

THE IMPACT OF GEORGIA'S ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES
(ESOL) ENDORSEMENT ON TEACHERS' ATTITUDES AND SECONDARY
ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS (ELLS)' ACHIEVEMENT

A Dissertation

Presented to

The Faculty of the School of Education

Liberty University

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

By

Traci Carole Lawson McBride

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ABSTRACT

Traci Carole Lawson McBride. THE IMPACT OF GEORGIA'S ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES (ESOL) ENDORSEMENT ON TEACHERS' ATTITUDES AND SECONDARY ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS (ELLS)' ACHIEVEMENT. School of Education, Liberty University, April, 2012.

As school districts are facing increasing pressure to meet annual yearly progress goals based upon the No Child Left Behind legislation (2001), teacher preparation and effectiveness, especially in teaching specific subgroups, is an issue that resonates with many educators today. This quantitative, causal-comparative study examined the impact teachers who have obtained an ESOL endorsement have on standardized test scores in six high schools within one district in northeast Georgia. Additionally, the researcher compared teachers' attitudes and perceptions of six themes towards ELL inclusion in their mainstream classrooms in these same schools with findings from the original survey designed by Reeves (2002). The findings suggest that the test scores of students who were taught by teachers with an ESOL endorsement were not significantly different from students' scores who were taught by teachers without an endorsement. Similarly, findings for the survey suggest that the only slight differences in the attitudes or perceptions of the inclusion of ELLs in mainstream, secondary classrooms between academic teachers in Reeves' study and the current study in the theme areas of language, training and support, and general attitudes.

Descriptors: English language learners, teacher preparation, ESOL endorsement, attitudes and perceptions

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to the One who truly made it possible: my Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ, who gave me the ability to write this research study, to persevere through the obstacles of its completion, and to discern the implications of this research in supporting all teachers, especially those working with special populations.

I also dedicate this study as a posthumous tribute to my life-long friend, Sharon Lambert Shatz, who met our Savior and Lord on January 12, 2012. She was always there for me – friend, sister, teacher, and mentor. Her positive, loving spirit taught me even more – to appreciate ALL of the little things in life and truly LOVE the people that you love. I was honored to call her my best friend and know that she has now become one of my guardian angels.

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I have been blessed with many supportive people in my life, but I simply would not have begun this journey had it not been for my husband, Gary McBride. While his love and support were always there throughout this process, his passion for service as a soldier in U.S. Army allowed my passion for service as a high school administrator to grow and flourish. I thank him for his sacrifice for our country and belief in me. I also want to thank my wonderful son Alex Clark who is truly a success in so many ways. He continues to inspire and amaze me as I watch his journey through life.

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List of Abbreviations

ACCESS – Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English State-to-State

AYP – Annual Yearly Progress

BICS – Basic Interpersonal Communication

CALP – Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

ELLs – English Language Learners

ELs – English Learners

EOCT – End of Course Test

ESOL – English Speakers of Other Languages

GADOE – Georgia Department of Education

GAPSC – Georgia Professional Standards Commission

GHS GT – Georgia High School Graduation Test

GPS – Georgia Performance Standards

LEP – Limited English Proficient

NCLB – No Child Left Behind

PLUs – Professional Learning Units

SI – Sheltered Instruction

SIOP – Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol

TAC – Technical Advisory Committee

TBP – Transitional Bilingual Programs

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background

As school systems throughout the United States comply with the tenets of Public Law 107-110, commonly known as the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (NCLB), specific challenges have come to the forefront as high-stakes' testing has become inevitable to measure annual yearly progress (AYP). Not only has "passing the test" become the motto of students, it has become big business for testing companies, textbooks companies, and school personnel who must do whatever it takes to ensure that schools measure up. One of the challenges that is ever present in many school systems deals with the need for specific subgroups of students, such as students with special needs, economically disadvantaged students, and limited English proficient students, to meet the same standards as their peers. In the state of Georgia, all students are required to pass five sections of the Georgia High School Graduation Test (GHS GT) in the areas of language arts, math, science, social studies, and writing to obtain a high school diploma. These same tests are used as the primary measure of annual yearly progress (AYP) as prescribed by NCLB (2001). Since Georgia's graduation tests were deemed marginal tests by the U.S. Department of Education, Georgia has planned to phase out the GHS GTs in favor of End of Course Tests (EOCT) that currently measure the Georgia Performance Standards (GPS) in eight courses: Ninth Grade Composition and Literature, American Literature, Biology, Physical Science, U.S. History, Economics, Algebra I, and Geometry. These tests have taken on more importance in recent years, for a student who passes an EOCT that he/she may not pass on the GHS GT, can apply for a variance that can supersede his/her poor performance on a section of the GHS GT, thereby allowing

him/her to obtain his/her high school diploma. The state further plans to develop an EOCT for every GPS course and AYP will be based on these tests rather than the GHSGTs.

The same challenges that have beset the GHSGT are problematic for EOCTs as well. While the majority of Caucasian students meet the standards on the EOCTs, several subgroups remain substandard in passing these tests. One particular subgroup is that of English language learners (ELLs) often comprised of Hispanic students who, in many cases, are also economically disadvantaged. While leaders at the Georgia Department of Education (GADOE) recognized these challenges, measures were put into place so that, ideally, all ELLs should be taught in classes where academic content teachers have an ESOL endorsement. Unfortunately, subject area classes that culminate in an EOCT are “primarily taught by teachers with little or no training in language minority education” (cited in Reeves, 2002, p. 3). Since “the demand for certified, highly qualified teachers with English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) licensure continues to intensify due to the significant rise in the number of linguistically and culturally diverse students nationally and particularly in rural settings in with the United States” (Rodriguez et al., 2010, p. 131), oftentimes secondary subject area teachers do not have an ESOL endorsement nor any training to prepare them to teacher ELLs. With AYP goals increasing each year, school systems and educators cannot afford the gap to continue and grow larger.

In the past five years in the investigated school district, teachers in ESOL endorsement programs and/or teachers through professional learning are being trained in Sheltered Instruction (SI) as measured by the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol

(SIOP) model for effectively teaching ELLs. The SIOP method “is an approach for teaching content to English learners in strategic ways that make the subject matter concepts comprehensible while promoting the students’ English language development” (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008, p. 8). Additionally, “sheltered instruction is an approach that can extend the time students have for getting language support services while giving them a jump-start on the content subjects they will need for graduation” (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008, p. 13). Echevarria (2005) states that the SIOP model “comprises 30 features grouped in eight components essential for making content comprehensible for English language learners – Preparation, Building Background, Comprehensible Input, Strategies, Interaction, Practice/Application, Lesson Delivery, and Review/Assessment” (p. 59). Furthermore, “incorporating students’ background knowledge into classroom lessons is also an emphasis” (Hansen-Thomas, 2008, p. 166). “Research demonstrates that teachers trained in sheltered instruction through SIOP provide effective and successful instruction for ELLs; moreover, this research has shown that students in classes with SIOP-trained sheltered instruction teachers outperformed those whose teachers were not similarly trained” (Hansen-Thomas, 2008, p. 166).

Based upon scores from the EOCTs and the Georgia High School Graduation Test (GHSGT), ESOL endorsed teachers are still struggling to effectively impact student achievement of ELLs; however, SIOP-trained teachers are touted as narrowing the gap. An investigation to determine whether or not SIOP-trained teachers are truly impacting ELLs in a positive way as reflected by ELLs’ EOCT scores may provide the state of Georgia with an effective way to help this subgroup achieve and be successful along with assisting school systems’ to meet their AYP goals.

Problem Statement

Due to an increase of non-native English speakers migrating to the United States, primarily from Mexico and other Spanish-speaking countries, these students must learn English in order to master the academic content required for standardized testing and completion of graduation requirements. Current research suggests that a second language may be acquired in 2 – 5 years, but the mastery of academic language and concepts necessary for secondary students requires 5 – 7 years. In order to address the need for English acquisition, the majority of states have provided teaching endorsements for English speakers of other languages (ESOL) to prepare teachers in working with these students. While many studies highlight the need for varying strategies in working with ESOL or English language learners (ELLs), most of these studies have centered on elementary or middle school students in a discussion of bilingual strategies versus English immersion. Very few studies concentrate on secondary students' second language acquisition and even fewer on whether or not teachers who have obtained an ESOL endorsement impact second language acquisition, student achievement, or graduation rates. Most research studies focus on the attitudes and perceptions of ELL teachers and/or case studies of ELLs who struggle in school (Reeves, 2002; Shope, 2008; Cho, 2009; Morris-Rutledge, 2009; Strickland, 2009; Suzuki, 2008; and Brown, 2008).

Purpose Statement

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate the ESOL endorsement and its impact on student achievement at the secondary school level. Do academic content teachers who have an ESOL endorsement positively impact English language learners' (ELLs') achievement as evidenced through proficiency on the Georgia End-of Course

Tests (EOCTs)? Conducting this research will provide evidence of the effectiveness of ESOL endorsed teachers that can be generalized to students' success on EOCTs and other high-stakes' tests. This research will also provide information as to whether or not the ESOL endorsement is a viable means of truly assisting ELLs to meet the English proficiency goals it espouses. Another purpose of this study was to investigate teachers' attitudes and perceptions of the inclusion of ELLs in their mainstream subject area classes. If subject area teachers have not had any training to work with ELLs, an analysis of their attitudes and perceptions versus the attitudes and perceptions of teachers who have had training may provide valuable insights that would further assist and support the academic success of ELLs.

Significance of Study

This study will add to the body of research on teacher preparation for an increasing number of students in school districts: English language learners. While there are many studies that document the stages, time needed, and best practices in obtaining second language acquisition (Batt, 2008; Hill and Flynn, 2006; Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008; Hansen-Thomas, 2008; Whittier and Robinson, 2007), very few studies concentrate on teacher preparation and/or teacher effectiveness in teaching English language learners, especially at the secondary level. Since high-stakes' testing remain a major predictor in the determination of annual yearly progress (AYP) for schools under the mandates of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 through 2014, school leaders will need to assess ESOL programs, ESOL teachers, and teacher preparation to meet required AYP goals. One step in this process is to evaluate whether or not ESOL endorsed teachers truly make a positive difference towards these goals.

Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions were a result of addressing the gaps in research on teacher preparation for English language learners:

Research question 1

Do English language learners taught by an English to Speakers of Other Languages endorsed teacher achieve higher scores on their Georgia End of Course Test scores than English language learners taught by teachers without an English to Speakers of Other Languages endorsement?

Research question 2

What similarities or differences in secondary teachers' attitudes and perceptions of the inclusion of English language learners in their mainstream subject area classes exist currently as compared to secondary teachers' attitudes and perceptions from ten years ago?

The following null hypothesis was tested:

Hypothesis 1

There is no significant difference in English language learners' End of Course Test scores of those taught by a teacher who has English to Speakers of Other Languages endorsement with those taught by a teacher without an English to Speakers of Other Languages endorsement.

Identification of Variables

According to Ary et al., 2006, ex post-facto research may involve "subjects who differ on an independent variable [where the] researcher tries to determine the consequence of the difference" (p. 371). This study involves differences in teacher

preparation as a possible cause for discrepancies in English language learners' academic success and/or ultimately their graduation from high school. The independent variable in this study centers on teacher preparation – whether or not secondary school teachers have obtained an ESOL endorsement. This independent variable was investigated at six traditional high schools in a northeast Georgia school district since the number of students in the English language learner programs had been steadily increasing over the past decade. Also, this district was chosen since the ESOL endorsement courses had been made available at no cost to employees within the system. Demographic data was included for each school since the number of students participating in ELL programs at each school varied.

The dependent variable under investigation in this study were 2008-09 Georgia End of Test scores secondary school students who were being served in English language learner programs in these same six traditional high schools. Another part of this study incorporated a survey on teachers' attitudes and perceptions of ELLs in secondary mainstream classes in order to compare current responses to those given ten years ago in a study by Reeves (2002). Survey responses were categorized on the same six themes of modification, time, training and support, educational environment, and general attitudes toward ELL inclusion as in Reeves' original study.

Definition of Terms:

Key terms used in this study are defined as follows:

1. Academic Content Area: Disciplines of study including math, English, social studies, and science.
2. Content Area: A content area is a discipline of study such as math, English, modern languages, physical education, and social studies. Content area does not include special education or ESOL courses.
3. End-of-Course Tests (EOCTs): The state of Georgia requires students who complete one of the following courses must complete a test that is aligned with the Georgia Performance Standards of the course: English 9 Literature and Composition, American Literature, Biology, Physical Science, U.S. History, Economics, Math I or Algebra I, and Geometry.
4. English Language Learner (ELL): Students with limited English proficiency that are taught in an ESOL classroom.
5. English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) program: A program designed to teach students who have limited English proficiency to become proficient in English through listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
6. ESOL Endorsement: An add-on certification that permits teachers to teach ELLs in both core and sheltered curriculum classes and ESOL classes.
7. Georgia High School Graduation Test (GHGST): Standardized tests given in the State of Georgia to measure basic skills in five academic areas: Math, English, Science, Social Studies, and Writing. Math and English scores were used as a predictor of a school's annual yearly progress.

8. Hispanic: Of or relating to a Spanish-speaking people or culture.
9. High stakes' testing: Assessment of students based on standardized tests to show proficiency in various academic areas.
10. Immersion: a method of instruction delivery whereby students who speak another language other than English are immersed into English instruction to learn the English language.
11. Inclusion: Inclusion is the integration of ELL or special needs' students into mainstream courses.
12. Limited English Proficient (LEP): LEP is a descriptor given to students whose English language ability has not reached native-like fluency.
13. Mainstream: Mainstream classes may be elective or academic content courses. Special needs students, such as special education students or English language learners, may be enrolled in these courses.
14. NCLB: the No Child Left Behind Act (2001) that prescribes measures through high-stakes' testing to receive federal funds. Schools must meet Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) goals that continue to increase through 2014. Since all students must pass these tests at a certain level, the need to find strategies for ELLs to pass these tests has come to the forefront.
15. Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP): An instructional framework with specific strategies to assist English language learners.
16. Sheltered Instruction (SI): Scaffolded instruction that adds additional support for ELLs. Sheltered mainstream classroom: Any regular content-based classroom whereby a teacher with an ESOL endorsement uses ESOL methodology to

scaffold learning so that students can meet content objectives.

17. Subject Area: A subject area is a discipline of study. For purposes of this study, subject area is synonymous with content area.
18. Transitional program: a program of instruction that utilizes both the primary and target language to varying degrees.
19. Two-way dual immersion program: a program of instruction whereby students spend half of their time using their primary language (L1) and the other half using their target language (L2).

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Teaching English language learners on the secondary level is surrounded by layers of complexities. The theoretical background allows the reader to better understand the process whereby students learn a second language. The historical background allows the reader to better understand the issues that have developed over decades in the United States. The attitudes that permeate the United States' culture on learning English and the best methods available in order to do so are necessarily presented as well. Are students able to master the English language better if done in conjunction with learning their primary language, or are methods such as the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol more efficient and effective? What role does teacher training and preparation add to students' abilities to learn English? How has current research added to these complex issues? Finally, this review will allow the reader to better understand the extenuating complexities concerning graduation requirements for English language learners and the ultimate pressure that school systems face in making annual yearly progress (AYP).

Theoretical Background

The theoretical underpinnings of this study may begin with the social development theory of Vygotsky (1978). According to Vygotsky, social interaction plays a fundamental role in the development of cognition. "All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals." (p. 57). His notion of a zone of proximal development suggests that with guidance a child can achieve and accomplish much more than if left alone. Thus, concepts and students' language learning can be promoted through scaffolding or reciprocal teaching and supported through a teacher's guidance (Hausfather, 1996).

Best known for his work in second language acquisition, Stephen Krashen (1981) espouses that the best way students can learn a second language is naturally, similar to the way they learned their primary language. Through total immersion surrounded by native English speakers in a non-threatening environment where making mistakes is simply a part of the process, the non-native English student can acquire English naturally. This method of language acquisition is subconscious; it is simply being able to “pick-up” a language. The first stage or silent period, as Krashen called it, involves one’s ability to observe the language, noting its rules, grammar, vocabulary, and nuances. The second stage of acquisition allows learners to assimilate basic vocabulary engaged in experimentation with the language. The third stage involves the learner’s ability to comprehend in the second language; the fourth stage includes the learner’s ability to converse in the language with understanding, and lastly, the fifth stage is advanced fluency whereby the learner has a near-native level of speech. Similar to the Vygotskian premise that language acquisition can be expanded or increased with guidance, Krashen shows how guidance allows a learner to pass through the stages of acquisition.

Another theory that affects students’ learning in the classroom is Jim Cummins’ distinction between two types of language acquisition: basic interpersonal communications skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). According to Cummins (1981), a student can learn BICS within a two to five year range whereas CALP takes four to seven years. Oftentimes, ELLs may speak a second language with ease but have great difficulty obtaining academic concepts in a secondary classroom: the stated difference between BICS and CALP. Teachers and students often mistook students’ ability to speak English with ability to comprehend English. Certainly,

Cummins' research shows that the skills of verbal acquisition and comprehension are distinct, requiring differences in teaching strategies and learning skills.

The complexity of second language acquisition is an area of ongoing research with new developments that will serve as the basis for educational leaders to provide more effective programs for the growing numbers of English language learners.

Historical Background

Our country, the United States of America, a nation touted as a melting pot of immigrants, has taken great pride in the fact that it is a haven for all people. Emma Lazarus's poem, "The New Colossus," inscribed on the Statue of Liberty, states these famous words: "Give me your tired, your poor, your huddled masses yearning to breathe free, The wretched refuse of your teeming shore. Send these, the homeless, tempest-tost to me, I lift my lamp beside the golden door" (ls.10-14). While this ideal is a standard for Americans, in reality, clashes among immigrants and Americans have plagued our country from its inception. Colonists and Indians were at war, Italians, Germans, Polish, and many other groups established separate areas in New York City, blacks and whites maintained separation for decades, and more recently, Hispanics have fled to our country, primarily from Mexico, as well as other Latino countries. Not only have these people brought their culture, their religion, their foods, and their children, but they have also brought their language – typically, one that is not English.

