relationship, if any, between a teacher's general teaching self-efficacy and a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners influenced, or moderated by multicultural attitude?

RQ4. Can a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners be explained by variables that include total years of teaching experience, highest degree earned,

perceived level of preparedness for teaching ELLs, and actual of preparation for teaching

ELLs?

Null Hypotheses

$H_0 1$. There is no relationship between a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English

Language Learners and a teacher's general teaching self-efficacy.

$H_0 2$. There is no relationship between a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English

Language Learners and a teacher's multicultural attitude.

$H_0 3$. The relationship, if any, between a teacher's general teaching self-efficacy and a

teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners is not influenced, nor

moderated by multicultural attitude.

$H_0 4$. A teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners cannot be

explained by variables that include total years of teaching experience, highest degree

earned, perceived level of preparedness for teaching ELLs, and actual of preparation for

teaching ELLs.

Alternative Hypotheses

$H_a 1$. There is a significant relationship between a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching

English Language Learners and a teacher's multicultural attitude.

$H_a 2$. There is a significant relationship between a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching

English Language Learners and a teacher's multicultural attitude.

$H_a 3$. The relationship, if any, between a teacher's general teaching self-efficacy and a

teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners is influenced, or

moderated by multicultural attitude.

H$_a$4. A teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners can be explained

by variables that include total years of teaching experience, highest degree earned,

perceived level of preparedness for teaching ELLs, and actual preparation for teaching

ELLs.

Research Design

Survey Research Methodology

A non-experimental quantitative, cross-sectional research design was used to conduct this correlational study. Participants were asked to complete an online survey aimed at measuring multicultural attitudes and self-efficacy in meeting the needs of ELLs. Emails requesting assistance from principals contained a link to the survey. Principals who agreed to allow access to their schools for the approved research project forwarded the invitation to the elementary teachers in their respective schools. Of the 226 principals, 24 principals agreed to forward the link to the elementary teachers in their schools, resulting in a total of 338 respondents.

Since the primary purpose of this study was to gauge attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions when examining the factors that affect self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, the use of survey research is appropriate for this study. This approach was also selected because it aligned with the purpose of the study, had a potential for a large return rate, and could result in a rapid turnaround in data collection from participants in diverse geographical locations. Many advantages of surveys, specifically electronic questionnaires, include potential low cost, quick turn-around, lack of interviewer bias, and anonymity (Fowler, 2014). Surveys, specifically questionnaires, are widely used in educational research and allow researchers to systematically gather large-scale data to make generalizations and statistically manipulate this data (Cohen et al., 2011). Furthermore, survey research methods are considered one of the most effective ways of

retrieving personal data and beliefs and could provide quantitative or numeric descriptions of trends, attitudes, beliefs, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of a specified population (Creswell, 2009).

After approval by the researcher's committee was granted, this proposal was submitted to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of North Dakota State University. Then once approval was received from NDSU's IRB Office (see Appendix A "IRB Approval" letter), the researcher was granted permission (see Appendix B for "Approval to Conduct Research in District" letter) from the Department of Research of the Clark County School District (CCSD) to proceed with the research study.

Population

The target population was teachers working in CCSD. The accessible population was elementary teachers, who teach grades kindergarten through fifth grade (K-5), working in CCSD. For this study, a teacher is defined as a person who has completed a teacher preparation program or alternative route to licensure from an accredited college or university; holds a current teaching license; and teaches students in grades K-5.

The researcher recruited current elementary teachers working in CCSD, a large urban school district in the southwestern part of the United States. CCSD is located in Las Vegas, Nevada. The city of Las Vegas has a current population of approximately 640,000 people, of which 44.2% are White (non-Hispanic); 32.9% Hispanic or Latino; 12.2% Black or African American; 6.6% Asian; 0.9% American Indian or Alaska Native; 0.8% Native Hawaiian; and 4.9% Two or More Races. The selection of this school district was intentional as the researcher was familiar with the school district's rich diversity and wanted to recruit a diverse sample of

participants for this study. CCSD serves a diverse population of students, which includes a significant number of ELLs.

<div align="center">**Sample**</div>

Sampling Frame

According to Fowler (2014), the sample frame consists of a set of people that has a chance to be selected for a particular study. For the purpose of this study, the sampling frame included all elementary school teachers who teach in grades K-5 in CCSD. The researcher selected this large school district due to the fact that it was listed as one of the top 25 school districts with the highest number of ELLs enrolled in the United States (Migration Policy Institute, 2015). The district's elementary schools served as the sampling units, and the elements of interest were the teachers who work in these elementary schools.

Power Analysis

Osborne (2013) defines statistical power as "the ability to correctly reject a false null hypothesis…and is calculated based on a particular effect size, alpha level, and sample size…" (p. 20). Prior to collecting data, a priori analysis was made to determine the optimal sample size to ensure that there was enough power to test the hypotheses of this study. The total number of potential participants in the accessible population was approximately 7,500 teachers. To calculate the ideal sample size for this study, the sample size calculator provided by Qualtrics was used. With the confidence level set to 95% and margin of error of 5% for a population size of 7,500, the analysis revealed that an ideal sample size of 366 participants was needed.

Sampling Strategy and Procedures

Fowler (2014) suggested that one way to obtain a sample is through the identification of addresses or units as a first stage, then selecting a sample of people in those units. Fowler further

suggested that units could be sampled from lists of addresses, by sampling geographic areas and then sampling units located on those geographic areas, or by sampling telephone numbers that can be associated with those units. Although it would be possible to generate a list of all elementary school teachers in the school district, Fowler argued that this process might be difficult, time-consuming and expensive to obtain a high percentage of a probability sample. However, CCSD requires individuals to request permission and approval to conduct research within the district via an extensive review process. Moreover, this particular school district requires permission from school principals and prohibits researchers from contacting teachers directly. Therefore, once approval was granted (see Appendix B), the researcher used the Internet to compile a list of email addresses of all elementary school principals working in CCSD. The district has a total of 226 elementary schools. However, the final list of emails consisted of 222 principals due to four principals overseeing two schools.

The elementary school principals were sent an initial email requesting assistance in recruiting participants for this study (see Appendix C). To recruit participants, principals were asked to forward an invitation email (see Appendix D) to all elementary teachers in their respective schools. The recruitment email included the link to the online survey. A follow-up email (see Appendix E) was sent to the principals five days after the initial email was sent. Because the sample size had not reached the target determined by the power calculation, the researcher sent a reminder email (see Appendix F) to principals to forward the invitation to the elementary school teachers in their respective schools.

The complete electronic survey packet included two different validated surveys, the Teachers Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) and the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Survey (TMAS; Ponterotto et al., 1998), as well as a modified

version of the TSES to measure a teacher's sense of self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. Other demographic information was collected (i.e. gender, age, race/ethnicity, years of teaching experience). The survey utilized branching logic so participants who indicated that they did not teach students in grades K-5 were directed to the end of the survey. Participants were allotted a two-week timeframe to complete the survey. Data was collected using Qualtrics, a survey collection software, hosted by North Dakota State University. To maintain participant confidentiality, data was stored on a password-protected computer behind the NDSU firewall. The researcher sought and was granted approval from both the Institutional Review Board at North Dakota State University and the Department of Research of the Clark County School District prior to the start of data collection.

Sample Description

The sample consisted of 223 inservice elementary teachers. As mentioned earlier, the sample was recruited from the Clark County School District in Las Vegas, Nevada. Participants consisted of 84% were female, 12% were male, 1.35% identified as other, and 1.35% preferred not to answer. The average age of the participants in the sample was 44.78 years ($SD = 10.8$ years), with age ranging from 20 to 64 years. In terms of race/ethnicity, 67.26% of the participants were White, 18.83% were Hispanic/Latinx, 2.69% were Black/African American, 0.1% were American Indian or Alaskan Native, 3% were Asian, 0.1% were Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, and the remaining participants were 6.28% Multiple Races or Other. During the 2019-2020 school year, the demographics of teachers in CCSD were as follows: 67.8% were White, 11.8% Hispanic/Latinx, 7.8% were Black/African American, 0.5% were American Indian or Alaskan Native, 6.2% were Asian, 0.5% were Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, and the remaining 4.9% indicated that they were Multiracial or Other (CCSD, 2019). Table 2

summarizes the demographic characteristics of the participants of this study, as compared to the

overall school district.

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of Sample and Target Populations

Characteristic	*n*	% Sample	% Target
Gender			
Male	28	12.55	26
Female	189	84.75	74
Other	3	1.35	0
Prefer not to answer	3	1.35	0
Age			
20-29	18	8.07	--
30-39	60	26.91	--
40-49	63	28.25	--
50-59	60	26.91	--
60 $\leq$	22	9.87	--
*Race/Ethnicity			
White, Non-Hispanic	150	67.26	67.8
Hispanic or Latinx	42	18.83	11.8
Black or African American	6	2.69	7.8
American Indian or Alaska Native	2	.90	.5
Asian	7	3.14	6.2
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	2	.90	.5
Multiple Races	9	4.04	2.6
Other	5	2.24	2.3
Years of Total Teaching Experience			
0-4	37	16.59	--
5-9	39	17.49	--
10-14	41	18.39	--
15-19	35	15.69	--
20 $\leq$	69	30.94	--
Prefer not to answer	2	.90	--
Highest Degree Earned			
Bachelors	66	29.60	27.2
Masters	137	61.43	59.7
Doctorate	9	4.04	1.3
Other	10	4.48	12.6
Prefer not to answer	1	.45	0

Note. N = 223; Pop.= Population; -- = information unavailable; Target population represents entire district.
Source. Gender from Las Vegas Review Journal, March 5, 2018. Race/Ethnicity from CCSD Human Resources
(2019). Highest Degree Earned from CCSD Comprehensive Annual Budget Report, 2014-2015

Instrumentation

An online survey was used to collect data for this research study. The survey combined

two different validated surveys, the Teachers Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES; Tschannen-Moran

& Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) and the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Survey (TMAS; Ponterotto et al., 1998), as well as a modified version of the TSES to measure a teacher's sense of self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. Other demographic variables were collected (e.g. gender, age, race/ethnicity, years of teaching experience).

Variables and Measures

General teaching self-efficacy. Developed during a seminar on self-efficacy in teaching and learning at the College of Education at Ohio State University, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy's (2001) Teachers Sense of Efficacy Scale was examined in three separate studies. After the third study, the instrument was finalized, yielding the same three factors: efficacy in instructional strategies, efficacy in student engagement, and efficacy in classroom management. To examine the construct validity of the scale, the developers assessed the correlation of the scale with other validated measures of teacher efficacy. The developers found that the total score on the scale was positively related to the personal teaching efficacy (PTE) factor of the Gibson and Dembo (1984) measure, and the general teacher efficacy factor (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The developers used factor analysis to test the TSES and consistently found three moderately correlated factors: Efficacy in Student Engagement, Efficacy in Instructional Practices, and Efficacy in Classroom Management.

Using data from the entire sample in the third study, principal-axis factoring of the three teacher efficacy subscales (instruction, management and engagement) from the 24-item (long form) instrument showed one strong factor accounting for 75% of the variance; and with the 12-item instrument (short form) again one factor emerged, accounting for 68% of the variance. For the short form, efficacy for student engagement was composed of questions 2, 3, 4, and 11, and had a reliability of .81. Efficacy for instructional strategies included questions 5, 9, 19, and 12,

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and had a reliability of .86. Lastly, classroom management was composed of questions 1, 6, 7, and 8, and had a reliability of .86. The presence of this second-order factor and the moderate positive correlations of the three subscales suggested that the scales for both long and short form could be considered to measure the underlying construct of general teaching self-efficacy and that a total score could be calculated.

To further explore whether calculating total scores for the 24-items and 12-items were acceptable, the developers conducted a principal-axis factor analysis specifying one factor—general teacher self-efficacy. The items loaded onto this one factor, with loadings ranging from .49 to .76 for the long scale and from .49 to .75 for the short form. The reliability for the 24-item long form scale was .94, and .90 for the 12-item short form. Hence, the developers concluded that the total raw score for both forms could be used to assess one factor—overall teacher efficacy.

The construct validity of both the short and long forms of the instrument was examined by assessing the correlation of this new measure with other existing measures of teacher efficacy, the Rand items and the Gibson and Dembo Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES). The effort to measure the construct of teacher efficacy began with the Rand measure—two questions included in a lengthy, extensive questionnaire but "turned out to be among the most powerful factors examined by the Rand researchers in their study of teacher characteristics" (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001, p. 784). Building on the Rand items, Gibson and Dembo developed the TES, a 30-item measure of teacher efficacy. However, Tshannen-Moran used a shortened version of the TES which consisted of five items used to measure personal teaching efficacy and five items aimed at measuring general teaching efficacy (Hoy and Woolfolk, 1993).

