

ATTITUDES TOWARD BILINGUAL EDUCATION AS PERCEIVED BY HISPANIC
TEACHER CANDIDATES SEEKING BILINGUAL CERTIFICATION: AN
EXPLORATORY INQUIRY

A Dissertation

by

MAYRA LEE PEÑA

BA, University of Texas San Antonio, 1996
BS, University of Texas Health Science Center San Antonio, 1997
MS, Texas A&M International University, 2005

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION

Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi
Corpus Christi, Texas

August 2019

© Mayra Lee Peña

All Rights Reserved

August 2019

ATTITUDES TOWARD BILINGUAL EDUCATION AS PERCEIVED BY HISPANIC
TEACHER CANDIDATES SEEKING BILINGUAL CERTIFICATION: AN
EXPLORATORY INQUIRY

A Dissertation

by

MAYRA LEE PEÑA

This dissertation meets the standards for scope and quality of
Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi and is hereby approved.

Bethanie Pletcher, EdD
Chair

Frank Lucido, EdD
Committee Member

Kamiar Kouzekanani, PhD
Committee Member

Jean Sparks, PhD
Graduate Faculty Representative

August 2019

ABSTRACT

The demographics of the education system are quickly shifting and demonstrating a significant increase in the number of English learners in schools. Due to the exponential growth across the country and the state of Texas, it is evident the linguistic diversity of students is an area of interest to educators and educator preparation programs. Regardless of the type of learner in the bilingual setting, the benefits, or the type of program implemented, it is essential to consider attitudes toward bilingual education. The purpose of this study was to examine the attitudes of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification enrolled in an educator preparation program. In addition, the study sought to examine whether there is a difference in attitudes based on selected demographics, such as knowledge base and field experiences. Theories of second language acquisition from Jim Cummins and Stephen Krashen provide the context for understanding the role of second language acquisition in bilingual education.

The research design for this study was descriptive in nature, using quantitative methods to assess the attitudes of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification. The study took place in a south Texas university where the accessible population included teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification in an educator preparation program. A 2-part survey questionnaire, Attitudes Toward Bilingual Education (ATBE), was developed. Descriptive statistics, namely, frequency and percentage distribution tables, measures of central tendency, and measures of variability were used to summarize the data.

The results showed that teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification, regardless of age, semester credit hours in bilingual education, and proficiency in another language agreed with underlying principles in bilingual education. This agreement was more pronounced among those who had completed more than 60 hours of field experiences.

The Attitudes Toward Bilingual Education (ATBE) survey provides data with the potential to inform educator preparation programs. Results from this study suggests that educator preparation programs have the potential to impact attitudes by implementing field experiences to include activities where teacher candidates can develop instructional strategies based on second language acquisition processes. The major contribution of this study is that it provides findings on teacher candidates who are of the same minority group as the students they are working with.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents Alberto and Hilda Peña. I am the person I am today because of the love of learning they instilled in me. Education was important to my parents and it became just as important to me. Dad, thank you for setting the example for lifelong learning. I am sorry that I couldn't finish sooner to share this with you in person. You are with me in my heart always, the voice reminding me to stay strong, put family first and always do my best. I ask myself often, as you did, "Is this the best that you can do?". Know that I will always strive to do my best. I love you daddy!

To my mother, your encouragement and positive words have helped me more than you will ever know. But your hugs, prayers and *bendiciones* are what have provided me with the peace of mind needed in my life, especially during this dissertation journey. You have believed in me always and every step of the way. Thank you, mom! Love you!

To my sister Marcia and my brother Antonio, this last year has been a difficult one for us. Through it all you both have always encouraged me to keep going. Your love and support mean the world to me and I love you both very much.

To my nieces, Carolina and Victoria, you are my driving force. Any day can be made brighter by your smiles and you both have brightened my days. I hope that you are half as proud of me as I am of you and all you accomplish. Love you with all my heart!

Finally, Thank you Lord! I am blessed to have the family that I have. I do not take for granted the honor of being the daughter of Alberto and Hilda Peña, the privilege of being Marcia and Antonio's sister, and the responsibility of being Carolina and Victoria's aunt.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank Texas A&M-Corpus Christi for allowing me to conduct and complete my studies at this institution. The faculty and staff have been welcoming, supportive, and encouraging from the start. I could not have made a better choice to obtain the highest level of education and achieve my goals. Special thanks to the College of Education and Human Development, and Program Coordinator, Dr. Faye Bruun, for your hard work and dedication to the success of all students.

Thank you to my awesome dissertation committee, Dr. Pletcher, Dr. Lucido, Dr. Kouzekanani, and Dr. Sparks. I could not have done this without your insights and contributions. Long before starting the program at TAMUCC, Dr. Frank Lucido inspired me with his passion for bilingual education. Having him as a professor and committee member has been an honor. A special thank you to Dr. Kamiar Kouzekanani who guided me with patience and was instrumental in helping me complete my studies. I truly appreciate your support and the knowledge that you have provided me. Dr. Bethanie Pletcher, I cannot thank you enough. You have kept me on track, encouraged me when I doubted myself, and guided my every step. I could not have asked for a better committee chair. Your passion for teaching and learning is evident in all you accomplish and in everything you do for your students. Thank you all for inspiring me, guiding me and helping me reach my goals.

I am eternally grateful to my friends who have supported me throughout with kind words and encouragement. I could not have done any of this without the support system provided by them. Rochelle Cortino, thank you for always keeping me on track and holding me accountable. You made me a better student and I'm glad we went through this together. Success means so much more when shared with true friends. Thanks for being such an amazing person.

Completing my doctoral studies at TAMUCC meant many long drives to class or meetings, sometimes late at night or early in the morning. Celi Solis, thank you for those long phone calls while I drove. You always know when I need a good laugh or a good cry. You have been there for me always listening, sympathizing, and just being the best friend, a girl can have.

Finally, to my Texas A&M International University colleagues and students, thank you all for encouraging and inspiring me to become a better educator.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CONTENTS	PAGE
ABSTRACT.....	v
DEDICATION.....	vii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	viii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
LIST OF TABLES.....	xiv
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	3
Purpose of the Study	4
Theoretical Framework.....	5
Definition of Terms.....	13
Significance of the Study	15
CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	17
History of Bilingual Education	17
Instructional Models of Bilingual Education.....	20
Teacher Attitudes Toward Bilingual Education	24
Educator Preparation Programs	29
Field Experiences in Educator Preparation Programs	33

Summary of the Chapter	37
CHAPTER III: METHOD	39
Research Design.....	39
Subject Selection.....	39
Instrumentation	40
Data Collection	42
Data Analysis	42
Summary of the Chapter	44
CHAPTER IV: RESULTS.....	45
A Profile of the Subjects	45
Item Level Results	46
Scale Level Results	49
Exploratory Analysis	50
Summary of the Chapter	51
CHAPTER V: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND DISCUSSION.....	52
Summary of the results	52
Conclusions.....	53
Discussion	54
REFERENCES	61
LIST OF APPENDICES	76

Appendix A: IRB Approval TAMUCC	77
Appendix B: IRB Approval TAMIU	79
Appendix C: Attitudes Toward Bilingual Education Survey	81

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES	PAGE
Figure 1. Separate Underlying Proficiency Model	6
Figure 2. The Iceberg Model.....	7
Figure 3. Dual Iceberg Model	7
Figure 4. Krashen's Second Language Acquisition Theories	9

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES	PAGE
Table 1. A Profile of Subjects, Categorical Variables	46
Table 2. Attitudes Toward Bilingual Education	47
Table 3. Ranking of Attitudes of Bilingual Education.....	49

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

The demographics of the education system are quickly shifting and demonstrating a significant increase in the number of English learners (EL) enrolled in schools. The National Center for Education Statistics reported 4.6 million K-12 students enrolled in public schools were English learners during the 2014-2015 academic year. In 2016 data indicated that 21.6 percent of the U.S. population spoke a language other than English and of that percentage, 13.3% spoke Spanish (Bureau, U.S.C., 2016). In Texas, it was reported that there were over 500,000 students enrolled in bilingual education during the 2016-2017 academic year, 90.29% being Spanish speakers (English Language Learner-Cross curricular, 2018). Due to the exponential growth of English learners across the country and the state of Texas it is evident that the linguistic diversity of students is an area of interest to educators and educator preparation programs. Research has highlighted the ways in which teacher candidates' beliefs and attitudes about teaching in multicultural settings may be impacted by education preparation programs (Assaf, Garza, & Battle, 2010). Linguistic diversity is of interest, particularly as the prevalent language ideologies in the United States have emphasized the importance of learning English (Achugar & Pessoa, 2009).

The number of students who speak a language other than English continues to grow exponentially, along with the unique language needs of this population. Students are entering the classroom setting with varying levels of language proficiency. Some students can adjust and apply skills seamlessly, while others are facing the challenge of learning a new language along with new academic content. These varying levels of language proficiency present challenges to educators. Studies have shown that, overall, teachers do not feel prepared to meet the needs of

English learners. In response to these findings, approaches to prepare teachers of English learners have focused on incorporating coursework and/or field experiences that are pertinent to meeting the needs of this diverse population. Still other research has found that educators need a strong knowledge base in second language acquisition. The rapid growth in numbers of English learners in our school system creates a sense of urgency to address the adequate preparation of teachers in bilingual/ESL education.

With the changing demographics in kindergarten through grade 12 schools, educators need to understand the importance of bilingual education and its value toward the learning process of English learners. Research has indicated that bilingual education is the most effective way of acquiring a second language in the classroom setting (Ovando & Combs, 2012; Walter, 2004; Thomas & Collier, 1997). Underlying successful bilingual education is the fundamental principle of language acquisition and literacy development (Krashen, 1996). In addition, the role of the educator in the bilingual setting is also important. As such, future educators who are conducting field experiences in bilingual classrooms are also part of this process. Brownlee (2003) emphasized the importance of taking a teacher candidate's beliefs into consideration because these beliefs will influence their teaching practices in the classroom. Ferreira (2006) found that beliefs about second language acquisition directly impact attitudes toward learning strategies. One way to approach the successful preparation of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification may be by understanding the attitudes teacher candidates have toward bilingual education as they are entering the teaching profession. Reeves (2006) stated that understanding teachers' attitudes toward English learners is essential to providing effective training and support. Educator preparation programs can provide appropriate and relevant academic and field experiences to achieve this. Evaluating attitudes about bilingual education

may result in improved and accurate preparation of teacher candidates seeking bilingual education in educator preparation programs.

Statement of the Problem

Research on the outcomes of bilingual education suggests that success of bilingual programs is improved through the scrutinization for coherence of educational philosophy and program design, adequacy of implementation, and consistency of educational philosophy (Montecel & Danini, 2002; Thomas & Collier, 1997). Silin and Schwartz (2003) conducted research that confirmed that teachers are important to study because they are the change agents in the classroom. Teachers are a considerable influence on the success or failure of a student in the bilingual setting. It is noted in research by Schwartz, Mor-Sommerfeld, and Leikin (2010) that most research on teachers has focused on majority language teacher attitudes toward minority language students. There is little research that has studied teachers of English learners who are of the same minority group. In this study, the focus is on teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification with the same linguistic background as the students they are working with during field experiences while enrolled in a university-based education preparation program.

Like classroom teachers, teacher candidates are also responsible for providing the necessary instruction to their students as part of their field experiences while navigating the school culture and climate in which they practice. Teacher candidates plan and execute lessons in bilingual settings that require meeting the needs of English learners. The beliefs held by teacher candidates may hinder or facilitate their ability to work with English learners in bilingual programs. According to Ovando and Combs (2012), it is often difficult for teachers who have mastered the English language to maintain a realistic perspective on the challenges of second language acquisition in a bilingual program. Awareness of attitudes toward bilingual education

can guide teaching practice in bilingual settings and bring to light issues associated with language acquisition.

Purpose of the Study

Research on bilingual education has focused on the types of learners involved, the benefits, and the types of programs delivered. Regardless of the type of learner in the bilingual setting, the identified benefits or the type of program being implemented, it is essential to consider attitudes toward bilingual education itself. Research indicates that teachers' approaches to teaching have been influenced by the way they were taught themselves (Flores, 2001). This would indicate that what teachers know about bilingual education may be based on their personal experiences which may influence their attitudes and consequently their teaching strategies. According to Flores (2001), our quintessential ideas, beliefs, and conceptualizations are formulated from experiences we have had within a sociocultural context. Therefore, a teacher candidate's attitude toward bilingual education may be influenced by the concomitant experiences in which they participate as part of their educator preparation program. The purpose of this study was to examine the attitudes of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification enrolled in an educator preparation program. In addition, the study sought to examine whether there is a difference in attitudes toward bilingual education of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification based on selected demographics, such as knowledge base and field experiences.

The following research questions guided the study:

1. What are the attitudes of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification enrolled in a preparation program toward bilingual education?
2. To what extent, if any, are the attitudes of teacher candidates seeking bilingual

certification enrolled in an educator preparation program toward bilingual education affected by their selected demographic characteristics?

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework used to examine attitudes toward bilingual education of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification is based on the theories of second language acquisition. Teacher candidates should familiarize themselves with and understand the linguistic characteristics that are exhibited by English learners in bilingual education. Theories of second language acquisition from Jim Cummins and Stephen Krashen provide the context for understanding of the role of second language acquisition in bilingual education.

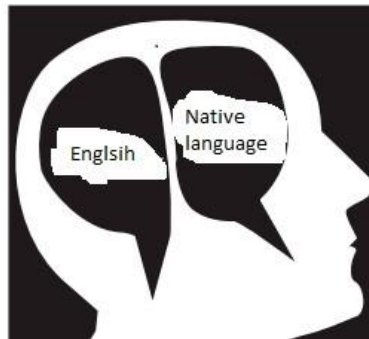
Cummins: Theory of Second Language Acquisition

The work of Jim Cummins provides foundational information on the research of second language acquisition. Cummins emphasized the importance of understanding the needs of English learners by understanding language proficiency stating, “clearly, the way we conceptualize language proficiency and assess its development entails major consequences for virtually everyone in our society” (Cummins, 2000, p. 53). These consequences may include the cognitive and curriculum achievements of English learners. For this reason, examining teacher candidates’ understanding of second language acquisition and their attitudes toward bilingual education is significant. Concepts developed by Jim Cummins include the Interdependence hypothesis, the Iceberg theories, the concepts of Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills, and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency.