Learning English – Historical Methodology

Since the majority of Americans speak English and most schools throughout the nation offer classes in English, fluency in English is important in order to be successful in this country. A historical understanding of bilingual education and/or second language

acquisition provides an appropriate background to gauge the ways immigrants have been taught English over the years. Second language acquisition has been a part of our country's educational framework off and on from the very beginning of our country's existence. As immigrants moved into the country in waves over time, various types of bilingual education and/or second language acquisition were incorporated in schools that found themselves populated with an influx of immigrants. In some cases, schools developed specifically for special populations where instruction was given in the immigrants' primary language; in other cases, students were immersed in English. Variations of second language acquisition have been utilized over time to accommodate different immigrant groups. During the Colonial Period, "the first Bilingual Education schools opened prior to 1800, were not public, and were chiefly parochial institutions. German, French and Scandinavian immigrants opened bilingual schools. Many of these first 'bilingual schools' were not even bilingual; they were non-English speaking schools where English was taught as a subject" (Cerde & Hernandez, 2006, History, para.1). In 1855 the California Bureau of Instruction "mandated that all schools teach only in English" (Cerde & Hernandez, 2006, History, para. 3). According to "Bilingual Education"(MSN Encarta Online, 2007), "In 1900 more than 600,000 elementary school students—about 4 percent of the primary school population—received instruction at least partly in German. Such programs declined in use during the early 1900s, however, when waves of anti-immigrant feeling led to restrictions on the use of languages other than English in classrooms" (para. 3). According to Cerde and Hernandez, 2006, in 1917 "nearly four percent of German children enrolled in elementary school, received part of their education in German."(History, para.7). Because many Americans believed that

speaking any other language besides English could be viewed as ‘a distinct menace to Americanism’ (Noll, 2007, p. 299), thirty-five states adopted laws mandating English only instruction in schools. Over the next thirty years, many schools that had originally operated as bilingual schools or schools where another language besides English was primary dramatically changed. According to Noll, “In 1950, Louisiana first required English, not French, to be the language of public school instruction,” and the many schools in the Southwest that had taught Spanish changed to English instruction entirely (p. 299). In 1958 the National Defense Education Act was established which “provided aid to both public and private schools at all levels to advance the areas of science, math, and modern foreign languages and provided aid to English as a second language”(Cerde & Hernandez, 2006, Legislation Timeline, para. 10). The Bilingual Education Act was established in 1968 which mandated that schools provide bilingual education programs. Fueled by the Civil Rights movement, this act actually provided federal funding to encourage native-language instruction. In 1998 Proposition 227 was passed in California. This act stated that “all California children must be taught in English as rapidly as possible” (Cerde & Hernandez, 2006, Legislation Timeline, para. 16)). It called for English immersion for non-English speaking students despite the fact that after the first year, only seven percent of these students were fluent in English. California’s efforts for eliminating its bilingual education programs were not successful. In 2001 the No Child Left Behind Act, originally the Bilingual Education/Elementary and Secondary Act of 1964-65, was established, mandating that “each state...measure every public school student’s progress in reading and math from the third grade through the eighth grade”(Cerde & Hernandez, 2006, Legislation Timeline, para.17). Measuring progress at

least once between the tenth and twelfth grades, the act further requires that “teachers teaching in Bilingual Education programs be fluent in English and any other language used in the classroom” (Cerdeña & Hernández, 2006, Legislation Timeline, para. 17). Giving parents the choice to enroll their children in a Bilingual Education program, the act requires students who have been in school for three consecutive years must receive English-only instruction regardless of the students’ English skills. While most educators and tax-paying citizens agree that the No Child Left Behind legislation has focused on the need for accountability, the measure of accountability, high-stakes’ tests, often penalizes students who are English language learners (ELLs). “Since the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act was implemented in 2001, there appears to be an increase in the number of high school ELLs not receiving a diploma because they failed high-stakes tests despite fulfilling all other graduation requirements” (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, p. 4).

Over the past ten years, the United States has once again seen an influx of immigrants, many of whom are illegal, crossing the border from Mexico at an alarmingly exponential rate (Echevarría, Vogt, & Short, 2008, p. 6). Due to a variety of reasons, these families take great risks to come to America, hoping for a better life for themselves and their children. It is those children, those who come to our country with little or no English language skills that has become a serious issue and challenge for American educators. According to Echevarría, Vogt, & Short (2008), “In 2004-2005, close to five million school-age children were identified as limited English proficient (LEP, a federal designation) – almost 10 percent of the K-12 public school students population” (p. 6). In many areas of the country where immigrants have gone because of better job opportunities, this statistic is much higher. According to Echevarría, Vogt, & Short

(2008), “Research shows that conversational fluency develops inside and outside of the classroom and can be attained in one to three years. However, the language that is critical for educational success – academic language – is more complex and develops more slowly and systematically in academic settings” (p. 10). The question becomes quite clear: in light of the NCLB Act of 2001 where federal funds are tied to student performance on high-stakes’ tests coupled with the fact that ELLs do not perform well on these tests due to their limited English language proficiency, how can educators best close the gap so that all students can be afforded an opportunity to achieve the American dream? According to Echevarria, Vogt, & Short (2008), “The only way to do that is to have well-implemented, cognitively challenging, not segregated, and sustained programs of five to six years’ duration. Typical programs of two to three years are ineffective in closing the large, achievement gap” (p. 10).

While there is quite a difference between Mexican and other Hispanic immigrants and the variations in dialects spoken by those immigrants from Mexico versus those spoken by immigrants from other countries where Spanish is the primary language, many times educators who are not aware of the differences still expect the majority of Spanish speakers to always understand any Spanish teacher they may have as a teacher and/or be able to readily translate Spanish into English. The reality of this misinformation often becomes a source of further struggle for non-native English speakers. The primary non-native English speaking population in Hall County, Georgia, is from Mexico, and Spanish is their primary language. Even still, due to the fact that many teachers are not aware of a student’s history, the teacher, unless bilingual, has very little, if any, knowledge of a student’s background, Spanish dialect, possible gang affiliations that may

clash with others in opposing gangs, etc. All of these factors make the ESOL teacher's task of educating these students to meet the same standards as their English-speaking counterparts increasingly difficult.

Bilingual Education

In researching this topic, bilingual education, one realizes readily that varying definitions, methods, and models exist. What may be described as a bilingual education program in one school district or state may not be the same program in another at all. The terms associated with bilingual education such as immersion, transitional program, developmental or maintenance program, or two-way dual immersion model may differ or mean very similar things. Knowing the definitions of these terms as prescribed from the National Association of Bilingual Education (NABE) rather than a term used for a school district must be determined in order to truly understand what bilingual education is along with all of the misinformation that surrounds the term. Unfortunately, just the knowing of the terminology is still only a part of the greater issue at large. Once a decision as to which program might work best for students has been agreed upon, implementing the best way for immigrants to learn the English language is a major challenge for school districts not only because of the complexity of the issue, but also because of the controversies surrounding it. While "modern research findings on bilingual education are mixed," bilingual education programs seem to offer many English language learners (ELLs) various methods to increase skills in their primary language while also learning English and developing skills in English (Noll, 2007, p. 300). Because children are different, one size or method of bilingual education does not fit all. Some ELLs claim to have English proficiency within three years due to English immersion programs; others

learn better through a transition process. By examining the various bilingual education program models, one may better understand the challenges American educators and immigrant school children face as they attempt to become accepted and successful in the American mainstream.

Bilingual education programs have various models. According to the National Association for Bilingual Education (NABE), 2004, “[Bilingual Education Programs] are often classified as transitional, developmental, or two-way bilingual education, depending on the program’s methods and goals” (para. 3). Within these categories are variations, such as 1. Transition to all-English mainstream in one to three years; 2. Classrooms may be composed entirely of ELLs; 3. Students are sometimes taught a full curriculum in their native language and in English. In some cases ELLs “may receive only native-language support – periodic translations or tutoring – with lessons conducted primarily in English” (NABE, 2004, para. 3). All in all, which models of bilingual education programs seem to work best, or is there really a way to measure one versus another?

One method of bilingual education is the transitional bilingual education model. According to Roberts (1995),

Transitional bilingual education provides content area support in the native language while teaching the student English. Initially, the learner is taught content classes in the native language, is taught English as a Second Language, and may also take music, P.E., art, and similar classes in English, partly because these classes require less language proficiency and also because it is important that the learner know English speaking students (for language and social development). (p. 373)

According to Bruce, et al. (1997), “The Transitional Bilingual Pedagogical (TBP) Model was developed to identify the components of transitional bilingual programs, the most frequently implemented approach to bilingual education” (para. 8). In transitional bilingual programs, first language instruction is envisioned as a temporary bridge to English language instruction and acquisition. In a study that Bruce, et al. (1997) conducted in observing instruction in several fifth grades TBP classes, they found that most of the instruction was in English with support given in the students’ primary language. Results of this study raised the following question: “If the purpose of transitional bilingual programs is to introduce new concepts in the known language and to provide clarification and reinforcement in the second language, why does this not occur in the transitional bilingual classroom? Further research should examine this apparent lack of agreement between theory and practice” (Bruce et al., 1997, para.48). Due to the variations and lack of consistency within a transitional bilingual education classroom, one cannot conduct reliable research. While the transitional bilingual education approach is not often lauded as the best, it is the one most often used in the United States. As more and more immigrant students drop out of high school, “it is hoped that these programs will provide the content area support which will enable these students to remain in school” (Roberts, 1997, p.374).

Another model of bilingual education is the developmental/maintenance bilingual education model. Students receive instruction in the native language and are also given classes in English as a Second Language. Students can stay in this program until they have developed fluency in both languages. According to Roberts (1997), “In maintenance programs, the learners are transitioned into English content classes, and are given support

in their first language, as in transitional programs” (p. 374). Additionally, “they also receive language arts in their native language, enabling them to become literate in that language, and they continue to receive content area classes in their first language as well, so that they become literate in both languages” (p.374). Maintenance bilingual education is considered an enrichment model, adding to students' linguistic abilities or additive bilingualism, continuing the development in both languages. Many proponents of this model see that sustaining students' primary languages offers them sociocultural benefits that they might not otherwise maintain or develop. By offering support to maintain the student's primary language, he or she can bridge more easily to another language. The strong base or foundation in one's primary language allows the student to “hang his hat” on prior knowledge as he/she learns the new language. According to Valverde & Armendariz (1999), “The National Research Council has recently released a report (1997) on the state of research on language minority students. This report indicates that students with a strong background in their home language are likely to develop higher levels of proficiency in English than those who do not have such a primary language advantage” (para. 20). Unfortunately, because of politics involved surrounding the topic, the developmental or maintenance bilingual education program is not one of the more popular bilingual models currently used throughout the country.

Another bilingual education model is the two-way bilingual education model. In this model native English speakers and native speakers of other languages learn together in the same classroom to develop bilingual fluency in both languages and encourage appreciation of both cultures and communities. While similar to the transitional or maintenance model, the two-way bilingual education model allows

students from the beginning of schooling to learn two languages simultaneously, regardless of the student's primary language used at home. According to Christian (1994),

Emerging results of studies of two-way bilingual programs point to their effectiveness in educating nonnative-English-speaking students, their promise of expanding our nation's language resources by conserving the native language skills of minority students, and their hopes of improving relationships between majority and minority groups by enhancing cross-cultural understanding and appreciation. (para. 3)

While there were 169 schools operating two-way bilingual programs in 1994, great variability of the programs existed. In an analysis of these schools and their programs, Christian (1994) concluded that these programs offer great promise for a "nation [that] strives to provide education with 'high standards for all students'" (para. 53). According to Valverde & Armendariz (1999),

Two-way programs provide all of the students with a variety of experiences in two languages and create an environment that fosters academic excellence in both languages. It is also supportive of full bilingual proficiency for both native and non-native speakers of English and promotes a positive attitude toward both cultures, which, in turn, helps to reduce racism within the formative minds of children. This is perhaps the strongest attribute of the two-way/dual language model. (para. 31)

Those proponents of the two-way bilingual education model continue to offer the following propositions that have strong empirical support for the model: "Native-

language instruction does not retard the acquisition of English; well-developed skills in the native language are associated with high levels of academic achievement; and bilingualism is a valuable skill, for individuals and for the country” (Crawford, 1998, para. 11).

On the other hand, the two-way bilingual education model’s need to be seamless throughout the students’ educational careers is a potential weakness due to lack of funding needed to accommodate a K-12 program. Not only are there funding issues, but since high schools have specialized content classes often taught by content specialists, finding bilingual content specialists capable of teaching content in both languages presents challenges for school districts. Also, students who may have varying levels of bilingualism could be at a disadvantage in courses taught in the weaker language. Because students move and transfer more readily in recent years than ever before, the chances of maintaining a two-way bilingual class from kindergarten through 12th grade would be rather miraculous. Due the number of students advancing every year in the program, the few numbers of students arriving to high school together would not be enough to continue the program. Unless students have a certain level of competence in both languages upon the arrival to high school, beginning a high school two-way dual language model would not be feasible either. According to Garcia & Bartlett (2007), “The integrated nature of the two-way dual language model makes it difficult to implement from scratch during the four years of an American high school. Furthermore, the more specialized, academic register of a second language required for secondary subject instruction is remarkably difficult to achieve within the short four-year period of a high school education” (pp. 3-4). The two-way bilingual education model seems to

maintain the students' primary language while allowing a new language to be learned. Skills learned simultaneously in both languages could enhance students' overall understanding of content knowledge with more tools available to think critically.

An analysis of the models of bilingual education seemed to pose more questions than answers as to which one is best for ELLs. Depending on the students' abilities, their prior schooling, their motivation, the goals of the school system and community, and the costs of providing ELLs with appropriate education certainly factor into which models are actually integrated into a school's curriculum, be it the best or not.

Second Language Acquisition

Since the majority of Americans speak English, fluency in English is important in order to be successful in this country. While several means are available whereby immigrants learn English, the state of Georgia offers an English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) program, which is a "state funded instructional program for eligible English language learners (ELLs) in grades K-12 (Georgia School Law Section 20-2-156 Code 1981, Sec. 20-2-156, enacted in 1985)" (Georgia Department of Education (GADOE), 2008). In addition to the federally funded Title III sub grants, the state of Georgia holds "students accountable for progress in English language proficiency and evidence of attainment of English language proficiency sufficient to exit ESOL services" (GADOE, 2008). Since its inception, the ESOL Program has "transitioned from a discrete skills curriculum to a standards-based curriculum" and expects educators in the state to use instructional practices to "accommodate the needs of Georgia's linguistically and culturally diverse student and parent populations" (GADOE, 2008). Whether students are taught English through bilingual education or ESOL sheltered classes, the ESOL

program's standard is for students to use English "to communicate and demonstrate academic, social, and cultural understanding" (GADOE, 2008).

Teachers who teach the ESOL program are required to obtain an ESOL endorsement (Georgia Professional Standards Commission (GAPSC), 2008), which consists of three courses: English Language Acquisition; American Culture and Society; and Methods and Materials of Teaching English as a Second Language. Upon completion of these courses, teachers should be equipped to work with ELLs in their becoming English-proficient. Dong (2004) supports these efforts, for he found through his research that "secondary teachers need to be knowledgeable about both the developmental patterns of their second language learners' second language acquisition and also about the language and vocabulary used in their specific academic disciplines" (205). Ference and Bell (2004) espouse a cross-cultural immersion experience for pre-service teachers of ELLs because of the many misconceptions that surround teaching ELLs. As a result of their qualitative study, pre-service teachers "enhanced their knowledge, skills, and dispositions about immigration, matching their prior knowledge, culture, preconceptions, misconceptions, and feelings of isolation, with ESOL methods and curriculum" (343). Harper and de Jong (2004) identified four popular misconceptions about teaching English language learners and ideas to overcome them. They discovered that many teachers believe that exposure and interaction will result in English language learning. Harper and de Jong point to the fact that learning a second language is not the same as learning one's primary language, particularly for older learners. Secondly, another common misconception is that all ELLs learn English in the same way and at the same rate. "A common misunderstanding is that all second language (L2) learners can be expected to

develop social language skills before academic language skills. However, older learners who are already literate and have a strong educational foundation in their native language may not follow this pattern” (Harper & de Jong, 2007, 154). A third misconception is that good teaching for native speakers is good teaching for ELLs. ELLs may need “frontloading” a lecture or assigned reading with activities that highlight key language. Relating the students’ background knowledge with current learning can assist the ELL greatly. Finally, another misconception noted by Harper and de Jong (2007) is that effective instruction means nonverbal support. ELL teachers must simultaneously plan ways to integrate language and content instruction to support their needs. Certainly, an ESOL endorsement is seemingly a necessary tool for working with English language learners.

While some people might see this problem of effectively teaching ELLs as strictly a result of the American educational system, Long (2008) found that the same sorts of frustrations exist in the Australian educational system as well. Long’s qualitative study of non-English speaking background (NESB) students in the mainstream English classrooms noted that the NESBs feelings toward their education resulted in greater stress, lack of confidence, and general frustration. Teachers echoed their students’ feelings uniformly. The findings of Long’s study “suggest that more professional development and training are required for mainstream teachers in order for them to successfully provide meaningful and valuable instruction to the NESB learners in their classes” (Long, 2008, 268).

According to Batt (2008), “Rapid growth to the ELL and Hispanic student populations demands attention among educations and teacher education programs, as the

academic success rate of Hispanic students nationwide and in Idaho has consistently lagged well behind the rest of the student population” (39). Likewise, Echevarria, Short, & Powers (2006) state that “the level of academic achievement for ELLs has lagged significantly behind that of their language-majority peers” (195). Consistent with these findings are the statistics for the participating school district where the number of Hispanic students’ scores on the English, science, and social studies sections of the Georgia High School Graduation Test was three times less than their white peers (GADOE, 2008). While it appears that the Hispanic population in this country is continuing to rise and the bar continues to raise according to the AYP standards for NCLB, Hispanic students consistently lag behind. Batt (2008) proposes that three priorities should be set for teacher preparation or endorsement programs: effective ELL methods, sheltered instruction, and first and second language literacy methods. Batt advocates the teaching of the entire SIOP model to address the needs for ELLs (42). Due to the influx of Hispanic students to the participating school district in the late 1990s, the district obtained approval by the State of Georgia to offer these courses within the school system in order for more teachers to obtain the ESOL endorsement. While many teachers in the system took advantage of this opportunity, research to substantiate the effectiveness of teachers on ELLs’ ability to become English-proficient is minimal. Due to the requirements and accountability demands of the federal law, No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, ELLs are required to take high-stakes’ tests which factor in to a school system’s annual yearly progress (AYP). Even with an ESOL endorsement, many teachers feel inadequate to assess students who have limited English proficiency. According to Daniel (2007), data from her research study indicates that “teachers perceive standardized

exams hold a more prestigious place than informally conducted classroom observations... [and believe] that outsiders know more about how to evaluate the learners in their classrooms” (135). Daniel (2007) concluded that “there does seem to be little theory base underlying teachers’ understanding of testing protocols and modifications for evaluating ELLs” (136). At the high school level, ELLs along with their English-speaking peers must meet the standards set forth in this federal law by demonstrating competence through End-of-Course Tests (EOCTs), the ACCESS test, and the five academic sections of the Georgia High School Graduation Test (GHSGT). With so much at stake for the school systems in Georgia, it is imperative to know the effectiveness of teachers who have the ESOL endorsement and their impact on student achievement. How can leaders in the State of Georgia or this specific school district know if the ESOL endorsement truly equips teachers with the necessary tools to positively impact ELLs so they can successfully pass the high-stakes’ tests necessary for the schools to meet AYP goals? Perhaps educational leaders in Georgia need to embrace the recommendations of Batt (2008) and build capacity of ELL teachers by tweaking the endorsement courses to incorporate more effective ELL methods, the SIOP model, and first and secondary language literacy methods. In the meantime, the school district is incorporating the SIOP model by offering it to teachers via professional learning units (PLUs).