During their third study of the TSES, Tschannen-Moran and Hoy asked participants to complete the TSES, the Rand items, as well as their 10-item adaptation of the Gibson and Dembo TES. The developers found the total scores on the TSES (24-item long form) were positively related to both the Rand items, as well as to both the personal teaching efficacy (PTE) factor of the Gibson and Dembo measure and the general teacher efficacy (GTE) factor. The results were found to be similar with the short form. The analyses demonstrated that the TSES was both valid and reliable. Both the long and short forms of the survey are reasonable in length, can be valuable tools for researchers interested in exploring the construct of general teacher self-efficacy, and are positively correlated with other measures of teaching efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

For the purpose of this study, the researcher utilized the short form, 12-item option of the survey. Each item in the first section of the instrument was rated on a 9-point Likert-type scale asking, "What can you do…" and with the following response choices: 1 – Nothing, 3 – Very Little, 5 – Some Influence, 7 – Quite a Bit, and 9 – a Great Deal. The developers of the TSES granted permission to use the survey in this study (see HJ). As mentioned previously, the developers determined that the total raw score was appropriate for assessing the factor of general teaching self-efficacy. Higher scores indicate a higher sense of self-efficacy for teaching in general.

Self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. After an extensive search, the researcher was unable to locate an instrument that specifically measured a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the researcher modified the TSES in order to measure self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners. The word "student" in the original scale was changed to "English Language Learner" (See Appendix H). Similar to the TSES, each item

was rated on a 9-point Likert-type scale asking, "What can you do…" and with the following response choices: 1 – Nothing, 3 – Very Little, 5 – Some Influence, 7 – Quite a Bit, and 9 – a Great Deal. Higher scores indicate a higher sense of self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. The validity and reliability of this new instrument will be addressed in Chapter 4.

Multicultural attitude. The Teacher Multicultural Attitude Survey (TMAS; Ponterotto et al., 1998) was used to measure a teacher's multicultural attitude. Ponterotto et al. (1998) developed the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Scale (TMAS) and validated the instrument in two separate studies. The goal of the first study was to develop the items and validate initial scores. During this first study, 220 teacher education students and 201 teachers participated. Of those participants, 72% were female and 27% were male. The grand mean of the resulting 20 items in the first study was 4.01 (SD = .87), which showed a general response of agreement from the participants.

The goal of the second study was to establish reliability and validity of which 227 graduate students in a teacher education programs participated. Of those participants, 81% were female and 15% were male. The demographic make-up of the two normative samples was representative of teacher demographics of the United States as a whole (NCES, 2014c). The grand mean of the same 20-items in the second study was 4.00 (SD = .87). Again, this indicated a general response of agreement from participants. Construct validity for the TMAS was assessed using two comparative instruments purported to measure the same construct of multicultural awareness, which included the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) (Phinney, 1992) and the Quick Discrimination Index (QDI) (Ponterotto, 1995). Correlation coefficients ranged from .74 to .83 across measures, indicating convergent validity based on

acceptable ranges for larger samples such as those utilized in survey research (Ponterotto &
Ruckdeschel, 2007).

The developers also obtained criterion-related validity using the group differences
approach comparing TMAS scores of participants in graduate courses or professional workshops
(Ponterotto et al., 1998). During this process, it was found that educators who had completed
professional workshops on multicultural education had higher TMAS scores than those who had
not attended any multicultural education trainings.

The TMAS is a 20-item, self-report inventory that measures teachers' own self-awareness
and sensitivity to multiculturalism. Each item on the TMAs was rated on a 5-point Likert-type
scale with response anchors of 1 = Strongly Disagree to 5 = Strongly Agree. Of the 20 items,
seven items are negatively worded, and thus reversed scored. The mean scores were calculated,
with higher scores indicating a greater awareness of and appreciation for multicultural education;
an open, positive attitude towards diversity; and the strong belief that cultural diversity in
education enhances the learning outcomes for all students.

Based on the information provided above, the TMAS has acceptable validity and
reliability. The survey was also developed specifically for measuring multicultural attitudes of
teachers, which aligns with the purpose of this study. The developer of the TMAS, Dr.
Ponterotto, granted permission to use the survey as part of the instrument planned for this study
(see Appendix I).

Demographic and background variables. The last section of the survey included items
that gathered important demographic information. For example, questions asked participants to
identify their age, gender, race/ethnicity, years of experience, and highest earned degree.

Further, two questions were included in order to measure teachers' perceived preparedness for teaching ELL and their actual preparation for teaching ELLs. To gauge teacher's perceived level of preparation for teaching ELLs, teachers were asked to rate their level of preparedness for teaching ELLs. Of the 223 teachers who participated in the study, 7.17% perceived their current level of preparedness for teaching ELLs as "less than adequate," 37.22% "adequate," 43.95% "more than adequate," while only 10.76% described their preparation as "exceptional" and 9% did not respond to the question. To determine teachers' actual for teaching ELLs, teachers were asked to identify what, if any, method of preparation for teaching ELLs have they participated or received. Of the 223 participants, 4.48% indicated that they had no prior preparation for teaching ELLs, 50.67%% participated in professional development or training in the SIOP Model, 6.73% earned supplemental ELL certification or endorsement, 33.18% earned both supplemental ELL certification/endorsement and participated in professional development/training in SIOP. Last, 4.48% indicated that they had some other method of training for teaching ELLs, and one participant did not provide a response to the question. A summary is provided in Table 3.

Table 3

Frequency and Percent of Participant Background Information

Preparation for Teaching ELLs	*n*	%
Perceived Preparation		
Less than adequate	16	7.17
Adequate	83	37.22
More than adequate	98	43.95
Exceptional	24	10.76
No response	2	.9
Actual Preparation		
No preparation	10	4.48
Professional Develop/Training in SIOP	113	50.67
Supplemental ELL certification/endorsement	15	6.73
Supplemental ELL certification/endorsement ***and*** Professional Development/Training in SIOP	74	33.18
Other	10	4.48
No response	1	.45

Analysis Procedures

Data was collected using a survey created in Qualtrics. After the survey period ended, the data was exported from Qualtrics to Excel where the researcher proceeded to engage in data cleansing. Lastly, the data was imported into Stata (version 16), a statistical software package, for analysis. Both descriptive statistics and inferential statistics were used during data analysis. Stata 16 was also used to test the hypotheses and answer the research questions.

Structural Equation Modeling and Path Analysis

For research questions 1, 2 and 3, the researcher was interested in determining whether relationships existed between the dependent variable (self-efficacy for teaching ELLs) and independent variables (teacher's general self-efficacy for teaching and multicultural attitudes). Furthermore, for research question 4, the researcher hoped to determine whether teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs can be predicted or explained by a set of variables that included years of teaching experience, highest degree earned, perception of preparation and method of preparation for teaching ELLs. The researcher used factor analysis to verify the scale composition and reliability of the modified TSES, referred to as the ELLSE Scale, which was used to measure self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. Factor analysis results are reported in Chapter 4. Variables were then centered to prevent collinearity. Interaction terms were computed (after centering) for moderation analysis. Using Stata 16, a structural equation model (SEM) was developed and path analysis was conducted to address all of the research questions. Path analysis is a process that allows the researcher to specify models and examine relationships between variables (Suhr, 2008). Lastly, goodness of fit tests, model diagnostics, total, direct, and indirect effects were analyzed.

Limitations

There may be several reasons why individuals in the sample frame may not have been included in the study. Teachers who were on maternity or paternity leave may not have been included in the study. Additionally, teachers who were hospitalized or on medical leave may not have the opportunity to participate in this study. Furthermore, teachers who opt to take time off, such as using their benefits for Family Medical Leave Act (FMLA), would also be missing from this study. Lastly, the survey may have been forwarded to other staff members in a district who were not licensed elementary school teachers.

Another possible weakness was that the target sample size was not reached. Although the final sample was below the previously calculated sample size, there is evidence of the study's representativeness as there were parallels between the final sample and target population (as shown in Table 2). Efforts were made to ensure that the sample source included all of the target population and that the data collection method was able to reach individuals that represented the target population. However, the researcher did not have control over whether individual principals forwarded the invitation to participate in the research study to the teachers in their respective schools.

Summary

This chapter provided a description of the research design, sampling plan, data collection methods, and instrumentation used to examine various factors that were thought to contribute to teachers' self-efficacy when teaching ELLs. A non-experimental, cross-sectional research design was used for this quantitative research study. The TSES, TMAS, and a modified version of the TSES were included in the survey used for data collection. Data was collected from CCSD, a large urban school district in southwestern part of the United States. The school district required

permission from the school principals to allow research to be conducted at their respective school sites. The survey was sent to all elementary school principals via email. The principal consented by forwarding the invitation to participate in the research study to the elementary teachers in their respective schools. Elementary teachers were invited to complete a voluntary online Qualtrics survey. The results of the study are presented in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

This chapter presents the results, analysis, and interpretation of the data collected for this study. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, general teaching self-efficacy, and multicultural attitudes. The study also explored whether teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs could be explained by a set of variables that includes years of teaching experience, highest degree earned, perception of preparedness for teaching ELLs, and actual preparation for teaching ELLs.

The research questions that guided this study were the following:

1. To what degree does a relationship exist between a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners and a teacher's general teaching self-efficacy?

2. To what degree does a relationship exist between a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners and a teacher's multicultural attitude?

3. Is the relationship, if any, between a teacher's general teaching self-efficacy and a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners influenced, or moderated by multicultural attitude?

4. Can a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners be predicted by variables that include total years of teaching experience, highest degree earned, perceived level of preparedness for teaching ELLs, and actual preparation for teaching ELLs?

To address the research questions, the researcher used survey research methods to collect data. Factor analysis, structural equation modeling, and path analysis were then used to analyze the data. The results are presented in this chapter.

Data Analysis

The research study recruited participants from a large, urban school district in the southwestern part of the United States. Of the 338 respondents who accessed the survey, 13 teachers did not consent, and 67 teachers consented but decided not to complete the survey. An additional 21 respondents were removed because they did not answer a majority of the survey questions. Finally, 10 more respondents were removed for not answering the questions aimed at measuring a teacher's sense of self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, multicultural attitude, and the demographic/background questions—major variables in this research study. The final sample size for this study was $n = 223$. The sample size needed for structural equation modeling (SEM) varies widely, and there is no consensus in the literature. However, an accepted rule of thumb for using SEM to analyze data is to have at least 10 observations per indicator variable for an adequate sample size (Nunnally, 1967).

Factor Analysis

After an extensive search, the researcher was unable to locate an instrument that specifically measured a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. Therefore, the researcher used a modified version of the TSES (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) to measure self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, and named this new instrument the English Language Learner Self-efficacy (ELLSE) Scale. Exploratory factor analysis was used to analyze the ELLSE Scale to determine whether the modifications affected the original factor structure of the TSES. The Bartlett's test of sphericity, $\chi^2(66) = 1981.19$, $p < .001$, suggested that items were significantly correlated. Additionally, a KMO of .93 indicated that the sample was sufficient, and the data were appropriate for further analysis.

Initially, five factors were retained due to eigenvalues with positive values. However, a

dominant factor emerged with an eigenvalue of 6.97, accounting for 87.9% of the common

variance. The remaining four factors had positive eigenvalues ranging from .03 to .90, with

variances ranging from 0% to 11.28%. To assist the researcher in determining the number of

factors to retain for data analysis, the researcher used Cattell's (1966) scree test, which requires

an examination of a plot of the eigenvalues and the identification of the breaking point where the

scree begins, suggesting to retain the factors that are not part of the scree. In this case, the

researcher determined that three factors were not included in the scree. Figure 3 displays a graph
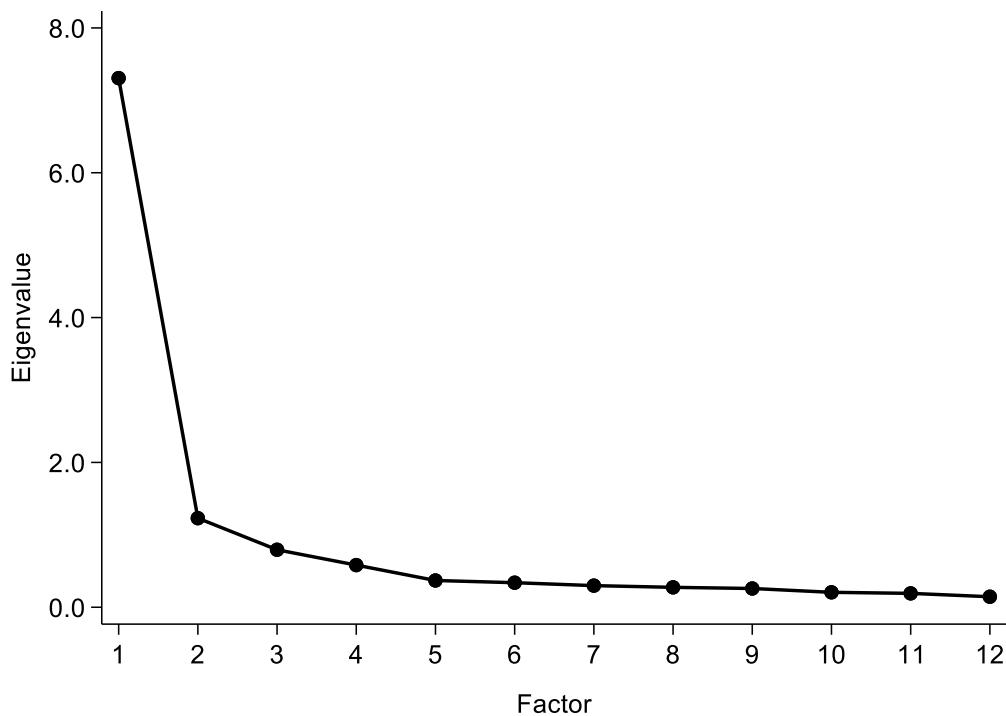
of eigenvalues for the ELLSE Scale.