Initial research on second language acquisition described the learning of languages as working separately. The Separate Underlying Proficiency Model (SUP) is the assumption that

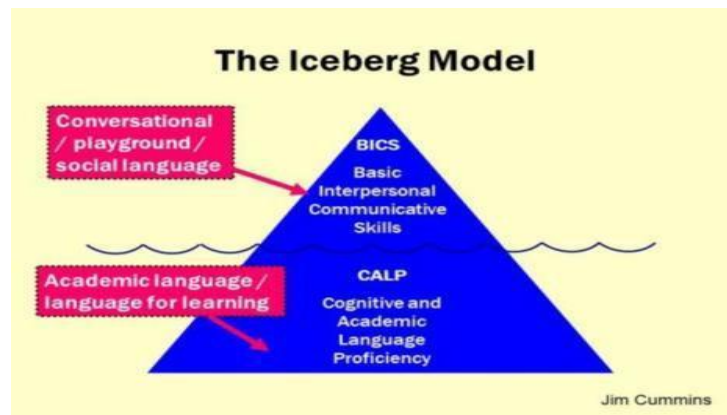
languages are separate and do not interact (English proficiency separate from native language), as shown in Figure 1 (Walter, 2004; Cummins, 1981).

Figure 1: Cummins (1981) Separate Underlying Proficiency Model



This theory assumes that a student will have trouble learning an additional language because the native language “takes up” brain capacity. Cummins later contradicted this by proposing the Common Underlying Proficiency Model (CUP) (Cummins, 2000). This is the belief that language (English and native language) complement each other, allowing for transferability. The idea proposed by Cummins (2000) is that language skills from the native language transfer to the second language, particularly literacy skills. An example of this can be seen in Spanish/English learners where the alphabet is similar, therefore phonics instruction and consonants are transferable (Peregoy & Boyle, 2017). In addition, a strong foundation in the native language provides the learner with prior knowledge they can access to make connection to new content. Basically, a strong foundation in the primary language facilitates the acquisition of the second language. This foundational language that is found in the common underlying proficiency model may not be evident as explained in the Iceberg Model developed by Cummins (1981), shown in Figure 2.

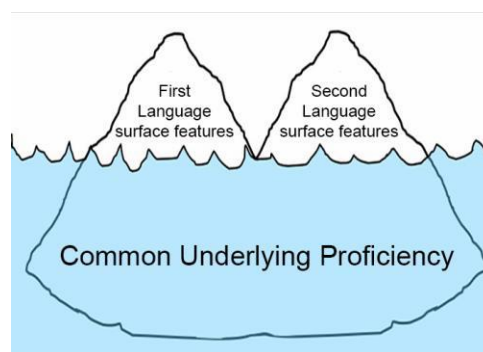
Figure 2: Cummins (1981) The Iceberg Model



The iceberg hypothesis states that the language proficiency displayed by the English language learner is only the top of the iceberg, regarding what they can understand. Roger Shuy (1977) explained that the language proficiency that is evident includes pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary, while the academic proficiency is below the surface.

Cummins (1981) expanded this iceberg model by introducing the dual iceberg model. In the dual iceberg model, the native language and second language are interdependent via the common underlying proficiency that is below the surface. At the surface level, languages are viewed side by side and consist mainly of oral abilities that differ such as pronunciation, as depicted in Figure 3 (Cummins, 1981).

Figure 3: Cummins (1981) Dual Iceberg Model



Cummins also distinguished between the basic and academic skills of an English learner. Above the “water” level, or what is observable is a student’s basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS), as part of the social dimension. The BICS is not demanding cognitively and it is contextualized in everyday activities, easily accessed due to day to day use (Cummins, 1981). This process happens relatively quickly depending on the student’s prior knowledge and experiences as well as their personality and motivation. Below the “water” level is that which is more difficult to assess and takes longer to be observed: cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) as part of the academic dimension (Cummins, 2000). The CALP is cognitively demanding as it part of the academic context and therefore proficiency takes longer to achieve. The CALP occurs through direct instruction of language structures and skills in the classroom setting (Cummins, 1981). This academic learning differs in that it is more than vocabulary that needs to be learned; it is also content knowledge and the rules of language.

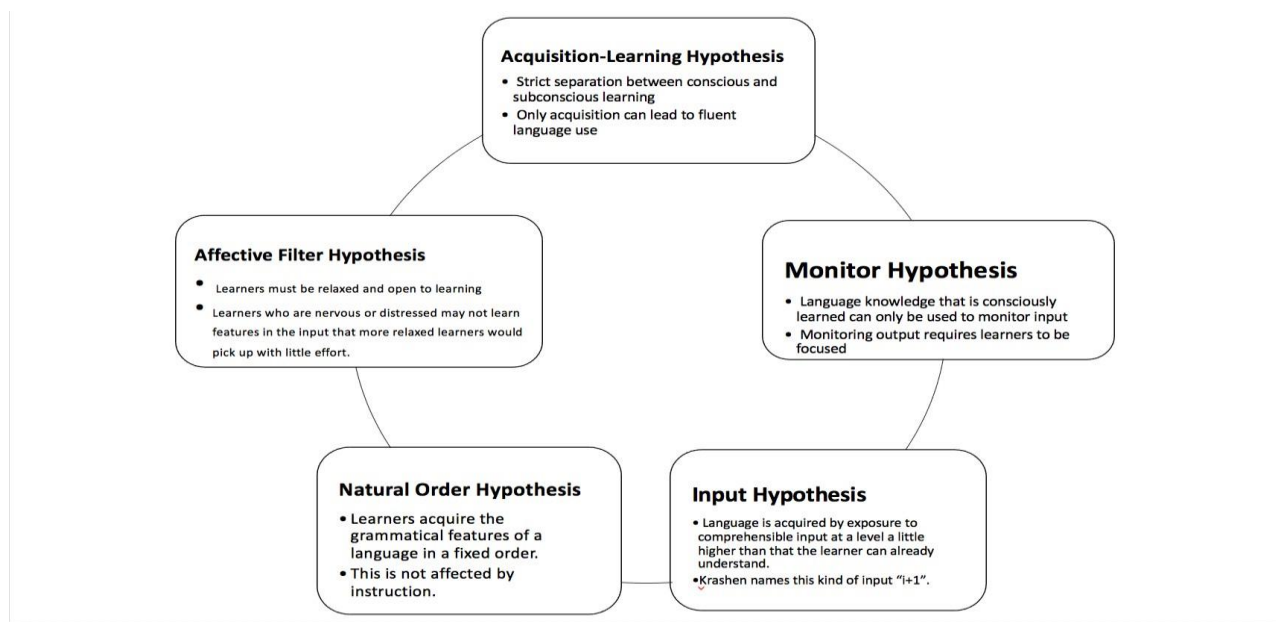
The principle that conversational language proficiency is fundamentally different from academic language proficiency and takes more time for an English learner to become fluent is discussed in an article by Lucas, Villegas and Freedson-Gonzalez (2008). This principle is based on the work of Jim Cummins and the distinction between BICS and CALP. The concept was later revised (Cummins, 2000) and identified as conversational versus academic language proficiency. Basic interpersonal communicative skills or conversational language is derived from experiences and situations that are personal to the learner; the language is more familiar and readily available to them. Cognitive academic language proficiency or academic language proficiency is more challenging for English learners because they are learning concepts that are not routinely used and may be unfamiliar. For this reason, it takes longer for learners to attain academic language proficiency (from five to seven years) as opposed to the two years it takes to

develop conversational language proficiency. Educators who understand these differences are able to provide the appropriate supports to develop both.

Krashen: Theories of Second Language Acquisition

Additional theories on second language acquisition are derived from the work of Stephen Krashen. He and others have thoroughly researched these theories that continue to impact second language instruction. According to Krashen (1987), developing academic English consists of making instruction comprehensible and developing literacy in the first language. Krashen stated “it is easier to learn to read in a language you understand. And better reading in the first language leads to better reading in the second language” (personal communication, September 25-26, 2017). Krashen valued and validated students’ native language by recognizing the important foundation it provides to acquiring the English language. Stephen Krashen’s (1987) hypothesis in language learning includes the Acquisition Learning hypothesis, Input hypothesis, Monitor hypothesis, Affective filter, and Natural Order hypothesis (Figure 4).

Figure 4: Krashen’s (1987) Second Language Acquisition Theories



The acquisition learning hypothesis makes the distinction between language acquisition and language learning. Krashen differentiated between acquired competence and learned competence. Acquisition takes place in day-to-day conversation and in natural communication or in informal settings. Language learning is more purposeful processing of academic language that takes place in a more formal or “artificial” environment such as the classroom setting (Krashen, 1976). Krashen also posited that language acquisition in a natural setting is more effective for children while the formal setting for language learning is effective in adult language learning and that learning can proceed simultaneously in both natural and formal settings.

Speakers need time to think about how to express themselves in the second language and to focus on the form or structure of the language as well as knowing the language rules (Krashen, 1987). The time it takes for a language learner to process the second language and produce it is referred to by Krashen as the *monitor hypothesis* (1987). The monitor hypothesis has to do with the production of language and the speaker’s ability to monitor and self-correct. According to Krashen (1994), speakers can self-correct at a “modest” percentage because the monitor hypothesis is limited by knowledge of the rules, time, and form. As speakers learn to self-correct, their motivation for learning is also influenced in the form of the affective filter.

The affective filter hypothesis is described by Krashen as the effects of a speaker’s attitude toward language acquisition dealing with motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety. This theory states that if a student is anxious and reluctant to speak English, a filter is created that prevents the learner from making the most of their language experience. It detracts the learner from comprehensible input and prevents the student from effective social interaction. Educators are tasked with creating an environment that is free of anxiety and stress so that students feel comfortable in taking risks with language. According to Krashen, a learner who is motivated to

speaking a second language will have greater success than an unmotivated learner. Self-confidence affects language acquisition, as well. A learner who is not self-confident may not be willing to take risks speaking a new language and will therefore have limitations in language learning. Finally, the level of anxiety the second language learner has may impede second language acquisition. Optimal learning conditions include high motivation, high self-confidence, and low anxiety (Krashen, 1987).

The natural order hypothesis states that grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable, sequential 'natural order' (Krashen, 1987). However, acquisition time varies with the attainment of some rules happening early and others late. The natural order hypothesis applies to both native and second language learning; however, the order will differ. Regardless of the order of acquisition, Krashen suggests that grammatical structures be taught in a way that is understandable to the student.

The input or comprehension hypothesis states that students can acquire language when they receive information they understand. Input hypothesis relies on understanding messages, and if there is no understanding, the learner will not acquire the language. Information provided needs to be interesting and relevant, focusing on the input and not the form or the grammar. This is achieved through natural communication where the target language is authentic and enhanced by contextual clues, background knowledge and non-linguistic cues (Peregoy & Boyle, 2017). Increasing comprehensibility by providing many nonverbal cues such as pictures, objects, demonstrations, gestures, and intonation cues assists students to understand. As competency develops, other strategies include building from language that is already understood, using graphic organizers, hands-on learning opportunities, and cooperative or peer learning. Krashen stated that the quality of the input is more important than the quantity of the input and that during

reading, more comprehensible input results in greater competence in vocabulary and spelling (Krashen, 1987; Krashen, 1989). Krashen theorized that learning another language depends on whether or not a learner understands what they are being presented (input). This is especially important for the learning of academic language. If the learner does not understand what is being conveyed they will not understand the academic concepts. It is important that learners are provided with comprehensible input so that they can progress to increased levels of knowledge and proficiency in the second language. This includes assessing the learner's language output to gauge understanding and language competency. Assessments such as the Student Oral Language Observation Matrix (SOLOM) are designed to evaluate the language performance of a student via observation in the classroom setting (Peregoy & Boyle, 2017). Assessment of content understanding, and language proficiency provides educators with valuable information on students' progress and language learning needs. Students need to be encouraged to participate and express themselves by interacting with peers and teachers in order that comprehensible input and language is demonstrated (Lucas, Villegas & Feedson-Gonzalez, 2008).

Krashen's theories of and research on second language and bilingual education are important for educators to consider when working with growing numbers of minority students. The acquisition learning hypothesis provides valuable information to educators so that they may recognize the differences in the language proficiency of their students. Successful instruction for English learners requires that educators familiarize themselves with the proficiency of second language learners as well as their attitudes toward bilingual education to meet the instructional needs of the student.

Definition of Terms

The following terms and abbreviations were used throughout the document:

Attitude: a mental position with regard to a fact or state (Merriam-Webster dictionary, 2018).

Bilingual Education Act (BEA): Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits discrimination on the grounds of race, color, or national origin by recipients of federal financial assistance. The Title VI regulatory requirements have been interpreted to prohibit denial of equal access to education because of a language minority student's limited proficiency in English (U.S. ED – OCR – ELL Programs – Glossary, 2015).

Basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS): the language ability required for verbal face-to-face communication (U.S. ED – OCR – ELL Programs – Glossary, 2015).

Cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP): the language ability required for academic achievement (U.S. ED – OCR – ELL Programs – Glossary, 2015).

Dual language bilingual education: bilingual program models for English language learning students and English proficient students designed to help them become bilingual and biliterate (Wright, 2015).

Educator preparation program (EPP): an entity that must be approved by the State Board for Educator Certification to recommend candidates in one or more educator certification class (TAC, Chapter 228, 2016).

Equal Education Opportunities Act of 1974 (EEOC): this civil rights statute prohibits states from denying equal educational opportunity to an individual on account of his or her race, color, sex, or national origin. The statute specifically prohibits states from denying equal educational opportunity by the failure of an educational agency to take appropriate action to overcome

language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional programs (U.S. ED – OCR – ELL Programs – Glossary, 2015).

English learner (EL): a student who is in the process of acquiring English and has another language as the primary language. The terms English language learner and English learner are used interchangeably and are synonymous with limited English proficient (LEP) students (TAC, Chapter 89, Subchapter BB., 2018).

English as a Second Language (ESL): a program of techniques, methodology and special curriculum designed to teach English language learners language skills in listening, reading, speaking and writing (U.S. ED – OCR – ELL Programs – Glossary, 2015).

Field-based experiences: experiences for a classroom teacher certification candidate involving, at a minimum, reflective observation of Early Childhood – Grade 12 students, teachers, and faculty/staff members engaging in educational activities in a school setting (TAC, Chapter 228, 2018).

Language minority student: students who are not native speakers of the dominant group language (Wright, 2015).

Language proficiency: refers to the degree to which the student exhibits control over the use of language, including the measurement of expressive and receptive language skills in the areas of phonology, syntax, vocabulary, and semantics and including the areas of pragmatics or language use within various domains or social circumstances. Proficiency in a language is judged independently and does not imply a lack of proficiency in another language (U.S. ED – OCR – ELL Programs – Glossary, 2015).

Maintenance bilingual education: program model for EL students in which content area instruction is provided in the students' home language for a longer period of time, maintaining the student's native language (Feinberg, 2002).

Semester Credit Hours (SCH): the semester hour is the unit of credit and is defined as the amount of credit given for one recitation hour a week for one semester. Three hours of carefully planned and supervised laboratory work are equivalent to one hour of lecture recitation (Texas A&M International University, 2016).