The SIOP method “is an approach for teaching content to English learners (ELs) in strategic ways that make the subject matter concepts comprehensible while promoting the students’ English language development” (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008, 8). According to the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL), “Sheltered instruction is an approach to teaching that promotes language development and content-area learning.

Content-area and ESL teachers adapt grade level content lessons to the students' levels of English proficiency. At the same time, teachers focus on English language development and help students increase proficiency in English" (para.1). If students have a foundation of English, this method type is often used in mainstream secondary classrooms. While students may receive a transitional or developmental model of bilingual education for three years, sheltered instruction (SI) offers students an opportunity that "can extend the time students have for getting language support services while giving them a jump-start on the content subjects they will need for graduation"(Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008, p. 13). Utilizing various best practices and teaching techniques, SI includes "cooperative learning, connections to student experiences, targeted vocabulary development, slower speech and fewer idiomatic expressions for less proficient students, use of visuals and demonstrations, and use of adapted text and supplementary materials" (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008, p. 13). According to the SIOP Institute (2005), "The Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) Model (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2004) was developed to provide teachers with a well articulated, practical model of sheltered instruction. The SIOP Model is currently used in most of the 50 states and in hundreds of schools across the U.S. as well as in several other countries" (About SIOP, para.1). Additionally, the SIOP model "meets the NCLB requirement that a school's method of language instruction be research-based" (Hill & Flynn, 2006, p. 24). Related to this protocol of teaching strategies and techniques is a method of motivation. Hones (2002) discovered in his research that "when engaged in dialogues with classmates and others about critical perspectives on language, culture, history, and other subjects, bilingual secondary students become more interested in the academic content of school and more motivated

to master the linguistic tools that [would] allow them a full access to economic, social, cultural, and political participation in society” (p. 1182).

Additionally, “sheltered instruction is an approach that can extend the time students have for getting language support services while giving them a jump-start on the content subjects they will need for graduation” (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008, 13). Echevarria (2005) states that the SIOP model “comprises 30 features grouped in eight components essential for making content comprehensible for English language learners – Preparation, Building Background, Comprehensible Input, Strategies, Interaction, Practice/Application, Lesson Delivery, and Review/Assessment” (59). Furthermore, “incorporating students’ background knowledge into classroom lessons is also an emphasis” (Hansen-Thomas, 2008, 166). “Research demonstrates that teachers trained in sheltered instruction through SIOP provide effective and successful instruction for ELLs; moreover, this research has shown that students in classes with SIOP-trained sheltered instruction teachers outperformed those whose teachers were not similarly trained” (Hansen-Thomas, 2008, 166). In support for these findings, Whittier & Robinson (2007) found that students with limited English proficiency skills could improve mastery of the concept of evolution through the use of manipulatives while instructed through the SIOP model: “Average knowledge gains were sizeable with the mean scores of the pretest and posttest of 26.9% to 42.3%” (19). Based upon a study of a graduate training course to meet the needs of Spanish-speaking students conducted by Minaya-Rowe (2004) , “the SIOP proved to be a highly useful professional tool to aid in the planning of training units for teacher preparation sessions” (18). Unfortunately, the majority of states do not require this training and there is great variability among SI programs, lessons, and delivery. Even

upon the development of the SIOP lesson plan, an attempt to standardize SI programs and instruction, variability still exists (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008). Hill and Flynn (2006) state that “teaching English language skills to ELLs is now the responsibility of all school staff...But now, just as we have been told we need to include special education students in our mainstream classrooms, we are also facing the integration of growing numbers of ELLs” (3). In order for our schools to meet the needs and challenges of ELLs, the SIOP model appears to be one model with that holds great promise for ELLs.

Another approach to teaching ELLs effectively is found in Hill and Flynn’s book, *Classroom Instruction that works with English Language Learners* (2006). Based upon the strategies found in *Classroom Instruction That Works* by Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001, Hill and Flynn adapt the strategies of nonlinguistic representations, cues, questions, and advanced organizers, cooperative learning, summarizing and note taking, homework and practice, reinforcement of effort and recognition, testing hypotheses, similarities and differences, and involvement of parents and community for ELLs. Serving as a supplement for *Classroom Instruction That Works* (2006), Hill and Flynn provide ways that these strategies of best practices for all learners can be used with ELLs.

In light of this information, how do secondary teachers of ELLs in the Hall County School System know if their implementation of the SIOP strategies and/or obtaining an ESOL endorsement is positively impacting their ELLs? Certainly, research to study this question is needed to adequately assess the impact that ESOL endorsed teachers have on ELLs’ achievement in the school system.

Teacher Preparation for English Language Learners

While we know that there has been a great resurgence of immigration in the past

decade and vast offerings in professional learning are available to support teachers in meeting the needs of English language learners, have these trainings impacted student achievement of ELLs in a positive way? According to O’Neal, Ringler, and Rodriguez (2008), “Currently most in-service teachers are receiving their ESL training through one time workshops and professional development offered by their local school districts” (6). Even though some teacher preparation programs incorporate courses for meeting the unique needs of ELLs and the ESOL endorsement is offered in many states, oftentimes teachers are not required to obtain these endorsements but are simply encouraged to have preparation in working with ELLs. Additionally, the question raised by O’Neal, Ringler, and Rodriguez (2008) continues to remain one gone unanswered: “Why are teacher preparation programs not making changes since the changing demographics in schools indicate that no teacher will leave the profession without ever having taught an English language learner?” (6). DelliCarpini (2008) calls forth the need for more training for teachers who work or will work with ELLs: “As our ELL population continues to increase, the only way to move forward is to equip teachers with the knowledge and skills they need to create classes that truly address the needs of diverse learners”(101). Harper and de Jong (2009) identify one of the more current problems in teaching ELLs: “The ongoing push for short-term, English-only programmes is one trend that has significantly increased the placement of ELLs in mainstream classrooms” (p. 138). Additionally, these researchers recognize the fact that “recent legislative initiatives...emphasize the rapid transition of ELLs into mainstream classrooms [where] structured English immersion has replaced many bilingual education programmes” (p. 138). Regardless of methods deemed as best in meeting the learning needs of ELLs, the importance of passing state mandated

tests which require students to be proficient in reading English, increasing pressure for students to graduate with their same age peers, and increasing costs of education in a depressed economy have minimized the ability for teachers to positively impact student achievement of ELLs. Even though the goal of NCLB was to close the achievement gap for minority learners and ensure that all students could be successful, recent statistics show that these goals for ELLs have not been realized. “The majority of ELLs continue to be taught by unqualified teachers, [and] there is a national shortage of specialist ESL and bilingual teachers” (as cited in Harper & de Jong, 2009, p. 140). Sadly, the National Center for Education Statistics (2002) found that “although many teachers already find ELLs in their classrooms, only 12.5 percent have participated in more than eight hours of training or professional development on how to work with ELLs” (as cited in Washburn, 2008, p. 247). Teachers’ perceptions of ELLs have a powerful influence on the academic success of ELLs: “Students who are culturally, racially and linguistically diverse are often viewed as having a lower likelihood of academic success than non-minority, English speaking students” (Friend, Most, and McCrary, 2008, p. 71). Certainly, the need for professional learning for teachers of ELLs is apparent.

Current Research – Perceptions and Attitudes towards ELLs and Best Practices for Teaching ELLs

Reeves (2002) conducted both a quantitative and qualitative study of high school teachers’ attitudes and perceptions of ESL inclusion in mainstream classes. Having developed her own survey, she received information from 279 subject area teachers in four high schools in Tennessee. Additionally, she interviewed four teachers over a five-month period to examine their experiences of being ELL teachers in detail. Her main findings include 1. Teachers are frustrated with their lack of time, training, and support to

work effectively with ELLs; 2. Teachers have a negative perception that ELLs' native language could be used as a resource; 3. Teachers encourage rapid linguistic assimilation; 4. Teachers believe that there should be equalization of all coursework, not just ELLs; 5 Teachers perceive the inclusion of ELLs in mainstream classes a multicultural learning experience. The qualitative results showed that ELLs are often marginal members of a mainstream classroom who rarely interact with the teacher or peers.

Shope (2008) conducted a study "to examine strategies being used to train teachers in the methodology component in the Georgia ESOL Endorsement and to explore teachers' perceptions of the use and efficacy of strategies for ELLs, and crossover value for other struggling learners, with the goal of fostering studies that can enhance teachers' effectiveness with all students and to relieve teachers of the burden of attempting to teach beyond their abilities" (p. ii). In a quantitative component, twelve content-area teachers who had completed the methodology course for the ESOL endorsement were both interviewed and observed following a particular observation protocol. A discrepancy between their knowledge and practice in regards to best practices for ELLs was observed. The teachers did note that there is crossover value to other struggling learners based upon the strategies learned to teach ELLs. Likewise, they stated that more time is needed to implement best practices rather than learning more strategies. One recommendation that comes from Shope's study is that "SIOP has become the best practices model in preservice training for teachers throughout the United States, and the strategies from that model need to be the focus of sustained professional development" (p. 89).

Cho (2009) conducted a quantitative and qualitative study of pre-service teacher attitudes toward ELLs, their perceptions of professional education training for ELLs, and their perceptions toward instructional strategies regarding ELLs. A survey was given to 129 preservice teachers in a teacher preparation program in South Texas. The qualitative component consisted of twelve interviewees from two separate study majors among the 129 survey participants to participate in a 35 minute interview. The participants agreed that the more courses taken, the better prepared they believed they would be teaching ELLs; they were more aware of linguistically, culturally diverse individuals; they believed that could teach students whose backgrounds were different from their own, and they slightly agreed they were well prepared to teach ELL students. The difference in the two majors, Bilingual Generalist Early Childhood and Generalist Early Childhood, caused the interview answers to vary greatly. Overall, Cho stated that “the scope of training in diversity issues can continue to be broader and deeper” (p. 170).

Strozier (2009) conducted a descriptive multiple case study methodology describing correlates of high-performing high schools with high enrollments of Hispanic English language learners from among four public high schools in Texas. In her research utilizing three separate questionnaires, Strozier determined that the correlates are 1. Active learning; 2. Sheltered instruction; 3. Higher expectations and clear goals; 4. Mentorship for ELLs; 5. Advocacy for the ELLs; 6. Parental support; and 7. Common planning times used for collaborative decision making focused on students” (Abstract). Based upon these correlates, Strozier developed the Hispanic English Language Learner Success Progression Theory Model. This model is offered as a means to promote high

achievement for Hispanic ELLs and serve as a foundation of correlates necessary to assist these students achieve their academic goals.

Morris-Rutledge (2009) surveyed a sample of Mississippi K-12 teachers within one school district using a perception questionnaire on attitudes and perceptions of mainstream teachers teaching ELLs that Reeves (2002) developed. In a comparison to the responses from Reeves (2002), Morris-Rutledge concluded that “participants in this study were not prepared for ELL inclusion” and “participants in this study also believed that ELL students had to gain proficiency in English to be academically successful, and therefore, ELL students’ limited English proficiency was perceived as an obstacle to their success” (p. 119). Additionally, participants did “not recognize ELL students’ native language as a resource” (p. 119). Furthermore, ELL students did not receive many modifications in coursework. With the exception of extended time, all students were expected to do the same work. A positive observation was made in that teachers and students believed that ELL students in the mainstream classroom promoted an “opportunity ...to increase their exposure to and appreciation of diversity” (p. 120). Finally, teachers recognized their need for more training and support.

Strickland (2009) conducted a qualitative study of eight ELL high school students’ views about the effectiveness of current strategies used in instructional programs for ELLs at the secondary level. Both interviews and survey data were analyzed. The use of key words, cooperative learning, peer buddy, and tape recorded lessons appear to be most effective in helping ELLs achieve success academically. The researcher suggests that more ELL voices be heard in order for educators to provide

strategies that are effective for their learning, ultimately assisting them earn a high school diploma in order to participate in the American dream.

Suzuki (2008) conducted a phenomenological study that explored perceptions of support structures and barriers that impact teachers' implementation of effective research-based classroom practices for ELLs. Interviewing 15 teachers, 5 principals, and 3 district administrators, the study provided detailed information of perceived levels of implementation of effective practices over three time periods. Six emergent themes were perceived: 1. leadership; 2. beliefs/expectations; 3. knowledge; 4. connectedness; 5. resources; and 6. flexibility. One key finding from this study appears to be that "leadership was considered foundational by all participants in this study" (p. vii) "When a supportive infrastructure was created by the site administrator, the other five themes appeared positively impacted" (p. vii).

Brown (2008) conducted a quantitative and qualitative study on pre-service teachers' attitudes toward language diversity and linguistically diverse students. Phase One consisted of a survey given to 82 teacher education students. Phases Two and Three consisted of interviews from three Robert Morris University students and questionnaires/interviews with two cooperating teachers in the teacher education program. Upon the completion of the Philadelphia Urban Experience (PUE), a field observation, the students became more tolerant toward linguistically diverse students. Brown concluded her study by recommending that a curriculum for ELLs should be developed that holistically meets the needs of both pre-service teachers and learners.

Durham (2005) conducted a quantitative and qualitative study in order to answer the guiding research question, "Is the ESOL Endorsement Program, supported by the Hall

County School System, preparing participants to become competent, confident ESOL and sheltered curriculum teachers who are strengthening their students' English language achievement?" (Abstract, 2005). Durham targeted test scores of ESOL students who were taught by ESOL endorsed teachers during the 2003-04 to see if gains had been made from the beginning of the school year to the end. Additionally, she conducted questionnaires and interviews with these teachers to determine their beliefs about their competence and confidence in teaching ELLs. While she determined a majority of the teachers interviewed did believe they were equipped with the necessary tools to teach ELLs and were satisfied with the ESOL endorsement program, test score data did not show significant gains over the course of the year for ESOL students taught by the endorsed teachers possibly due to a smaller than expected sample.

While these studies offer much information in regards to both attitudes and perceptions of ELLs along with effective strategies for teaching ELLs, more research is necessary in truly determining the impact of teachers' attitudes and perceptions of ELLs on their success. Additionally, more research is necessary at the secondary level to specifically determine how to best maximize learning opportunities for ELLs given the limited period of time, AYP mandates, and graduation requirements.

History of ESOL Programs

As a result of federal legislation such as NCLB and the Office of Civil Rights (OCR) who maintains that immigrant children should have the same access to an education as those born in this country, school systems have had to re-evaluate their professional learning opportunities and training programs to accommodate the needs of ELLs. Crandall (2004) describes models for in-service training that include joint/peer

observation, collaborative planning and curriculum development (thematic instruction), team teaching, teacher research/inquiry groups, and graduate courses – extensive professional development for teachers and administrators (p.1). Florida requires that teachers begin ESOL professional development training with the first ESOL student that enters their classes. Teachers in Florida must take five courses (300 in-service hours) as compared to the three that Georgia teachers must take. While there are certification programs to teach English Language Learners throughout the United States, Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) recommends that “qualified ESL and EFL educators not only should demonstrate a high level of written and oral proficiency in the English language (regardless of native language), but also should demonstrate teaching competency”(TESOL, 2008). In addition, these teachers “should be aware of current trends and research and their instructional implications in the fields of linguistics, applied linguistics, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, language pedagogy and methodology, literacy development, curriculum and materials development, assessment, and cross-cultural communication”(TESOL, 2008). Since the teacher preparation programs vary from state to state, the effectiveness of these programs vary as well or is virtually unknown. Many teacher training evaluations are more concerned with the descriptions of the program, rather than outcomes of the program (Durham, 2005, p. 23).

Without research to determine the effectiveness of teacher training and its impact on student learning, educators cannot know if teacher training programs are worth implementation. Based upon a three year study by the U.S. Department of Education (USDOE, 1998-2000) that sought to answer the question of whether or not professional development changes teaching practice, professional learning was found to be effective if

it was focused on “specific, higher order teaching strategies [that increased] teachers’ use of those strategies in the classroom” and that “this effect is even stronger when the professional development activity is of the reform type (the teacher is a part of a network or study group) rather than a traditional workshop or conference” (USDOE, 2008).

Durham (2005) found that the school district’s Endorsement Program aligns itself to the qualities called for from the U.S. Department of Education study (p.24). One of the three courses which make up this school system’s Endorsement Program is Language Acquisition, which does focus on higher-order thinking skills (p. 25). Additionally, since teachers generally take the three courses back to back, they form a professional learning community, establishing a network of assistance similar for one of the tenets of the program evaluation revealed in the U.S. Department of Education study (p.25). Durham (2005) states that “given the parallels of the DOE study with the characteristics of the endorsement program in [this district], one would expect a similar outcome: Professional development does change teaching practices” (p. 25). Likewise, Hinson (2000) states that “teacher training is critical to the success of second language students” (p. 21). Many teachers with no specific training for ELLs create a “learned helplessness” among their students when they expose them to an intensive one-way instruction. This, in turn, confines them to a passive role of learning, diminishing independent learning and behavior (Hinson, 2000, p. 22). According to the National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction (NCELA, 2008), “English language learners represent one of the fastest growing groups of students in U.S. middle and high school, and one of the most diverse, [and these students] face special challenges to accessing the secondary school curriculum” (p.1). ELLs who arrive in the U.S. as

teenagers face tremendous pressure in learning in U.S. schools due to “critical gaps in their learning habits and literacy skills” (NCELA, 2008). In order for ELLs to become proficient in English, they must be taught by teachers who are adequately trained to accommodate the unique learning situations of these students.