Figure 3. Scree Plot of Eigenvalues for the ELLSE Scale

Furthermore, the researcher determined that three factors appeared to be meaningful,

interpretable, and matched the results of the theoretical model of the TSES. The factors were

then rotated using oblique rotation (oblimin). All items cleanly loaded onto three distinct factors,

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with the exception of one item, Q4_5. After further review, the following three factors were identified: *Self-efficacy in ELL Classroom Management, Self-efficacy in ELL Student Motivation, and Self-efficacy in ELL Methods and Strategies.* Four items (Q4_1, Q4_6, Q4_7, Q4_8) loaded onto *Self-efficacy in ELL Classroom Management,* and accounted for 87.89% of the total variance. Three items (Q4_2, Q4_3, Q4_4) loaded onto *Self-efficacy in ELL Student Motivation* and accounted for 11.28% of the total variance. Four items (Q4_9, Q4_10, Q4_11, Q4_12) loaded onto *Self-efficacy in ELL Methods and Strategies* and accounted for 6.08% of the variance. Item Q4_5 loaded onto factors 2 and 3, and was removed due to cross-loading. Table 4 displays a summary of the items, factor loadings, and communalities for the ELLSE Scale.

Table 4

Summary of Factor Loadings and Communalities for the ELLSE Scale

Items	Factor			Communalities
	CM	SM	MS	
Q4_1 How much can you do to control disruptive behavior of English Language Learners in the classroom?	.637			.664
Q4_6 How much can you do to get English Language Learners to follow classroom rules?	.897			.745
Q4_7 How much can you do to calm a English Language Learner who is disruptive or noisy?	.747			.720
Q4_8 How well can you establish a classroom management system with English Language Learners?	.763			.752
Q4_2 How much can you do to motivate English Language Learners who show little interest in school work?		.648		.748
Q4_3 How much can you do to get English Language Learners to believe they can do well in school work?		.810		.830
Q4_4 How much can you do to help your English Language Learners value learning?		.889		.784
Q4_9 How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies for English Language Learners?			.792	.664
Q4_10 To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when English Language Learners are confused?			.673	.659
Q4_11 How much can you assist families of English Language Learners in helping their children do well in school?			.445	.446
Q4_12 How well can you implement alternative strategies for English Language Learners in your classroom?			.833	.695

Note. CM = self-efficacy in classroom management; SM = self-efficacy in student motivation; MS = self-efficacy in methods and strategies. Common-factors Method. Rotation method: Oblique Oblimin.

Table 5

Correlation Matrix of the Rotated Factors for the ELLSE Scale

Factors	Classroom Management	Student Motivation	Methods and Strategies
Classroom Management	1		
Student Motivation	.729	1	
Methods and Strategies	.669	.537	1

As displayed in the correlation matrix (see Table 5 above), *Self-efficacy in ELL Classroom Management* (factor 1) is highly correlated with both *Self-efficacy in ELL Student Motivation* (factor 2) and *Self-efficacy in Methods and Strategies* (factor 3), while *Self-efficacy in Student Motivation* (factor 2) and *Self-efficacy in ELL Methods and Strategies* (factor 3) are moderately correlated.

The alpha coefficients were then calculated for each factor for the ELLSE Scale. Factor 1, *Self-efficacy in Classroom Management*, resulted in a coefficient alpha of .91 (very highly reliable). Factor 2, *Self-efficacy in Student Motivation* was .92 (very highly reliable). Lastly, factor 3, *Self-efficacy in Methods and Strategies* was .85 (highly reliable). Table 6 displays the results of the reliabilities, means, and standard deviations of the ELLSE Scale.

Table 6

ELLSE Scale and Subscale Reliabilities, Means, and Standard Deviations

Factor	M	SD	CA
Overall ($k = 12$)	7.05	1.17	.94
Classroom Management ($k = 4$)	7.30	1.23	.91
Student Motivation ($k = 3$)	6.98	1.41	.92
Methods and Strategies ($k = 4$)	6.86	1.32	.85

Note. M = mean; SD = standard deviation; CA = Chronbach's Alpha

Structural Equation Modeling and Path Analysis

An exploratory path analysis was used to analyze the data using the variables specified in Chapter 3. A list of variables and variable names are provided in Table 7, followed by descriptive statistics for the identified variables presented in Table 8. A structural equation model (SEM) was built and estimated using Stata 16 using maximum likelihood.

Table 7

Names of Variables Used for the SEM Model

Variable	Variable Code
Years of teaching experience	teach_exp
Highest degree earned	degree
Perceived level of preparedness for teaching ELLs	p_prep
Actual method of preparation for teaching ELLs	m_prep
Self-efficacy in ELL Classroom Management	ellse1_cm
Self-efficacy in ELL Student Motivation	ellse2_sm
Self-efficacy in ELL Methods and Strategies	ellse3_ms
Efficacy in Classroom Management	tses1_cm
Efficacy in Student Engagement	tses2_se
Efficacy in Instructional Strategies	tses3_is
Multicultural Attitude	tmas
Multicultural Attitude as a Moderating Variable for Efficacy in Classroom Management	tmas_x_tses1
Multicultural Attitude as a Moderating Variable for Efficacy in Student Engagement	tmas_x_tses2
Multicultural Attitude as a Moderating Variable for Efficacy in Instructional Strategies Management	tmas_x_tses3

Table 8

Summary of Descriptive Statistics for Variables

Variable	*n*	M	SD	Min	Max
teach_exp	221	13.76	6.63	1	21
degree	222	1.83	.70	1	4
p_prep	221	2.59	.78	1	4
m_prep	222	2.82	1.08	1	5
ellse1_cm	223	7.30	1.23	3.5	9
ellse2_sm	223	6.98	1.41	3	9
ellse3_ms	223	6.86	1.32	3.5	9
tses1_cm	223	7.28	1.11	4.25	9
tses2_se	223	6.81	1.26	3	9
tses3_is	223	7.50	.99	5	9
tmas	223	4.03	.44	2.75	4.9

Note. M = mean; SD = standard deviation; Min = Minimum Value; Max = Maximum Value

Initial model. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to assess the degree to which relationships, if any, exist among teacher self-efficacy for teaching ELLs (ELLSE variables), teacher general teaching self-efficacy (TSES variables), and multicultural attitude. This initial model also specified multicultural attitude as a moderator between the TSES and ELLSE variables. A number of key demographic variables (total years of teaching experience, highest degree earned, perceived level of preparedness for teaching ELLs, and actual preparation for teaching ELLs) were entered into the model as predictors of the three ELLSE variables. The initial model (Figure 4) included all designated paths to the indicator variables related to self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, producing a model with 33 effect parameters to be estimated.
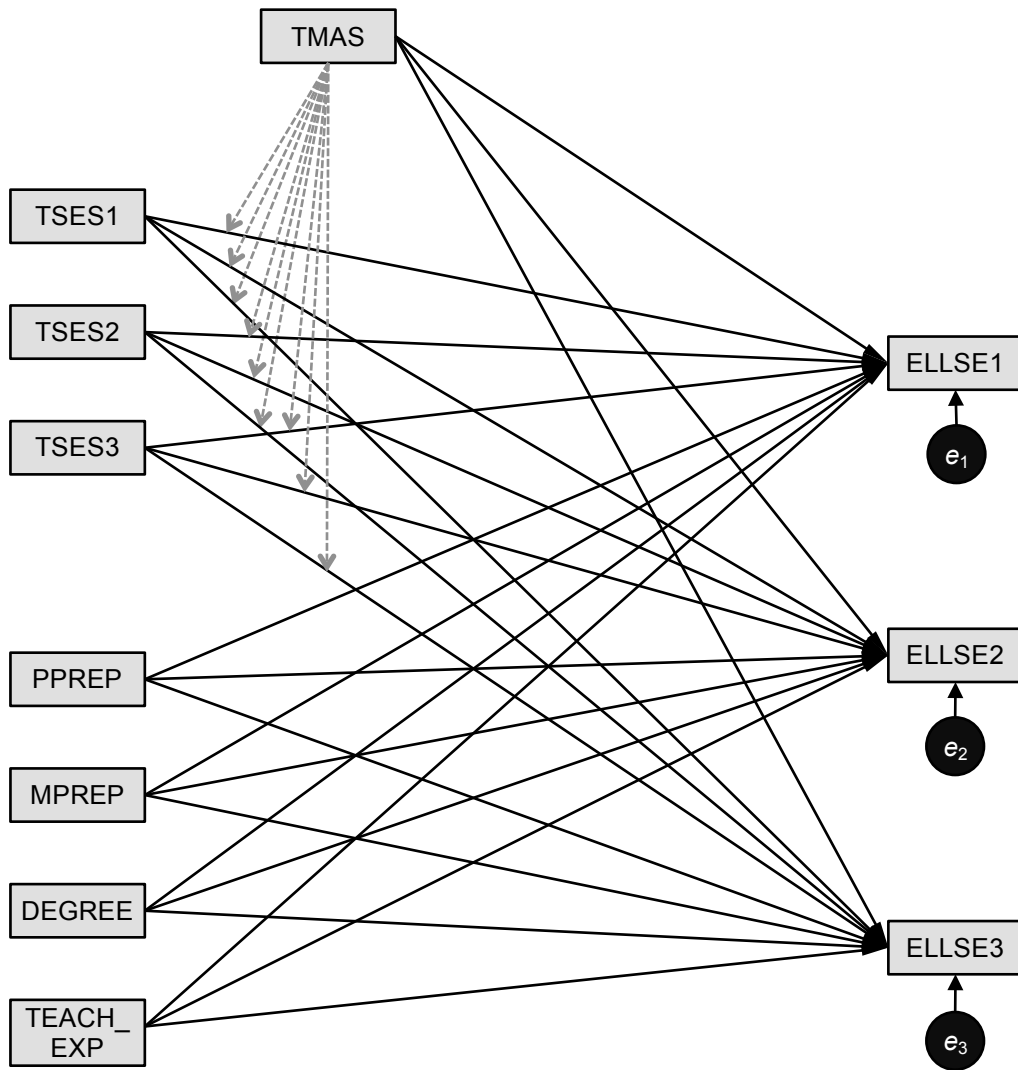
Figure 4. Path Estimates for the Initial Model. Observed variables are depicted as grey rectangles, and error (residual) terms are shown as black circles. The solid black lines with single-headed arrows represent regression coefficients and indicate implied causal relationships between two variables. The dashed grey lines represent the moderation (interaction) effects. Path estimates are reported in Table 9.

The global fit statistics for this initial model showed a poor fit, $\chi^2(3) = 219.627$ ($p < .001$), RMSEA = .574, CFI = .667, SRMR = .048. Hence, some model modification is warranted. The modification indices (MIs) strongly suggested adding correlations to the error terms to improve the fit of the model. Adding this modification was consistent with relevant theory as Tshannen-Moran and Woofolk Hoy (2001) asserted that "there is confusion and debate about the meaning…and other unresolved issues continue to perplex scholars working to improve the measurement of teacher efficacy" (p.784). The unstandardized and standardized path estimates are displayed in Table 9 below. To continue improving the fit of the model, many non-significant ($p <. 05$) parameters were eliminated. Most notably, the interaction terms were removed because they were all found to be non-significant. This was not consistent with the literature that emphasizes the role of positive multicultural attitudes in assisting teachers when teaching students from cultures other than their own (Emdin, 2016; Gay, 2010; Nieto & Bode, 2012). The results are further discussed in the following chapter. Ultimately, all nonsignificant parameters (i.e., $p > .05$) were dropped. Note that the parameter for the direct effect from tses3_is to ellse1_cm was initially non-significant ($p = .257$) but became significant ($p = .009$) as other non-significant parameters were removed systematically.