Second language acquisition (SLA): is the process of learning other languages in addition to the native language (Wright, 2015).

Teacher candidate: an individual who has been formally or contingently admitted into an educator preparation program; also referred to as an enrollee or participant (TAC, Chapter 228, 2018).

Transitional bilingual education: program model for EL students in which content area instruction is provided in the student's home language for the first few years. Students are then transitioned to mainstream classrooms (Wright, 2015).

Significance of the Study

As the population of English learners increases, it is significant to examine attitudes of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification to instruct English learners in bilingual education programs. A study of the literature indicated that additional research is needed to investigate teacher attitudes pertaining to the instruction of linguistically diverse students (Gomez, Strage, Knutson-Miller & Garcia-Nerarez, 2009; Daniel, S., 2014). Research also found that examining values and beliefs about diversity should be part of an ongoing evaluative process for educator preparation programs (Assaf, Garza & Battle, 2010; Cochran-Smith &

Zeichner, 2005; Ladson-Billings, 2005). A review of the literature on bilingual education, teacher attitudes, and educator preparation programs has shown the importance of meeting the instructional needs of the rapidly growing number of English learners. In addition, the literature presents evidence of the significance of bilingual education and examination of attitudes toward bilingual education, as well as the role of educator preparation programs in both.

Exploration of teacher candidate attitudes toward bilingual education is relevant to educator preparation programs that offer bilingual certification as part of their curriculum. It is incumbent on educator preparation programs to determine the attitudes teacher candidates hold toward bilingual education in order to help develop educators who are self-aware and prepared to address the needs of bilingual students in their classrooms. It is significant to examine the attitudes of teacher candidates toward bilingual education in an effort to inform educator preparation programs. Evaluating the attitudes toward bilingual education and exploring the demographic characteristics that may contribute to these may shed light on program field experiences and bilingual coursework of educator preparation programs. The significance of the study is to contribute the Hispanic teacher candidates' perspective to the body of research in the area of bilingual education and educator preparation.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

History of Bilingual Education

General education does little to close the achievement gap of minority students when it does not acknowledge the instructional needs of students, such as those in bilingual programs (Montecel & Danini, 2002; Schwarz, Mor-Sommerfeld, & Leikin, 2010). Educators and English learners face the challenges of meeting both content area standards and language proficiency standards. These complexities of the structure and implementation of bilingual programs often contribute to the continued achievement gaps seen with English learners.

Bilingual education involves using two languages for instruction. However, the concept of bilingual education is not as simple as using two languages. The term *bilingual education* is applied to a variety of types of bilingual programs in our education system. Freeman (1998) suggested that what bilingual education means and whether it is effective has been and continues to be a source of confusion and conflict at the policy level, in educational practice, and in the media. Twenty years later, this continues to be the case. Bilingual education brings about strong opinions and attitudes both in favor of and against it (Adamson, 2005; Field, 2011; Krashen, 1996; Ovando & Combs, 2012).

Throughout the years, since the emergence of bilingual education, there have been many policies and legislative mandates that have been put into place. Initially, the civil rights movement in the United States brought the issues surrounding bilingual education to the forefront. In the 1954 ruling of *Brown vs the Board of Education of Topeka*, the supreme court ruled that segregation according to race was unconstitutional and required education on equal terms. This landmark case, while focusing on desegregation, created “equal education opportunities for all students” including English learners. In 1964, Congress passed Title VI of

the Civil Rights Act prohibiting discrimination on the basis of race, color, or national origin in federally assisted programs and activities. In 1965 the Elementary and Secondary Education Act was established granting funding to students who had been denied equal opportunities in education. What followed was the 1967 Bilingual Education Act (BEA), recognizing the need and value of bilingual education programs.

Although Title VI does not specifically refer to Limited English Proficient (LEP) individuals as a protected class, the 1974 U.S. supreme court case *Lau vs. Nichols* found that the San Francisco school system had failed to provide supplemental English language instruction to students with limited English proficiency. The court held that simply providing the same instruction offered to other students does not provide access to the benefits of schooling because students who do not understand English are effectively excluded from meaningful education (414, U.S., 563). Due to the *Lau* precedent and the subsequent U.S. Department of Education guidelines, LEP children must have equal access, including, if necessary, special programming that allows them an opportunity to effectively participate in public education (Osorio-O'Dea, 2000). The ruling does not however, specify what type of special programming or educational support is to be provided to English learners. At the federal level these mandates entitle LEP students to bilingual services.

Another landmark case that impacted bilingual education was *Castañeda vs. Pickard*. This case led to the development of a test to determine if schools had failed to aid LEP students to overcome language barriers. According to the *Castañeda* (1981) decision, effective programs lead LEP students to parity with their English-speaking peers. The reauthorization of the Bilingual Education Act in 1974 further promoted the establishment of education opportunities for bilingual students by stating, "it is the policy of the United States to establish equal education

opportunity for all children (A) to encourage the establishment and operation...of education programs using bilingual education, practices, techniques, and methods” (BEA, 1974, Sec. 702 (a)). Bilingual education saw additional changes when in 1988, Congress added an enrollment cap to the BEA that limited the length of time a LEP child may enroll in a bilingual program to three years with two one-year extensions possible, the goal being that the student be proficient in English within that three- to five-year timeframe. As indicated in research, students may take up to seven years or more to gain proficiency in the English language. Acknowledgment of this process was noted when in 1994, the enrollment cap was dropped after a recommendation that the time limit be deleted, and students be given the opportunity to continue native language learning (Osorio-O’Dea, 2000).

The Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965 continued to be reauthorized every five years and in 2002, President Bush passed the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB), dramatically affecting the nation’s educational system. The No Child Left Behind Act reinforced accountability, local control and flexibility, school choice, and funding for research-based initiatives in the education system (Ovando & Combs, 2012). In 2009, following the NCLB, legislation titled Race to the Top was implemented. Race to the Top provided an incentive program of competitive grants to encourage school reform and increase student achievement (Field, 2011). These federal policies and mandates gave way for state legislation regarding bilingual education.

In the state of Texas, the implementation of instructional programs for language minority students include the following (Garcia, 2005):

1. Instruction in a language other than English;
2. Certification of educators teaching in bilingual settings;

3. State funding to support bilingual programs;
4. Instruction that includes a cultural element; and
5. Parental consent to enroll in bilingual education programs.

In addition to the above characteristics, the Texas Administrative Code identifies the Commissioner's Rules concerning the state plan for the education of English learners. This rule governs the delivery of bilingual education in Texas and mandates that "bilingual education be implemented in a given language and elementary grade by district when the district-wide population of limited English proficiency students is 20 or more" (TAC, Chapter 89, Subchapter BB, 2018). Bilingual program models are derived to meet the requisites of these federal mandates and policies.

Instructional Models of Bilingual Education

In popular use, bilingual education has become a generic term applied to various forms of language instruction that may include diverse combinations of components, first-or second-language use, models, subjects, and goals (Feinberg, 2002; Ovando & Combs, 2012). The purpose of having bilingual and English as a second language (ESL) programs is to provide students who speak a language other than English opportunities to "equal education." In the process, the programs are designed to enhance the English language in listening, speaking, reading, and writing through the content areas (Walter, 2004). The use of second language methods and instructional approaches are to be implemented to achieve the goal of learning the English language.

Bilingual education itself reflects varying levels of consideration regarding a learner's language proficiency. While some programs emphasize the use of native language for instruction, others place little importance on native language, expecting quick transition times

and rapid English language acquisition (Klinger, Artiles, & Barletta, 2006). Program models for English learners vary across the country incorporating three basic characteristics: continued development of the native language; acquisition of a second language (English); and instruction in the content areas (Diaz-Rico, 2013; Ovando, Collier & Cummins, 1998). Wright (2015) names five models of bilingual education: transitional bilingual education programs, developmental bilingual education programs, bilingual immersion programs, and heritage language programs. The more common models of bilingual education are the transitional model and the maintenance model.

Transitional Bilingual Education

The Transitional Bilingual Education (TBE) program model includes programs in which students shift to the majority language and assimilate to the cultural norms, including speaking the English language. These are intended to move students along relatively quickly (two to three years). The student's primary language is used, usually for the first two or three years, for some curriculum instruction as they transition into English (Cloud, Genesee & Hamayan, 2000). Native language is gradually phased out as the student becomes more proficient in English.

Transitional bilingual/early exit, for example is the program for students who are identified as limited English proficient in both English and another language. This type of program transfers the student to English-only instruction early in their academic grades. Instruction in the academic areas is initially provided in their native language in conjunction with oral language activities and nonacademic subjects in English. Students are then exited to English-only instruction in the first grade or one to five years after enrollment in school (Wright, 2015). Researchers have found that this quick transition leads to subtractive bilingualism in which

students stop the use of their native language as they increase language proficiency in English (Wright, 2015; Diaz-Rico, 2013; Nieto, 2008).

Developmental Bilingual Education

Developmental Bilingual Education (DBE), also referred to as transitional bilingual/late exit program is for students identified as limited English proficient whose primary language is something other than English. This program transfers students to English-only instruction later in their academic grades. Academic growth is accelerated through cognitively challenging work in the native language and content is taught in English. The goal is to promote language proficiency in both the native language and English so that they are bilingual and biliterate. A student is exited six to seven years after enrollment in school (Thomas & Collier, 2002). Rather than subtractive bilingualism like the early exit model, DBE leads to additive bilingualism valuing the student's abilities in both English and Spanish. Because of this emphasis on bilingualism and biliteracy, this model is found to be a more effective for English learners (Thomas & Collier, 2002, 2013).

Dual Language Programs

The Dual language program is sometimes called the two-way immersion or dual language immersion program consists of students functioning effectively in both the native language and English. The student's native language and culture are taught concurrently with English and the dominant culture (Chinn & Gollnick, 2016). Dual language models of bilingual education are identified as biliterate models that provide instruction in both the native language and English. In this bilingual model, language is integrated into instruction and all academic subjects are taught to all students in both native and second language. The main goals are to develop fluency and literacy in both, to integrate native English speakers and English language learners through

instruction and to promote bilingualism, biliteracy, cross-cultural awareness and academic achievement (Wright, 2015).

Bilingual Immersion Programs

Bilingual immersion programs are another type of bilingual education that targets second language acquisition. In this case, however, the program is geared toward English speakers who want to learn a second language. Originating in Canada to promote bilingualism in English and French, the idea is that the student is immersed in two languages (Field, 2011). This was seen as beneficial to function in a bilingual society where both languages are valued. This form of bilingual education did not translate to the United States largely due to English being the dominant language. Therefore, a student in this country was immersed in English, creating a subtractive program that leads to a monolingual student rather than a bilingual student (Field, 2011).

Heritage Language Programs

The Center for Applied Linguistics (2010) describes heritage language as a language other than the dominant language in a social context. Considered as learning a “foreign” language, the program aims to counteract subtractive bilingualism by promoting opportunities for students to develop their native (heritage) language (Wright, 2015). This form of bilingual education may take place in school, afterschool, or may be community based (Wright, 2015; Hummel, 2014; Diaz-Rico, 2013; Field, 2011). The term heritage language is referred to by Valdes (2005) as a minority language taught as a separate subject for native speakers.

Summary of Bilingual Program Models

Regardless of which program a student is subject to, the goal of bilingual programs is to achieve proficiency in English. How long English language learners take to learn academic

English and how programs for these learners are implemented are important considerations. According to research, as it stands, there is not a standard definition of limited English proficiency and there are no uniform rules for when a child should exit a bilingual program and enter mainstream English-only classes (Osorio-O'Dea, 2000). Thomas and Collier (2002) concluded that it takes an average student who is schooled through bilingual education, who is achieving on grade level in his/her native language from four to seven years to reach the 50th percentile on the Normal Curve Equivalent scale. However, the typical immigrant or U.S. born student of a native language other than English, who is educated entirely in English as their second language, takes from seven to ten years or more (Thomas & Collier, 2002). The ESL or bilingual education programs offered by school districts often prematurely transfer English learners out of bilingual education to settings in which all instruction is presented in English (Feinberg, 2002). This may be due to the misconception that students are proficient in English when they demonstrate basic interpersonal communicative skills. The many and varied options for bilingual education programs and the lack of consistency across states contributes to varying attitudes of educators, both positive and negative, toward bilingual education.

Teacher Attitudes Toward Bilingual Education

Individuals bring different perspectives on bilingual education with them to the education setting. These perspectives are influenced by personal and teaching experiences, culture, and the school system in which they are participating (Galindo & Olguin, 1996). Teachers have preconceived notions about the learning process, the students themselves, and the bilingual education program in general. Educators cannot separate themselves as social beings from their beliefs, since constructions occur within varying social contexts (Flores, 2001). Attitudes are important because they affect teachers' motivation and performance (Kabernick & Noda, 2004).

Teachers are one of the key components of bilingual programs because they are responsible for providing the appropriate bilingual instructional methods to their students. Therefore, investigating their opinions about the programs in which they are participating appears to be of the utmost importance (Ramos, 2001).

Bilingual programs also include cultural aspects because of the connection between language and culture (Ovando & Combs, 2012). The function of language is to serve as communication within and between groups or individuals and within different social contexts (Peregoy & Boyle, 2017). The language patterns of a culture such as those in the Spanish language may affect the interactions of students and teachers in the classroom. Language patterns and language variations such as cognates and codeswitching which are culturally based add to the complexity of second language learning and acquisition. Cognates are words that sound and look similar in two languages like the word “*radio*” in English and Spanish. Another cultural aspect of language is the practice of codeswitching or switching from one language to another with fluidity (Field, 2011). English learners bring with them varying levels of language proficiency and experiences in education as well as cultural influences on language. Students are diverse in terms of ethnicity, race, religion, language background, and social class (Lee, 2012). In many ways, the role of the bilingual teacher is to strengthen and protect the minority language of students, while facilitating their acquisition of English. This process enables students to learn content in their stronger language until they can learn all subjects in both languages (Montague, 1999). As such, attitudes toward English learners’ culture are important to consider. Students in the classroom setting benefit greatly from the validation of their home language. It is crucial to validate the young child’s language to achieve optimal learning conditions. For this reason, it is important for educators to familiarize themselves with their attitudes toward bilingual education.