Complexities of Graduation Requirements for ELLs

According to *Georgia High School Graduation Requirements: preparing students for success* (GADOE Website, 2010), “School districts are required to do the following: A. Identify English language learners; B. Serve ELLs, using appropriate delivery models of language instruction; C. Assess ELLs annually for English language proficiency using the *ACCESS for ELLs*” (126). In order to fulfill these requirements, man power and teacher training have been utilized. Not only are school officials responsible for testing ELLs annually, they must be trained to assess and utilize test results. Additionally, teachers must understand these test results and use them to drive classroom instruction. Since schools may serve ELLs through six approved delivery models, training and knowledge are necessary for districts to use the most efficient and effective means. Further exacerbating a challenging task, “many ELLs have a history of interrupted or limited formal schooling; therefore, they may not have had the opportunity to develop literacy skills and content knowledge in their primary or home language” (p. 131). Not only must secondary teachers working with ELLs be content experts, they must also have some knowledge of BICS and CALP in order to assist ELLs in the various stages of language acquisition evidenced. These challenges coupled with the limited time for students to graduate from high school, typically four years, adds pressure to all who are involved in the education of ELLs.

While several means are available whereby immigrants learn English, the state of Georgia offers an English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) program, which is a “state funded instructional program for eligible English language learners (ELLs) in grades K-12 (Georgia School Law Section 20-2-156 Code 1981, Sec. 20-2-156, enacted in 1985)” (GADOE, 2009). Additionally, the state of Georgia holds “students accountable for progress in English language proficiency and evidence of attainment of English language proficiency sufficient to exit ESOL services” (GADOE, 2009). Since its inception, the ESOL Program has “transitioned from a discrete skills curriculum to a standards-based curriculum” and expects educators in the state to use instructional practices to “accommodate the needs of Georgia’s linguistically and culturally diverse student and parent populations” (GADOE, 2009). As an official member of the World Class Instructional Design and Assessment (WIDA) Consortium, the State of Georgia has adopted the WIDA standards, which are aligned to the Georgia Performance Standards (GPS). There are five WIDA English Language Proficiency Standards which “establish a common yardstick to define and measure the progress of ELLs as they acquire language. [These] standards stipulate that ELLs will learn not only the necessary language of social interaction, but also the academic language necessary to be successful in the content areas” (GADOE, 2010, Executive Summary). There are six approved delivery models in the State of Georgia for providing assistance services to ELLs:

1. Pull-out model outside the academic block – students are taken out of a non- academic class for the purpose of receiving small group language instruction.
2. Push-in model within the academic block – students remain in their

general education class where they receive content instruction from their content area teacher and language assistance from the ESOL teacher.

3. A cluster center to which students are transported for instruction – students from two or more schools are grouped in a center designed to provide intensive language assistance.
4. A resource center / laboratory – students receive language assistance in a group setting supplemented by multi-media materials.
5. A scheduled class period – students at the middle and high school levels receive language assistance and /or content instruction in a class composed of ELLs only.
6. An alternative approved in advance by the Department of Education through a process described in Guidance accompanying this rule. (Georgia Department of Education Title III ESOL Resource Guide 2009-2010)

Whether students are taught English through bilingual education or ESOL sheltered classes, the ESOL program's standard is for students to use English "to communicate and demonstrate academic, social, and cultural understanding" (GADOE, 2010).

Teachers who teach the ESOL program are required to obtain an ESOL endorsement (GAPSC, 2010), which consists of three courses: English Language Acquisition; American Culture and Society; and Methods and Materials of Teaching English as a Second Language. Upon completion of these courses, teachers should be equipped to work with ELLs in their becoming English-proficient. Due to the influx of Hispanic students to Hall County, Georgia, in the late 1990s in collaboration with Pioneer RESA, the Hall County School System obtained approval by the state of Georgia to offer

these courses within the school system in order for more teachers to obtain the ESOL endorsement. While many teachers in the system took advantage of this opportunity, research to substantiate the effectiveness of teachers on ELLs' ability to become English-proficient is minimal. Due to the requirements and accountability demands of the federal law, No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, ELLs are required to take high-stakes tests which factor in to a school system's annual yearly progress (AYP). At the secondary school level, ELLs along with their English-speaking peers must meet the standards set forth in this federal law by demonstrating competence through End-of-Course Tests (EOCTs), the Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English State-to-State (ACCESS) test, and the five academic sections of the Georgia High School Graduation Test (GHSGT). With so much at stake for the school systems in Georgia, it is imperative to know the effectiveness of teachers who have the ESOL endorsement and their impact on student achievement. How can leaders in the state of Georgia or this particular school system know if the ESOL endorsement truly equips teachers with the necessary tools to positively impact ELLs so they can successfully pass the high-stakes' tests necessary for the schools to meet AYP goals? Additionally, is the impact of SIOP training or other specific strategy based training for teachers, both ESOL endorsed or not, greater? In his article *Teaching English Language Learners: What the Research Does – and Does Not – Say*, Goldenberg (2008) offers the following instructional framework for ELLs: 1. ELLs should be taught reading in their primary language if possible; 2. ELLs should be helped to transfer what is learned from the primary language to English. 3. Modifications are necessary in learning concepts in English; 4. ELLs need intensive oral English language development; and 5. ELLs need academic content instruction, which should be in

addition to English language development (42). Goldenberg's findings are emulated in the SIOP model, which provides a structure of scaffolding for ELLs to develop both language and content simultaneously. The integration of language and content objectives while offering scaffolding and background knowledge makes this model unique. While the ESOL endorsement as prescribed by the State of Georgia is a necessity for teachers to teach ELLs, the training in SI strategies may actually be the key to success for these students. This researcher seeks to determine if the ESOL endorsement impact ELLs' achievement on the EOCTs required by the state of Georgia and if teachers who have obtained the endorsement have greater favorable attitudes and perceptions of teaching ELLs.

Summary

While there have been several studies in the last five years on the perceptions and attitudes of secondary mainstream teachers of ELLs, the significance of perceptions and attitudes on ELLs' achievement is still under developed and virtually unknown to date. Additionally, research at the secondary level examining the impact of teacher training for working with ELLs and the best practices/strategies for ensuring ELL success is lacking. While recent studies on the SIOP model have provided favorable results in assisting ELLs' access the academic curriculum, studies that disaggregate perceptions/attitudes along with methods/strategies that would support ELLs are non-existent. In the state of Georgia, teachers must complete the ESOL endorsement program in order to teach ELLs; however, with the exception of Durham's attempts to ascertain the effectiveness of the program and its impact on ELLs' test scores, no other studies have evaluated the ESOL endorsement program in terms of teacher training for working with ELLs, teacher

effectiveness in working with ELLs, or its impact on students' test scores or gains. In an effort to increase the body of knowledge concerning effective and efficient means for ELLs' success, the researcher chose to conduct a study of both perceptions and attitudes of secondary mainstream teachers of ELLs along with teacher training of ELLs.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the procedures and methods utilized in this study. An overview of the study is provided, followed by the design of the study, including a description of the participants, procedures, and data analyses.

Overview of the Study

The purpose of this causal-comparative quantitative study was to investigate two primary issues concerning English language learners: 1. Impact of teacher training on ELL EOCT scores, and 2. Attitudes and perceptions of secondary ELL teachers toward the inclusion of ELLs in mainstream classes. First of all, teacher training was explored for all secondary teachers who had administered an EOCT to an ELL based upon two categories: 1. Teachers with an ESOL Endorsement; 2. Teachers without an ESOL endorsement. The purpose of this analysis was to determine if teacher preparation impacted ELLs' EOCT scores. Additionally, teachers' attitudes were explored via a survey designed by Reeves (2002) that allowed teachers to respond based upon their perceptions of their ELLs and ELL second language acquisition. The data was disaggregated into six themes based upon Reeves' original study. The questionnaire was administered to all academic content area teachers in the six designated schools in May 2009 upon approval from her dissertation committee and Liberty University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). Ultimately, the analysis of students' test scores as categorized by teachers' training (teachers who had obtained an ESOL endorsement and those who had not) were not statistically significant. The findings from the current study's survey compared with results from Reeves' study showed variations in the themes of language, training and support, and general attitudes.

Design of the Study

Since there had been a gap between English language learners' test scores in comparison to other students scores impacting their graduation rates and schools' annual yearly progress goals, the researcher designed a study to investigate the ESOL endorsement. The researcher pursued this study in an effort to determine if teachers' having an ESOL endorsement or not might be a cause for ELLs' to have lower test scores than other students in the district's high schools. This study was designed to examine whether or not teacher training categorized by obtaining an ESOL endorsement or not significantly impacted English language learners' End of Course test scores. The researcher conducted a non-experimental causal-comparative, quantitative study that looked at a specific variable, teacher training. An analysis of the EOCT scores for ELLs (N = 502) taught by two groups of teachers, 1. Teachers with an ESOL Endorsement; 2. Teachers without ESOL endorsement, was analyzed using descriptive data and inferential statistics in an effort to offer insights in assisting ELLs' success in mainstream classrooms. Additionally, another quantitative component to this study explored the attitudes and perceptions of secondary teachers of ELLs through a survey instrument (Appendix A) created by Reeves (2002). This inquiry surveyed a sample (N = 182) of secondary teachers in a northeast Georgia school district to offer insights into their general attitudes and perceptions of ELLs in mainstream classes. Data was computed descriptively and disaggregated according to the six primary themes of the survey then compared with data from Reeves' survey data.

Preliminary Procedures

Prior to the implementation of this study, a thorough review of literature was completed. The review of literature focused on second language acquisition, historical trends of non-

native English speakers, strategies for teaching non-native English speakers, current research on EOCTs in respect to non-native English learners, and attitudinal data on English language learners.

The school district in this study granted the researcher permission to use the EOCT scores for ELLs for the 2008-09 school year. Since the researcher used no personal identifiers, obtaining parental permission on the subjects was not necessary. Additionally, teachers completing the survey were not asked to provide their names.

Selection of the Sample

Students who were categorized as English language learners in the 2008-09 school year who took an EOCT that year in the six high schools were subjects of this study. Secondary teachers who taught academic courses in the 2008-09 school year who would have administered these tests were subjects of this study through their completion of the survey.

Historically, the school district was considered as a suburban to rural system consisting of predominantly white and African-American students. With a greater range in socio-economic levels over ethnicity variations, the system experienced great change with the influx of many Hispanic students whose family moved to the area due to economic opportunities through the poultry industry.

According to the U.S. Census Bureau, the school district's county had a population of 187,743 in 2009. Of these, 14.2% of those are below the poverty line, compared with 14.7% for the State of Georgia. The percentage of Hispanics in the county was 27.2% as compared to 8.3% in the State of Georgia. The median household income for citizens of this county was \$53,083.00.

Data Gathering Methods

Using the school system's information database, Infinite Campus, the researcher

filtered data and extrapolated students who qualified as ELLs and took an EOCT during the 2008-09 school year from each of the six high schools. ELL students are served or monitored through the ESOL program if they score a 5.0 or less on the Assessing Comprehension and Communication in English State-to-State (ACCESS) test. The number of ELLs in each school varied. One high school served slightly over one hundred students; three others served 50-99 ELLs; two others served less than 25 ELLs. The students' EOCT scores and teachers' names were collected and entered into an Excel spreadsheet for analysis. All students' and teachers' personal data was protected by changing both teacher and student names to ordinal numbers. The researcher matched the teacher and his/her designation (with or without an ESOL endorsement) with the students and their EOCT scores in tables for analysis. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were computed based upon the two teacher training categories and EOCT scores.

Secondary academic teachers of ELLs were given a survey based upon a survey designed by Reeves (2002) to compare their attitudes and perceptions on the inclusion of ELLs in their mainstream classrooms with those from the Reeves' study. The comparison results offered insights into changes in attitudes and perceptions over time.

Participants

The school district in this study is located in northeast Georgia in the southeastern United States. Participants for the academic achievement analysis based on teacher training included all secondary academic teachers who had taught a course for which an EOCT was given and had administered an EOCT to ELLs during the 2008-09 school year in the school district. Participants for the survey included all secondary, academic content teachers, teachers of math, science, social studies, and English, in the school district who

may or may not have been teaching ELL students in May 2009.

Participants for the survey were chosen based upon their employment as secondary content teachers in the six traditional high schools during the 2008-09 school year. All six schools were included in the study due to the influx of Hispanic students, primarily from Mexico, over the past decade. Even though two schools in the southern end of the county had a higher concentration of ELLs, all six schools were chosen since the findings of this study could be beneficial to them all. School A enrolled 89 ELL students, School B enrolled 97 ELL students, School C enrolled 21 ELL students, School D enrolled 61 ELL students, School E enrolled 13 ELL students, and School F enrolled 103 ELL students (Table 1). All academic secondary teachers were invited to participate in the survey; all academic secondary teachers who gave an EOCT to ELLs during the 2008-09 school year were categorized according to their teacher training.

Table 1: *Student Enrollment of School District*

<u>Total Enrollment</u>		<u>ELLs</u> <u>Number (%)</u>	<u>Non-ELLs</u> <u>Number (%)</u>
School A	1057	89 (8.4%)	968 (91.5%)
School B	996	97 (9.7%)	899 (90.3%)
School C	1402	21 (1.5%)	1381 (98.5%)
School D	903	61 (6.8%)	842 (93.2%)
School E	1037	13 (1.3%)	1024 (90.7%)
School F	1044	103 (9.9%)	941 (90.1%)

Note. Total enrollment information provided by the State of Georgia at www.gadoe.org. ELL and Non-ELL information provided by the participating school district (2009).

The researcher sent a letter (Appendix B) to each principal to explain the purpose of the survey requesting permission for academic teachers to complete the survey.

After obtaining permission to proceed from each principal, the researcher contacted each high school curriculum assistant principal (H-CAP) and gave explicit instructions for administering the survey to each school's academic content teachers (Appendix C). The researcher sent each H-CAP forty hard copies of the survey to be administered in May 2009. Each H-CAP returned his/her set of surveys back to the researcher upon completion. In an attempt to gain a higher return rate, the researcher emailed each H-CAP reminders to return completed surveys into the fall of the 2009-10 school year.

Instruments Used in the Data Collection

Two primary instruments were used to collect data for this study. Georgia's End-of-Course Tests required by the Department of Education of the State of Georgia measure the students' knowledge of the standards for each of eight courses. The ESL Students in Mainstream Classrooms (Reeves, 2002) was adapted and used to provide attitudes and perceptions of secondary teachers towards ELLs in their classes.

Georgia End of Course Tests

End of Course Test scores, which are used to assess students' mastery of the standards of the courses, for all ELLs in the six northeast Georgia high schools in this study, were obtained via the school system's database, Infinite Campus. While the testing validity of these tests concern "how well the items measure what they are intended to measure and the extent to which the inferences drawn from test scores are supported," the reliability relates the extent to which student performance is consistent over time with a determination of comparable results for each question (quoted in Turner from Georgia Department of Education, 2006b, 41-42). The reliability of the tests is established through a measure of internal consistency called coefficient alpha. The higher the

coefficient alpha, the higher the reliability. The End of Course Tests are considered reliable as all eight of the tests have a coefficient alpha of .83 or higher as seen in Table 2 below:

Table 2: *Summary of Coefficient Alpha over Administrations 2008-09*

	Summer 2008	Winter 2008 Form 1/Form 2	Spring 2009 Form 1/Form 2
ALGEBRA I	0.83	0.85/0.84	0.84/.85
GEOMETRY	0.85	0.91/0.89	0.89/0.89
U.S. HISTORY	0.86	0.91/0.91	0.93/0.94
ECONOMICS	0.91	0.91/0.89	0.91/0.91
PHYSICAL SCIENCE	0.83	0.89/0.90	0.90/0.88
BIOLOGY	0.87	0.91/0.91	0.93/0.93
NINTH GRADE LIT	0.90	0.93/0.92	0.93/0.93
AMERICAN LIT	0.92	0.90/0.92	0.91/0.91

Note. Georgia Department of Education (2010).

Content experts monitor test items continually, ensuring alignment with the state's Georgia Performance Standards (GPS). Along with oversight from the Georgia Department of Education and the state's Technical Advisory Committee (TAC), an independent panel of experts, technical aspects of the tests are monitored as well. According to a study on the validity of tests, "any test that uses language is also inherently a test of language, as well as content" (quoted in Banks 2011 from Visone, 2009, 47). In the case of the school district in this study, the limited language ability of the ELL subgroup test-takers "undoubtedly contributes to their struggles on the Math as well as English Language Arts content graduation tests. Since the NCLB Act requires that even ELLs meet the same testing standards as native speakers, schools that have significant populations of these students must ensure that they make this progress or risk serious consequences" (Banks, 2011).

The Survey

Secondly, teachers self-reported their status of having an ESOL endorsement and SIOP training via a survey, *ESL Students in Mainstream Classrooms* (Reeves, 2002), that was replicated and modified with two additional questions on teacher training (Appendix A). The original survey was piloted with thirty middle school teachers in Knox County, TN. Even though the pilot was administered at a middle school and secondary schools were chosen for her actual study, Reeves reported that both the middle schools and high schools were similar in that they were the schools with “the highest population of ESL students during the 2000-01 school year” (p. 37). Based upon the pilot study and feedback from the teachers, Reeves made recommended changes in the survey before it was administered again for her own study. The original survey consisted of 38 items: 16 answerable on a four-point Likert scale, 11 answerable using a frequency table, three open-ended items, and a set of eight demographic items (e.g. subject area, years of teaching experience, gender, second language experience, and training/teaching ELL students (Reeves, 2002, p. 43). The modification made to the survey was in Section D through an expansion of question 6 and addition of two questions: 7. Which type(s) of training do you find most beneficial? and 8. If you use SIOP strategies, how often do you use them? According to Reeves, 2002, six themes emerged from her standardization of the survey: 1. Teachers’ perceptions of language acquisition processes, the roles of English and the ELLs’ native language (Language); 2. Teachers’ perceptions of the need for coursework modifications for ELL students, as well as their attitudes toward modification practices (Modification); 3. Teachers’ attitudes and perceptions of time constraints resulting from ELL inclusion (Time); 4. Teachers’ attitudes and perceptions

of appropriate training and support for working with ELLs (Training and Support); 5. Teachers' perceptions of the educational environment resulting from ELL inclusion in mainstream classes (Educational Environment); and 6. Teachers' general attitudes toward ELL inclusion (General Attitudes). Due to researcher error, a reversal of Reeves' Sections A and B was made during the modification of the survey to include the additional questions 7 and 9 to Section D. For the sake of comparison, all references to Sections A and B in this study will correspond to Reeves' Sections B and A, respectively. Table 2 enumerates the corresponding sections and question numbers that pertain to each theme.