Table 9

Summary of Path Estimates for Initial SEM Model

Parameter	Unstandardized Estimate	Standardized Estimate	z	p	95% CI for Stand. Est.
		Direct effects			
teach_exp → ellse1_cm	.011	.056	1.12	.264	[-.042, .155]
teach_exp → ellse2_sm	.005	.023	0.43	.666	[-.081, .127]
teach_exp → ellse3_ms	.013	.064	1.11	.268	[-.048, .176]
degree → ellse1_cm	-.003	-.002	-.04	.967	[-.095, .092]
degree → ellse2_sm	-.047	-.023	-.45	.649	[-.122, .076]
degree → ellse3_ms	-.051	-.027	-.49	.626	[-.133, .080]
p_prep → ellse1_cm	.245	.154	2.95	.003	[.051, .256]
p_prep → ellse2_sm	.165	.091	1.64	.102	[-.0180, .200]
p_prep → ellse3_ms	.120	.118	1.96	.049	[.000, .235]
m_prep → ellse1_cm	.015	.013	.26	.793	[-.083, .109]
m_prep → ellse2_sm	.097	.074	1.43	.152	[-.027, .176]
m_prep → ellse3_ms	.050	.041	.73	.466	[-.068, .151]
tses1_cm → ellse1_cm	.582	.521	9.34	.000	[.412, .631]
tses1_cm → ellse2_sm	.164	.123	2.00	.046	[.002, .256]
tses1_cm → ellse3_ms	.011	.009	.13	.893	[-.127, .147]
tses2_se → ellse1_cm	.117	.119	2.07	.038	[.006, .232]
tses2_se → ellse2_sm	.602	.538	9.91	.000	[.432, .644]
tses2_se → ellse3_ms	.154	.146	2.24	.025	[.018, .275]
tses3_is → ellse1_cm	.083	.065	1.13	.257	[-.048, .179]
tses3_is → ellse2_sm	-.044	-.030	-.50	.620	[-.150, .089]
tses3_is → ellse3_ms	.622	.46	7.62	.000	[.342, .579]
tmas → ellse1_cm	.318	.113	2.27	.023	[.015, .211]
tmas → ellse2_sm	.524	.164	3.12	.002	[.061, .267]
tmas → ellse3_ms	.269	.090	1.57	.117	[-.022, .202]
		Interaction (moderation) effects			
tmas_x_tses1 → ellse1_cm	.017	.008	.11	.910	[-.125, .141]
tmas_x_tses1 → ellse2_sm	.117	.045	.63	.531	[-.096, .185]
tmas_x_tses1 → ellse3_ms	.152	.062	.80	.421	[-.089, .214]
tmas_x_tses2 → ellse1_cm	.140	.065	1.07	.284	[-.054, .184]
tmas_x_tses2 → ellse2_sm	.086	.035	.54	.586	[-.090, .160]
tmas_x_tses2 → ellse3_ms	.017	.007	.10	.917	[-.128, .143]
tmas_x_tses3 → ellse1_cm	-.180	-.067	-1.08	.278	[-.187, .054]
tmas_x_tses3 → ellse2_sm	-.192	-.063	-.96	.336	[-.190, .065]
tmas_x_tses3 → ellse3_ms	.074	.026	.36	.716	[-.112, .163]

Note. N = 220; Estimation method: maximum likelihood. Stand. = Standardized. Unstand. = Unstandardized; CI = Confidence Interval; Est. = Estimate; Stand. = Standardized.

Final model. The final model (Figure 5) was found to have a very good fit, $\chi^2(4) = 4.23$ ($p = .376$), RMSEA = .016, CFI = 1.000, SRMR = .020. This model produced no significant modification indices (i.e., all MI < 3.84). The summary of path estimates is displayed in Table 10, followed by the correlations among the errors in Table 11.
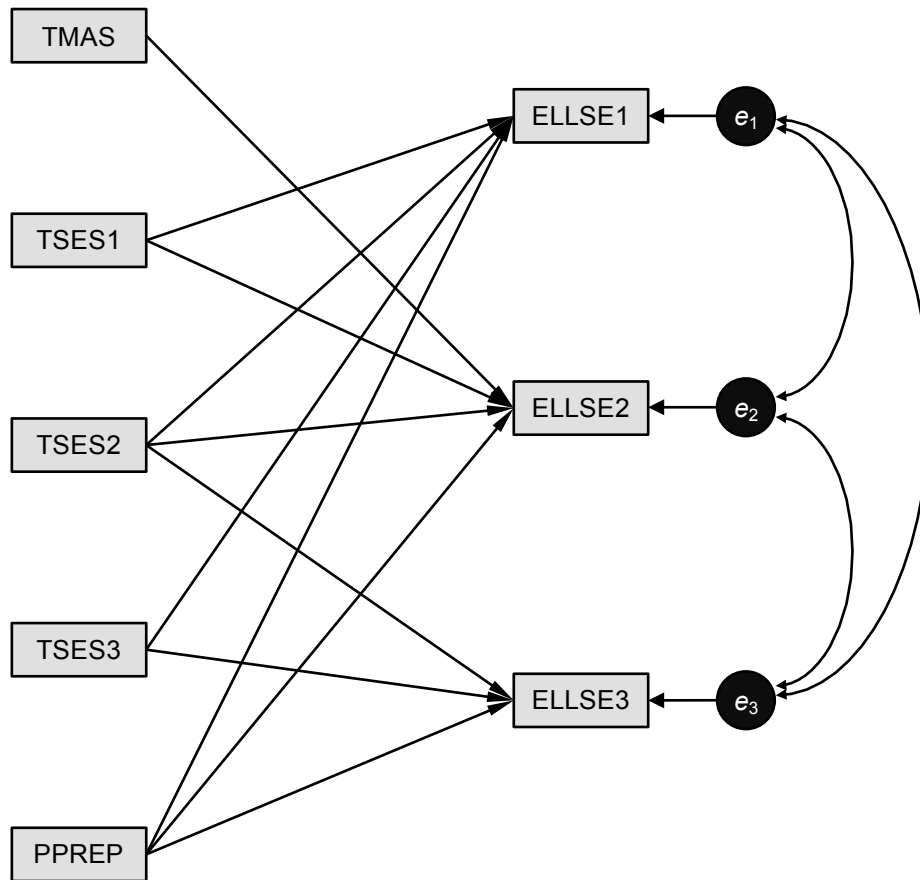

Figure 5. Path Estimates for the Final Model. Observed variables are depicted as grey rectangles, and error (residual) terms are shown as black circles. The solid black lines with single-headed arrows represent regression coefficients and indicate implied causal relationships between two variables. Curved, double-headed lines represent covariance. Standardized path estimates are reported in Table 10.

Table 10

Summary of Path Estimates for Final SEM Model

Parameter	Unstand. Estimate	Stand. Estimate	z	p	95% CI for Stand. Est.
p_prep → ellse1_cm	.259	.163	3.54	< .001	[.073, .254]
tses1_cm → ellse1_cm	.587	.526	12.16	< .001	[.441, .611]
tses2_se → ellse1_cm	.129	.132	2.45	.014	[.027, .237]
tses3_is → ellse1_cm	.139	.110	2.61	.009	[.028, .193]
p_prep → ellse2_sm	.211	.118	2.40	.017	[.021, .214]
tses1_cm → ellse2_sm	.143	.114	2.17	.030	[.011, .217]
tses2_se → ellse2_sm	.614	.553	11.21	< .001	[.456, .649]
tmas → ellse2_sm	.305	.097	2.46	.014	[.020, .173]
p_prep → ellse3_ms	.256	.151	2.87	.004	[.048, .254]
tses2_se → ellse3_ms	.169	.161	2.84	.005	[.050, .273]
tses3_is → ellse3_ms	.664	.492	10.44	< .001	[.399, .584]

Note. Unstand. = Unstandardized; CI = Confidence Interval; Stand. = Standardized.

Table 11

Correlations Among Errors

	ellse1_cm	ellse2_sm	ellse3_ms
ellse1_cm	1		
ellse2_sm	.645	1	
ellse3_ms	.599	.486	1

Moderation Analysis

To test for moderation, the researcher looked at the interaction effect between general teaching self-efficacy and multicultural attitude and whether such an effect is significant in predicting a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. It was hypothesized that teachers with a

more positive multicultural attitude would positively influence, or increase, the correlation between their general teaching self-efficacy and self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. To test this, interaction terms were computed (after centering the other variables) and added to the SEM model (see Table 9 above). There were no significant *p*-values suggesting that multicultural attitude does not moderate the correlation between a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching ELLs and a teacher's general teaching self-efficacy.

It was hypothesized that a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching ELLs can be predicted by total years of teaching experience, highest degree earned, perceived level of preparedness for teaching ELLs, and actual method of preparation for teaching ELLs. According to the final SEM model (Figure 5), only perception of preparation for teaching ELLs was identified as having significant paths to all three factors of the ELLSE Scale.

Summary of Results

This study of self-efficacy adds to the already existing body of research related to this topic. Additionally, the results add a new dimension by exploring whether multicultural attitude moderates the relationship between general teaching self-efficacy and self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. Exploratory factor analysis was used to analyze the ELLSE Scale. Three factors were retained by the researcher. Overall, the ELLSE Scale proved to be a reliable instrument, and the validity of this instrument will be discussed in the next chapter.

Path analysis was conducted to determine whether relationships, if any, exist between the teachers' sense of self-efficacy for teaching ELLs and their general teaching self-efficacy and multicultural attitude. Path analysis allowed for the opportunity to specify the models and the relationships between variables. The results are as follows:

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- General Efficacy in Classroom Management is a significant predictor of Self-efficacy in ELL Classroom Management and Self-efficacy in ELL Student Motivation;

- General Efficacy in Student Engagement is a significant predictor of all three indicator variables for teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs (ELL classroom management, ELL student motivation, and ELL methods and strategies);

- General Efficacy in Instructional Strategies is a significant predictor of Self-efficacy in ELL Methods and Strategies; and

- Multicultural Attitude is a significant predictor of Self-efficacy in ELL Student Motivation.

As previously noted, the results revealed that a teacher's general teaching self-efficacy and a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching ELLs is not influenced, nor moderated by multicultural attitude. Lastly, only the variable *perception of preparation for teaching ELLs* was found to be a significant predictor of a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. Further discussion of these findings, practical and theoretical implications, limitations, and recommendations for future research are provided in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, general teaching self-efficacy, and multicultural attitudes. The study also explored whether teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs could be explained by a set of variables that includes years of teaching experience, highest degree earned, perception of preparedness for teaching ELLs, and actual preparation for teaching ELLs.

Elementary teachers working in one of the largest school districts in the nation completed an online survey aimed at examining their general teaching self-efficacy, self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, and their multicultural attitudes. The survey combined two different validated surveys, the TSES (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001) and the TMAS (Ponterotto et al., 1998), as well as the researcher developed ELLSE Scale. The ELLSE Scale, a modified version of the TSES, was used to measure teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. The research questions are presented and discussed below, followed by discussions of the implications, limitations, and recommendations for future research.

Discussion of Results

Research Question 1

To what degree does a relationship exist between a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching ELLs and a teacher's general teaching self-efficacy?

Before the answer to this research question can be addressed, the measurement of self-efficacy for teaching ELLs must first be discussed. Previous research studies have focused on measuring self-efficacy as it pertains to teaching in general mainstream classrooms (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Bandura, 1997; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Rotter, 1966; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). However, less attention had been paid to self-efficacy when teaching

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culturally and linguistically diverse students, especially ELLs. Due to the lack of instruments available to measure self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, the researcher developed the ELLSE Scale by modifying the short-version of the TSES. During this study, the psychometric properties of the ELLSE Scale were examined.

ELLSE Scale: A measure of self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. The researcher found that modifying the wording of the questions from "students" to "English Language Learners" provided evidence of face validity. Additionally, by correlating the ELLSE Scale with that of the TSES, a previously validated survey administered at the same time with the same sample of participants, convergent validity was established. Furthermore, criterion-related validity was obtained by examining the relationship between how the participants responded on the ELLSE Scale with how the participants responded on the TSES. The factor structure of the ELLSE Scale was then compared to the original TSES.

Factor analysis was conducted to examine if the data fit the three-factor model for the internal structure of the ELLSE Scale. The following three factors emerged: 1) self-efficacy in ELL classroom management, 2) self-efficacy in ELL student motivation, and 3) self-efficacy in ELL methods and strategies. These results were parallel to the factors of the TSES: 1) efficacy in classroom management, 2) efficacy in student engagement, and 3) efficacy in instructional strategies. The results confirm Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2001) identification of a three-factor structure in their previous studies. As previously discussed in Chapter 4, the alpha coefficients for each factor of the ELLSE Scale were as follows: .91 for items related to *self-efficacy in classroom management*; .92 for items related to *self-efficacy in student motivation*; and .85 for items related to *self-efficacy in methods and strategies*. The reliability of the scale was .94 for all 12 items. These results confirmed the reliability of the ELLSE Scale.