Educators can empower students by creating a classroom climate that is receptive to cultural and linguistic differences. Researchers have found that teachers' attitudes play an important role in promoting academic achievement and that these attitudes are the basis for a classroom environment conducive to learning (Archabault, Jonosz & Chouinard, 2013). When students feel comfortable in the classroom and know the teacher believes in them, it may be easier to implement instructional strategies where they can take risks as language learners. Johnson (1999) discussed theories regarding episodic memories that included dimensions of how teachers' actions and decisions are guided by their beliefs and that these beliefs influence their performance. The personal learning experience of a teacher leaves a lasting impression. Johnson (1999) stated, "this in itself can create conflicting beliefs for teachers because language learning does not always occur in the classroom" (p. 34). In an article by Callahan (2005), it was found that many times teachers assume English learners are unable to execute academic work until and unless they are proficient in English, demonstrating a lack of knowledge about the theories of second language acquisition. Effective teachers are aware of their attitudes realizing that their intended outcome is to promote successful learning (DePaepe, Lambert, Curran, & Sorr, 2010). Teacher attitudes are important to understand because these attitudes may send a message to students about what is valued in the classroom setting.

Educators need to understand the importance of valuing students' culture and native language in the classroom setting. Research on culture and learning styles indicates that the closer the congruence between the teacher's instructional styles and the students' learning styles, the more academic success the students will have in the classroom (Monzo & Rueda, 2003). Ensuring that the student is receiving comprehensible input, as indicated by theories of second language acquisition, facilitates this congruence. Effective teaching is more apt to take place if

both the teacher and the students are aware of the benefits of integrating appropriate instructional materials that correspond with culturally congruent teaching and learning styles (Ariza & Hancock, 2003; Gandara & Maxwell-Jolly, 2006).

Educators need to meet the students' nonacademic needs, as well as their academic needs, and this requires educators to be culturally responsive. Culturally responsive teaching strengthens learning for the language learner by including their cultural experiences in academic content. Teachers who are not culturally responsive may find themselves lowering their expectations of students, resulting in beliefs regarding underachievement of second language learners. Teachers assume that failure is expected of these students and may therefore be the norm for this population (McKenzie & Scheurich, 2004). It is our responsibility as educators to make every effort to understand not only the culture and language of our students but to understand our students. For example, in *Learning to Question* (1989), Paulo Freire advocated for discovering other languages and cultures and the need for tolerance of differences and cautions against judging others according to our own personal values. Freire pointed out the importance of using a student's cultural and linguistic differences and valuing their contributions to learning.

It is evident that teacher candidates must have the linguistic and cultural understanding necessary to work with language learners. Fillmore and Snow (2002) asserted that teacher understanding of usage and structure of the learner's home language is important. Gomez, Strage, Knutson-Miller, and Garcia-Nevares (2009) examined the influence of familiarity with the native language of the learner and found that levels of enjoyment among bilingual teacher candidates were higher. Findings suggested that the language proficiency of a teacher candidate in another language contributed to greater interest in teaching English learners.

Research shows that common qualities of effective bilingual educators include the use of personal and prior experiences to shape instruction (Monzo & Rueda, 2003). Rueda, Monzo and Higareda (2004) stated that educators who have similar experiences and speak the same language as their students are better able to make connections to learning during instruction because of this familiarity. In addition, studies have shown that the prevalent attitude toward language learning will dominate teacher perspectives in bilingual classrooms (Reyes, 1992; Valenzuela, 1999; Weismann, 2001). Therefore, a teacher may have attitudes that are not conducive to the implementation of bilingual programs, regardless of their knowledge of bilingual theories. In a study by Reeves (2006), two misconceptions were evident. These were that English learners should acquire language within a two-year period and the English learners should avoid using their home language while they are learning English. Baker (1996) found that few bilingual programs aimed to support native language or biliteracy but promoted English language acquisition only. These experiences in which assimilation is emphasized have the potential to influence perspectives toward teaching English learners. Misconceptions about the language acquisition process may influence teachers' attitudes toward English learners in their classrooms. These misconceptions may lead to mislabeling students as having learning disabilities or having a lack of intellect (Reeves, 2006). Bilingual teachers should be afforded the opportunity to evaluate their attitudes related to bilingual education in order to analyze their understanding of bilingualism (Hutchinson, 2013; Weisman, 2001).

In a study by Shin and Krashen (1996), the teachers' attitudes toward bilingual education were examined. The findings indicated that five variables were identified as predictors of support for bilingual education. These include grade level taught (elementary or secondary), years of teaching experience, credentials (training), percent of Limited English Proficient

students in their classes, and second language proficiency. The results of the Shin and Krashen (1996) study indicated that teachers with more formal training had more positive attitudes than those with less formal training. The survey results showed positive attitudes toward the concepts and theories of bilingual education. However, there was less support for actual participation in bilingual education. The conclusion of the study was that teachers' experience and prior knowledge of language acquisition affected attitudes as well as instructional practices.

Educator Preparation Programs

The focus of this study was to examine the attitudes of teacher candidates. Therefore, a review of the literature pertaining to educator preparation programs was pertinent. This section of the review of literature outlines a brief history of educator preparation programs, the accountability measures of educator preparation programs and their relation to bilingual education.

History

The history of educator preparation dates to sixteen and seventeen hundred when being a teacher required minimal qualifications and was considered a profession of low status (Parkay & Stanford, 2010). Often teaching was considered a temporary position while gaining other employment or, for women, temporary until they married (Lucas, 1997; Goodlad & Sirotnik, 1990; Urban, 1990). Preparation for educators saw a push for formal training and post-secondary education by advocate Horace Mann with the Morrill Land-Grant Act of 1862 (Parkay & Stanford, 2010). This act provided federal land for colleges and set precedent for federal involvement in education. Horace Mann believed that teaching needed to be viewed as a profession of high standards to retain a quality teaching workforce (Darling-Hammond, 1990; Grow-Maieza, 1996). Teaching was further professionalized through the 1920's by the

establishment of the National Education Association (NEA) and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) founded to increase teacher's salaries and benefits as well as to recommend curriculum standards. During this time, the practice of licensure and certification requiring professional training for teachers ensued as well as an increase in university-based educator preparation programs (Lucas, 1997).

Accountability

Today, all states have an accountability system for educator preparation programs developed based on the federal requirements and state mandates that impact the roles and responsibilities of an EPP. Section 207 of the Higher Education Act (1998) requires each state receiving funding under the Act to report annually on the quality of teacher preparation in the state including:

- Standards for teachers and their alignment with standards for students.
- Requirements for initial teaching certificate or license.
- Pass rates on each assessment used by states in certifying or licensing teachers.
- State standards for evaluating their performance to teacher preparation programs.
- Teachers in the classroom on waivers (no certificate/license).
- State efforts in the past year to improve the quality of teaching.

Often, state-initiated data systems result in teacher education "report cards," causing a change in the way that teacher education programs report their data or even how they select, prepare, and mentor future teachers (Wiseman, 2012). The NCLB further affected educator preparation when enacted to guarantee "highly qualified" teachers. Neither of these federal initiatives address requirements for teachers of English learners (Honawar, 2009; Roy-Campbell,

2012). The NCLB, however, does state that students who are not proficient in English should develop high academic skills at the same academic standards as native speakers of English.

Educator preparation programs are tasked with equipping teachers with the knowledge and skills necessary to provide effective instruction for students. They have long been studied for their effects on the quality of teaching in education (Darling-Hammond, 2006). A study of seven educator preparation programs conducted by Darling-Hammond (2006) found that there are certain program characteristics that impact teacher candidates. Both private and public institutions were examined for common attributes, which included the following:

- A common vision for coursework and field experiences.
- Defined standards of professional practice in both coursework and field experiences.
- A strong core curriculum focusing on child development, assessment, pedagogy and cultural contexts.
- Extended clinical field experiences.
- Use of case studies, action research, performance assessment and portfolios.
- Explicit strategies to help students understand their beliefs and assumptions related to students different than themselves.
- Strong relationships and shared beliefs among university and school partnerships.

Educator Preparation Programs and Bilingual Education

The effectiveness of education preparation programs, the performance of teacher candidates and their readiness for working with English learners in a bilingual setting can be examined by gathering information regarding attitudes toward bilingual education (Darling-

Hammond, 2006). Jones (2002) reiterated the impact of attitudes toward bilingual education on instruction of English learners:

Therefore, in order to begin preparing teachers for the linguistic diversity found in today's schools, it is important to know what pre-service teachers believe about goals for the schooling of children from non-English backgrounds, what they believe about the process of learning a second language, how they feel about language other than English being used for instruction (p. 11).

Weisman and Hansen (2008) asserted that by the time bilingual teacher candidates begin the educator preparation program, they have experienced the assimilation process during their own K-12 experiences and may have a "disregard for their cultural and linguistic knowledge" (p. 656). The perceptions that teacher candidates have toward English learners, bilingual programs, and cultural values may impact the delivery and quality of instruction they provide for their students. Batt (2008) indicated that one of the challenges of educating English learners is the qualification of educators who instruct them. Educator preparation programs play a major role in ensuring the quality of teachers who enter the bilingual setting.

In a study by Katz (2002), where the impact of bilingual education courses on the attitudes of teacher candidates were examined, it was found that while knowledge base increased, there was no change in attitudes, nor was there a decrease in prejudice. The lack of knowledge about issues related to the education of language minority students could constrain teachers' capacities to effectively teach diverse student populations. Hutchinson (2013) specified that underlying attitudes can impact the way teacher candidates support diverse learners. Teachers with little or no experience in bilingual settings may have attitudes related to English learners based on preconceived notions. Freeman and Freeman (2011) referred to this as

“orientation toward teaching” or “beliefs about how people learn, and about how we should teach” (p. 30-31). Attitudes and beliefs are often hidden or even subconscious. Roy-Campbell (2012) stated “unless teachers are systematically provided with knowledge about English learners and ways to effectively work with them, internalized views of deficits and low expectations of English learners will persist, and the issue of how to meet their diverse needs will continue” (p. 188).

It is the responsibility of educator preparation programs to provide the appropriate and relevant knowledge base in bilingual education. Tigert and Peercy (2018) conducted a study in which teacher candidates working with English learners felt unprepared. This qualitative study conducted interviews and observed lessons implemented by teacher candidates and found that expectations were based on personal learning experiences. The teacher candidates expected to teach the way they were taught. Gay (2010) asserted, “teacher education programs need to do a much better job than they currently are in helping their students examine the causes and character of the different attitudes and beliefs they hold toward specific ethnic groups and cultures” (p. 144). In addition, as part the preparation program, field experiences in bilingual settings complement the learning of theories. These field experiences also influence teacher candidates’ attitudes toward bilingual education.

Field Experiences in Educator Preparation Programs

The design of educator preparation programs includes the practice of providing field experiences for teacher candidates in which they implement learning strategies and teaching methods in the school setting. In the state of Texas, a field experience is defined as “experiences for a classroom teacher certification candidate involving, at a minimum, reflective observation of Early Childhood – Grade 12 students, teachers, and faculty/staff members engaging in

educational activities in a school setting” (TAC, Chapter 228, 2016). In these field placements, teacher candidates can participate in the kinds of programs for which they are being prepared and that are relevant to their area of intended certification. The purpose of these field experiences is for teacher candidates to demonstrate their knowledge and skills while integrating theory with practice in K-12 classrooms. According to Liaw (2009), most educator preparation programs have field experiences that provide the opportunity to integrate knowledge and experience with teaching skills that connect practice and theory. Teacher candidates can take what they have learned from their university coursework and use this information to provide instruction in real world settings.

The organization of field experiences varies from program to program. Some programs have field experiences that are community-based, tutoring or are classroom-based in a school setting. Community-based field experiences in teacher education are considered opportunities for teacher candidates to become familiar with issues related to the community and education and serve to connect classrooms to communities. (Beaudry, 2015; Hallman, 2012). Teacher candidates interact with students outside the school setting within the context of their community.

Hallman (2012) discussed the importance of community-based field experience after conducting a case study of four teacher candidates. The teacher candidates in this study participated in community-based field experiences that were embedded in an English methods course. The experience consisted of an afterschool initiative for serving homeless families in the community. After conducting group interviews, seminar meetings, examining reflective journals and observing, Hallman (2012) identified the benefits of community-based field experiences to be a better understanding of the students’ learning strengths and weaknesses and an appreciation

for the contribution of out-of-school interest to academic learning. In a similar study, Beaudry (2015) associated community-based field experiences with culturally relevant pedagogy. This study interpreted the understandings of three teacher candidates who found this type of field experience enabled them to connect issues of community, education and diversity making the experience more meaningful.

Tutoring is another type of field experience that may be provided early in the educator preparation program. While tutoring, teacher candidates can work with students directly on a one-to-one basis or in small groups. One of the benefits of this format according to Timmons & Morgan (2008), is that it gives teacher candidates a safe environment to implement teaching strategies without the need for the cooperating teacher's approval. In a study by Paquette and Laverick (2017), a group of teacher candidates engaged in tutoring as part of the field experiences of a reading methods course identified tutoring to improve their skills and development. This qualitative study used reflection papers and observations to identify advantages of tutoring. Results indicated that teacher candidates valued the real-world experience and the ability to identify the student's individual needs, as well as the increased confidence they acquired. These findings coincide with studies that find tutoring improves skillset, builds confidence, establishes teaching philosophies, develops leadership skills and increased professionalism (Timmons & Morgan, 2008; Lane, Hudson, McCray, Tragash, & Zeig, 2011; Helfrich, 2012).

Field experiences generally occur in school settings in which teacher candidates observe and instruct students under the guidance of a cooperating teacher also known as a teacher mentor. Research has found that classroom experiences represent an important component of teacher education (Ball & Forzani, 2009; Ingersoll, 2004; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Lucas,

1997). Authentic experiences conducted in school settings help teacher candidates apply learned theory into classroom practice, implement differentiated instruction, and familiarize themselves with the workload and role of the classroom teacher (Paquette & Laverick, 2017; Lane, Hudson, McCray, Tragash, & Zeig, 2011; Massey & Lewis, 2011).

In addition to the variety of types of experiences, there is also variety in the amount of time that teacher candidates work in the field. In the setting of this study, for example, field experiences took the form of “blocks” in which teacher candidates participated in either 50, 80 or 100+ hours (blocks) of time at an assigned school setting. The significance of field experiences in an educator preparation program cannot be emphasized enough. Field experiences have been identified as an important and critical part of educator preparation (Almarza, 2005; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Hollins & Guzman, 2005; Johnson, 1999). In addition, field experiences have the potential to impact teacher candidates’ perceptions toward education, reinforcing or challenging their initial beliefs (Gomez, Knutson-Miller & Garcia, 2011).