Table 3
Themes in Attitudes and Perceptions with Corresponding Survey Items

Themes	Survey Items	
	Section A	Section B
Time	6, 7, 8	6
Modification	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12
Language	3, 4	4, 5, 16
Educational Environment		1, 2
Training and Support	9, 10, 11	13, 14
General Attitude		3, 15

Section A of the survey directed respondents to read a statement and check a box which most closely represented the statement's frequency in their classrooms into the following categories: most or all of the time; some of the time; and, seldom or never. This section allowed for an investigation of attitudes and perceptions of subject area teachers by discussing their direct experiences with ELL inclusion. If teachers had classes

in which no ELL students were enrolled, they were instructed to skip Section A and B then go directly to Section C.

Section B of the survey utilized a four-point Likert scale from which each respondent would read a statement then check a box which most closely represented his/her opinion: strongly agree; agree; disagree; or, strongly disagree. “The items in this section were designed to probe the attitudes and perceptions of all subject area teachers, including those with little or no experience with [ELL] inclusion” (Reeves, 2002, p. 43).

Section C of the survey consisted of two open-ended items: 1. Please list what you consider to be the *greatest benefits* of including ELL students in subject area classes, and 2. Please list what you consider to be the *greatest challenges* of including ELL students in subject area classes. Two purposes were served: to allow respondents to expand or clarify their responses and to identify any attitudes or perceptions that were not addressed Sections A or B.

Section D of the survey contained demographic questions which allowed each respondent to give his/her subject area(s), gender, years of teaching experience, native language, second language proficiency, and types of language minority training. In order to determine teacher training, the researcher’s expansion of question 6 in Section D included options for respondents to check beside specific types of training in working with ELLs: ESOL endorsement and SIOP training. This information would provide not only a description of the sample but could be viewed in conjunction with attitudes and perceptions along with teacher preparation for ELLs.

The survey was created and normed by Jenelle Reeves (2002). In her pilot study, Reeves administered the survey to thirty middle schools, subject area teachers during a

faculty meeting. The pilot study verified the clarity of the instrument, and the requested feedback from the study allowed Reeves to make needed adjustments.

Sampling Procedures

English language learners, currently served through the ESOL program in the six high schools during the 2008-09 school year who took at least one EOCT either first or second semester, were included in the study. Secondary content area teachers were requested to complete the modified ESL Students in Mainstream Classrooms' survey (Reeves, 2002). Since Reeves designed the survey herself, reliability could only be obtained through comparison of responses from her pilot study and dissertation study. Since her pilot study was conducted with middle school teachers, and the study for her dissertation was conducted with high school teachers, she did not complete comparison statistics but focused on developing good questions/statements based upon past research. Morris-Rutledge (2009) utilized the survey in her study and found many of the same results as Reeves'. Other than information supplied by Reeves as to the design and construction of the survey items and implementation of the pilot, no reliability information was given.

Data Analysis Procedures

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the results from the survey. Based upon the methods of measures of the survey by Reeves (2002), descriptive statistics were used to measure teachers' attitudes in six themes: 1) teachers' perceptions of language acquisition processes, the roles of English and the ELLs' native language; 2) teachers' perceptions of the need for coursework modifications for ELL students , as well as their attitudes toward modification practices; 3) teachers' attitudes and perceptions of time

constraints resulting from ELL inclusion; 4) teachers' attitudes and perceptions of appropriate training and support for working with ELL students; 5) teachers' perceptions of the educational environment resulting from ELL inclusion. These themes were integrated throughout the four sections of the survey instrument. While the survey does include many attitudinal and perception questions for teachers of ELLs, it also provides information as to the certification for each teacher. This data, whether or not the teacher had obtained an ESOL endorsement or not were extrapolated from the survey to be used along with the EOCT results for teachers of ELLs who took an EOCT in the 2008-09 school year. The data from the survey was quantitatively analyzed overall using descriptive statistics as a comparison measure for Reeves' study in order to gain insight into changes from Reeves' study to the current study.

This chapter has explained the methods used for this non-experimental causal-comparative quantitative study in the researcher's attempt to determine if teacher training as categorized by those who have obtained an ESOL endorsement and those who have not obtained an ESOL endorsement significantly impact ELLs' achievement via EOCTs. Descriptive statistics were computed for attitudes and perceptions that teachers have towards the inclusion of ELLs in mainstream classes as compared to Reeves' survey results from 2002.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

This study was designed to determine if teacher training through obtaining an ESOL endorsement has an impact on ELL achievement as measured with EOCT scores or impacts attitudes and perceptions of ELLs in mainstream classes. Based upon the researcher's design of the study, two primary research questions were studied:

Research question 1

Do English language learners taught by English to Speakers of Other Languages endorsed teacher achieve higher scores on their End of Course Test scores than English language learners taught by teachers without an English to Speakers of Other Languages endorsement?

Research question 2

What similarities or differences in secondary teachers' attitudes and perceptions of the inclusion of English language learners in their mainstream subject area classes exist currently as compared to secondary teachers' attitudes and perceptions from ten years ago?

Hypothesis 1

There is no significant difference in English language learners' End of Course Test scores of those taught by a teacher who has an English to Speakers of Other Languages endorsement with those taught by a teacher without an English to Speakers of Language endorsement.

Procedures

The researcher identified the students already categorized as ELLs enrolled in six high schools in one identified school district for the 2008-09 schools year. Using the school system's student information database, Infinite Campus, the research filtered the data in order to extrapolate all ELLs who had EOCT scores for that academic school year. Teachers who had taught these students were also identified. This data was collected and entered into an excel spread sheet for data analysis.

The students' personal data was protected by deleting all identifying test identification numbers and names. Teachers' personal data was protected by coding each teacher numerically.

Analysis of Data

The researcher conducted a quantitative study in order to answer the research questions listed above. First of all, Georgia End-of-Course Tests for English language learners in the participating school district for 2008-09 were categorized into two groups: scores of students who were taught by teachers who had obtained the ESOL endorsement with those scores of students who were taught by teachers without an ESOL endorsement. Secondly, the researcher replicated and expanded a survey instrument designed by Reeves (2002) that measures attitudes and perceptions of ELL inclusion in mainstream classrooms. One hundred eighty-two secondary teachers in the six high schools in the participating school district completed the survey.

This chapter presents an analysis of the categorized test score data and the survey results. First, an analysis of the categorized test score data is presented. Secondly, return rates and demographic data is presented from the survey. Next, the survey data is

analyzed through Reeves' (2002) six themes: language, modification, time, training and support, educational environment, and general attitude toward ELL inclusion. Lastly, a comparison of these findings is further analyzed based upon two categories of teacher training: teachers who have obtained an ESOL endorsement and teachers who have not acquired an ESOL Endorsement.

EOCT Results

To assess the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in ELLs' EOCT scores of those taught by a teacher who has an ESOL endorsement with those taught by a teacher without an ESOL endorsement, descriptive statistics including means, standard error, and standard deviations were calculated based upon 503 EOCT scores posted for ELLs during the 2008-09 school year. In this ex post facto study, the independent variable, teacher training, was categorized based upon whether or not they had obtained an ESOL endorsement or not, to determine any statistical significance on the dependent variable, EOCT scores. To further analyze the test data, measures of central tendency were run to note the typical attributes of the data. Measures of dispersion were run in order to show the distance between the minimum and maximum EOCT scores, and the standard deviation, a dispersion of scores around the mean, was run as well. The standard deviation measured statistical dispersion, or the spread of values in a data set.

Descriptive data for the 2008-09 ELL EOCT scores categorized by teacher preparation (ESOL endorsed and non-ESOL endorsed), including means, and standard deviations are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: *Descriptive Statistics*

Group Statistics					
	Test Scores	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Teacher Preparation	Non-Endorsed	332	62.94	13.048	.716
	Endorsed	171	62.36	12.156	.930

In order to test for normality when sample sizes are significantly different, Levene's test of homogeneity of variances was run. Since the results showed normality and equal variances could be assumed, a t-test was conducted to evaluate the null hypothesis, there is no difference in English language learners' End of Course Test scores for those students who were taught by a teacher who had obtained an English to Speakers of Other Languages endorsement with English language learners who were taught by a teacher who had not obtained an English to Speakers of Other Languages endorsement ($N=503$). The independent variable, teacher training, included two groups: with an ESOL endorsement ($M = 62.36$, $SD = 13.048$, $n = 171$) and without an ESOL endorsement ($M=62.94$, $SD=12.156$, $n = 332$). Table 5 shows the results of both Levene's Test and the Independent Samples T-test.

Table 5: *Levene's Test and Independent Samples Test*

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Teacher Preparation	Equal variances assumed	.571	.450	.481	501	.631	.577	1.200	-1.781	2.935

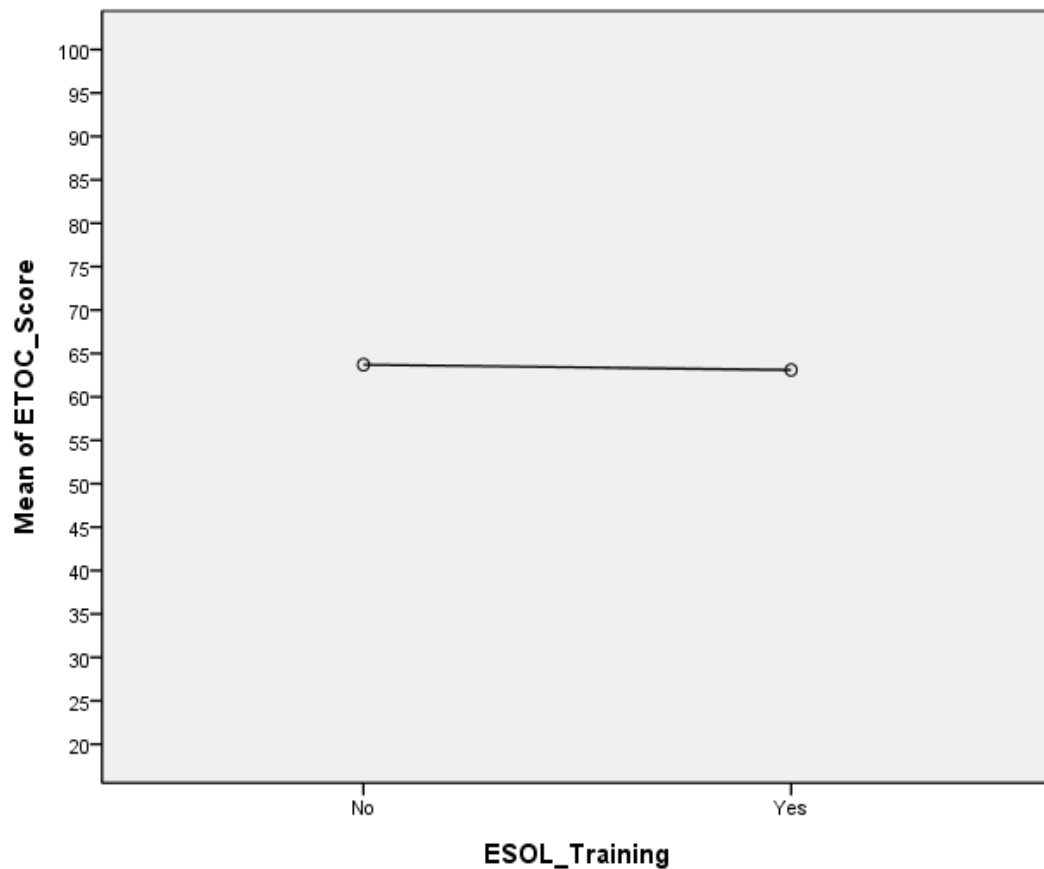
Equal variances not assumed			.492	365.503	.623	.577	1.173	-1.730	2.885
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Note. $\alpha > .05$

Since the alpha level is .450, which is greater than .05, the researcher can assume that the samples have equal variances. The t-test results show a significance level of .631. Since this value is greater than .05, one can conclude that there is no statistically significant difference between the two categories of teacher training. Additionally, one can conclude that the differences between condition means are likely due to chance and not likely due to whether an English language learner was taught by a teacher who had obtained an ESOL endorsement or had not. Thus, there is not significant evidence to reject the null hypothesis – the null hypothesis is retained. Based upon these results, there is a lack of evidence for either the truth or falsity of the hypothesis that a significant difference exists between English language learners' End of Course Test scores for students whose teachers obtained an ESOL endorsement with those English language learners' End of Course Test scores for students whose teachers had not obtained an ESOL endorsement.

The line graph of the means for ELL EOCT scores below provides a visual representation of the insignificant difference between scores for teachers who had obtained an ESOL endorsement compared to those scores for teachers who had not obtained the ESOL endorsement. See Figure 1 below.

Figure 1: Means Plots of EOCT Scores Categorized by Teacher Training



Survey Results

Return Rates

The return rate for the survey was 75.8%. The total number of surveys distributed to secondary academic content teachers in six high schools were 240. Of those distributed, 182 were returned. Return rates for schools B and E are presumably low due to lack of time in the school year (schools received surveys in late May) and /or lack of following directions provided. Return rates for each school are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: *Survey Return Rates for Each School Site*

School Site	Surveys Distributed	Surveys Returned	Surveys Rejected	Return Rate
School A	40	31	10	78%
School B	40	20	4	50%
School C	40	38	2	95%
School D	40	36	4	90%
School E	40	19	6	48%
School F	40	38	3	95%
Total	240	182	29	76%

Demographic Information

Following is the demographic information for the participants of the survey.

Survey Participants

The first demographic questions on the survey gathered information about the amount of experience each teacher had with ELL inclusion (numbers 1, 2, and 3 at the top of Section A). One hundred seventy (99.3%) reported experience with ELLs during their teaching career. Only twelve (6%) reported that they had not worked with ELLs in their career. The average number of ELLs currently enrolled in classes of the 182 participants was 12.47. The average approximation of ELLs enrolled in each teachers' classes throughout their careers was 79.08. The first demographic questions on the survey gathered information about the amount of experience each teacher had with ELL inclusion (numbers 1, 2, and 3 at the top of Section A). Of the overall 138 non ESOL-endorsed teachers surveyed, 95 (68.8%) had no teacher training for working with ELLs

even though 128 (92.7%) reported they had taught ELLs during their teaching careers. Only ten (7.2%) non ESOL-endorsed teachers with no other training in working with ELLs reported that they had not worked with ELLs in their careers.

Section C included two open response questions on the benefits and challenges of teaching ELLs, and Section D provided additional demographic information. This information included the respondents' subject area(s), number of years of teaching experience, gender, native language, language proficiency beyond native language, and training for teaching ELLs. The researcher expanded question 6 by including types of training, such as ESOL endorsement, SIOP training, or other. Questions 7 and 8 were added in order for the researcher to determine more on strategies that respondents view as effective ones for ELLs.

Even though the researcher intended for academic content area teachers to participate in the survey, the respondents included other subject areas beyond English, mathematics, science, and social studies as is delineated in Table 7. Participants' years of teaching experience ranged from one to thirty-eight years. Eleven of the respondents did not answer this question. The mean number of years of experience was 25.8 (N= 171). The majority of the respondents were female: 115 females (63.2%) and 67 males (36.8%). The vast majority of respondents were native English speakers (96%) while sixty of the respondents can speak another language besides English (33%). The number of teachers who had received training to work with ELLs was 86 (47%) while teachers who reported having no training was 96 (53%).

Table 7: *Subject Area Frequencies and Percentages*

Subject Area	Frequency	Percentage
English	33	18%
Mathematics	49	27%
Science	42	23%
Social Studies	29	16%
Modern Languages	5	2.5%
ESOL	12	7%
Spanish	4	2%
Special Education	5	2.5%
Other	3	1%

Note. N = 182 (Surveys returned).

Six Themes

To further examine the researchers' question, does teacher training as categorized by obtaining or not obtaining an ESOL endorsement significantly impact one's attitudes and perceptions of ELL inclusion in mainstream classrooms, the researcher analyzed the responses based upon Reeves' six topical themes that were developed from the content of her survey questions (2002). Below are the findings for each theme: language, modification, time, training and support, educational environment, and general attitude toward ELL inclusion. Descriptive statistics were computed for each theme in order to compare responses for the current study with Reeves' responses.

Language

Reeves determined three categories for the measurement of the theme of language: length of time necessary for ELLs to acquire English (B5), usefulness of ELLs' language (B4, A3, A4), and English as the official language of the United States (B16). Table 8 shows the means and standard deviations from three key statements on the theme of language. Table 9 reports the frequencies and percentages related to the theme of language.

Table 8: *Attitudes and Perceptions of Language in Section B*

Survey Item	Mean	SD
B4. ELL students should be able to acquire English within two years of enrolling in U.S. schools.	2.56	.708
B5. ELL students should avoid using their native language at school.	2.25	.704
B16. I would support legislation making English the official language of the U.S.	3.32	.791

Note. SD = standard deviation. The mean represents the average score on a four-point Likert scale in which 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, and 4 = strongly agree.

Table 9
Frequencies and Percentages for Language in Section B

Survey Item	SD Freq (%)	D Freq (%)	A Freq (%)	SA Freq (%)	Non-response Freq (%)
B4	14 (8%)	54 (30%)	84 (46%)	13 (7%)	17 (9%)
B5	17 (9%)	89 (49%)	51 (28%)	9 (5%)	16 (9%)
B16	11 (6%)	10 (5%)	71 (39%)	70(38%)	20 (11%)

Note. SD=strongly disagree; D=disagree; A=agree; SA=strongly agree. Freq = frequency. %=percentage; non-responses were included in this calculation. N=182.

While Reeves found that there was a “tendency toward agreement with the perception that ELLs should be able to acquire English within two years of enrolling in U.S. schools (Mean = 2.86) (p. 67), the mean for this statement, 2.56, is somewhat less. In comparison, Reeves’ study indicates that 71.6% agree or strongly agree with the statement, the current study shows a decrease to 53% (Table 9).