Relationship between the ELLSE scale and TSES. The factors from the TSES were found to be strongly correlated with the factors from the ELLSE Scale (see Figure 6). The first factor of the TSES, *efficacy in classroom management*, was positively associated with the following two factors of the ELLSE Scale: *self-efficacy in ELL classroom management* and *self-efficacy in ELL student motivation*. The second factor of the TSES, *efficacy in student engagement*, was positively associated with all three factors of the ELLSE (*self-efficacy in ELL classroom management*, *self-efficacy in student motivation*, and *self-efficacy in ELL methods and strategies*). Lastly, the third factor of the TSES, *efficacy in instructional strategies*, was positively associated with the third factor of the ELLSE, *self-efficacy in ELL methods and strategies*. The relationship between the ELLSE and TSES is shown in Figure 6.
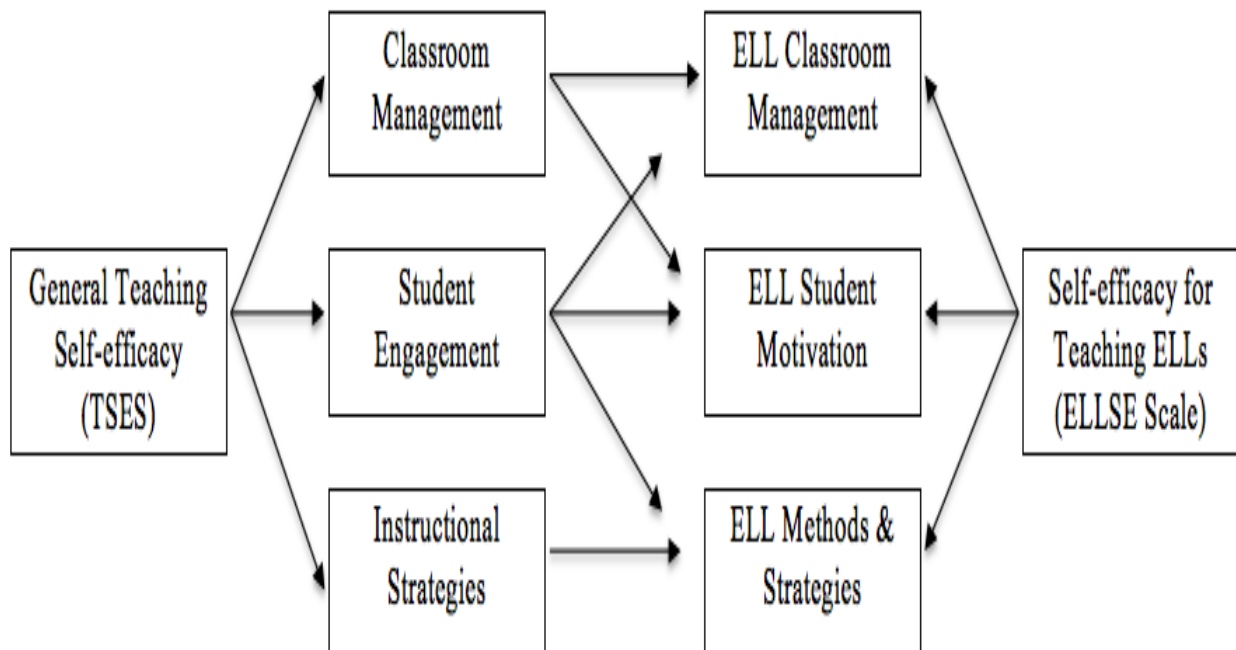

Figure 6. The Relationship Between TSES and ELLSE Scale

Teaching and learning is a complex process, and self-efficacy is critical throughout this process because it influences how a teacher approaches and tackles specific tasks (Bandura, 1977). A difficult challenge faced by many educators is teaching ELLs (López et al., 2013; Walker et al., 2004; Youngs & Youngs, 2001). The relationship between general teaching self-efficacy and self-efficacy for teaching ELLs was established, suggesting that knowing and gauging teachers' general self-efficacy can shed some insight into their self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. However, the direction and nature of this relationship may be difficult to ascertain—can a teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs be high if their general teaching self-efficacy is not high? Regardless, the simple fact that general teaching self-efficacy is highly correlated with self-efficacy for teaching ELLs supports the claim that high quality professional development can positively impact teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs (Echevarria et al., 2007; Sleeter, 2001; Walker & Stone, 2011).

An interesting finding was that the factor identified as *student engagement* on the TSES appeared to be measuring *self-efficacy in ELL student motivation.* This finding is supported by Alizadeh's (2016) study of the impact that motivation has on ELLs and teachers important role in increasing students' motivation in the classroom. Furthermore, Good and Brophy (1994) asserted that motivation cannot be developed in a difficult classroom and that efforts should be made by teachers to create a learning environment that will motivate ELLs to engage and participate with their teacher and classmates.

Based on the discussion and evidence provided above, the results indicated a strong relationship between a teacher's general teaching self-efficacy and a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching ELLs.

Research Question 2

To what degree does a relationship exist between a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching ELLs and a teacher's multicultural attitude?

According to the final SEM model, teachers' multicultural attitude was only positively associated with one factor related to the ELLSE Scale (self-efficacy in ELL student motivation) and a weak correlation with the other two factors (self-efficacy in ELL classroom management and self-efficacy in ELL methods and strategies). Studies have found that ELLs need that extra motivation to persevere in difficult situations (Alizadeh, 2016; Echevarria et al, 2007; Good & Brophy, 1994). The findings support the need for continued professional development focused on increasing teachers' cultural awareness and sensitivity so that they can understand what drives and motivates their students to participate, to learn, and to succeed. Empirically, however, these results may suggest that more focus should be placed on knowledge and skills, rather than on teachers' dispositions and attitudes. Furthermore, many stakeholders may place less emphasis and focus on improving multicultural attitudes as a result of these findings, warranting further discussion. However, the study of teachers working in CCSD has demonstrated otherwise. This begs the question, "Is there something unique about this group, of mostly White and female participants, in which multicultural attitude played a less significant role in affecting their self-efficacy when teaching ELLs?"

For pragmatic reasons, participants were recruited from only one school district in the southwestern part of the United States for this study. Despite the diverse population of the city of Las Vegas, the demographics of teachers in CCSD reflect national trends in that a majority of the teachers were White. Additionally, 61% of the participants have earned a masters degree or higher. Also noteworthy was that 65.03% were over the age of 40. Yet, regardless of the fact that

the participants in this study were overwhelmingly White (67.8%) and female (84%), the results

indicated an overall positive multicultural attitude as indicated by the overall mean of 4.03 ($SD =$

.44) on the TMAS. The mean indicated a general response of *agree* on the 5-point Likert-type

scale. Perhaps being constantly surrounded by diversity in both their personal and professional

lives has placed less weight on the role that multicultural attitudes play in teachers' confidence

and self-efficacy when teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students. CCSD teachers'

positive multicultural attitude may be attributed to their advanced age, education and

experiences, and in turn, have less impact on their self-efficacy when teaching ELLs.

The results of the present study also suggest the relationship of multicultural attitudes to

self-efficacy may be more complicated than what is represented in extant literature. They also

seem to contradict previous claims that improving multicultural attitudes may help teachers work

more effectively with ELLs. It may be that the TMAS, the instrument used to measure

multicultural attitudes, measured a much broader spectrum of constructs related to

multiculturalism. For example, attitudes can be viewed as general positive or negative feelings

and perceptions towards people, objects, or concepts that can be a factor that motivates and

guides a person's behavior (Walker et al., 2004). Yet, multicultural attitudes are broad and can

encompass several other constructs, such as cultural awareness and cultural sensitivity. It can

also be argued that multicultural attitude is only one of several components (i.e. awareness,

knowledge, skills) that make up of *cultural competency*. Therefore, it is likely that the TMAS

does not measure the appropriate construct for impacting self-efficacy for teaching ELLs.

Research Question 3

Is the relationship, if any, between a teacher's general teaching self-efficacy and a

teacher's self-efficacy for teaching ELLs influenced, or moderated, by multicultural attitude?

As noted above, a relationship was established between teachers' general teaching self-efficacy and their self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. The researcher expected that the relationship between general teaching self-efficacy and self-efficacy for teaching ELLs was influenced, or moderated, by multicultural attitude. Therefore, it was expected that the correlation between the TSES and ELLSE would be stronger for teachers with higher scores on the TMAS. To test this, interaction terms were calculated (after centering) and incorporated into the initial SEM model.

Ultimately, all interaction items and paths were removed after the interaction items were not found to be significant ($p > .05$). The results indicated that multicultural attitude did not influence the correlation between general teaching self-efficacy and self-efficacy for teaching ELLs as expected. In other words, the relationship between a teacher's general teaching self-efficacy and self-efficacy for teaching ELLs is not impacted by a teacher's multicultural attitude. This seems to contradict previous assertions by experts such as Ladson-Billings (1995) who argued that in order for all students to have equitable access to education, it is important for teachers to have positive attitudes towards multiculturalism. Though the results seem to point out self-efficacy for teachers is driven by having the knowledge and skills to effectively teach, regardless of their attitudes and beliefs towards multiculturalism. Interestingly, a question on the TMAS asked participants to indicate to what degree they agreed or disagreed with the following statement: *Sometimes I think there is too much emphasis placed on multicultural awareness and training for teachers*. Surprisingly, a majority (60.99%) of the participants agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

While these results offer evidence that multicultural attitude does not serve as a moderator between general teaching self-efficacy and self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, it contradicts past research that found teachers' lack of cultural awareness and sensitivity as

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serving as barriers in the education ELLs. Gay (2010) argued that multicultural attitudes were critical for teachers when teaching students from cultures other than their own. Experts agreed that positive attitudes towards multiculturalism are fueled by self-awareness and self-examination of one's own beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions regarding ELLs (Islam & Park, 2015; Nieto & Bode, 2012). Furthermore, previous research has shown that the lack of understanding of the impacts of cultural diversity was correlated to a disconnect between teachers' and students' home cultures and community contexts (Emdin, 2016; Gay, 2010; Walker et al, 2004). Lastly, Walker et al. (2004) found that teacher attitudes towards ELLs differ by community context.

Based on past teaching experiences in CCSD, in other culturally diverse geographic locations, and in rural, homogenous Midwestern towns, it may be that the relationship between multicultural attitude and self-efficacy for teaching ELLs exists depends largely on context and location. Walker et al. (2004) argued that residents in small rural communities may have limited exposure and interactions with diverse populations which can "translate into community misunderstanding and fear" (p. 133) and that the negative attitudes carryover to its schools and teachers. Furthermore, they posited that schools in rural areas "by nature of their traditional homogeneity, are less experienced in implementing multicultural education approaches" (p. 133). Teachers' instructional practices and treatment of students are shaped by their perceptions and experiences. In this case, multicultural attitude did not moderate the relationship between general teaching self-efficacy and self-efficacy for teaching ELLs which may likely be due to CCSD's strong emphasis on district-wide ELL training for their teachers. While conducting this study, the researcher discovered that preparing and training teachers to meet the needs of ELLs was a high priority for CCSD. For instance, CCSD developed and approved its *ELL Master Plan*

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in 2016, which identified evidence-based principles and objectives of effective ELL instruction. The plan requires mandatory attendance in professional development and district personnel will "provide high-quality and ongoing support to increase all educators' understanding of pedagogical principles and practices" (Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment Unit, 2019, p. 1). So teachers who currently work in CCSD are likely to have participated in professional development and training in working with ELLs, affecting the results of this study.

Although teacher's multicultural attitudes were not found to influence the relationship between general teaching self-efficacy and self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, it may be difficult to recognize the empirical data of this study based on previous research conducted within different contexts, in varying school districts, and across diverse regions in the United States. In any case, it appears that the relationship between teachers' multicultural attitudes and their readiness to work with ELLs is more complicated than previously thought.

Research Question 4

Can a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching ELLs be explained by variables that include total years of teaching experience, highest degree earned, perceived level of preparedness for teaching ELLs, and actual of preparation for teaching ELLs?