The type of field experiences offered to teacher candidates becomes increasingly important as the demographics of our school systems change. In addition to preparing teacher candidates for the cultural diversity in schools, educator preparation programs must also prepare them for linguistic diversity. Lucas, Villegas and Freedson-Gonzalez, (2008) referred to this acknowledgment of linguistic diversity in English learners and the implementation of appropriate bilingual instructional methods as linguistically responsive pedagogy. Linguistically responsive pedagogy can be achieved by providing teacher candidates who are seeking bilingual certification with authentic and meaningful field experiences. Gurvitch and Metzler (2009) described field experiences that are authentic as those which include practice within the contextual factors of K-12 schools. These contextual factors include the bilingual students and

their language diversity in bilingual classrooms. Field experiences in bilingual classrooms permit teacher candidates opportunities to implement instruction based on theories of second language learning. Research indicates that field experiences also impact the preparedness and perceptions of teacher candidates (Zeintak, 2006; Siwatu, 2011). As schools educate more students in bilingual settings who are identified as English learners, it is important that teachers entering the profession be provided with the knowledge base and experiences to identify their students' learning differences.

Summary of the Chapter

The history of bilingual education has demonstrated that its importance has not been emphasized as much as it should, considering the continuous increase in English learners. Initially, bilingual education was included as part of the Civil Rights act in which the focus was desegregation. It wasn't until the *Lau* 1974 decision that the needs of language learners were highlighted, requiring appropriate instruction. Instructional models of bilingual education, such as maintenance models and transitional models have provided the structure for educators to deliver instruction while meeting the diverse learners' linguistic needs. An understanding of second language acquisition theories as the foundation for effective teaching and learning in bilingual classrooms is important for teacher candidates. The goal of bilingual education is to promote language proficiency in the areas of reading, writing, listening and speaking. Awareness of the theories, concepts and literature associated with second language acquisition can assist with efforts to promote language proficiency so that students are able to communicate effectively in both social and academic contexts. Educator preparation programs who train and instruct future educators have the potential to influence teacher candidate attitudes toward bilingual education. Teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification are provided with

knowledge of issues and strategies related to second language acquisition and bilingual education through the coursework and field experiences in their educator preparation program.

CHAPTER III: METHOD

The purpose of the study was to answer the research questions: 1) what are the attitudes of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification enrolled in an educator preparation program toward bilingual education? and 2) To what extent, if any, are the attitudes of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification enrolled in an educator preparation program toward bilingual education affected by their selected demographic characteristics? This chapter describes the research design, subject selection, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis.

Research Design

The research design for this study was descriptive in nature, using quantitative methods to assess the attitudes of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification toward bilingual education. Descriptive research is utilized to examine specific characteristics of a sample or population (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2015), which is also referred as a survey study, to assess attitudes, opinions, preferences, demographics, practices, and procedures (Gay & Ariansan, 2003). There were no independent or dependent variables due to the descriptive nature of the study. In addition, as the study was non-experimental in nature, no causal inferences were drawn.

Subject Selection

The study took place in a south Texas university, hereafter referred to as the University. At the time of conducting the study, the regional University had an enrollment of over 7,000 students. The University is a Hispanic-serving institution with over 90% of the students being Hispanic. The University's academics are organized into five colleges with varying enrollments: College of Arts and Sciences (3,831 students enrolled), College of Business (1,217 students enrolled), College of Education (978 students enrolled), College of Nursing and Health Sciences

(619 students enrolled), and University College (375 students enrolled). The focus of the University is on developing undergraduate and graduate degrees with a progressive international agenda for global study and understanding across disciplines.

The accessible population for this study included teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification in an educator preparation program at the University ($n = 100$). These individuals were enrolled in courses in which they were required to observe and teach lessons in a variety of topics (i.e., reading, mathematics, social studies, and science) in a bilingual classroom setting in order to complete the required field experience hours. Contact information for the students was obtained from the University's College of Education Office of Field and Clinical Experiences. All were invited to participate. Approval to conduct the study was obtained from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Texas A&M International University (Protocol # 2018-08-21) and Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (#115-18), as shown in appendices A and B.

Instrumentation

A 2-part survey questionnaire, Attitudes Toward Bilingual Education (ATBE), was developed by the researcher (Appendix C). A systematic review of the literature was used to create the ATBE.

The first part was designed to collect data on selected characteristics of the participants. Specifically, they were asked to provide data on gender, age (18 – 24, 25 – 34, 35 – 44, 45+) ethnicity (White, Hispanic or Latino, Black or African American, Native American or American Indian, Asian/Pacific Islander, other) , number of semester credit hours in bilingual education, and hours of field experiences (0 – 20, 21 – 40, 41 – 60, 61 – 80, 81 – 100, 100+). The participants were also asked to rate their level of proficiency in a second language on a continuum from 1.00 to 5.00)

The second part of the ATBE consisted of 13 statements designed to measure the attitudes toward bilingual education, which were derived from a study by Shin and Krashen (1996) that had focused on the perceptions of bilingual education by teachers in California. The purpose of their study was to examine how teachers perceived and understood bilingual education and how their attitudes could have affected support for bilingual education. The 13 statements were:

If a student is not proficient in English, the child should be in a classroom learning his/her first language (reading and writing) as part of the school curriculum.

If a student is not proficient in English, the child should be in a classroom learning subject matter (e.g. math, science, etc.) in his/her first language.

Learning subject matter in the first language helps second language students learn subject matter better when he/she studies them in English

If a student develops literacy in the first language, it will facilitate the development of reading and writing in English.

High levels of bilingualism can lead to practical, career related advantages.

High levels of bilingualism can result in higher development of knowledge or mental skills.

It is good for students to maintain their native culture, as well as American culture.

Development of the native language helps develop a sense of biculturalism.

If a student is proficient in both Spanish and English, he/she should be enrolled in a classroom where the first language is part of the curriculum.

If a student is not proficient in English, the student will do better in school if he/she learnt to write in his/her language.

A child who can read and write in the first language will be able to learn English faster and easier (as opposed to a child who cannot read and write in his/her first language).

If a second language learner is in an English only class, he/she will learn English better.

Students must learn English as quickly as possible even if it means the loss of the native language.

A 4-point Likert-type scaling was used, 4 = Strongly agree, 3 = Agree, 2 = Disagree, 1= Strongly disagree.

The researcher's doctoral dissertation committee examined and approved the content validity of the ATBE. An online version of the questionnaire was developed by the researcher, using the Qualtrics software. The ATBE was pilot-tested to examine its utility. Consent to participate in the study was embedded in the questionnaire.

Data Collection

The quantitative data were collected electronically from November to December, 2018. An initial email was sent on November 9, 2018, informing the 100 potential participants of the purpose of the study and providing them with a link to the ATBE. Follow up emails were sent on November 12, 2018, November 26, 2018, December 3, 2018, and December 10, 2018. Data collection ended on December 28, 2018. There were 79 respondents, of which, 64 had provided complete useable data. The overwhelming majority (59, 92.19%) were Hispanic females. The two (2) White females, one (1) White male, and two (2) Hispanic males were not included in the analysis of data so that gender and ethnicity could be ruled out as confounding variables by keeping them constant. The 59 Hispanic females represented the study's non-probability sample; thus, limiting the external validity/generalizability of the results to the study's participants.

Data Analysis

The data collected from the online survey were formatted into an Excel file and exported into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 (IBM Corp, 2017), which was utilized for the purpose of data manipulation and analysis. Descriptive statistics, namely, frequency and percentage distribution tables, measures of central tendency (mean for continuous

and median for ordinal data), and measures of variability (standard deviation, SD, and semi-interquartile range, SIQR, for continuous and ordinal data, respectively) were used to summarize the data. The level of significance was set, a priori, at 0.05.

Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991) was used to estimate the reliability (internal consistency) of the scale scores. Specifically, $\alpha = [k/k-1] [1-(\sum \sigma_i^2/\sigma_x^2)]$, where k is the number of items on the test, σ_i^2 is the variance of item i , and σ_x^2 is the total test variance (sum of the variances plus twice the sum of the co-variances of all possible pairs of its components, that is, $\sigma_x^2 = \sum \sigma_i^2 + 2 \sum \sigma_{ij}$).

The Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was used to describe the magnitude and direction of the bivariate associations (Field, 2018). Pearson's r ranges from -1.00 to +1.00.

One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed to examine group differences, assuming the following linear model: $X_{ij} = \mu + \alpha_j + \epsilon_{ij}$ (Score = Grand Mean + Treatment Effect + Error Effect). Levene's F was used to test the homogeneity of variances assumption. Effect size was computed by $f = \sqrt{(k-1)F/N}$, where k = number of groups, F is the F -ratio, and N is the total sample size, and was described as 0.10 = small effect, 0.25 = medium effect, > 0.40 = large effect (Cohen, 1988; Field, 2018).

Analysis of the data also included t -test for independent samples, which assumes (1) normality, (2) homogeneity of variances/equal variances, and (3) independence of observations, that is, two mutually exclusive groups (Field, 2018). Levene's F was used to test the homogeneity of variances assumption. The mean difference effect size, $d = [M1 - M2]/\text{Pooled SD}$, was computed to examine the importance of the findings and was characterized as 0.20 = small effect, 0.50 = medium effect, and 0.80 = large effect (Cohen, 1988).

Summary of the Chapter

The non-experimental nature of the study prohibited any causal inferences. The non-probability nature of the sampling limited the external validity to the study's participants. The data were collected electronically, using an online survey instrument. Descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were used to analyze the data and report the results. Practical significance of the findings was investigated.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

The purpose of the study was to examine the attitudes of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification toward bilingual education. In addition, the study sought to examine the potential impact of selected demographic characteristics on underlying bilingual education's principles. The following research questions guided the study:

1. What are the attitudes of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification enrolled in an educator preparation program toward bilingual education?
2. To what extent, if any, are the attitudes of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification enrolled in an educator preparation program toward bilingual education affected by their selected demographic characteristics.

A Profile of the Subjects

The non-probability sample consisted of 59 teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification in the educator preparation program who agreed to participate in the study voluntarily. The participants were all Hispanic females, ranging in age from 18 to 44 years old, with most falling in the 18 to 24 age range (76.30%). The majority (54.30%) had completed 0 to 60 hours of field experience, with 21 to 40 hours as the mode (35.60%). Teacher candidates were asked how many semester credit hours they had completed in bilingual education. Each course represented three (3) semester credit hours. The mean and standard deviation were 9.00 and 5.37, respectively. Additionally, the participants reported their level of proficiency in another language, using a 5-point scaling (1 = not at all, 5 = very fluent), which was treated as an ordinal variable (Median = 5.00, SIQR = 0.50). Results for categorical variables are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

A Profile of Subjects, Categorical Variables, n = 59

Variable	F	%
Gender		
Female	59	100.00
Ethnicity		
Hispanic	59	100.00
Age		
18-24	45	76.30
25-34	10	16.90
35-44	4	6.80
Field Experience Hours		
0-20	3	5.10
21-40	21	35.60
41-60	8	13.60
61-80	4	6.80
81-100	7	11.90
100 +	16	27.10

Item Level Results

To answer the first research question, the participants were provided with the Attitudes Toward Bilingual Education survey questionnaire, which consisted of 13 statements regarding the underlying principles of bilingual education. A 4-point Likert-type scaling (1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, and 4 = strongly agree) was used. The frequency and percentage distributions are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

Attitudes Toward Bilingual Education, n = 59

Item	Response	F	%
1. If a student is not proficient in English, the child should be in a classroom learning his/her first language (reading and writing) as part of the school curriculum.	Strongly Agree	23	39.00
	Agree	25	42.40
	Disagree	11	18.60
2. If a student is not proficient in English, the child should be in a classroom learning subject matter (e.g. math, science, etc.) in his/her first language.	Strongly Agree	19	32.20
	Agree	30	50.80
	Disagree	9	15.30
	Strongly Disagree	1	1.70
3. Learning subject matter in the first language helps second language students learn subject matter better when he/she studies them in English	Strongly Agree	27	45.80
	Agree	29	49.20
	Disagree	2	3.40
	Strongly Disagree	1	1.70
4. If a student develops literacy in the first language, it will facilitate the development of reading and writing in English	Strongly Agree	29	49.20
	Agree	27	45.80
	Disagree	3	5.10
5. High levels of bilingualism can lead to practical, career related advantages	Strongly Agree	47	79.70
	Agree	12	20.30
6. High levels of bilingualism can result in higher development of knowledge or mental skills	Strongly Agree	46	78.00
	Agree	12	20.30
	Disagree	1	1.70
7. It is good for students to maintain their native culture, as well as American culture	Strongly Agree	46	78.00
	Agree	13	22.00
8. Development of the native language helps develop a sense of biculturalism	Strongly Agree	44	74.60
	Agree	15	25.40

Table 2 continued

9. If a student is proficient in both Spanish and English, he/she should be enrolled in a classroom where the first language is part of the curriculum	Strongly Agree	26	44.10
	Agree	25	42.40
	Disagree	8	13.60
10. If a student is not proficient in English, the student will do better in school if he/she learnt to write in his/her language	Strongly Agree	17	28.80
	Agree	33	55.90
	Disagree	9	15.30
11. A child who can read and write in the first language will be able to learn English faster and easier (as opposed to a child who cannot read and write in his/her first language)	Strongly Agree	29	49.20
	Agree	22	37.30
	Disagree	8	13.60
12. If a second language learner is in an English only class, he/she will learn English better	Strongly Agree	2	3.40
	Agree	13	22.00
	Disagree	30	50.80
	Strongly Disagree	14	23.70
13. Students must learn English as quickly as possible even if it means the loss of the native language	Strongly Agree	1	1.70
	Agree	2	3.40
	Disagree	20	33.90
	Strongly Disagree	36	61.00

The means of the participants' responses were used to rank the teacher candidates' attitudinal statements from the highest (strongly agree) to the lowest (strongly disagree). The *"high levels of bilingualism can lead to practical career related advantaged"* statement received the highest agreement. The *"students must learn English as quickly as possible even if it means the loss of the native language"* was the only statement that received disagreement. Results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Ranking of Attitudes of Bilingual Education, n = 59

Item	M*
High levels of bilingualism can lead to practical, career related advantages.	3.80
It is good for students to maintain their native culture, as well as American culture.	3.78
High levels of bilingualism can result in higher development of knowledge or mental skills.	3.76
Development of the native language helps develop a sense of biculturalism.	3.75
If a student develops literacy in the first language, it will facilitate the development of reading and writing in English.	3.44
Learning subject matter in the first language helps second language students learn subject matter better when he/she studies them in English.	3.39
A child who can read and write in the first language will be able to learn English faster and easier (as opposed to a child who cannot read and write in his/her first language).	3.36
If a student is proficient in both Spanish and English, he/she should be enrolled in a classroom where the first language is part of the curriculum.	3.31
If a student is not proficient in English, the child should be in a classroom learning his/her first language (reading and writing) as part of the school curriculum.	3.20
If a student is not proficient in English, the student will do better in school if he/she learnt to write in his/her language	3.14
If a student is not proficient in English, the child should be in a classroom learning subject matter (e.g. math, science, etc.) in his/her first language.	3.14
If a second language learner is in an English only class he/she will learn English better.	2.05
Students must learn English as quickly as possible even if it means the loss of the native language.	1.46

*4= Strongly Agree, 3= Agree, 2=Disagree, 1= Strongly Disagree

Scale Level Results

The reliability coefficient for the 13-item attitudes toward bilingual education construct, as computed by Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha, was 0.79, attesting to the internal consistency of the scale. The mean of the respondents' responses was used to compute a scale score, which ranged from 2.54 to 4.00 ($M = 3.20$, $SD = 0.33$), suggesting an agreement with the underlying principles in bilingual education

Exploratory Analyses

To answer the study's second research question, the links between the bilingual education construct and selected demographic characteristics of the respondents were examined. The simple associations, as determined by Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient, between attitudes towards bilingual education and (1) semester hours in bilingual education, $r(57) = 0.19$, $p = 0.15$, and (2) proficiency in a foreign language, $r(57) = 0.18$, $p = 0.17$, were not statistically significant.