The usefulness of ELLs’ native language was measured by survey items B5, A3, and A4. With a mean of 2.25 for responses to statement B5, respondents seem to be neutral as to whether or not ELLs should be allowed to use their native languages in class; however, fifty-eight percent checked disagree or strongly disagree with this statement. Just as Reeves noted from her study, “these respondents did not perceive a need to eliminate ELLs’ native language use in school” (p. 69). The respondents overwhelmingly would support legislation that would make English the official language of the United States with a mean of 3.32 (B16). Similar to Reeves’ findings (mean=3.26), a majority (77%) of respondents agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

In response to survey items A3 and A4, respondents report how often they allow ELLs to use books in their native tongue: 25%(42) seldom or never, 47% (80) some of the time, and 26% (45) most/all of the time. Only seven (4%) of respondents provide ELLs materials in their native language. (See Tables 10 and 11).

Table 10

*Guide to Survey Items Related to Language in Section A**

Survey Item	Statement
A3	I allow an ELL student to use his/her native language in my class.
A4	I provide materials for ELL students in their native languages.

Note. Respondents were instructed to select the frequency of each statement in their classrooms. Frequencies included: seldom or never; some of the time; or most or all of the time. *Respondents without ELL inclusion experience were instructed to skip to Section C.

Table 11

Frequencies and Percentages for Language in Section A*

Survey Item	N	Seldom or Never Freq (%)	Some of the Time Freq (%)	Most/All of the Time Freq (%)
A3	172	43 (25%)	80 (47%)	45 (26%)
A4	172	110 (64%)	52 (30%)	7 (4%)

*Percentages reported in this table are valid percentages; non-responses were not included in these calculations.

The two questions in Section C asking respondents to list the greatest benefits and the greatest challenges of including ELLs in mainstream classrooms elicited several responses on the theme of language. Having compiled all of the comments from the surveys, thirty-eight percent of all respondents stated that the greatest benefit of having ELLs in the mainstream classroom is the exposure to diversity that all students in the classroom experience. Twenty-three percent of the respondents stated that ELLs experience both cultural and linguistic benefits when in a mainstreamed classroom while four percent stated that there are socio-economic benefits for ELLs. Two percent of the respondents stated that ELLs become a model for other students while fourteen percent did not give a response, and less than one percent did not believe that there was a benefit.

Of the greatest challenges to including ELLs in the mainstream classroom, thirty-six percent of the respondents stated that it is the language barrier, followed by eighteen percent stating that the lack of time is the greatest challenge. Ten percent stated that the greatest challenge is modifying coursework; eight percent stated that ELLs have a difficult time keeping pace with other students and often slow the progress of the class. Other responses included ELLs' limited schooling, lack of motivation, difficulty in assessing, and ELLs' having a poor educational environment as greatest challenges. Nine percent gave no response, and ten percent cited other challenges uncommon to the aforementioned as the greatest challenges of teaching ELLs in the mainstream classroom.

At the end of Section D, respondents could write any other comments that they might have on the inclusion of ELLs in the mainstream classroom. These comments have been paraphrased as many of the comments contained the same content/ideas. Thirty percent commented that there is difficulty with ELL inclusion due to the lack of time, training, or support. Fifteen percent of the respondents stated that there is a great need for ELLs to conform through linguistic assimilation and/or refusal of special treatment that cause difficulty in teaching them. Eleven percent commented that they would like to see a minimum English proficiency requirement in place before students were allowed to be included in mainstream classes. Another seven percent of the respondents commented on the disparity between ELLs' language proficiency and necessary proficiency to pass high-stakes' standardized testing. Finally, thirty-seven percent made comments uncommon to the aforementioned.

Modification

This section reports findings from the survey related to the theme of modification.

The theme of modification measured respondents' "attitudes toward the modification of subject area coursework for ELLs ([B]11), ...on modification strategies ([B]7, [B]8, [B]9, [B]10, [A]1, [A]2, [A]3, [A]4, [A]5, and...the difficulty of justifying ELLs' coursework modifications to English proficient students [B]12" (Reeves, 2002, p.79). Tables 13 and 15 present frequencies and percentages related to modification.

A mean of 1.97 for the general attitude toward modification of ELLs' assignments indicates disagreement with the statement. A confirmation of this disagreement is shown in that 75% of the respondents disagree or strongly disagree that ELLs' should not have modified assignments. This finding is in line with Reeves' study in that 65.6% disagreed or strongly disagreed.

Attitudes and perceptions of appropriate modification practices were measured in survey items B7, B8, B9, B10, A1, A2, A3, A4, and A5 (Tables 12, 13, 14, and 15). Reeves broke down modification practices into two categories: coursework modification and grading practices (p. 79).

Simplification of coursework for ELLs showed a tendency toward disagreement with a mean of 2.37; the percentage of respondents who agreed or strongly agreed was (36%) while the percentage of respondents who disagreed or strongly disagreed that a simplification of coursework for ELLs should be practiced was 54%.

Survey items A2 and B8 measured attitudes toward lessening the quantity of coursework for ELLs. The mean for lessening the quantity of work as a good practice was 3.00 with 152 (84%) who agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. Unlike Reeves' study that showed the same number of respondents who agreed that simplification is a good practice and also agreed that lessening the quantity of

coursework as a good practice, this study indicates that the majority of respondents agree with lessening quantity but not simplifying the coursework. On the other hand, 99 (58%) of the respondents stated that they seldom or never lessened the quantity of coursework for ELLs.

Survey items A1 and B9 measured attitudes on giving ELLs more time to complete coursework. A mean of 2.34 was calculated for the statement that giving ELLs more time is a good practice with 90 (52%) who provide ELLs' more time on coursework. Respondents in the current study are somewhat less likely to provide extra time in comparison to respondents in Reeves' study (p. 82).

In response to allowing ELLs' access to their native language through use or materials (survey items A3 and B3), 125 (73%) of respondents reported that they some, most, or all of the time allow students to use their native language in class; whereas, only 59 (34%) reported that they allow ELLs materials in their native language most or all of the time.

Attitudes and perceptions of grading practices for ELLs are measured in survey items A5 and B10. These items "explore the role that ELLs' effort played in participants' grading practices" (Reeves, 2002, p. 83). With a mean of 1.97, 142 (78%) of respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed that teachers should not give ELLs a failing grade if they displayed effort. For ELL inclusion teachers, 120 (70%) believe that effort is more important than achievement some, most, or all of the time.

The mean for survey item B12 which measured the respondents' attitudes and perceptions toward the difficulty of justifying ELLs' coursework modifications to

English proficient students was 2.36. Similar to Reeves' findings, more than half 108 (59%) did not believe that modifications for ELLs would be difficult to justify.

Table 12
Attitudes and Perceptions of Modification in Section B

Survey Item	Mean	SD
B11. Teachers should not modify assignments for the ELL students enrolled in subject area classes.	1.97	.559
B7. It is a good practice to simplify coursework for ELL students.	2.37	.634
B8. It is a good practice to lessen the quantity of coursework for ELL students.	3.00	.542
B9. It is a good practice to allow ELL students more time to complete coursework.	2.34	.578
B10. Teachers should not give ELL students a failing grade if the students display effort.	1.97	.559
B12. The modification of coursework for ELL students would be difficult to justify to other students.	2.36	.636

Note. SD = standard deviation. The mean represents the average score on a four-point Likert scale in which 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = agree; and 4 = strongly agree.

Table 13
Frequencies and Percentages for Modification in Section B

Survey Item	SD Freq (%)	D Freq (%)	A Freq (%)	SA Freq (%)	Non-response Freq (%)
B11	20 (11%)	117 (64%)	26 (14%)	2 (1%)	17 (9%)
B7	9 (5%)	89 (49%)	62 (34%)	4 (2%)	18 (10%)
B8	3 (2%)	14 (8%)	125 (69%)	27 (15%)	13 (7%)
B9	10 (5%)	94 (52%)	58 (32%)	4 (2%)	19 (10%)
B10	26 (14%)	116 (64%)	24 (13%)	1 (<1%)	15 (8%)

B12	11 (6%)	97 (53%)	53 (29%)	6 (3%)	15 (8%)
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Note. SD = strongly disagree; D = disagree; A = agree; SA = strongly agree. Freq = frequency. % = percentage; non-responses were included in this calculation. N = 182.

Table 14

*Guide to Survey Items Related to Modification in Section A**

Survey Item	Statement
A1	I allow ELL students more time to complete their coursework.
A2	I give ELL students less coursework than other students.
A3	I allow an ELL student to use her/his native language in my class.
A4	I provide materials to ELL students in their native languages.
A5	Effort is more important to me than achievement when I grade ELL students.

Note. Respondents were instructed to select the frequency of each statement in their classrooms. Frequencies included: seldom or never; some of the time; or most/all of the time.

*Respondents without ELL inclusion experience were instructed to skip Section A.

Table 15

Frequencies and Percentages for Modification in Section A*

Survey Item	N	Seldom or Never Freq (%)	Some of the Time Freq (%)	Most/All of the Time Freq (%)
A1	172	7 (4%)	72 (42%)	90 (52%)
A2	172	99 (58%)	61 (35%)	8 (5%)
A3	172	43 (25%)	80 (47%)	45 (26%)
A4	172	110 (64%)	52 (30%)	7 (4%)
A5	172	46 (27%)	103 (60%)	17 (10%)

*Percentages reported in this table are valid percentages; non-responses were not included in these calculations.

Time

This section reports findings from the survey related to the theme of time.

The survey items for this theme report respondents' attitudes and perceptions of "whether subject area teachers had enough time to deal with the need of ELL students (B6), the amount of time ELL inclusion required of teachers (A6, A7, and the effect ELL inclusion had on the progression of the entire class (A8)" (Reeves, 2002, p. 92). See Tables 16 and 17 below.

Survey item B6 ascertains attitudes and perceptions on whether or not subject area teachers have time to deal with the needs of ELLs. Unlike the findings in Reeves' study (80, 28.7%), the majority (109) of the respondents (60%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with subject area teachers not having enough time to deal with the needs of ELLs.

Survey items A6 and A7 were statements included in the survey to gauge time requirements of ELL inclusion teachers. Unlike Reeves' findings, respondents were split as to whether or not ELLs required more time than other students. 39 (23%) respondents reported that ELLs require more time most or all of the time while an almost equal number, 37 (22%), reported that ELLs seldom or never required more time than other students. On the other hand for item A8, only 24 (14%) of respondents in this study as compare to 55% in Reeves' study perceived ELLs slowing the progression of the class.

Table 16: *Guide to Survey Items Related to Time in Section A**

Survey Item	Statement
A6	The inclusion of ELL students in my classes increases my workload.
A7	ELL students require more of my time than other students require.

A8 The inclusion of ELL students in my class slows the progress of the entire class.

Note. Respondents were instructed to select the frequency of each statement in their classrooms. Frequencies included: seldom or never; some of the time; or most/all of the time.

*Respondents without ELL inclusion experience were instructed to skip Section A.

Table 17
Frequencies and Percentages for Time in Section A*

Survey Item	N	Seldom or Never Freq (%)	Some of the Time Freq (%)	Most/All of the Time Freq (%)
A6	173	36 (21%)	94 (55%)	38 (22%)
A7	172	37 (22%)	91 (53%)	39 (23%)
A8	172	56 (33%)	81 (47%)	24 (14%)

*Percentage reported in this table is the valid percentage; non-responses were not included in this calculation.

Training and Support

The survey findings are found in this section as related to the theme of training and support.

As Reeves' states, "the theme of training and support measured participants' attitudes and perceptions of the training they had received (B13) and were interested in receiving for working with ELL students (B14)" (p. 96). Survey items A9 and A10 investigate the respondents' perceptions of adequacy or support from administrators and other ELL teachers. Survey item A11 includes a measurement of the frequency of conferences with ELL staff. Table 18 reports the means and standard deviations of item B13 and B14, and Table 19 reports the frequencies and percentages of those same survey items.

Unlike the respondents in Reeves' study where 81% disagreed with survey item B13, the current study, with a mean of 2.37, shows that the majority (90) of the respondents (50%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that they have adequate training to work with ELLs. For survey item B14, 93 (51%) agreed or strongly agreed that they would be interested in more training in working with ELLs.

Table 18

Guide to Survey Items Related to Training and Support in Section B

Survey Item	Statement	Mean	SD
B 13	I have adequate training to work with ELLs.	2.37	1.007
B 14	I am interested in receiving more training in working with ELLs.	2.52	.785

Table 19

Frequencies and Percentages for Training and Support in Section B

Survey Item	SD Freq (%)	D Freq (%)	A Freq (%)	SA Freq (%)	Non-response Freq (%)
B 13	32 (18%)	58 (32%)	49 (27%)	28 (15%)	15 (8%)
B14	16 (9%)	54 (30%)	75 (41%)	18 (10%)	19 (10%)

Note. SD = strongly disagree; D = disagree; A = agree; SA = strongly agree. Freq = frequency. % = percentage; non-responses were included in these calculations. N = 182.

Survey items A9, A10, and A11 attempt to discover the degree of support respondents perceive when teaching ELLs enrolled in their classes. Table 20 gives the survey items related to this theme; Table 21 reports frequencies and percentages for these items.

Table 20

*Guide to Survey Items Related to Training and Support in Section A**

Survey Item	Statement
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- A9 I receive adequate support from school administration when my classes Enroll ELL students.
- A10 I receive adequate support from the ELL staff when my classes enroll ELL students.
- A11 I conference with the ELL teacher.

Note. Respondents were instructed to select the frequency of each statement in their classrooms. Frequencies included: seldom or never; some of the time; or most of the time.

*Respondents without ELL inclusion experience were instructed to skip Section A.

Table 21
Frequencies and Percentages for Training and Support in Section A*

Survey Item	N	Seldom or Never Freq (%)	Some of the Time Freq (%)	Most/All of the Time Freq (%)
A9	172	21 (12%)	67 (39%)	78 (45%)
A10	172	15 (9%)	67 (39%)	85 (49%)
A11	172	52 (30%)	77 (45%)	39 (23%)

*Percentages reported in this table are valid percentages; non-responses were not included in this calculation.

While the majority (78) of respondents (45%) reported that they receive support from administration when ELLs are enrolled in their classes (A9), and the majority (85) of respondents (49%) reported that they receive adequate support from ELL staff when ELLs are enrolled in their classes (A10), responses to attitudes toward conference were varied. For survey item A11, 52(30%) of respondents seldom or never conference, 77 (45%) of respondents conference some of the time, and 39 (23%) conference most/all of the time.

Educational Environment

This section reports the survey findings as related to the theme of educational environment.

According to Reeves, “the theme of educational environment measured participants’ attitudes and perceptions of the classroom environment resulting from ELL inclusion in mainstream classes” (p. 104). Survey item B1 measures the positive educational atmosphere and survey item B2 measures the benefits of ELLs in the classroom. Table 22 displays the means and standard deviations for these items. Table 23 reports the frequencies and percentages.

Table 22
Attitudes and Perceptions of Educational Environment

Survey Item	Mean	SD
B1. The inclusion of ELL students in subject area classes creates a positive educational atmosphere.	2.87	.538
B2. The inclusion of ELL students in subject area classes benefits all students.	2.75	.645

Note. SD = standard deviation. The mean represents the average on a four-point Likert scale in which 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = agree; and 4 = strongly agree.

Table 23
Frequencies and Percentages for Educational Environment

Survey Item	SD Freq (%)	D Freq (%)	A Freq (%)	SA Freq (%)	Non-response Freq (%)
B1	0 (0%)	31 (17%)	113 (62%)	21 (12%)	17 (9%)
B2	3 (2%)	54 (30%)	90 (49%)	20 (11%)	15 (8%)

Note. SD = strongly disagree; D = disagree; A = agree; SA = strongly agree. Freq = frequency. % = percentage; non-responses were included in this calculation. N = 182.

With a mean of 2.87, most respondents agreed with this statement. The majority (134) of respondents (74%) agreed or strongly agreed that inclusion of ELLs in mainstream classes creates a positive atmosphere. The mean for survey item B2 was 2.75. Again, the majority (110) of the respondents (60%) agreed or strongly agreed that the inclusion of ELLs benefits all students, and 32% (57) respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement. These findings are consistent to the findings of Reeves' study.

General Attitudes

This section reports survey findings related to the respondents' general attitudes towards the inclusion of ELL students in mainstream classes.

Two items are included in the survey that measured overall attitudes towards inclusion of ELLs in mainstream classes. Survey item B3 focuses on limiting ELL inclusion on the basis of a certain level of English proficiency; survey item B15 focuses on the degree of enthusiasm for ELL inclusion. The means and standard deviations for B3 and B15 are presented in Table 24; Table 25 reports the frequencies and percentages for general attitudes toward ELL inclusion.

The majority (121) of respondents (66%) agreed or strongly agreed that ELL students should have reached a minimal level of English proficiency before being included in mainstream classes. With a mean of 2.94, most respondents have a strong attitude in favor of this statement. The mean of survey item B15 is 3.09, which shows overall agreement with this statement as well. The majority (151) of respondents (83%)

agreed or strongly agreed to this statement. Only 14 respondents (8%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with welcoming ELLs into their mainstream classes.

Table 24: *Attitudes and Perceptions of General Attitudes Towards ELL Inclusion*

Survey Item	Mean	SD
B3. ELL students should not be included in general education classes until they attain a minimum level of English proficiency.	2.94	.796
B15. I would welcome the inclusion of ELL students in my class.	3.09	.574

Note. SD = standard deviation. The mean represents the average on a four-point Likert scale in which 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = agree; and 4 = strongly agree.

Table 25
Frequencies and Percentages for General Attitudes Towards ELL Inclusion

Survey Item	SD Freq (%)	D Freq (%)	A Freq (%)	SA Freq (%)	Non-response Freq (%)
B3	7 (4%)	39 (21%)	84 (46%)	37 (20%)	15 (8%)
B15	1 (<1%)	13 (7%)	109 (60%)	42 (23%)	17 (9%)

Note. SD = strongly disagree; D = disagree; A = agree; SA = strongly disagree. Freq = frequency. % = percentage; non-responses were included in this calculation. N = 182.

Section C included two open response questions on the benefits and challenges of teaching ELLs (see Tables 26 and 27), and Section D provided additional demographic information. This information included the respondents' subject area(s), number of years of teaching experience, gender, native language, language proficiency beyond native language, and training for teaching ELLs. The researcher expanded question 6 by including types of training, such as ESOL endorsement, SIOP training, or other.

Questions 7 and 8 were added in order for the researcher to determine more on strategies that respondents view as effective ones for ELLs.