The four demographic and background variables were included in the initial SEM model. Of the four variables, only one variable was found to be statistically significant in impacting self-efficacy for teaching ELLs: *perception of preparedness for teaching ELLs*. *Perception of preparedness for teaching ELLS* was highly correlated with all three factors of the ELLSE Scale (self-efficacy in ELL classroom management, self-efficacy in ELL student motivation, and self-efficacy in ELL methods and strategies). The correlation between these variables were positive, which indicates that positive perceptions of preparedness for teaching ELLs are associated with

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higher levels of self-efficacy for teaching ELLs in terms. In other words, teachers who perceive their professional development or training in teaching ELLs to be adequate or exceptional tend to feel more confident in their abilities to teach ELLs. Although the argument can be made that teachers' perceptions of professional development will become more positive as their self-efficacy for teaching ELLs increases, the direction of the path shows perception of preparedness as a predictor of a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. These results confirm Bandura's (1986, 1997) assertion that one way to increase self-efficacy beliefs is through experiences provided by social models (i.e. coaching, mentoring, and professional development). The results also suggest that elementary teachers who perceived their preparation for teaching ELLs to be high tended to have a higher level of confidence for teaching ELLs with regards to being able to manage, motivate, and implement effective strategies when working with ELLs. This finding also supports Bandura's (1986, 1997) assertion that *mastery experiences* was the most influential of the four sources (mastery experiences, social modeling, social persuasion, and states of physiology) from which self-efficacy is increased.

The results also provide further evidence that teacher perceptions of their preparation are critical when teaching ELLs. Darling-Hammond and Youngs (2002) found that approximately half of the teachers (53%) felt very well or even moderately well prepared to meet the needs of ELLs, and 17% felt not at all prepared. Whereas, this study found that 7.17% of the participants perceived their current level of preparedness for teaching ELLs as less than adequate, approximately 81% of the participants described their preparation for teaching ELLs as adequate or more than adequate, and nearly 11% of the participants rated their preparation as exceptional. In terms of actual preparation, only 4.48% of the participants indicated that they had no prior preparation for teaching ELLs, while 95% of the participants had some form of actual

preparation for teaching ELLs (i.e. professional development, SIOP training, ELL certification, endorsement).

For the purpose of this study, the research chose to examine years of teaching experience, highest degree earned, perceived perception of preparedness ELLs, and actual method of preparation for teaching ELLs because other researchers have found that demographic and background variables rarely have an impact on self-efficacy. The results of this study support this. Nonetheless, the list of factors included in this model was not exhaustive, and there are other demographic and background factors that could impact the self-efficacy for teaching ELLs and potentially help explain the results including, but not limited to, gender, race/ethnicity, location of school district (e.g. rural, urban, suburban), teachers' fluency in another language, and route to teacher licensure (e.g. alternative certification v. traditional teacher education program).

Implications

In light of this study, there are several implications for school district personnel, principals, inservice teachers, preservice teachers, and TPP educators, to consider. Providing evidence for the validity of the ELLSE Scale also has significant practical implications to teachers and researchers in the teaching field as there is a scarcity of self-efficacy measures available for teaching this particular group of students.

According to Bandura (1977), explicit modeling and mastery leads to increased self-efficacy in various contexts. For school administrators, this study may provide guidance in understanding how to support teachers when planning and developing professional development opportunities and trainings. This study supports the notion that teachers' beliefs are more likely

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to increase as they gain the knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed to effectively educate ELLs.

Additionally, the results of this study can provide motivation to district personnel, administrators, and principals across the nation to place a higher priority on and set aside funding for quality professional development and trainings focused on teaching ELLs. Echevarria et al. (2007) found that 41% of public school teachers taught ELLs, but fewer than 13% of these teachers had eight or more hours of preparation for teaching ELLs. In contrast, the district in which the study was conducted already places a high priority on ELL training for their teachers, as evidenced by their adoption of the *Clark County School District Master Plan for English Language Learner Success*, a long-range plan developed by various stakeholders. The findings of this study support and place a strong emphasis on the need for continued professional development and training that would provide teachers with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions for teaching culturally and linguistically diverse student populations. The ongoing trainings could assist in changing teacher perceptions, stressing the importance of understanding cultural diversity, promoting reflection, challenging teachers to confront their biases and, in turn, increasing their confidence in their abilities to meet the needs of ELLs. The finding that general teaching self-efficacy is a predictor of self-efficacy for teaching ELLs suggests that TPPs and school districts should consider developing programs that strengthen the overall knowledge, skills and dispositions of teachers.

This study is critical in understanding the factors that affect teacher's confidence levels and attitudes. Addressing these factors may help in closing the achievement gap between ELLs and their native English-speaking peers because the results highlight the need for molding teachers into competent, confident educators by providing the necessary focused assistance and

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support. In the literature on self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, many contributing factors have been identified, and researchers have made significant claims that self-efficacy affects experiences and education, but not by age, ethnicity or degree. Yet, there is limited empirical evidence to support this claim.

For TPPs, the study may assist faculty and college administrators in identifying what areas to focus on when preparing preservice teachers in meeting the needs of ELLs. Furthermore, the results may provide pertinent information to help strengthen the curricula in TPPs to ensure that future teachers are better prepared and trained to meet the educational needs of ELLs. Participation in coursework focused specifically on the needs of ELLs may provide preservice teachers a glimpse into future demands of the teaching profession within the context of a changing landscape and demographic changes.

Overall, this study sheds light into how teachers' self-efficacy plays an integral role in influencing important academic outcomes and what various entities can do to support them. This study emphasized the need for TPPs and administrators (e.g. district personnel, principals) to take the necessary steps incorporate opportunities, such as additional coursework or workshops, to strengthen a teacher's self-efficacy for teaching in general, which in turn, would positively impact their self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. Last, but not least, the study may assist school administrators and principals in understanding how to support teachers and, in turn, raise student achievement to close the achievement gap.

Limitations

Although most limitations were considered when the study was conceptualized, there were several limitations beyond the researcher's control worth noting. Due to the nature of survey research, self-reported data was the primary source of data collected for analysis. When

using self-reported data, response bias may occur. The researcher must assume that the participants will respond honestly to the survey items. Additionally, social desirability bias is a concern associated with self-reports, especially on questionnaires. Since many questions on the questionnaire attempt to gauge the perceptions of teachers on a sensitive topic, the reported information may not provide an accurate assessment of their cultural awareness or self-efficacy for teaching culturally and linguistically diverse students. Teachers may over-report or overemphasize their levels of cultural sensitivity and confidence. Furthermore, teachers who feel that they have negative perceptions towards ELLs may skip or under-report on the questions related to those beliefs. Since this study utilizes a self-reporting survey, there may be certain opinions that teachers would rather not report accurately on a survey (Fowler, 2014). Perhaps participants may feel that the results can be traced back to them and put their jobs in jeopardy if their attitudes or beliefs were deemed unacceptable. Lastly, teachers may not have felt compelled to complete the surveys since it was optional, resulting in only the more committed or engaged teachers completing the survey.

Another limitation was the recruitment process and sample size. The school district required permission and consent from school principals before the survey could be distributed to the teachers in their respective schools. Hence, when principals did not give permission to conduct research at their schools, many teachers were excluded from the study. Of the teachers that were invited to participate in this study, only those who volunteered to be part of the study completed the survey as participation was strictly optional. Lastly, based on the power analysis conducted prior to the research, 366 participants were needed in a study for it to be considered a large enough sample and for the type of analyses used. In the end, only 223 surveys were included in the final analysis. Therefore, the results cannot be generalized with confidence to the

entire elementary teacher population of the school district (Creswell, 2008). Furthermore, the results from the study's statistical analysis may have been affected by the smaller sample of participants.

Another limitation was the generalizability of the results. This study focused on only one specific large urban school district that serves a large number of ELLs. The results may not be generalizable to all elementary school teachers across the United States. As discussed previously, school districts differ in size, demographics (of both its students and teachers), community contexts, and instructional priorities. Therefore, the researcher argues that more studies are needed to examine the perceptions of teacher in different areas, regions, and states. It is also important to note that CCSD is composed of only public and charter schools. Future studies would need to gauge the perceptions and beliefs of teachers working in private, independent, parochial, tribal, and other types of schools. Additionally, schools in rural or suburban areas that serve less diverse student populations should be considered. For example, studies could be conducted to determine if there is a difference in multicultural attitudes and self-efficacy between teachers in urban settings as compared to teachers who work in rural or suburban school districts.

Lastly, this study was limited to quantitative research methods. Association does not necessarily equate to causation. Therefore, collecting qualitative information would enhance or supplement the results of this study. A qualitative approach would be beneficial in exploring teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. Qualitative research methods such as interviews and classroom observations could assist in better understanding the relationships between self-efficacy for teaching ELLs and actual practice. Also, interviewing teachers working in different settings may also shed light into causal factors that may impact self-efficacy for teaching ELLs.

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Recommendations for Future Research

This study, its findings, and review of pertinent literature reveal some potential for future research. There has been a plethora of studies conducted to gauge and measure self-efficacy. More specifically, researchers have made many attempts to explore the self-efficacy of teachers— once described by Tshannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) as an "elusive" construct. However, few studies have examined the self-efficacy of teachers when teaching ELLs, a growing population of students who requires specialized set of knowledge, skills, and dispositions. The results of this study could assist researchers in identifying additional factors that may prepare and support preservice and inservice teachers for teaching ELLs by developing and validating an instrument that can potentially help in measuring this complex construct.

Studies in self-efficacy as it pertains to teaching ELLs is important because, from a social cognitive perspective, people who possess high levels of self-efficacy believe that when they act, they will be rewarded with positive outcomes, leading them to approach certain tasks with a high level of confidence. In contrast, individuals who possess low self-efficacy tend to focus on ineptness and hopelessness, and in turn, engage in avoiding behaviors when difficult tasks are presented. For example, previous studies found that teachers who experienced feelings of incompetence for teaching ELLs often ignored or rejected ELLs in the classroom (Echeverria et al., 2007; Karabenik & Noda, 2004; Reeves, 2006). Therefore, an understanding of teacher's self-efficacy beliefs, regardless of the population of students being taught, is critical and warrants further investigation.

Many experts and researchers believe that faculty working in TPPs fail to prepare preservice teachers to work effectively with culturally and linguistically diverse learners (Gay, 2010; Gorski, 2012; Zeichner, 1992). It is recommended that TPPs conduct needs assessments

for their programs and more opportunities be built into the curriculum and opportunities for preservice teachers to periodically self-evaluate and assess their multicultural attitudes by using tools such as the TMAS. Additionally, the researcher suggests that more opportunities should be provided by TPPs to preservice teachers to continually assess their self-efficacy levels before, during, and after student teaching and other field experiences. If gaps are revealed, both TPPs and individuals could take the necessary steps to address these deficiencies by taking additional courses, participating in workshops, seeking mentorship, or other activities that will positively influence multicultural attitudes or increase self-efficacy for teaching ELLs.

One of the most notable revelations for the researcher was the lack of validated instruments available to measure self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, which led to the analysis, exploration, and use of the ELLSE Scale. The analysis revealed various factors that impact the self-efficacy of teaching ELLs. However, more research is recommended to examine the interactions of these factors and how they affect the education of culturally and linguistically diverse students, specifically ELLs. As with any new self-report instrument, the ELLSE Scale may need further revision based on additional factor analyses across diverse samples of teachers. The researcher recommends administering the ELLSE Scale to a range of teacher samples, both preservice and inservice, to further assess the instrument's reliability, construct validity, and criterion-related validity. In addition to the 12-item ELLSE Scale, the researcher recommends for future researchers to include tests for social desirability contamination.

The question of how teachers develop self-efficacy for teaching ELLs still remains. Based on previous teaching experience, the researcher argues that school districts are in need of teachers who are better prepared and trained for working specifically with ELLs. Although a

strong correlation was found between the TSES and ELLSE Scale, the nature of the relationship between the TSES and ELLSE should be further explored.

Conclusion

Approximately 4.8 million students enrolled in U.S. schools in grades K-12 are limited English proficient (U.S. Department of Education, 2016). The numbers of ELLs enrolled in public schools in the United States will only continue to rise. ELLs continue to be educated in mainstream classrooms without the support needed to ensure that they receive the same educational access and quality of education as their classmates. This study found that teachers with high teacher efficacy continue to feel confident in their teaching abilities, regardless of student demographics. When teachers have a high sense of self-efficacy, they tend to develop rigorous goals, assume responsibility for the outcomes of their actions, and adopt appropriate coping mechanisms to help overcome negative thoughts that could serve as obstacles and hinder performance. Therefore, it is more important now than ever that teachers possess high levels of confidence and self-efficacy, in addition to possessing the necessary knowledge, skills, and dispositions for teaching ELLs, as the chances of having ELLs in their classrooms are high.

This study also highlights the importance for administrators (i.e. district personnel and principals) to provide professional development and training for teachers to meet the unique needs of ELLs. Furthermore, administrators must constantly gauge teacher attitudes and perceptions of ELLs when planning and developing professional development and trainings to assess whether a component of training to address cultural awareness and sensitivity is needed. In a sense, this study has reopened the dialogue about how perceptions of teachers teaching ELLs affect the educational experiences of ELLs. However, more empirical research is needed to directly measure multicultural attitudes, as well as teachers' self-efficacy for teaching ELLs.