A one-way Analysis ANOVA was performed to examine differences among the age-groups based on the scale score for the attitudes towards bilingual education. In spite of unequal sample sizes, the homogeneity of variances assumption was met, *Levene's* $F(2, 56) = 0.45$, $p = 0.64$. No statistically significant group differences was found among the 18 – 24 ($n = 45$, $M = 3.12$, $SD = 0.33$), 25 – 34 ($n = 10$, $M = 3.12$, $SD = 0.36$, and 35 – 44 ($n = 4$, $M = 3.17$, $SD = 0.31$) age-groups, $F(2, 56) = 0.32$, $p = 0.73$. The effect size was 0.10, indicating a small effect.

For the purpose of the analysis, field experience in bilingual education was dichotomized into (1) 0 – 60 or (2) 61 – 100+ hours. A t-test for independent samples was performed. The homogeneity of variances assumption was met, *Levene's* $F = 0.50$, $p = 0.48$. The group differences were statistically significant, $t(57) = 2.31$, $p < 0.05$, which showed those who had 61 to 100+ hours of field experience ($n = 27$, $M = 3.30$, $SD = 0.33$) were in agreement with underlying principles of bilingual education more than did those what had received zero to 60 hours of field experience ($n = 32$, $M = 3.11$, $SD = 0.31$). The mean difference effect size, as computed by Cohen's d , was 0.61, indicating a medium effect.

Summary of the Chapter

The results showed that teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification, regardless of age, semester credit hours in bilingual education, and proficiency in another language were in agreement with underlying principles in bilingual education. This agreement was more pronounced among those who had completed more than 60 hours of field experiences, compared to those whose hours of field experience was less than 60 hours.

CHAPTER V: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

This chapter summarizes the findings of the study regarding the attitudes of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification enrolled in an educator preparation program toward bilingual education. Conclusions based on the data obtained from the previous chapter follows. Implications for practice and recommendations for further research, are then presented in the discussion.

Summary of the Results

The purpose of the study was to answer the questions 1) what are the attitudes of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification enrolled in an educator preparation program toward bilingual education? and 2) To what extent, if any, are the attitudes of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification enrolled in an educator preparation program toward bilingual education affected by their selected demographic characteristics? A 2-part survey questionnaire, Attitudes Toward Bilingual Education (ATBE), was developed by the researcher. The internal consistency and content validity of the instrument was established. A total of 59 teacher candidates enrolled in an educator preparation program seeking bilingual certification participated in the study. All participants were Hispanic and female ranging in age from 18 to 44 years with most falling in the 18 to 24 age range. Teacher candidates completing the survey also reported the hours of field experience completed (0-60 or 61-100+ hours). In addition, most had completed a minimum of 9 semester credit hours of coursework in bilingual education and reported fluency in another language.

The results showed that teacher candidates enrolled in an educator preparation program seeking bilingual certification, regardless of demographic characteristics (i.e., age, semester credit hours, field experience hours, and proficiency in another language) reported positive

attitudes toward bilingual education based on the theories of second language acquisition. The teacher candidates showed agreement with all but one of the statements in the ATBE questionnaire. The only statement that showed disagreement was “*students must learn English as quickly as possible even if it means the loss of the native language*”. The mean of the participants responses were used to compute a scale score, which ranged from 2.54 to 4.00 ($M = 3.20$, $SD = 0.33$).

The study’s second question was addressed via exploratory analyses, examining the links between the bilingual education construct and the selected participant demographic characteristics. No statistical significance was noted with regards to semester credit hours in bilingual education ($p = 0.15$) or language proficiency ($p = 0.17$) in another language affecting teacher candidate attitudes toward bilingual education. No statistically significant group differences were found among the 18 – 24 ($n = 45$, $M = 3.12$, $SD = 0.33$), 25 – 34 ($n = 10$, $M = 3.12$, $SD = 0.36$, and 35 – 44 ($n = 4$, $M = 3.17$, $SD = 0.31$) age-groups, $F(2, 56) = 0.32$, $p = 0.73$. Finally, the hours of field experience group differences were statistically significant, $t(57) = 2.31$, $p < 0.05$, which showed those who had 61 to 100+ hours of field experience ($n = 27$, $M = 3.30$, $SD = 0.33$) were in agreement with underlying principles of bilingual education more than did those what had received zero to sixty hours of field experience ($n = 32$, $M = 3.11$, $SD = 0.31$). Due to the non-experimental nature of the study, no causal inferences were drawn and the external validity was limited to the participants of this study due to the non-probability nature of the sampling.

Conclusions

The study did not test any bilingual education theories. However, the survey statements were derived from theories of language acquisition, specifically, the theories developed by Jim

Cummins and Stephen Krashen. For example, in item three “learning subject matter in the first language helps students learn subject matter better when taught in English,” Krashen’s theory of comprehensible input is evident. Cummins’s theory of second language acquisition which includes transferability is evident in item four “literacy transfers across languages”.

The researcher postulated that attitudes of teacher candidates toward bilingual education would vary based on their demographics, language proficiency in a second language, hours in bilingual education and hours in field experiences. Participants agreed that native language helps second language students when learning subject matter in English. They also agreed that literacy transfers across language and recognize the importance of developing the first language. The results of the study indicated that all teacher candidates were in favor of bilingual education and its underlying principles of language acquisition regardless of age, language proficiency in another language, bilingual coursework or time spent in the field. It was noted that agreement was more evident for those individuals who spent more time in the field.

Discussion

The number of English language learners in need of bilingual instruction continues to increase along with the need for educators prepared to meet their needs. Educator preparation programs have the responsibility to ensure that teacher candidates are ready to provide instruction in bilingual settings and able to connect theory and practice. Smolen, Colville-Hall, Liang, and MacDonald (2005) challenged educator preparation programs to develop programs with a commitment to equitable education.

The study was grounded on the theories of language acquisition as developed by Cummins and Krashen. In order to implement bilingual education effectively for second language learners, it is important to understand the underlying principles of second language

acquisition. According to Krashen (1987), “language acquisition does not require extensive use of conscious grammatical rules and does not require tedious drill” (p. 6-7). To facilitate the language acquisition process in students, the language principles must be considered. An understanding that language is fluid and varies in level of proficiency and purpose is important to determine communicative competence. A student must know what language is appropriate and in what setting, social or academic. When a student is developing the second language, the use of language in contextual setting will likely be more in everyday situations that require the use of basic interpersonal communication skills. Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) are the language skills that are necessary for successful communication in everyday situations. This process happens relatively quickly depending on the student’s prior knowledge and experiences as well as their personality and motivation, which may take longer for a student who is shy or comes from a conservative culture; on average, it takes two to three years to develop (Walter, 2004). These language skills may lead observers to believe that the student is proficient, when in fact they are lacking the cognitive academic language that is necessary to succeed in the academic setting.

In the academic setting, the need of English language learners is the development of cognitive academic language proficiency. Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) occurs through direct instruction of language structures and skills in the classroom setting (Walter, 2004). The academic learning differs in that it is more than vocabulary that needs to be learned it is content knowledge and the rules of the language as well. Thus, language learning takes longer to achieve. According to Thomas and Collier (2002), the average time is five to seven years. Throughout this time, whether developing BICS or CALP, meeting the needs of English language learners also includes understanding the stages of language acquisition.

Bilingual programs have the potential to promote bilingualism, biliteracy, and pluralism in minority and majority group students who study together in two languages (McCollum, 1999). The varying models of bilingual education offer English learners the opportunity to acquire a second language while potentially maintaining their native language. Transitional, Dual and Heritage programs support the use of a student's home language in the academic setting while the student gains proficiency in English. Educators of English learners gain knowledge and expertise from educator preparation programs who emphasize bilingualism.

In addition to preparing teacher candidates to provide instruction in these diverse settings, educator preparation programs should consider the attitudes associated with bilingual education. Researchers have found that teacher attitudes play an important role in promoting academic achievement and these beliefs are the basis for classroom environment conducive to learning (Mathes & Torgeson, 2000; Archambault, Jonosz, & Chouinard, 2012). Studies on teacher attitudes toward bilingual education indicate that teachers with more formal training have more positive attitudes than those with less formal training (Byrnes, Kiger & Manning, 1997; Flores, Keehn, & Perez, 2002; Garcia-Nevarez, Stafford, and Arias, 2005; Krashen, 1996). In addition, Garcia-Nevarez, Stafford, and Arias (2005) found that teachers with frequent contact with English learners had positive attitudes toward the use of native language for instruction such as that provided by bilingual education.

One of the challenges faced by educator preparation programs is preparing teachers to work with diverse populations including English learners in bilingual settings. Unless an individual is seeking a specialization such as bilingual certification, issues of diversity and curricula have been separated from the rest of educator preparation (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005). The history of teacher education and current reform efforts have all been focused on

improving the quality of teaching and learning. In addition to content knowledge and pedagogy, strategies to understand diverse students such as language learners should be included in educator preparation programs. As stated by Darling-Hammond (2000), “Developing the ability to see beyond one’s own perspective, to put oneself in the shoes of the learner and to understand the meaning of that experiences in terms of learning, is perhaps the most important role of universities in the preparation of teachers” (p. 170).

Research cited in the review of literature of this study has identified that field experiences are an important part of educator preparation. Field experiences provided in the form of tutoring, community-based or classroom settings extend the preparation of teachers outside university settings where they can apply learned pedagogy and content knowledge. Experiences with language learners in the classroom setting for teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification is an important component of educator preparation. The match between the field experience placement and the area of certification in terms of types of students (English learners) appears to be associated with stronger teaching (Koerner, Rust, & Baumgartner, 2002). Educator preparation programs should strive to support teacher candidates’ as they learn and implement pedagogy in settings with second language learners.

Implications

Although the number of participants in this study was limited to one location and response rates were small, the study contributes to the ongoing research on teacher preparation, specifically, preparation of those seeking bilingual certification. The Attitudes Toward Bilingual Education (ATBE) survey, grounded on theories of second language acquisition, provides data with the potential to inform educator preparation program reform. Researchers have acknowledged the ability to identify and apply linguistic knowledge and cultural background as

important to delivering effective instructional practices for English learners (Katz, 2000; Torok & Aguilar, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1995). The results of the study suggest that educator preparation programs have the potential to impact attitudes by implementing field experiences to include activities in which teacher candidates can develop instructional strategies based on second language acquisition processes.

This research suggests that female Hispanic educators have favorable perceptions of bilingual education that are enhanced by participating in field experiences. As the group in this study demonstrated attitudes about bilingual education can be influenced by time spent in the classroom setting via field experiences. According to Sleeter (2008), field experiences have the potential to encourage teacher candidates to learn about their student's interests, abilities and strengths.

Teacher candidates should be presented with opportunities to examine their attitudes and broaden their perspectives through working with English learners. The major contribution of this study is that it provides data on teacher candidates who are of the same minority group as the students they are working with. In a review of the literature by Cochran-Smith & Zeichner (2005), on preparing teachers for diverse populations (including English learners), one hundred and one studies spanning over twenty years showed that little research has been conducted related to minority teacher candidates.

Delimitations

The study was delimited to the one university due to the accessibility of the site. The study was delimited to teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification because they were enrolled in an educator preparation program requiring the completion of coursework and field experiences in bilingual education. All bilingual certification seeking students in the educator

preparation program were invited to participate, however not all did. This study occurred during one semester. If it had been over a longer period, there may have been more participants. Because the participants were predominantly Hispanic females, the study was delimited by gender and ethnicity.

Limitations

Due to the non-probability sampling, external validity was limited to participants completing the survey. No causal inferences were drawn due to the non-experimental nature of the study. It is assumed that the participants answered the survey honestly.

Recommendations for Further Research

The sampling limited the external validity to the study's participants. Therefore, it is recommended that the study be replicated in other university-based educator preparation programs with teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification. It is worth noting that all participants in this study were Hispanic females. Studies to identify the attitudes of non-Hispanic teacher candidates as well as male teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification are recommended. In addition, a mixed methods study with a qualitative component of open-ended questions related to attitudes toward bilingual education would provide additional data that is unobtainable via survey format. It is recommended that a longitudinal study be conducted to examine the types of field experiences that are provided to teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification. Additionally, observation of the teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification during field experiences in bilingual classroom settings is suggested. Finally, replication of the study to include teacher candidates and the cooperating teacher to whom they are assigned to during field experiences would provide additional insight into bilingual education and educator preparation programs.

Final Remarks

My interest in bilingual education and attitudes toward bilingual education stem from my previous experience as a classroom teacher. As a bilingual teacher, who did not follow the traditional undergraduate path to certification, I was unprepared to meet the needs of second language learners in my classroom and was influenced by the prevalent “they need to learn English not Spanish” comments from colleagues and school administrators. The students I was teaching were struggling. They were bright energetic and eager to learn, but something was holding them back, namely their language. The complexities of teaching the varying language proficiency levels motivated me to seek a graduate degree in bilingual education. The knowledge and skills obtained through the completion of that degree afforded me the opportunity to work with classroom teachers at the district level in bilingual education for many years and led me to my current position working with teacher candidates in all areas of certification.

I feel that I can make a difference in education by guiding teacher candidates. This love of learning has brought me to completion of a doctoral degree in curriculum and instruction. The more I learn, the more I am able to improve the education of others. People often ask me, “why do you keep going to school, aren’t you done yet”. My answer to this is usually “I’m never done”. I firmly believe that to be an effective educator, one must always take the opportunity to learn both formally and informally. I have often told people that I believe I have literally been a student all my life and will continue to be one for the rest of it. Haven’t we all? We begin learning the moment we enter this world, getting to know our environment. We begin teaching the minute we enter this world as well, teaching others at the very basic level about ourselves. We are constantly teaching and learning. This conviction has guided my perspectives regarding education and the value of learning.