Table 26

Responses to Survey Item C1: Greatest Benefits of ELL Inclusion

Category	Frequency (%)
Diversity/Multiculturalism	70 (38%)
Cultural Benefit for ELLs	21 (12%)
Linguistic Benefit for ELLs	20 (11%)
Other	15 (8%)
Socio-economic Benefit for ELLs	8 (4%)
ELL is Model for Other Students	4 (2%)
No Benefit	1 (<1%)
No Response	26 (14%)

Note. Total number of responses =139; N=182

Table 27

Responses to Survey Item C2: Greatest Challenges of ELL Inclusion

Category	Frequency (%)
Language Barrier	65 (36%)
Lack of Time	32 (18%)
Difficulty Modifying Coursework	19 (10%)
Slowing Class Progress/Keeping Pace	14 (8%)
ELLs' Limited Schooling	6 (3%)
Motivation	5 (3%)
Difficulty Assessing ELLs	5 (3%)

Diversity	4 (2%)
Poor Educational Environment	3 (2%)
Other	18 (10%)
No Response	17 (9%)

Note. Total number of responses = 171; N = 182.

Participants' years of teaching experience ranged from one to thirty-eight years with eleven of the participants not responding. The mean number of years of experience was 25.8 (N= 171). The majority of the respondents were female: 115 females (63.2%) and 67 males (36.8%). The vast majority of respondents were native English speakers (96%) while sixty of the participants (33%) are bilingual. The number of teachers who had received some kind of training to work with ELLs was 86 (47%) while teachers who reported having no training was 96 (53%).

Comparison

In comparison to Reeves' study in 2002 in which she employed both quantitative and qualitative methods to determine attitudes and perceptions of academic teachers towards inclusion of English language learners in mainstream classes, this study adapted her study as a means to determine if attitudes and perceptions of academic teachers towards inclusion of ELLs in mainstream classes had changed over the ten-year time period. Just as Reeves reported her findings based upon six themes from the survey, the current study offers a comparison to Reeves' original findings. Comparisons between the two studies in the themes of language, modification, time, training and support, educational environment, and general attitudes are highlighted below.

One of the statements for the theme of language gauged academic teachers' perceptions on the length of acquisition time for a second language. The teachers in both

studies underestimated the actual research of both Krashen (1981) and Cummins (1980) by agreeing that ELLs can learn English within two years. The majority reflected the perception that immersion is the best way for students to acquire a second language and that in order to be successful in academics, English proficiency is key. While most teachers had a positive attitude toward the use of one's native language overall, there was a neutral attitude toward one's native language used in the classroom in Reeves' study. The current study showed an increase in respondents' favorable attitudes toward allowing students to use his/her native language in class.

Teachers in Reeves' study were willing to modify assignments but maintained an attitude that there should be equal grading for all students. Modifications of assignments could be made, especially through giving ELLs' extra time to complete assignments, but the pervasive attitude of the respondents showed that all students should be held to the same standards. Reeves did note that more experienced ESOL teachers valued students' efforts more than more inexperienced teachers. Likewise, the current study shows that the majority of respondents' attitudes toward modification allowed for giving more time for ELLs to complete work. In the current study, respondents agreed that modification of coursework could not only be appropriate for ELLs but could be justified to other students as well.

The theme of time was an area of concern for teachers in both studies. Respondents in Reeves' study agreed that there is not enough time to work with English language learners and were willing to spend extra time as needed; however, those teachers who taught the majority of ELLs agreed that not only did they need more time to work with these students, they realized their workloads were increased as well. The

current study only varied in the theme of time in one area. More respondents in the current study agreed that the inclusion of ELLs in the class can show the progress of the entire class.

In Reeves' study an overwhelming majority of teachers agreed that they did not have adequate training and support to work with English language learners; however, they were ambivalent toward having more training. Not only did these teachers reflect perceptions of inadequate training, they also reflected attitudes of lacking support from administration in teaching these students. The current study portrayed teachers' attitudes and perceptions of their training experience more favorably. Overall, respondents agreed that they had received more support from administration and staff while still lacking in adequate training. Unlike the respondents in Reeves' study, the respondents in the current study would seek more training in working with ELLs.

The educational environment in both studies was generally positive for most teachers who taught English language learners in their classes. Most of the teachers in Reeves' study viewed the experience as one of multiculturalism, and 55% agreed that having ELLs in the mainstream classroom was a benefit to all students. An even greater number of respondents in the current study agreed that the inclusion of ELLs benefits all students as well.

Lastly, approximately three-fourths of teachers in Reeves' study (72.4%) welcomed ELL inclusion in their mainstream classes while 74.9% of respondents reflected the students' need for minimal English proficiency before entering a mainstream classroom. In the current study, the majority of respondents (83%) would

welcome ELL inclusion while two-thirds of the respondents (66%) reflected the need for ELLs to have a minimum proficiency of English before entering a mainstream classroom.

Summary

While the research based this investigation on an assumption that teachers who obtained an ESOL endorsement would be more effective in terms of advancing English language learners' achievement and that their attitudes and perceptions would be more positive than those teachers who had not obtained an endorsement, the overall findings did not support those assumptions. Likewise, the findings for Research Question 1 and Hypothesis 1 through the investigation of teacher training and English language learner test scores showed a lack of any statistical difference. Overall results from the descriptive statistics calculated from the current study's survey did show some differences in the themes of language, teacher training and support, and general attitudes as compared to the survey results compiled by Reeves in 2002.

CHAPTER FIVE: FINDINGS

This chapter is divided into five sections: summary, discussion, limitations/delimitations, implications, and recommendations for further research. The first section reviews a summary of the study. The second section provides a general discussion of results of the study. The third section details the limitations and delimitations of the study. The fourth section provides implications of the study. Finally, the fifth section contains recommendations for future research that may enhance ELLs' success in passing state-mandated testing as well as increase teachers' abilities in working with ELLs in the future.

Summary

This section summarizes the purpose, research design, and findings of this study. The purpose of this study was to seek a possible cause for the continuing discrepancy between English language learners' test scores and graduation rates as compared to their peer group. The researcher chose to investigate teacher preparation, specifically the ESOL endorsement that educators throughout the State of Georgia are encouraged to obtain in order to more effectively teach ELLs. The scope of the study was limited to study whether teacher training via the State of Georgia's ESOL endorsement significantly impacts English language learners' End of Course Test scores and whether secondary teachers who have obtained an ESOL endorsement have attitudes and perceptions

towards the inclusion of ELLs in their mainstream classrooms that are significantly different from teachers without the endorsement. To this end, the researcher developed two research questions: 1. Do English language learners taught by an English to Speakers of Other Languages endorsed teacher achieve higher scores on their End of Course Test scores than English language learners taught by teachers without an English to Speakers of Other Languages endorsement? and 2. What similarities and differences do secondary teachers' attitudes and perceptions of the inclusion of ELLs in their mainstream subject area classes have as compared to responses from the survey conducted by Reeves (2002)? In order to answer these questions, the researcher employed the following: First of all, a hypothesis based on the first research questions was devised and analyzed via descriptive and inferential statistics. While the analysis of test scores provided an immediate conclusion, showing that the null hypothesis could not be rejected, the survey focused on six themes in teachers' attitudes and perceptions, providing a more in-depth look at possible similarities and differences from the original survey given to high school teachers ten years ago. . The researcher collected 503 English language learners' End of Course Test scores from the six high schools in the participating school district and divided the scores into two categories: scores of students who had been taught by ESOL endorsed teachers and scores of students who had been taught by non-endorsed teachers. Additionally, the researcher replicated Janelle Reeves' survey, *ESL Students in Mainstream Classrooms* (2002), collected data from 182 secondary teachers in the school district, then compared the data with Reeves' data. The survey utilized a four-point Likert scale, a three-point frequency table, open-ended questions, demographic questions, and additional questions on teacher training. Piloted

by Reeves in 2001, the survey results were analyzed for frequencies (modes), percentages, and standard deviations. Upon gathering of all data, the researcher then compiled the findings on questions comprising six major themes as denoted in Reeves' study. Descriptive statistics were utilized to compare responses from the current study as compared to Reeves' study in order to answer the question, what are the attitudes and perceptions of secondary teachers towards English language learners' inclusion in their mainstream classrooms?

Discussion

Based on Research Question 1, Hypothesis 1, there is no significant difference between End of Course Tests of English language learners taught by English to Speakers of Other Languages endorsed teachers versus teachers without the endorsement, the investigator ran an independent samples' t-test along with descriptive statistics for the two groups. The findings of the study show that there is no significant difference between the groups, thus the null hypothesis is retained. Even though the State of Georgia funds schools at a higher rate for ELLs who are taught by an ESOL-endorsed teacher, based upon this study, having an endorsement does not necessarily provide an assurance that ELLs will achieve more or pass their EOCT due to the teacher's training. Additionally, descriptive statistics were computed in order to compare responses in the current study with those in Reeves' study in 2002. Attitudes and perceptions of teachers in this study as compared to responses from Reeves' study showed little variation with the exception of the themes of training and support, general attitudes, and language.

Limitations/Delimitations

This study contains several delimitations from its onset. First of all, the researcher

knew she only had access to students' test scores in one school district in northeast Georgia. With a specific interest in teacher training for secondary school, i.e. ESOL endorsement, and the impact it might have on student achievement, test scores on EOCTs were analyzed over other available test scores. Rather than including many years' worth of test data, the most current scores for the EOCT during the 2008-09 school year seemed most appropriate. In order to provide insight into the possible variations between test scores of ELLs who had been taught by teachers with an ESOL endorsement versus without the endorsement, the survey instrument, assessing the perceptions and attitudes towards including ELLs in secondary mainstream classrooms, was given at the end of the same school year.

This study contained several limitations in both the test scores' analysis and the survey that may have affected its results. First of all, one limitation of analysis of test scores is that while 503 EOCT scores were used in this analysis, there is not a one to one ratio of test scores and teachers. Out of 332 ELL EOCT scores who represent ELLs taught by teachers without an ESOL endorsement, there were only a total of 78 teachers. Out of the 171 ELL EOCT scores representing 171 ELLs who were taught by teachers with an ESOL endorsement, there were only a total of 25 actual teachers who taught these students. Another limitation of the study was a lack of the researcher's ability to account for the fact that some teachers might have a higher percentage of ELLs in their classes than other teachers. Limitations in the survey analysis occurred as well. Due to a short dissemination period during post-planning (a four-day period) of the 2008-09 school year, some teachers may have missed taking the survey. Likewise, sections A and B of the survey were reversed in printing thus changing the ordering of these sections

from Reeves' (2002) original survey. Due to the lack of the researcher's distributing the survey personally and allowing other curriculum assistant principals to conduct the survey at their corresponding schools, instructions were not always adhered to, some surveys were completed by non-academic teachers, and some academic teachers were not given the survey. The lack of oversight of the survey distribution may have led to confusion for some survey participants.

Implications

Several implications of this study should be examined further. One of the most obvious is the failure of the State of Georgia to make any allowances for English language learners who may need additional time in high school to become proficient in English, especially in learning academic language. Students in high school are limited to four years to graduate; students who may need more time, such as the possible seven years that Cummins (1981) indicates to learn academic language, are penalized because they don't graduate with their peer group, and schools are hurt in annual yearly progress on graduation rates. Another implication of this study based upon the review of literature is the fact that English language learners and the debate of bilingual education or immersion has always been an issue in our education system. Our American "melting pot" is a country of immigrants, for whom English was not his/her primary or first language. Even though Echevarria, Vogt, & Short (2008) echo Cummins' (1981) studies on second language acquisition in that "typical [ESOL] programs of two to three years are ineffective in closing the large, achievement gap" (p. 10). Becoming proficient in academic language is paramount to ELLs' success and seems to indicate a major reason for continued learning gaps for ELLs.

The debate over the best way to learn English continues to be just that, an ongoing debate in every generation. There is ongoing confusion, even in the literature, of English immersion programs, bilingual programs, ESOL programs, transitional and/or two-way programs whose definitions become easily confused. While the Office of Civil Rights proposal for each state to develop and implement ESOL programs, each ESOL program varies – from the state level to each individual school. Additionally, it is necessary for teachers to be trained to teach English language learners by taking the courses prescribed in various ESOL endorsement programs offered throughout the states. Unfortunately, these programs are very different and do not necessarily offer any assurance of truly equipping teachers with the knowledge, skills, and strategies needed for ELLs’ academic success. If the State of Georgia continues to offer the ESOL endorsement as a necessary means for teachers of ELLs, more research should be done to determine the most effective strategies for teaching ELLs and incorporate them into the endorsement courses. While an entire course in language acquisition and linguistics is interesting, is it really necessary to know in order to be an effective teacher of an ELL? Should teachers of ELLs demonstrate competency in teaching the specific, research-based strategies that promote their achievement? Shouldn’t endorsement programs and/or all teacher preparatory programs hone in on developing relationships with students, for students “who leave school prematurely often do so because they feel alienated from others and disconnected from the school experience” (psea.org, 2011, p. 52). From the review of the literature, an emphasis on strategies, such as the Sheltered Instructional Observation Protocol (Echevarria, Short, & Powers, 2006), the incorporation of first and secondary language literacy methods into endorsement programs (Batt, 2008), or the use of graphic

organizers (Hill and Flynn, 2006), should be implemented in order to effectively teach English language learners.

Other important factors in teaching ELLs are teachers' attitudes and perceptions towards them in a classroom setting. While this study offered no definitive teachers' attitudes or perceptions that positively impact ELL student achievement, teachers who lack cultural awareness or respect for people of all ethnic backgrounds may not be effective in teaching ELLs. While four statements on the survey given to secondary teachers to complete were statistically significant between ESOL-endorsed teachers and those without an endorsement, the variations between the groups certainly seem logical. ESOL-endorsed teachers agreed that they allow ELLs to use their native language in class, they have adequate training to work with ELLs, and they would welcome the inclusion of ELLs in their classes. Perhaps the reason that 86% of the ESOL-endorsed teachers and only 49% of teachers without the endorsement agreed that they would support legislation making English the official language of the United States was due to the difficulties that the ESOL-endorsed teachers saw in their ELLs due to their lack of English proficiency.

Due to the increased bureaucracy from the U.S. Department of Education to the states' departments of education to the local school districts, rules and requirements for teaching English language learners have become so arduous that oftentimes teachers will not pursue an ESOL endorsement. High school ESOL teachers often inherit records that must be corrected, lack of personnel to work with students, especially in districts that may have a smaller number of ELLs, and difficulty in finding appropriate materials and resources for ELLs, especially when one teacher may have ELLs who speak several

different primary languages. Perhaps a possible reason for End of Course Test scores not being any different between those taught by ESOL-endorsed teachers versus those not having an endorsement may be due to these extraneous variables.

Recommendations for Future Practice

Based upon this research, the researcher suggests that the state of Georgia in conjunction with those institutions of higher education that offer the ESOL endorsement and Regional Educational Service Agencies develop measures to evaluate the effectiveness of the ESOL endorsement and the courses the endorsement is comprised of. While this study could not definitively conclude whether ESOL endorsed teachers impact English language learners' EOCT scores positively or if these teachers have more favorable attitudes and perceptions of ELLs as hypothesized, as public schools continue to operate under continually shrinking budgets and fewer resources, finding effective strategies and methods to increase these students' success rates as measured by test scores and/or graduation rates is both necessary and vital as the goals set forth in the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 become more and more difficult to attain.

Since the findings of this study showed no statistically significant impact on English language learners' EOCT scores based upon teachers' preparation, the researcher continued to hypothesize on ways to increase ELL student achievement and/or decrease the gap in ELL scores compared to their peers. Based upon five years of research, the researcher hypothesizes that the key to the success of ELL students and all students truly comes down to teacher-student relationships maintained within a classroom. According to Pennsylvania State Education Association's "The Power of a Great Education,"

(January 2010), there are six factors in reducing the high school dropout rate: 1. Invest in early childhood education; 2. Build information systems that can pinpoint at-risk students; 3. Build and support student transition programs for middle years; 4. Support a strong, individualized curriculum with a career-learning component for all students; 5. Ensure that all students have meaningful relationships with adults at school; and 6. Help districts develop and advertise individualized, non-traditional high school options (51-52). Additionally, based upon Armstrong's study of key strategies used by high school principals that positively impact student achievement are the utilization of data analysis to identify strengths and weaknesses and empowering teachers to use best teaching practices (2005).

In a follow-up study of the achievement gap that continues between the ELL test-takers on the Georgia High School Graduation Test (GHS GT) and all other students, Banks (2011) analyzed test data for the 2010 Math and English Language Arts sections for one high school in the school district that was nominated for the national Blue Ribbon Schools Award but did not make Annual Yearly Progress (AYP), by two ELL students, which, in turn, cost the school the national award. Several data analyses were conducted on the ELA and Math test scores from 2009-2010 in order to show that there was, in fact, a statistical significance for the discrepancies found between the total population scores and the ELL subgroup scores. In his employment of a t-test between the ELL subgroup's scores and all students taking both the English Language Arts' test and the Math test, Banks noted that there was a statistical significance to the discrepancies seen in student achievement on those portions of the graduation test. Additionally, Banks conducted an analysis of variance "between the passing scores of ELL subgroup students and the all

students group for each test section. These analyses indicated that even among students who passed the test sections in Math and ELA, there were statistically significant differences in the degree to which they passed them.” (Banks, 2011, 6-7). This study suggests that future research may need to focus on teachers’ use of strategies for English language learners that incorporate academic language as students are acquiring a second language.

In an effort to positively impact English language learners’ achievement, the researcher developed a new student information system that allows teachers to automatically know not only which students in any given class is an ELL, but it also allows teachers to have available the most current standardized and benchmark test scores, demographic information, and longitudinal data in real time. United Classrooms (McBride, December 2011) is such a system that leverages technology through the merging of the State of Georgia’s Longitudinal Data System (LDS) with the classroom teacher’s benchmark assessments in a Microsoft Excel Spreadsheet. Through her research and experiences in education, a vision of merging student information with both demographic and longitudinal academic data through technology emerged. As a result, an instructional tool was developed that does just that – a customized combination of student data via Excel along with Google Documents, allowing teachers to readily access the specific student data unique to each student in order to delineate, design, and implement individualized learning experiences for each student that are both meaningful and challenging.

Developed as a result of the need to provide essential instruction for English language learners in October 2011, the instructional tool is highly user-friendly with no

additional cost for a school or school system. The only requirements are computers with Microsoft Excel software and internet capability. Utilizing Microsoft's Excel and Google Docs, the classroom teacher can add any necessary information such as benchmark or formative assessment data to the document in real time. Once the customization in Excel has been completed, the teacher can sort his/her class via Excel based upon any and all of the information contained within the student database. This ability to sort students according to continued assessment data or learning styles saves valuable time for teachers, which, in turn, allows them to facilitate learning rather than spend countless hours grading, sorting, and writing lesson plans in order to teach. By transferring the customized Excel spreadsheet to Google Docs, the teacher can add information in real time that can then be used for his/her own instructional planning or shared with the students' other classroom teachers, testing coordinators, parents, building principal, or district-wide staff to better support the student and necessary resources to meet the student's individual learning goals and needs.