This study has contributed to an understanding of how teachers perceive their abilities and confidence in facing the challenges of educating ELLs by identifying attitudes and beliefs that help or hinder the academic achievement of ELLs. Due to the constantly changing landscape of public education in the United States and the increase in immigration, a continued focus on teachers' multicultural attitudes and self-efficacy for teaching ELLs may help to close, or narrow the achievement gap that exists between ELLs and their native speaking classmates.

What started out as a journey to examine whether a teacher's multicultural attitude affects self-efficacy for teaching ELLs has led the researcher to ponder and further explore whether a teacher's general self-efficacy for teaching was related to self-efficacy for teaching ELLs. Without any success in finding an instrument to measure self-efficacy for teaching ELLs, the journey turned into a quest to develop a reliable and valid instrument that would measure this complex construct. The results of this study and the possibility of identifying a useful instrument for measuring self-efficacy for teaching ELLs has the potential to positively impact teachers and the learning outcomes of ELLs in schools across the nation.

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APPENDIX A. IRB APPROVAL

NDSU NORTH DAKOTA STATE UNIVERSITY

February 5, 2020

Dr. Nate Wood
School of Education

Re: IRB Determination of Exempt Human Subjects Research:
Protocol #HE20173, "Examining the Relationship Between Elementary School Teachers' Multicultural Attitudes and Self-efficacy for Teaching English Language Learners"

Co-investigator(s) and research team: Daisy Figueroa
Date of Exempt Determination: 2/5/2020 Expiration Date: 2/4/2023
Study site(s): Clark County School District, Las Vegas, NV
Sponsor: n/a

The above referenced human subjects research project has been determined exempt (category #2(i)) in accordance with federal regulations (Code of Federal Regulations, Title 45, Part 46, Protection of Human Subjects). This determination is based on the original protocol - received 1/30/2020.

Please also note the following:
• If you wish to continue the research after the expiration, submit a request for recertification several weeks prior to the expiration.
• The study must be conducted as described in the approved protocol. Changes to this protocol must be approved prior to initiating, unless the changes are necessary to eliminate an immediate hazard to subjects.
• Notify the IRB promptly of any adverse events, complaints, or unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects or others related to this project.
• Report any significant new findings that may affect the risks and benefits to the participants and the IRB.

Research records may be subject to a random or directed audit at any time to verify compliance with IRB standard operating procedures.

Thank you for your cooperation with NDSU IRB procedures. Best wishes for a successful study.
Sincerely,

Kristy Shirley

Kristy Shirley, CIP, Research Compliance Administrator

For more information regarding IRB Office submissions and guidelines, please consult https://www.ndsu.edu/research/for_researchers/research_integrity_and_compliance/institutional_review_board_irb/. This Institution has an approved FederalWide Assurance with the Department of Health and Human Services: FWA00002439.

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
NDSU Dept 4000 | PO Box 6050 | Fargo ND 58108-6050 | 701.231.8995 | Fax 701.231.8098 | ndsu.edu/irb

Shipping address: Research 1, 1735 NDSU Research Park Drive, Fargo ND 58102

NDSU is an EO/AA university.

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APPENDIX B. APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN DISTRICT

Assessment, Accountability, Research, and School Improvement

4212 Eucalyptus Ave • LAS VEGAS, NV 89121 • (702) 799-1041 • FAX (702) 799-8255

CCSD

CLARK COUNTY SCHOOL DISTRICT

February 20, 2020

Daisy Figueroa:

The Research Review Committee of the Clark County School District has reviewed your request titled: *Examining the Relationship Between Elementary School Teachers' Multicultural Attitudes and Self-efficacy for Teaching English Language Learners #490.* The committee is pleased to inform you that your proposal has been approved with the following provisos:

1. Participation is strictly and solely on a voluntary basis.
2. Provide letter of acceptance from any additional principals who agree to be involved with the study.

This research protocol is approved for a period of one school year from the approval date. The expiration of this protocol is 6/30/2020. If the use of human subjects described in the referenced protocol will continue beyond the expiration date, you must provide a letter requesting an extension. The letter must indicate whether there will be any modifications to the original protocol. If there is any change to the protocol, it will be necessary to request additional approval for such change(s) in writing to the Research Review Committee.

If there is any chance the researcher will be alone with students, a volunteer application must be completed with the CCSD Human Resources Division. Please refer to the website https://www.ccsd.net/community/protect-our-kids/ or call Human Resources at 702-799-2273 with any questions.

Please provide a copy of your research findings to this office upon completion. We look forward to the results. If you have any questions or require assistance, please do not hesitate to contact this office at (702) 799-1041 option 4, or e-mail at eugenk@nv.ccsd.net

Sincerely,

Kate Eugenis, PhD
Coordinator III, Research Department

Main Office: 5100 WEST SAHARA AVENUE • LAS VEGAS, NEVADA 89146 • TELEPHONE (702) 799-CCSD (2273)

APPENDIX C. INITIAL EMAIL

From: Daisy Figueroa
To: Principal
Subject: Assistance Requested for Research Study

Dear Principal,

I am writing to request your assistance in recruiting participants to complete a survey for my research study. **I am asking for you to forward an invitation email, which you will receive shortly, to all K-6 teachers at your school.** The email will include the link to my survey. The survey has been approved by the Assessment, Accountability, Research and School Improvement (AARSI) Division of the Clark County School District (CCSD).

I am interested in examining factors that impact the education of English Language Learners (ELLs). The information gathered from this survey will be used to help me examine factors that may have a significant impact on student achievement, as well as identify ways to better prepare and support teachers to meet the needs of English Language Learners.

All elementary teachers (K-6) in the Clark County School District (CCSD) are invited to participate in a voluntary, anonymous, web-based survey. It should take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. More information about the study is available by following the link below.

Survey link: ***link to Qualtrics survey will be inserted here***

Please feel free to contact me at daisy.figueroa@ndsu.edu or ████████ with any questions or concerns. Thank you in advance for taking the time to forward my survey to your teachers.

Sincerely,

Daisy Figueroa
Graduate Student/Co-investigator
daisy.figueroa@ndsu.edu

APPENDIX D. INVITATION EMAIL

From: Daisy Figueroa
To: Principal
Subject: Invitation to Participate in Research Study (To be forwarded to K-6 teachers)

In an earlier email message, I requested that you forward the message below to all K-6 teachers in your school:

Dear K-6 Teachers,

I have asked your principal to forward this message to you and all of the other K-6 teachers in your school. I am asking for 10-15 minutes of your time to complete a voluntary, anonymous, online survey related to teaching English Language Learners. I hope that you will consider assisting my research project in this way.

I am interested in examining factors that impact the education of English Language Learners (ELLs). The information gathered from this survey will be used to help me examine factors that may have a significant impact on student achievement, as well as identify ways to better prepare and support teachers to meet the needs of English Language Learners (more details about the study are available by following the link below).

*Survey link: **link to Qualtrics survey will be inserted here***

My survey has been approved by the Assessment, Accountability, Research and School Improvement (AARSI) Division of the Clark County School District (CCSD). Feel free to contact me at daisy.figueroa@ndsu.edu or ██████████ with any questions or concerns.

Thank you in advance for your time,

Daisy Figueroa
Graduate Student/Co-investigator
daisy.figueroa@ndsu.edu

APPENDIX E. FOLLOW-UP EMAIL

From: Daisy Figueroa
To: Principal
Subject: Follow-up Regarding Study About Teaching ELLs

This is a follow-up to the request I had asked you to forward to your teachers last week. Please forward this email to all of the teachers in your school. Thank you for your support and assistance.

Dear K-6 Teachers:

There is still time to complete the survey. The more teachers participate, the better our results will reflect teachers in CCSD overall.

The anonymous, online survey will only take about 10-15 minutes to complete. Responses to this survey will help me examine factors that may have a significant impact on the education of English Language Learners (ELLs), as well as identify ways to better prepare teachers to meet the needs of ELLs. You can find more information about the research study by following the link below.

Survey link: **link to Qualtrics survey will be inserted here**

The survey has been approved by the Assessment, Accountability, and Research & School Improvement (AARSI) Division of the Clark County School District (CCSD). Please feel free to contact me at daisy.figueroa@ndsu.edu or ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮ with any questions or concerns.

Sincerely,

Daisy Figueroa
Graduate Student/Co-Investigator
daisy.figueroa@ndsu.edu

APPENDIX F. REMINDER EMAIL

From: Daisy Figueroa
To: Principal
Subject: Follow-up Regarding Study About Teaching ELLs

Dear Principal,

This is a final reminder about the survey I had asked you to forward to your teachers two weeks ago. I hope that you will forward this reminder to all of the teachers in your school, as there is still time to complete the survey. Responses to this survey will help me examine factors that may have a significant impact on the education of English Language Learners (ELLs), as well as identify ways to better prepare and support teachers in meeting the needs of ELLs.

The online survey will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. It is voluntary and anonymous. You can find more information about the research study by following the link below.

Survey link: **link to Qualtrics survey will be inserted here**

The survey has been approved by the Assessment, Accountability, and Research & School Improvement (AARSI) Division of the Clark County School District (CCSD).

Please feel free to contact me at daisy.figueroa@ndsu.edu or ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮ with any questions or concerns.

Sincerely,

Daisy Figueroa
Graduate Student/Co-Investigator
daisy.figueroa@ndsu.edu

APPENDIX G. INFORMED CONSENT

Welcome to our research study! This study is being conducted by Daisy Figueroa, graduate student in the Education Doctoral Program at North Dakota State University (daisy.figueroa@ndsu.edu), under the supervision of her advisor, Dr. Nathan Wood, Associate Professor in the School of Education (nathan.wood@ndsu.edu).

We are conducting a research project to examine the relationship between teachers' multicultural attitudes and how they may impact their self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners. It is our hope that with this research, we will learn more about how to better support and prepare teachers for working with English Language Learners.

Because you are an elementary (K-6) teacher working in the Clark County School District, you are invited to take part in this research project. Your participation is entirely your choice, and you may change your mind or quit participating at any time, with no penalty to you. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to complete a brief survey regarding your perceptions and experiences teaching in the classroom and working with English Language Learners.

It is not possible to identify all potential risks in research procedures, but we have taken reasonable safeguards to minimize any known risks. Since there is no identifying information associated with your responses on the survey (i.e., name, email address, location, etc.) the only potential risk appears to be the possibility that other people near you may be able to see your responses on your screen. For this reason, we ask that you complete the survey on a device (e.g. computer, tablet, or cell phone) and in a setting that ensures your privacy to your comfort level. You may cease participating in the survey at any point in time.

While you may not experience any direct benefit from being in this research study, your responses will assist in identifying ways to best meet the educational needs of English Language Learners.

The survey should take approximately 10-15 minutes. Please be assured that your responses will be kept completely confidential.

This study is anonymous. This means that no one, not even members of the research team, will know that the information you give comes from you.

You can direct questions to any research team member (listed at the top of this page) at any time – before you begin, while you are taking the survey, or at any time after you finish.

You have rights as a participant in research. If you have questions about your rights or complaints about this research, you may talk to the researchers or contact the NDSU Human Research Protection Program at (701) 231-8995 or toll-free (855) 800-6717, by email at ndsu.irb@ndsu.edu, or by mail at NDSU HRPP Office, NDSU Dept. 4000, P.O. Box 6050, Fargo, ND, 58108-6050.

Documentation of Informed Consent:
By selecting "I consent to participate in this study," you are freely making a decision whether to be in this research study and indicating your agreement with the following:
1. You have read and understood this consent form,
2. You have had your questions answered, and
3. You have decided to take part in the study.

Teacher Beliefs & Perceptions

Q1 Welcome to our research study! This study is being conducted by Daisy Figueroa, graduate student in the Education Doctoral Program at North Dakota State University (daisy.figueroa@ndsu.edu), under the supervision of her advisor, Dr. Nathan Wood, Associate Professor in the School of Education (nathan.wood@ndsu.edu).

We are conducting a research project to examine teachers' multicultural attitudes and how they may impact their self-efficacy for teaching English Language Learners. It is our hope that with this research, we will learn more about how to better support and prepare teachers for working with English Language Learners.

Because you are an elementary (K-6) teacher working in the Clark County School District, you are invited to take part in this research project. Your participation is entirely your choice. You may change your mind or quit participating at any time, with no penalty to you. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to complete a brief survey regarding your perceptions and experiences teaching in the classroom and working with English Language Learners.

It is not possible to identify all potential risks in research procedures, but we have taken reasonable safeguards to minimize any known risks. Since there is no identifying information associated with your responses on the survey (i.e., name, email address, location, etc.) the only potential risk appears to be the possibility that other people near you may be able to see your responses on your screen. For this reason, we ask that you complete the survey on a device (e.g. computer, tablet, or cell phone) and in a setting that ensures your privacy to your comfort level. You may cease participating in the survey at any point in time.