REFERENCES

- Archambault, I., Janosz, M., & Chouinard, R. (2013). Teacher beliefs as predictors of cognitive engagement and achievement in mathematics. *Journal of Educational Research, 105*(5), 319-328.
- Achugar, M. and Pessoa, S. (2009). Power and place: Language attitudes toward Spanish in a bilingual academic community in Southwest Texas. *Spanish in Context, 6*(2), 199-223.
- Adamson, H.D. (2005). *Language minority students in American schools*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Almarza, D.J. (2005). Connecting multicultural education theories with practice: A case study of an intervention course using the realistic approach in teacher education. *Bilingual Research Journal, 3*(29), 527-727.
- Assaf, L.C., Garza, R., & Battle, J. (2010). Multicultural teacher education: Examining the perceptions, practices, and coherence in one teacher preparation program. *Teacher Education Quarterly, Spring 2010*, 115-135.
- Ariza, E. N., & Hancock, S. (2003). Second Language Acquisition Theories as a Framework for Creating Distance Learning Courses. *The International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning, 4*(2). Retrieved from <http://www.irrodl.org/index.php/irrodl/article/view/142>
- Baker, C. (1996). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (2nd ed.). Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters.
- Ball, D. L., & Forzani, F. M. (2009). The work of teaching and the challenge for teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 60*(5), 497-511.
- Batt, E. (2008). Teachers' perceptions of ELL education: Potential solutions to overcome the

- greatest challenges. *Multicultural Education*, 15(3), 39-43.
- Beaudry, C. (2015). Community connections: Integrating community-based field experiences to support teacher education for diversity. *Educational Considerations*, 43(1).
doi:10.4148/0146-9282.1033
- Bilingual Education Act*, Pub. L. No (93-380) 88 Stat. 503 (1974).
- Brown vs. the Board of Education*. (1954). Glen Rock, N.J.: Microfilming Corp. of America.
- Brownlee, J. (2003). Changes in primary school teachers' beliefs about knowing: A longitudinal study. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 31, 87-98.
- Bureau, U. S. C. (n.d.). American FactFinder - Results. Retrieved August 12, 2018, from https://factfinder.census.gov/faces/tableservices/jsf/pages/productview.xhtml?pid=ACS_16_1YR_DP02&prodType=table
- Byrnes, D. H., Kiger, G., & Manning, M. L. (1997). Teachers' Attitudes about Language Diversity. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 13(6), 637–644.
- Callahan, R. (2005). Tracking and high school English learners: Limiting opportunity to learn. *American Educational Research Journal*, 42(2), 305-328.
- Castaneda v. Pickard*, 648 F.2d 989, 1007 5th Cir. 1981, 103 S.Ct. 3321 (1983).
- Chapter 228. (n.d.). Retrieved May 4, 2018, from <http://ritter.tea.state.tx.us/sbecrules/tac/chapter228/ch228.html>
- Chinn, P., & Gollnick, D. (2016). *Multicultural education in a pluralistic Society* (10th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Cloud, N., Genesee, F., & Hamayan, E. (2000). *Dual language instruction: A handbook for enriched education*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle

Publishers.

Cochran-Smith, M. & Zeichner, K. M. (2005). Executive summary. In M. Cochran-Smith & K.M. Zeichner (Eds.), *Studying teacher education: The report of the AERA panel on research and teacher education*. Washington, D.C.: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, N.J.: L. Erlbaum Associates.

Cummins, J. (1981). The role of primary language development in promoting educational success for language minority students. In California State Department of education (Ed.) *Schooling and language minority students: A theoretical framework*. (p. 3-49). Los Angeles: Evaluation, Dissemination and Assessment Center California State University.

Cummins, J. (2000). *Language, power and pedagogy*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Daniel, S. (2014). Learning to educate English language learners in pre-service elementary practicums. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, Spring 2014, 5-28.

Darling-Hammond, L. (1990). Teachers and teaching: Signs of a changing profession. *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education*. W. R. Houston. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company: 267-291.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2000). How teacher education matters. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 51(3), 166-173.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2006). Constructing 21st-century teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 57(3), 300-314.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2006). *Powerful teacher education: Lessons from exemplary programs*

- (1st ed. ed., The Jossey-Bass education series). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Definition of ATTITUDE. (n.d.). Retrieved May 4, 2018, from <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/attitude>
- DePaepe, J., Lambert, C, Curran, C., & Shorr, D. (2010). Assessing teacher candidate dispositions. *Journal of Educational Practices* 8(1), 9-25.
- Díaz-Rico, L. (2013). *Strategies for teaching english learners* (3rd ed.). Boston: Pearson/Allyn and Bacon.
- English Language Learner - Cross-Curricular. (n.d.). Retrieved August 12, 2018, from <http://elltx.org/snapshot.html>
- Feinberg, R.C. (2002). *Bilingual education: A reference handbook*. California: ABC-CLIO, Inc.
- Ferreira, A.M. (2006). Researching beliefs about SLA: A critical review. In P. Kalaja, & A.M. Ferreira (Eds.), *Beliefs about SLA: New research approaches* (pp. 7-53). New York, NY: Springer Science Business Media.
- Field, A. (2018). *Discovering statistics using ibm spss statistics* (5th ed.). London: SAGE Publications.
- Field, F. (2011). *Bilingualism in the USA: The case of the Chicano-Latino community*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Fillmore, L.W., & Snow, C. (2002). What teachers need to know about language. In Adger, C. T., Snow, C. & Christian, D. (Eds.). *What teachers need to know about language* (pp. 7-53). McHenry, IL: Delta Systems Inc. & The Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL).
- Flores, B. B. (2001). Bilingual education teachers' beliefs and their relation to

- self-reported practices. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 25(3), 251-275.
- Flores, B., Keehn, S., & Perez, B. (2002). Critical need for bilingual education teachers: The potentiality of normalistas and paraprofessionals. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 26(3).
- Freeman, R. (1998). *Bilingual education and social change*. Philadelphia, PA: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Freeman, D., & Freeman, Y. (2011). *Between worlds : Access to second language acquisition* (3rd ed.). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Freire, P. (1989). *Learning to Question*. New York, NY: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Galindo, R. and Olguin, M. (1996). Reclaiming bilingual educators' cultural resources an autobiographical approach. *Urban Education*, 31(1), 29-56.
- Gall, M.D., Gall, J.P., & Borg, W.R. (2015). *Applying educational research (7th Ed)*. Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Gándara, P., Maxwell-Jolly, J. (2006). Critical issues in developing the teacher corps for English learners. In Tellez, K., Waxman, H. C. (Eds.), *Preparing quality educators for English language learners: Research, policies, and practice* (pp. 99–119). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Garcia, E. (2005). *Teaching and learning in two languages: Bilingualism and schooling in the united states*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Garcia-Nevarez, A. G., Stafford, M. E., & Arias, B. (2005). Arizona Elementary Teachers' Attitudes toward English Language Learners and the Use of Spanish in Classroom Instruction. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 29(2), 295–317.
- Gay, G. (2010). Acting on beliefs in teacher education for cultural diversity. *Journal of Teacher*

Education, 61(1-2), 143-152. doi:10.1177/0022487109347320

- Gay, L.R., & Ariasan, P. (2003). Educational research: Competencies for analysis and applications. New Jersey: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Gomez, S., Stage, A., Knutson-Miller, K. & Garcia-Nevares, A. (2009). Meeting the needs of K-8 teachers for classrooms with culturally and linguistically diverse students: The promise and challenge of early field experiences. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, Fall 2009, 119-140.
- Goodlad, J., Soder, R., & Sirotnik, K. (1990). *The moral dimensions of teaching* (1st ed., A joint publication in the jossey-bass education series and the jossey-bass higher education series). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Grow-Maienza, J. (1996). Philosophical and structure: Perspectives in teacher education. In F. B. Murray (Ed.), *The Teacher Educator's Handbook: Building a Knowledge Base for the Preparation of Teachers*, (pp.506-525). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Gurvitch, R. & Metzler, M.W., (2009). The effects of laboratory-based and field-based practicum experience on pre-service teachers' self-efficacy. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 25(2009), 437-443.
- Hallman, H. (2012). Community-based field experiences in teacher education: Possibilities for a pedagogical third space. *Teaching Education*, 23(3), 241-263.
- Helfrich, S. (2012). Incorporating tutoring experiences in teacher education: Benefits to pre-service teachers and suggestions for teacher educators. *Journal of Reading Education*, 37(3), 40-48.
- Hollins, E., & Guzman, M., (2005). Research on preparing teachers for diverse populations. In

- M. Cochran-Smith, & K. Zeichner (Eds.), *Studying teacher education: The report of the AERA panel of research and teacher education* (pp. 477-548). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Honawar, V. (2009). Teacher gap: Training gets boost: Faced with a shortage of teachers specializing in English as a second language, states and districts move to grow their own. *Education Week*, 28(17), 28-29.
- Hummel, K. (2014). *Introducing second language acquisition : Perspectives and practices* (Linguistics in the world). Chichester, West Sussex, UK: Wiley Blackwell. (2014). Retrieved April 9, 2019, from TAMIU.Edu.
- Hutchinson, M. (2013). Bridging the Gap: Preservice Teachers and Their Knowledge of Working with English Language Learners. *TESOL Journal*, 4(1), 25-54.
doi:10.1002/tesj.51
- Ingersoll, R. (2004). Four myths about America's teacher quality problem. *Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, 103(1), 1-33.
- Johnson, K. (1999). *Understanding language teaching: Reasoning in action* (TeacherSource). Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Jones, T. G. (2002). *Preparing All Teachers for Linguistic Diversity in K-12 Schools*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education. New York, NY. February.
- Koerner, M., Rust, F., & Baumgartner, F. (2002). Exploring roles in student teaching placements. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, 29(2), 35-58.
- Karabenick, S. A., & Noda, P. A. C. (2004). Professional Development Implications of Teachers' Beliefs and Attitudes toward English Language Learners. *Bilingual Research*

- Journal*, 28(1), 55–75.
- Katz, S. R. (2000). Promoting bilingualism in the era of Unz: Making sense of the gap between research, policy, and practice in teacher education. *Multicultural Education; San Francisco*, 8(1), 2. Retrieved from <https://search.proquest.com/docview/216505221>
- Klingler J.K., Artiles, A.J., and Barletta, L.M. (2006). English language learners who struggle with reading: Language acquisition or LD? *Journal of Learning Disabilities* 39(2) p. 108-128.
- Krashen, S.D. (1996). *Under Attack: The Case against Bilingual Education*. California: Language Education Associates.
- Krashen, S. (1994). Self-correction and the monitor: Percent of errors corrected of those attempted vs percent corrected of all errors made. *System*, 22, 59–62.
- Krashen, S. (1989). We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the input hypothesis. *Modern Language Journal*, 73(4), 440–464.
- Krashen, S. D. (1987). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice-Hall International.
- Krashen, S. D. (1984). *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. (1976). Formal and informal linguistic environments in language acquisition and language learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 10(2), 157-168.
- Krashen, Stephen D., personal conversation, September 25-26, 2017.
- Krashen, Stephen. (2017, April 28). In *Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia*. Retrieved 02:31, October 6, 2017, from https://en.wikipedia.org/w/index.php?title=Stephen_Krashen&oldid=777661659

- Ladson-Billings, G. (1995). Toward a theory of culturally relevant pedagogy. *American Educational Research Journal*, 32(3), 465-491.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (2005). Is the team all right? Diversity and teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 56(3), 229-234.
- Lane, H., Hudson, R., McCray, E., Tragash, J., & Zeig, J. (2011). Tutoring opened my eyes: Tutor experiences in the america reads challenge. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning*, 19(2), 199-218. doi:10.1080/13611267.2011.564354
- Lau v. Nichols*, 414, U.S., 563 (1974)
- Lee, S.J. (2012). New talk about ELL students. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 93(8), 66-69.
- Liaw, E. (2009). Teacher efficacy of pre-service teachers in taiwan: The influence of classroom teaching and group discussions. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(1), 176-180. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2008.08.005
- Lucas, C. (1997). *Teacher education in america : Reform agendas for the twenty-first century* (1st pbk. ed.). New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Lucas, T., Villegas, A., & Freedson-Gonzalez, M. (2008). Linguistically responsive teacher education: Preparing classroom teachers to teach English language learners. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 59(4), 361-373.
- Massey, D., & Lewis, J. (2011). Learning from the “little guys”: What do middle and high school preservice teachers learn from tutoring elementary students? *Literacy Research and Instruction*, 50(2), 120-132. doi:10.1080/19388071003725705
- Mathes, P.G., & Torgesen, J.K. (2000). A call for equity in reading instruction for all students: A response to Allington and Woodside-Jiron. *Educational Researcher*, 29(6), 4-14.
- McCollum, P. (1999). Learning to value English: Cultural capital in a two-way

- Bilingual program. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 23 (2), 1-20.
- McKenzie, K.B. & Scheurich, J.J. (2004) Equity Traps: A Useful Construct for Preparing Principals to Lead Schools That Are Successful With Racially Diverse Students. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 40 (5), 601-632.
- Merriam, S. (2009) *Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation* (3rd ed.) San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.
- Montecel, M. R., & Danini, J. (2002). Successful Bilingual Education Programs: Development and the Dissemination of Criteria to Identify Promising and Exemplary Practices in Bilingual Education at the National Level. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 26(1), 1–21.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2002.10668696>
- Montague, N. (1999). Critical components for dual language programs. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 21(4), 334-342.
- Monzo, L. D., & Rueda, R. (2003). Shaping Education through Diverse Funds of Knowledge: A Look at One Latina Paraeducator's Lived Experiences, Beliefs, and Teaching Practice. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly*, 34(1), 72–95.
<https://doi.org/10.1525/aeq.2003.34.1.72>
- Nieto, S. (2008). (Ed.). *Dear Paulo: Letters from those who dare teach*. Boulder, CO: Paradigm Publishers.
- Osorio-O'Dea, P. (2000). *Bilingual education: An overview*. CRS Report for Congress (Received through the CRS Web). Washington, DC: Domestic Social Policy Division.
- Ovando, C., Collier, V., & Cummins, J. (1998). *Bilingual and esl classrooms : Teaching in multicultural contexts* (2nd ed.). Boston: McGraw-Hill.