The spreadsheet is then imported into a Google document that can allow the teacher to add scores in real time and determine learning gaps, strengths, and/or weaknesses. This information can then be shared in real time with the student's other teachers, and/or with school, district, or state leaders. This system can be customized at each school to meet the needs of various subgroups within a school or could be a system or statewide management system that teachers can use in real time on a daily basis to differentiate instruction and plan lessons. Since teachers are more informed on each student's specific learning needs, students are less likely to become bored at school, which could lead to a student's dropping out. In planning meaningful lessons for each

student, the teacher may gain more respect and can truly begin to see measureable progress. In sharing the information from classroom to classroom, interventions that one teacher may try with a student can be repeated if gains were made. Future research in this area should be developed through a pilot study whereby teachers can report on the possible usefulness of the database and student progress could be measured as a result of its use.

In conclusion, future research should incorporate innovative educational ideas and incorporation of those ideas through technology for our educational system to regain its momentum in providing opportunities for students to be competitive in our continually shrinking world. If we believe that the Constitution is the law of the land and the tenants of the famous Declaration of Independence, “We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness,” as the truth, then educational leaders, policies, and laws filled with bureaucratic rules, such as No Child Left Behind, must be changed and transformed. Yes, accountability is important and perhaps testing is the most expedient way to assess accountability; however, when the ends justify the means and all students are put into the same proverbial box, the results do not show expected progress. Until educational leaders, policies, and accountability measures align themselves as original and creative as the individuals whose gifts, talents, and abilities are measured, our system of education will never progress beyond the entrenched mediocrity that it remains in today. In order to truly leave no child behind and educate the students in this country, we must take the time necessary to build relationships with our students and their families, provide positive

support and feedback, and offer meaningful, realistic opportunities for them that they deserve. When educators and policy makers begin to remember that each child is worthy of a premier education regardless of skin color, religion, socio-economic status, or the like and are reminded that education is power and that power can transform ideas and impact change, perhaps then education will be valued once again. Of course, John Hood made an excellent point in his article, “The Failure of American Education,” (1993) when he stated, “By any reasonable measure, America’s monopolistic, bureaucratic, over-regulated system of public schools is woefully unprepared to meet the challenges of the twenty-first century. Political, business, and education leaders continue to talk about ‘reforming’ the current public education system. They should, instead, be discussing how to replace it.” America’s soul-searching needs to begin now so that young hearts and minds can grow and thrive where their creativity and imagination is no longer thwarted by bureaucracy, their dreams and aspirations are no longer shaped by a political agenda, and their gifts and talents are recognized and celebrated by all of us who are honored to serve this nation’s children.

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Appendix A: Survey (Page 1)

English Language Learners (ELLS) in Mainstream Classrooms (Reeves, 2002)

Section A

Name _____ School _____

1. Have you ever had an ELL enrolled in your class? _____ Yes _____ No
(If NO, please skip to Section C.)

2. How many ELLs were enrolled in your classes during the 2008-09 school year?

3. Approximately how many ELLs have enrolled in your classes throughout your teaching career? _____

	Seldom or Never	Some of the time	Most or all of the time
Classroom Practices			
1. I allow ELLs more time to complete their coursework.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. I give ELLs less coursework than other students.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I allow ELLs to use their native language in class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. I provide materials for ELLs in their native language.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Effort is more important to me than achievement when I grade ELLs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Impact of Inclusion			
1. The inclusion of ELLs in my classes increases my workload.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. ELLs require more of my time than other students require.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. The inclusion of ELLs in my class shows the progress of the entire class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teacher Support			
1. I receive adequate support from school administration when ELLs are enrolled in my classes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. I receive adequate support from the ELL staff when ELLs are enrolled in my class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I conference with ELL teachers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix A: Survey (Page 2)

Section B

Please read each statement and place a check in the box which best describes your opinion.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. The inclusion of ELLs in subject area classes creates a positive educational atmosphere.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. The inclusion of ELLs in subject area classes benefits all students.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. ELLs should not be included in general education classes until they attain a minimum level of English proficiency.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. ELLs should be able to acquire English within two years of enrolling in U.S. schools.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. ELLs should avoid using their native language while at school.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Subject area teachers do not have enough time to deal with the needs of ELLs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. It is a good practice to simplify coursework for ELLs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. It is a good practice to allow ELLs more time to complete coursework.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. It is a good practice to lessen the quantity of coursework for ELLs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Teacher should not give ELLs a failing grade if the students display effort.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Teachers should not modify assignments for the ELLs enrolled in subject area classes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. The modification of coursework for ELLs would be difficult to justify to other students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. I have adequate training to work with ELLs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. I am interested in receiving more training in working with ELLs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. I would welcome the inclusion of ELLs in my class.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. I would support legislation making English the official language of the United States.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix A: Survey (Page 3)

Section C

1. Please list what you consider to be the greatest benefits of including ELLs in subject area classes: _____

2. Please list what you consider to be the greatest challenges of including ELLs in subject area classes: _____

Section D

Please answer the following questions. Your answers will assist in the categorization of responses.

1. What subject area(s) do you teach? *(If more than one, please list your primary area first.)*

2. How many years have you been a public or private school teacher *(including this year)*?

3. Please indicate your gender: Female Male

4. Is English your native language? Yes No

5. Do you speak a second language? Yes No

If yes, please estimate your highest ability level attained:

Beginner Intermediate Advanced

6. Have you received training in teaching language minority students?

Yes No

If yes, please check all that apply:

ESOL Endorsement _____

SIOP Training _____

Other _____

7. Which type(s) of training do you find most beneficial?

8. If you use SIOP strategies, how often do you use them? Daily Weekly Monthly

Which SIOP strategies do you find most effective? 1. _____ 2. _____

Comments: Please write any additional comments you may have concerning the inclusion of ELLs in class subject areas. _____

Thank you for completing this survey.

Appendix B: Letter of Invitation to School Principals

May 1, 2009

Dear Principal _____,

I would like to ask you for your assistance with my research study for my doctoral degree program at Liberty University. My name is Traci McBride, and I am an assistant principal in your school district. For my dissertation research, I am studying ways to more effectively impact achievement for our English language learners (ELLs). As you know, over the past decade, our Latino population has grown and has presented many challenges in making annual yearly progress, which is based on standardized testing. The state of Georgia along with the school district has encouraged teachers to acquire the ESOL endorsement and more recently has promoted the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) to more effectively teach our ELLs. In the secondary schools, much of an ELL's day is spent in mainstream, subject area classes with ESOL endorsed teachers, some of whom have also been trained with SIOP. In order to better understand teachers' experiences and to note the impact ESOL endorsed and/or SIOP-trained teachers are having on student achievement, I will conduct a survey with secondary teachers in our six high schools. I would like to include _____ High School teachers in this study.

With your permission, I would like your curriculum assistant principals (CAPs) to administer a survey to all of your subject area teachers who will indicate their training as either ESOL endorsed, SIOP-trained, both, or neither. A copy of the survey is enclosed. While the survey does ask teachers to provide their names and schools, names of teachers or schools will not be used in any identifying way in the research. The purpose of their names/schools is to match students who take an American Literature End-of-Course Test in the 2008-09 school year to note the impact that the ESOL endorsement, SIOP training, both, or neither might have on ELLs' student achievement. Again, no identifying information will be used in the research. If you would like a copy of the final report, I will happily provide one for you. I have gained permission to conduct this study through Dr. Eloise Barron, Assistant Superintendant for Teaching and Learning.

I would like this survey administered to your teachers during the month of May 2009 so I will have an opportunity to match survey information with this school year's test score results. I have tried to make this survey very short for your teachers since I realize that their time will be needed for end of the year responsibilities. Based upon a piloted study (Reeves, 2002), the average time for teachers to complete the survey is between 10 and 15 minutes. If possible, I would like the survey to be given during an upcoming faculty meeting or during post-planning in order to expedite the administration.

I hope you will consider allowing your teachers to participate in this study. The results of this study will be beneficial to us in this district to better meet the needs of our ELLs. If you would like additional information, please contact me at 770-967-9826, ext. 225,

Appendix B: Letter of Invitation to School Principals (page 2)

770-654-4202, or traci.mcbride@hallco.org. I will contact your CAP soon to discuss the possibility of conducting this research study at _____ High School.

Please check one of the following and return to Traci McBride through interoffice mail or via fax (770-967-4864):

_____ I **will allow** my staff to participate in this survey.

_____ I **will not allow** my staff to participate in this survey.

Principal's signature

Thank you for your time and support.

Sincerely,

Traci L. McBride
Ed.D. Candidate

Appendix C: Directions to Curriculum Assistant Principals for Survey

Please read upon administration of the survey:

One of the challenges facing our school district in making AYP is that many of our high school students have limited English proficiency yet are held to the same standard as their native English-speaking peers. To better assist in this regard, many teachers in our district have obtained their ESOL endorsement and/or have undergone Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) training to hopefully meet the needs of our English language learners. Is it working?

Traci McBride is working on a study for her dissertation at Liberty University that seeks to find out if, in fact, the ESOL endorsement, SIOP training, having neither or both, provide additional help for ELLs. Your participation in her survey will help us all determine if these efforts are beneficial in our obtaining the desired result of impacting ELLs' student achievement in a positive way.

The survey will only take 10-15 minutes of your time and will only be given to academic teachers. If you are academic teacher regardless of whether you teach ELLs or not, please plan to complete the survey. You are asked to write your name and school's name on this survey simply so Mrs. McBride can match your information with students you may have taught. Please know that your name or school's name will not be used in her research study or in any direct way whatsoever and that the information you provide is for no other purpose than to better assist the ELLs in our school district.

The survey consists of three pages – please complete all three then return to me on your way out. I will collect the surveys and return them to Mrs. McBride. She will happily send us a copy of her study upon its completion.

Thank you for her helping her with her research and helping us all better serve our English language learners.

Appendix D: Comments from Section D of the Survey

Table 28

Comments from Section D of Survey

Category	Frequency	(%)
Difficulty with ELL inclusion due to lack of time, training, or support.	8	(30%)
The need for ELLs to conform through linguistic assimilation And/or refusal of special treatment	4	(15%)
The need for minimum English proficiency prior to inclusion in mainstream classes.	3	(11%)
Disparity between the state's high-stakes' tests that must be taken in English. Frustration at the need for strategies for Students to gain English proficiency in 4 years rather than research-based minimum of seven years.	2	(7%)
Other	10	(37%)

Note. Total number of responses n = 27.

Appendix E: Summary Tables of Survey Results (Tables 29 and 30)

Table 29

Summary of Survey Results in Section A

Survey Item	N	Seldom or Never Freq (%)	Some of the Time Freq (%)	Most/All of the Time Freq (%)
Classroom Practices				
A1	168	7 (4%)	72 (43%)	89 (53%)
A2	167	99 (59%)	60 (36%)	8 (5%)
A3	167	42 (25%)	80 (48%)	45 (27%)
A4	168	109 (65%)	52 (31%)	7 (4%)
A5	166	46 (28%)	104(63%)	16 (10%)
Impact of Inclusion				
A6	167	36 (22%)	93(56%)	38 (23%)
A7	167	37 (22%)	91 (54%)	39 (23%)
A8	161	56 (35%)	81 (50%)	24 (15%)
Teacher Support				
A9	167	21 (13%)	67 (40%)	79(47%)
A10	167	15 (9%)	67 (40%)	85 (51%)
A11	168	52 (31%)	77 (46%)	39 (23%)

Table 30
Summary of Survey Results in Section B

Survey Item	Mean	S	SD Freq (%)	D Freq (%)	A Freq (%)	SA Freq (%)	NR Freq (%)
B1	2.87	.538	0 (0%)	31 (17%)	113 (62%)	21 (12%)	17 (9%)
B2	2.75	.645	3 (2%)	54 (30%)	90 (49%)	20 (11%)	15 (8%)
B3	2.94	.796	7 (4%)	9 (21%)	84 (46%)	37 (20%)	15 (8%)
B4	2.56	.708	14 (8%)	54 (30%)	84 (46%)	13 (7%)	17 (9%)
B5	2.25	.704	17 (9%)	89 (49%)	51 (28%)	9 (5%)	16 (9%)
B6	2.30	.644	16 (8%)	93 (51%)	52 (29%)	5 (3%)	16 (9%)
B7	2.37	.634	9 (5%)	89 (49%)	62 (34%)	4 (2%)	18 (10%)
B8	3.00	.542	3 (2%)	14 (8%)	125 (69%)	27 (15%)	13 (7%)
B9	2.34	.578	10 (5%)	94 (52%)	58 (32%)	4 (2%)	19 (10%)
B10	1.97	.559	26 (14%)	116 (64%)	24 (13%)	1 (<1%)	15 (8%)
B11	1.97	.559	20 (11%)	117 (64 %)	26 (14%)	2 (1%)	17 (9%)
B12	2.36	.636	11 (6%)	97 (53%)	53 (29%)	6 (3%)	15 (8%)
B13	2.37	1.007	32 (18%)	58 (32%)	49 (27%)	28 (15%)	15 (8%)
B14	2.52	.785	16 (9%)	54 (30%)	75 (41%)	18 (10%)	19 (10%)
B15	3.09	.574	1 (<1%)	13 (7%)	109 (60%)	42 (23%)	17 (9%)
B16	3.32	.791	11 (6%)	10 (5%)	71 (39%)	70 (38%)	20 (11%)

Note. N = 182; S = standard deviation; SD = strongly disagree; D = disagree; A = agree; SA = strongly agree; NR = non-response.

Appendix F: Demographic Data

Table 31: US Census Data for 1990, 2000, 2010

Population	1990 Census	2000 Census	2010 Census
Non-Hispanic White	85.8%	71%	63.6%
Hispanic	8.6%	19.6%	26.1%
African-American	4.8%	7.3%	7.4%

Table 32: English Language Learners, participating school district, 1990-91, 2000-01, 2005-06, 2010-11 School Years

School Year	Number of ELLs	Percentage
1990-91	305	2.50%
2000-01	2,163	11.00%
2005-06	2,586	10.80%
2010-11	3,437	13.08%

Appendix G: IRB Change-in-Protocol Form

CHANGE-IN-PROTOCOL FORM

LIBERTY UNIVERSITY INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

LOG NUMBER: **707.042009**

ORIGINAL REVIEW DATE: 5/19/2009

Principal Investigator : Traci McBride Phone Number: 770-654-4202

Correspondence Address: 1113 Overland Park Drive, Braselton, GA 30517

Email: tlmcbride@liberty.edu

Department: Education **Campus**: Liberty University: **Faculty Sponsor (if needed)**: Carol Mowen

Project Title: *The Impact of the Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol Training and/or ESOL Endorsement of Secondary Teachers on English Language Learners' American Literature End of Course Test Scores*

Type of Project: FACULTY RESEARCH

STUDENT DIRECTED RESEARCH : Thesis ____ Dissertation x Other ____

Course Requirement: 16 week ____ 8/9 week ____ (course #: _____)

Duration of Project: Starting Date - May 2009
Expected End Date -Summer 2011

Principal Investigator: *Traci McBride* Date: 1/12/11

Faculty Advisor (if necessary): *Dr. Carol Mowen* Date: *January 12, 2011*

1. X **Minor Changes**. (e.g., adding non-vulnerable subjects, change of location, deleting something, minor instrument question revisions, etc.)

Describe in detail below and attach any revised instruments:

New Title: *The Impact of Georgia's ESOL Endorsement on Teachers' Attitudes and Secondary English Language Learners' Achievement*

When I originally designed my research, I planned to look at teacher training and its impact on English Language Learners through American Literature End of Course Tests given in the Hall County School System, Georgia, in 2008. Unfortunately, my number was too low since many students who initially qualified as English Language Learners have typically exited the program by the time they take the American Literature course, either by their junior or senior year in high school. Dr. Scott Watson and my dissertation chairperson Dr. Carol Mowen suggested that I expand my numbers in order to proceed. I have expanded the number by including all Ends of Course Tests of ELLs in 2008, which include Ninth Grade English and Composition, American Literature, Physical Science, Biology, United States History, Economics, Algebra I, and Geometry.

Additionally, my original hypothesis included dividing teacher training into four groups: teachers who have an ESOL endorsement, teachers who have SIOP training, teachers who have both the ESOL endorsement and SIOP training, and teachers who have neither who taught American Literature for ELLs and gave an EOCT. Unfortunately, due to the expansion of including all teachers who taught ELLs and gave any of the eight EOCTs, there is no way to delineate the groups who have had SIOP training. I

discovered that some teachers have had the training as a part of their endorsement courses while others have had it as separate training altogether. Rather than having four categories of training, I would be able to readily compare teachers who either have an ESOL endorsement with those who do not.

No other changes are needed from my primary IRB approval.

ACTION TAKEN: Changes ____ Approved (for one year) ____ Contingent ____ Disapproved

Chairperson, IRB

Date

2. ____ **More Significant Changes.** (e.g., change in procedures, adding something, changing consent form, adding vulnerable populations, major instrument revisions, etc.)
Explain in detail, attaching revised instruments/forms as needed. Use additional space than that provided below if necessary.

PROJECT STATUS

____ Exempt
____ Expedited
____ Full Review

ACTION TAKEN:

____ Approved (for one year)
____ Contingent
____ Disapproved

Primary Reviewer

Date

Co-Reviewer (Expedited or Full)

Date

Chairperson, IRB

Date

revised 11/07

Appendix H: Approval from IRB

RE: Changes in Protocol form

[IRB, IRB](#)

You replied on 2/3/2011 4:49 PM.

Sent: Thursday, February 03, 2011 10:39 AM

To: [McBride, Traci Lawson](#)

Cc: [IRB, IRB](#)

Good Morning Traci,

We apologize for the delay in updating you on your annual review and change in protocol forms. Your changes have been approved for one year and you may continue collecting your data. Thank you for your attention to this; we appreciate your continued cooperation with the IRB.

Best wishes as you gather your additional data and finish your study!

Sincerely,

Tiffany Hartin, M.A.
IRB Coordinator
Liberty University
1971 University Blvd
Lynchburg, VA 24502
Fax (434) 522-0506

irb@liberty.edu