While you may not experience any direct benefit from being in this research study, your responses will assist in identifying ways to best meet the educational needs of English Language Learners.

The survey should take approximately 10-15 minutes. Please be assured that your responses will be kept completely confidential. This study is anonymous. This means that no one, not even members of the research team, will know that the information you give comes from you.

You can direct questions to any research team member (listed at the top of this page) at any time – before you begin, while you are taking the survey, or at any time after you finish.

You have rights as a participant in research. If you have questions about your rights or complaints about this research, you may talk to the researchers or contact the NDSU Human Research Protection Program at (701) 231-8995 or toll-free (855) 800-6717, by email at ndsu.irb@ndsu.edu, or by mail at NDSU HRPP Office, NDSU Dept. 4000, P.O. Box 6050, Fargo, ND, 58108-6050.

Page 1 of 13

Documentation of Informed Consent:
By selecting "I consent to participate in this study," you are freely making a decision whether to be in this research study and indicating your agreement with the following:
1. You have read and understood this consent form,
2. You have had your questions answered, and
3. You have decided to take part in the study.

○ I consent to participate in this study. Begin the study.

○ I do not consent. I do not wish to participate.

- -

Q2 Grade level of students you are currently teaching:

○ Kindergarten

○ 1st grade

○ 2nd grade

○ 3rd grade

○ 4th grade

○ 5th grade

○ 6th grade

○ Multiple grades in K-6

○ I don't teach students in K-6.

End of Block: Default Question Block

Start of Block: EFFIC_TCH

Q3 Teacher Beliefs: The following questions are designed to help gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create difficulties for teachers in their school activities. Please indicate your opinion about each of the statements below. Your answers are confidential.

	(1) Nothing	(3) Very Little	(5) Some Influence	(7) Quite A Bit	(9) A Great Deal
How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	○	○	○	○	○
How much can you do to motivate students who show little interest in school work?	○	○	○	○	○
How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	○	○	○	○	○
How much can you do to help your students value learning?	○	○	○	○	○
To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	○	○	○	○	○
How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	○	○	○	○	○
How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	○	○	○	○	○
How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	○	○	○	○	○

How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	○ (1) Nothing	○ (3) Very Little	○ (5) Some Influence	○ (7) Quite A Bit	○ (9) A Great Deal
To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	○ (1) Nothing	○ (3) Very Little	○ (5) Some Influence	○ (7) Quite A Bit	○ (9) A Great Deal
How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	○ (1) Nothing	○ (3) Very Little	○ (5) Some Influence	○ (7) Quite A Bit	○ (9) A Great Deal
How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	○ (1) Nothing	○ (3) Very Little	○ (5) Some Influence	○ (7) Quite A Bit	○ (9) A Great Deal

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Q4 **Teaching English Language Learners:** The following questions are designed to help gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create difficulties for teachers when teaching **English Language Learners**. Please indicate your opinion about each of the statements below. Your answers are confidential.

How much can you do to control disruptive behavior of **English Language Learners** in the classroom?	○ Nothing (1)	○ Very Little (3)	○ Some Influence (5)	○ Quite a Bit (7)	○ A Great Deal (9)
How much can you do to motivate **English Language Learners** who show little interest in school work?	○ Nothing (1)	○ Very Little (3)	○ Some Influence (5)	○ Quite a Bit (7)	○ A Great Deal (9)
How much can you do to get **English Language Learners** to believe they can do well in school work?	○ Nothing (1)	○ Very Little (3)	○ Some Influence (5)	○ Quite a Bit (7)	○ A Great Deal (9)
How much can you do to help **English Language Learners** value learning?	○ Nothing (1)	○ Very Little (3)	○ Some Influence (5)	○ Quite a Bit (7)	○ A Great Deal (9)
To what extent can you craft good questions for your **English Language Learners**?	○ Nothing (1)	○ Very Little (3)	○ Some Influence (5)	○ Quite a Bit (7)	○ A Great Deal (9)
How much can you do to get **English Language Learners** to follow classroom rules?	○ Nothing (1)	○ Very Little (3)	○ Some Influence (5)	○ Quite a Bit (7)	○ A Great Deal (9)

How much can you do to calm an **English Language Learner** who is disruptive or noisy?	○ Nothing (1)	○ Very Little (3)	○ Some Influence (5)	○ Quite a Bit (7)	○ A Great Deal (9)
How well can you establish a classroom management system with **English Language Learners**?	○ Nothing (1)	○ Very Little (3)	○ Some Influence (5)	○ Quite a Bit (7)	○ A Great Deal (9)
How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies for **English Language Learners**?	○ Nothing (1)	○ Very Little (3)	○ Some Influence (5)	○ Quite a Bit (7)	○ A Great Deal (9)
To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when **English Language Learners** are confused?	○ Nothing (1)	○ Very Little (3)	○ Some Influence (5)	○ Quite a Bit (7)	○ A Great Deal (9)
How much can you assist families of **English Language Learners** in helping their children do well in school?	○ Nothing (1)	○ Very Little (3)	○ Some Influence (5)	○ Quite a Bit (7)	○ A Great Deal (9)
How well can you implement alternative strategies for **English Language Learners** in your classroom?	○ Nothing (1)	○ Very Little (3)	○ Some Influence (5)	○ Quite a Bit (7)	○ A Great Deal (9)

End of Block: EFFIC_ELL

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Q5 Multiculturalism: Indicate how much you disagree or agree with each of the following statements

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
I find teaching a culturally diverse student group rewarding.	○	○	○	○	○
Teaching methods need to be adapted to meet the needs of a culturally diverse student group.	○	○	○	○	○
Sometimes I think there is too much emphasis placed on multicultural awareness and training for teachers.	○	○	○	○	○
Teachers have the responsibility to be aware of their students' cultural backgrounds.	○	○	○	○	○
I frequently invite extended family members (e.g., cousins, grandparents, godparents, etc.) to attend parent teacher conferences.	○	○	○	○	○
It is not the teacher's responsibility to encourage pride in one's culture.	○	○	○	○	○

As classrooms become more culturally diverse the teacher's job becomes increasingly challenging.

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

I believe the teacher's role needs to be redefined to address the needs of students from culturally diverse backgrounds.

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

When dealing with bilingual students, some teachers may misinterpret different communication styles as behavioral problems.

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

As classrooms become more culturally diverse, the teacher's job becomes increasingly rewarding.

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

I can learn a great deal from students with culturally different backgrounds.

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

Multicultural training for teachers is not necessary.

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

In order to be an effective teacher, one needs to be aware of

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

cultural differences present in the classroom.

Multicultural awareness training can help me work more effectively with a diverse population.

○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○

Students should learn to communicate in English only.

○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○

Today's curriculum gives undue importance to multiculturalism and diversity.

○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○

I am aware of the diversity of cultural backgrounds in my classroom.

○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○

Regardless of the racial and ethnic makeup of my class, it is important for all students to be aware of multicultural diversity.

○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○

Being multiculturally aware is not relevant for the subject I teach.

○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○

Teaching students about cultural diversity will only create conflict in the classroom.

○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○　　　　○

X→

Q6 Gender

○ Male

○ Female

○ Other

○ Prefer not to answer

- -

Q7 Age (years):

○ 20-24

○ 25-29

○ 30-34

○ 35-39

○ 40-44

○ 45-49

○ 50-54

○ 55-59

○ 60 or older

- -

Q8 Race/Ethnicity:

○ Caucasian (White), Non-Hispanic

○ Hispanic or Latino

○ Black or African American

○ American Indian or Alaskan Native

○ Asian

○ Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander

○ Multiple (please specify) _____

○ Other (please specify) _____

- -

Q9 How would you rate your current level of preparedness for teaching English Language Learners?

○ Less than adequate

○ Adequate

○ More than adequate

○ Exceptional

- -

Q10 Which of the following methods of preparation for teaching English Language Learners have you had?

○ None

○ Professional Development/Training in SIOP

○ Supplemental ELL certification/endorsements

○ Both supplemental ELL certification/endorsements and Professional Development/Training in SIOP

○ Other _____

Q11 Including the current school year, how many total years of teaching experience do you have?

▼ Less than 1 ... 20+

Q12 Including the current school year, how many years have you worked **in the Clark County School District?**

▼ Less than 1 ... 20+

Q13 Highest Degree Earned:

○ Bachelors degree (B.A. or B.S.)

○ Masters degree (M.A., M.S. or M.Ed.)

○ Doctorate (Ph.D. or Ed.D.)

○ Other _____

End of Block: BKGD_DEMO

APPENDIX I. PERMISSION TO USE TMAS

Re: Request for Permission to Use TMAS in Study

JOSEPH Ponterotto [Staff/Faculty [GSE]] <​███████████████​>

Fri 5/31/2019 12:39 PM

To:Figueroa, Daisy <daisy.figueroa@vcsu.edu>;

Yes Daisy,
Of course you have my permission to use the TMAS in your timely and important study! Looking forward to your results!
Dr. Ponterotto

Sent from my iPhone

On May 31, 2019, at 12:53 PM, Figueroa, Daisy <daisy.figueroa@vcsu.edu> wrote:
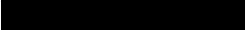
Dear Dr. Ponterotto:

My name is Daisy Figueroa, and I am a doctoral student from North Dakota State University. I am currently writing my dissertation entitled, "EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CULTURAL COMPETENCY, LEVEL OF PREPARATION, AND TEACHERS' SENSE OF SELF-EFFICACY FOR TEACHING ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS."

I would like your permission to use your survey/questionnaire instrument, the Teacher Multicultural Attitude Survey (TMAS) in my research study. I would like to use and print your survey under the following conditions (per your Utilization Request form):

1. I understand that the TMAS is copyrighted by Joseph G. Ponterotto (Ph.D.) at the Division of Psychological and Educational Services, Fordham University at Lincoln Center, 113 West 60 Street, New York, New York 10023-7478 ███████████████████████
2. I am a trained professional in counseling, psychology, or a related field, having completed coursework (or training) in multicultural issues, psychometrics, and research ethics, or I am working under the supervision of such an individual.
3. In using the TMAS, all ethical standards of the American Psychological Association, the American Counseling Association, and/or related professional organizations will be adhered to. Furthermore, I will follow the "Research with Human Subjects" guidelines put forth by my university, institution, or professional setting. Ethical considerations include but are not limited to subject informed consent, confidentiality of records, adequate pre- and post-briefing of subjects, and subject opportunity to review a concise written summary of the study's purpose, method, results, and implications.
4. Consistent with accepted professional practice, I will save and protect my raw data for a minimum of five years; and if requested I will make the raw data available to scholars researching the prejudice construct.

APPENDIX J. PERMISSION TO USE TSES

Re: Permission to Use TSES in Research Study

Anita Woolfolk Hoy

Fri 5/31/2019 3:36 PM

To:Figueroa, Daisy <daisy.figueroa@vcsu.edu>;

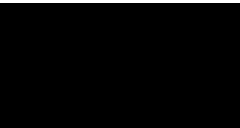You are welcome to use the TSES in your research as you describe below. This website might be helpful to you:

http://u.osu.edu/hoy.17/research/instruments/

Best wishes in your work.

Anita

ANITA WOOLFOLK HOY, PHD
PROFESSOR EMERITA
THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY
7655 PEBBLE CREEK CIRCLE, UNIT 301

NAPLES, FL 34108

On May 31, 2019, at 2:18 PM, Figueroa, Daisy <daisy.figueroa@vcsu.edu> wrote:

Dear Dr. Tschannen-Moran and Dr. Hoy:

My name is Daisy Figueroa, and I am a doctoral student from North Dakota State University. I am currently writing my dissertation entitled, "EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN CULTURAL COMPETENCY, LEVEL OF PREPARATION, AND TEACHERS' SENSE OF SELF-EFFICACY FOR TEACHING ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS."

I would like your permission to use your survey/questionnaire instrument, the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), in my research study. If you are willing to grant your permission, please indicate so by replying to me through e-mail at daisy.figueroa@ndus.edu or simply replying to this email request. Thank you in advance for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Daisy Figueroa
Doctoral Candidate

William & Mary
School of Education

MEGAN TSCHANNEN-MORAN, PHD
PROFESSOR OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

June 1, 2019

Daisy,

You have my permission to use the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (formerly called the Ohio State Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale), which I developed with Anita Woolfolk Hoy, in your research.

You can find a copy of the measure and scoring directions on my web site at http://wmpeople.wm.edu/site/page/mxtsch .

Please use the following as the proper citation:

> Tschannen-Moran, M & Hoy, A. W. (2001). Teacher efficacy: Capturing an elusive construct. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 17*, 783-805.

I will also attach directions you can follow to access my password protected web site, where you can find the supporting references for this measure as well as other articles I have written on this and related topics.

All the best,

Megan Tschannen-Moran
William & Mary School of Education