- Ovando, C. and Combs M. C. (2012). *Bilingual and ESL classrooms: Teaching in multicultural contexts* (5th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Parkay, F., & Stanford, B. (2010). *Becoming a teacher* (8th ed.). Boston: Pearson, Allyn and Bacon.
- Paquette, K., & Laverick, D. (2017). Enhancing preservice teachers' skillsets and professionalism through literacy tutoring experiences. *Reading Improvement*, 54(2), 56-66.
- Pedhazur, E., & Schmelkin, L. (1991). *Measurement, design, and analysis : An integrated approach*. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Peregoy, S., & Boyle, O. (2017). *Reading, writing, and learning in esl : A resource book for teaching k-12 english learners* (Seventh ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- Ramos, F. (2001). Teachers' opinions about the theoretical and practical aspects of the use of native language instruction for language minority students: A cross-sectional study. *Bilingual Research Journal*, 25(3), 251-265.
- Reeves, J.R. (2006). Secondary teachers attitudes and perceptions of the including English-language learners in mainstream classrooms *Journal of Educational Research*, 99(3), 131-142.
- Reyes, M. (1992). Challenging venerable assumptions: Literacy instruction for linguistically different students. *Harvard Educational Review*, 62(4), 427-446.
- Roy-Campbell, Z. (2012). Meeting the Needs of English Learners. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 56(3), 186–188. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/23367734>
- Rueda, R., Monzo, L. D., & Higareda, I. (2004). Appropriating the Sociocultural Resources of Latino Paraeducators for Effective Instruction with Latino Students: Promise and

- Problems. *Urban Education*, 39(1), 52–90. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085903259213>
- Schwartz, M., Mor-Sommerfeld, A., & Leikin, M. (2010). Facing Bilingual Education: Kindergarten Teachers' Attitudes, Strategies and Challenges. *Language Awareness*, 19(3), 187–203.
- Section 201 -- 1998 Amendments to Higher Education Act of 1965. (2006, October 23). [Laws]. Retrieved April 9, 2019, from <https://www2.ed.gov/policy/highered/leg/hea98/sec201.html>
- Shin, F. H., & Krashen, S. D. (1996). Teacher attitudes toward the principles of bilingual education and toward students' participation in bilingual programs: same or different? *Bilingual Research Journal*, 20, 45–53.
- Shuy, R. (Ed.). (1977). *Linguistic theory what can it say about reading?* Newark, Del.: International Reading Association.
- Silin, J., & Schwartz, F. (2003). Staying close to the teacher. *Teachers College Record*, 105(8), 1586-1605.
- Siwatu, K. (2011). Preservice teachers' sense of preparedness and self-efficacy to teach in america's urban and suburban schools: Does context matter? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(2), 357-365. doi:10.1016/j.tate.2010.09.004
- Sleeter, C. (2008). Equity, democracy, and neoliberal assaults on teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education: An International Journal of Research and Studies*, 24(8), 1947-1957.
- Smith, J.K. (1983). Quantitative versus Qualitative research: An attempt to clarify the issue. *Educational Researcher*, 12(3), 6-12.
- Smolen, L.A., Colville-Hall, S., Liang, X., & Macdonald, S. (2005). An empirical study of

- college education faculty's perceptions, beliefs, and commitments to the teaching of diversity in teacher education programs at four urban universities. *The Urban Review*, 31(1), 45-61.
- Spatz, C. (2005). *Basic Statistics*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Thomson Learning.
- Texas A&M International University. (2018.). Retrieved May 4, 2018, from <http://www.tamui.edu/catalog/2016-2017/acadreg-und.shtml>)
- Texas Administrative Code Chapter 89, Subchapter BB. (2018.). Retrieved May 4, 2018, from <http://ritter.tea.state.tx.us/rules/tac/chapter089/ch089bb.html>
- Texas Administrative Code Chapter 228. (2018). Retrieved May 4, 2018, from <http://ritter.tea.state.tx.us/sbecrules/tac/chapter228.html>
- Texas Education Agency. (2017). 2016-2017 Teacher Shortage Areas. Retrieved from https://tea.texas.gov/About_TEA/News_and_Multimedia/Correspondence/TAA_Letters/2016-2017_Teacher_Shortage_Areas_and_Loan_Forgiveness_Programs/
- The NCES Fast Facts Tool provides quick answers to many education questions (National Center for Education Statistics). (n.d.). Retrieved March 5, 2018, from <https://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=96>
- Thomas, W.P. & Collier, V. (1997). *School effectiveness for language minority students*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education.
- Thomas, W.P. & Collier, V. (2002). *A national study of school effectiveness for language minority students' long term academic achievement*. Santa Cruz, CA: Center for Research on Education, Diversity and Excellence.
- Tigert, J., & Peercy, M. (2018). Preparing to teach both content and language: Four esol teacher

- candidates' experiences. *Tesol Journal*, 9(3), 542-556.
- Timmons, B.J., & Morgan, D. N. (2008). Preservice teachers' interactions while tutoring primary grade children. *College Reading Association Yearbook*, (29), 58-73.
- Torok, C.E., & Aguilar, T.E. (2000). Changes in preservice teachers' knowledge and beliefs about language issues. *Equity & Excellence in Education*, 33(2), 24-31.
- Urban, W. (1990). Horace mann bond: Administrator, scholar, teacher. *Teaching Education*, 3(1), 42-49.
- U.S. ED - OCR - ELL Programs - Glossary. (n.d.). Retrieved May 4, 2018, from <https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/ell/edlite-glossary.html>
- Valdes, G. (2005). Bilingualism, heritage language learners, and sla research: Opportunities lost or seized? *The Modern Language Journal*, 89(3), 410-426.
- Valenzuela, A. (1999). *Subtractive schooling: U.S.-Mexican youth and the politics of caring*. Albany: state University of New York Press.
- Walter, Teresa. (2004). *The How-To Handbook: Teaching English Language Learners*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education, Inc.
- What is a “Social justice framework”? - School of Education - CSU Channel Islands. (n.d.). Retrieved May 4, 2018, from <https://education.csuci.edu/justice-conference/faq.htm>
- Weisman, E. M. (2001). Bicultural identity and language attitudes. *Urban Education*, 36(2).
- Weisman, E. M., & Hansen, L. E. (2008). Student Teaching in Urban and Suburban Schools: Perspectives of Latino Preservice Teachers. *Urban Education*, 43(6), 653–670.
- <https://doi.org/10.1177/0042085907311834>
- Wiseman, D.L. (2012). The intersection of policy, reform, and teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education* 63(2), 87-91.

Wright, W.E. (2015). *Foundations for teaching English language learners: Research, theory, policy, and practice*. Philadelphia, PA: Carlson Publishing.

Zientek, L. (2006). Do teachers differ by certification route? novice teachers' sense of self-efficacy, commitment to teaching, and preparedness to teach. *School Science and Mathematics*, 106(8), 326-326.

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX	PAGE
Appendix A: IRB Approval TAMUCC_____	77
Appendix B: IRB Approval TAMIU_____	79
Appendix C: Attitudes Toward Bilingual Education Survey_____	81

APPENDIX A



OFFICE OF RESEARCH COMPLIANCE
 Division of Research, Commercialization and Outreach
 6300 OCEAN DRIVE, UNIT 5844
 CORPUS CHRISTI, TEXAS 78412
 O 361.825.2497

Human Subjects Protection Program

Institutional Review Board

DATE: October 29, 2018

TO: Dr. Bethanie Pletcher, Faculty
 College of Education and Human Development

CC: Mayra Pena, Graduate Student
 College of Education and Human Development

Dr. Frank Lucido, Faculty
 College of Education and Human Development

Dr. Guang Zeng, Faculty
 College of Education and Human Development

FROM: Office of Research Compliance

SUBJECT: Request to Rely

On October 29, 2018, Texas A&M University-Corpus Christi (TAMU-CC) Office of Research Compliance has reviewed and approved the Request to Rely on a Single IRB (sIRB) for the following:

Date of Request to Rely:	October 18, 2018
PI Name:	Dr. Bethanie Pletcher
Local IRB #:	115-18
Protocol #:	2018-08-21 (TAMIU)
Sponsor:	None
Study Title:	Attitudes of Teacher Candidates Seeking Bilingual Certification Toward Bilingual Education
External IRB:	Texas A&M International University

The following TAMU-CC investigators have been reviewed and TAMU-CC confirms compliance with local policies.

Investigator Name	Training Confirmed	Conflict of Interest Compliance
Dr. Bethanie Pletcher	10/18/2018	No Conflict of Interest
Mayra Pena	10/18/2018	No Conflict of Interest
Dr. Guang Zeng	10/18/2018	No Conflict of Interest
Dr. Frank Lucido	10/29/2018	No Conflict of Interest

Action required:

- We have confirmed you have received IRB approval from Texas A&M International University (2018-08-21).
- Provide a copy of this letter as indication of local institutional sign-off to Texas A&M International University.

Reminder of Responsibilities: You will be responsible for submitting amendments, continuing reviews, and unanticipated problems to Texas A&M International University in accordance with their policies.

You are also required to report to TAMU-CC Office of Research Compliance the following:

- Submit TAMU-CC personnel changes to verify compliance with training and conflict of interest policies.
- Report:
 - Suspension, termination or other restriction imposed by the Single IRB.
 - Complaints from human subjects enrolled at TAMU-CC.
 - Serious or continuing non-compliance that has occurred at TAMU-CC.
 - Reported findings for TAMU-CC to the sponsor, Office of Human Research Protections (OHRP) or Food and Drug Administration (FDA).

Please do not hesitate to contact the Office of Research Compliance with any questions at irb@tamucc.edu or 361-825-2892.

Respectfully,

Anissa Ybarra, Ed.D.
Research Compliance Coordinator
Division of Research, Commercialization and Outreach

APPENDIX B



TEXAS A&M INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

A Member of the Texas A&M University System

August 28, 2018

To: Mayra Pena
From: Institutional Review Board – IRB
Protocol #: 2018- 08-21
Protocol Title: Attitudes of Teacher Candidates Toward Bilingual Education

The Texas A&M International University IRB has reviewed the protocol referenced above and it was determined to be exempt from IRB review. No prisoners are involved in the study and the Basis for Exemption is:

45 CFR 46.101(b)(2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures, or observation of public behavior, unless : (a) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (b) any disclosure of the human subject s' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation. For children see below.

Prior to making any changes to the protocol or any of the reviewed documents (consent form, survey etc.), a revised protocol and/or revised documents must be submitted for IRB review, as proposed changes may prevent the research from qualifying for exempt status.

Concerning document retention: human research documents must be retained for a minimum of 3 years after completion of the study. For many journals it is three years after publication date. Please check with the journal/funding agency that you submit to regarding their specific rules.

Concerning human research training, please make sure that you complete the required training,

and retain documentation of that training. For more information see <http://www.tamtu.edu/irb/> and click on training. Please also review the attached letter concerning documentation of human research.

Concerning complaints and/or adverse or unexpected events - these must be reported promptly to the IRB Chair (Dr. Jennifer Coronado irb@tamtu.edu) .

The project must be formally closed using the completion form when project is completed or if you are leaving the university.

As always if there are any questions regarding human research please let us know and we will do our best to assist you.

Sincerely,

Jennifer Coronado, PhD
IRB Chair – TAMTU
Dean Graduate School
irb@tamtu.edu // 326.30.60

APPENDIX C

Introduction:

The following survey was created to assess attitudes toward bilingual education of teacher candidates seeking bilingual certification. All responses will be kept in strict confidence. Names of respondents are not solicited and will not be identifiable.

Survey

Directions: Please answer the following questions.

Profile

Gender: ___Male ___Female

Age: ___18-24 ___25-34 ___35-44 ___45+

Ethnicity

- ___White
- ___Hispanic or Latino
- ___Black or African American
- ___Native American or American Indian
- ___Asian/ Pacific Islander
- ___Other

Semester Credit Hours (SCH) in bilingual education

- ___0 SCH (no courses)
- ___3 SCH (one course)
- ___6 SCH (two courses)
- ___9 SCH (three courses)
- ___12 SCH (four courses)
- ___13+ SCH (more than four courses)

Field Experience Hours

- ___0-20
- ___20-40
- ___41-60
- ___61-80
- ___81-100
- ___100+

Proficient in another language (1= not at all, 5 very fluent)

___1___2___3___4___5

Attitudes Toward Bilingual Education

Directions: Please indicate whether you Strongly agree (4), Agree (3), Disagree (2), or Strongly disagree (1) with each of the following statements.

1. If a student is not proficient in English, the child should be in a classroom learning his/her first language (reading and writing) as part of the school curriculum.

(4) Strongly Agree	(3) Agree	(2) Disagree	(1) Strongly Disagree
--------------------	-----------	--------------	-----------------------

2. If a student is not proficient in English, the child should be in a classroom learning subject matter (e.g. math, science, etc.) in his/her first language.

(4) Strongly Agree	(3) Agree	(2) Disagree	(1) Strongly Disagree
--------------------	-----------	--------------	-----------------------

3. Learning subject matter in the first language helps second language students learn subject matter better when he/she studies them in English.

(4) Strongly Agree	(3) Agree	(2) Disagree	(1) Strongly Disagree
--------------------	-----------	--------------	-----------------------

4. If a student develops literacy in the first language, it will facilitate the development of reading and writing in English.

(4) Strongly Agree	(3) Agree	(2) Disagree	(1) Strongly Disagree
--------------------	-----------	--------------	-----------------------

5. High levels of bilingualism can lead to practical, career related advantages.

(4) Strongly Agree	(3) Agree	(2) Disagree	(1) Strongly Disagree
--------------------	-----------	--------------	-----------------------

6. High levels of bilingualism can result in higher development of knowledge or mental skills.

(4) Strongly Agree	(3) Agree	(2) Disagree	(1) Strongly Disagree
--------------------	-----------	--------------	-----------------------

7. It is good for students to maintain their native culture, as well as American culture.

(4) Strongly Agree	(3) Agree	(2) Disagree	(1) Strongly Disagree
--------------------	-----------	--------------	-----------------------

8. Development of the native language helps develop a sense of biculturalism.

(4) Strongly Agree	(3) Agree	(2) Disagree	(1) Strongly Disagree
--------------------	-----------	--------------	-----------------------

9. If a student is proficient in both Spanish and English, he/she should be enrolled in a classroom where the first language is part of the curriculum.

(4) Strongly Agree	(3) Agree	(2) Disagree	(1) Strongly Disagree
--------------------	-----------	--------------	-----------------------

10. If a student is not proficient in English, the student will do better in school if he/she learnt to write in his/her language.

(4) Strongly Agree	(3) Agree	(2) Disagree	(1) Strongly Disagree
--------------------	-----------	--------------	-----------------------

11. A child who can read and write in the first language will be able to learn English faster and easier (as opposed to a child who cannot read and write in his/her first language).

(4) Strongly Agree	(3) Agree	(2) Disagree	(1) Strongly Disagree
--------------------	-----------	--------------	-----------------------

12. If a second language learner is in an English only class, he/she will learn English better.

(4) Strongly Agree	(3) Agree	(2) Disagree	(1) Strongly Disagree
--------------------	-----------	--------------	-----------------------

13. Students must learn English as quickly as possible even if it means the loss of the native language.

(4) Strongly Agree	(3) Agree	(2) Disagree	(1) Strongly Disagree
--------------------	-----------	--------------	-----------------------