

# CULTURAL MISMATCH IN PRESERVICE TEACHERS OF ENGLISH LEARNERS

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By Anna M. Burnley

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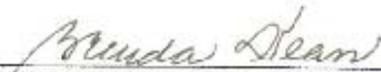
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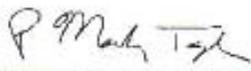
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## Abstract

The purpose of this quantitative study with qualitative insights was to examine the biases and perceptions of preservice teachers as they relate to the teaching of English Learners. Of particular interest was a need in the literature to broaden general understandings of the manifestation of concepts imbued in cultural mismatch, and to further exploration of notions regarding self-efficacy among teachers-in-training who are preparing to instruct English Learners. Preservice teacher perceptions of bias were studied using a six-point Likert scale as the quantitative instrument, with additional data gained through a focus group discussion that provided qualitative insights. Treatment consisted of an ethnographic interview conducted between preservice teachers and Adult English learners. Overall results indicated a low degree of bias recognition among pre-test volunteers, followed by a statistically significant rise in recognition of multiple concepts related to bias post-treatment. Findings aligned with the theoretical framework. Gains in the knowledge of an effective instructional strategy for preservice teachers who are training to teach English Learners were made. Conclusions for implementation supported volunteers in their understanding of the potentially detrimental effects of cultural mismatch when teaching English Learners. Conclusions also closely aligned with ideas of self-efficacy related to training of preservice teachers in strategies facilitating their ability to teach this growing student population.

*Keywords:* bias, preservice teacher, English Learner, cultural mismatch, self-efficacy, ethnographic interview

## **Dedication**

When I was young, I understood from my parents that I could improve the lives of others by thoughtful and engaging efforts, and that since I could make positive changes, then I held a responsibility to do so. As an adult, surrounded by persons of quiet courage, I began to believe that equity for all persons is primarily a product of education and opportunity. When seeing orphaned children in Nepal waiting for parents to adore them, and childless adults standing alone, awaiting children to love, I knew the inequity that could occur when the powerful nexus of politics, incumbent gains, and shadowy losses, haunted unwitting humans. This work is dedicated to the global child citizens who dream of belonging, and to the teachers who create equitable classrooms through the gifts of language education and social justice.

## Acknowledgements

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Finally, to the children of Nepal, I have not forgotten you, or your sweet dreams of equity in your beautiful homeland. The education that you and I believe will enable you to succeed is not beyond reach. Because you did not give up, neither did I. Together, we press on.

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## **CHAPTER 1: Overview of the Study**

### **Overview**

This study addresses one of the most important demographic shifts presently found in the public school system and the manner in which preservice teachers are prepared by their colleges to provide content area and English language instruction to the young pioneers who are entering U.S. classrooms. English Learners (ELs) now comprise almost 10% of all public school students and are the fastest growing student population group (USDOE, 2016). Because the growth in the number of ELs is expected to continue, then it is critical that preservice teachers be fully prepared to instruct students in both the acquisition of the English language, as well as the content areas. There are many education topics in which preservice teachers should be instructed by their university or college professors, practicum experiences, and internships, in order to become fully prepared to teach ELs. Some of these include classroom management, methods of teaching English as a second language, cultural awareness of similarities and differences, content area accommodations and/or modifications necessary for teaching non-English speaking students, and an awareness of biases held by teachers-in-training. Quite often, preservice teachers are not aware that they hold biases against different student populations. It is important that future educators become aware of any biases they might unwittingly harbor against the student population of ELs, and that they be given strategies, during their teacher preparation program, which will allow them to recognize and address the biases that could interfere with classroom instruction of ELs.

### **Introduction**

This study is grounded in the premise that U.S. public school classrooms inclusive of ELs resonate with enriching experiences of cross-cultural diversity. These experiences can extend

agency to educators working to provide a robust, curiosity-based education to students whose first language is American English, as well as to ELs who speak one of the 6,000+ other languages found globally. The research has been undertaken at a time when the U.S. is engaging in numerous attempts to examine, comprehend, and implement new definitions of respect and valuation standards for all persons, regardless of national origin or home language. The context for the research study is relevant and compelling in light of the current national conversations regarding who belongs in this country, and more frighteningly, who does not. Each new U.S. Census report demonstrates that the population is growing increasingly diverse in multiple ways, many of which will surely impact the dominant culture, the balance of power, and concepts of race, ethnicity, gender, gender orientation, culture, and language use. Findings from the 2010 Census Report (2015) indicated that a minimum of 350 different languages are currently spoken in U.S. homes, a figure not inclusive of any dialects of global languages, which would further increase the Census Report's linguistic count. Data such as this clearly support the notion that variations of diversity will continue to present in U.S. public school classrooms.

As the nation struggles to clarify a new understanding of what constitutes U.S. culture, including debates regarding the need, or lack thereof, for an official language, educational reports cite compelling evidence that the public school system is failing to achieve even minimal standards necessary to retain competitiveness in an expanding global marketplace (OCED, 2016). The 2015 PISA Report (OCED, 2016) provided significant data demonstrating that out of 65 countries participating, the U.S. assumed slot number 25, trailing behind Slovenia and Estonia, among many others, in rankings of high school math, science, and reading achievement. As statistics verify the lowering of standardized test scores, all learners are at risk of losing academic equity in a global construct not of their own manufacture. In particular, one group is

failing to make significant strides. Even as high school graduation rates are incrementally higher and are cited as 82% for 2013-2014 (USDOE, 2015), the USDOE's report (2015) noted that students struggling to learn both American English and academic content areas are graduating at the low rate of 62.6%, which accountability standards have established as unacceptable. Despite the landmark U.S. Supreme Court ruling in *Lau v. Nichols* (1974), in which the civil rights of all students to pursue educational advancement were guaranteed, graduation rates for ELs are not keeping pace. In addition to disturbingly low high school graduation rates for ELs, in 2014-2015, 93.5% of all ELs attended Title III-funded schools, and in Hawaii, Iowa, Maryland, and South Carolina, that number increased to 100% (OELA, 2017a). Understandably, the data make evident that academic underachievement does not allow these children to realize their full potential as participants in a highly interconnected global economy.

The OELA "Profiles of English Learners" report (2017a) provided data noting that the nation's public school classrooms are becoming increasingly diverse as it relates to the number of English learners attending public schools in 2014-2015, stated to be 4,806,662 (OELA, 2017a). This number comprises 9.6% of K-12 students. While the most widely spoken first language is Spanish/Castilian, this language is followed by Chinese, Arabic, Vietnamese, Haitian/Haitian Creole, Somali, Tagalog, Hmong, Portuguese, and Russian in the top ten languages (OELA, 2017b). The evidence is strong that low socioeconomic status is intertwined with immigrant status (Libby, 2009; Orfield and Lee, 2005). Additionally, the stratification of language minority persons and/or immigrants is increasingly leading to marginalization through reports of rises in violent crime motivated by racism, prejudice, stereotyping, and/or ethnocentrism (Civil Rights, 2017; USDOJ, 2014). Statistical reporting by Levin (2016) indicated that the number of hate crimes increased by 5.03% in 2015, with the targeting of

Muslims as victims demonstrating a precipitous increase of 78% (Levin, 2016). From January 1-March 19, 2017, hate crimes rose by 107% in New York City, compared to the same period in 2016 (Levin, 2017). Taken as a whole, New York City's hate crimes increased by 20.2% over the number reported in 2015 (Levin, 2017). Nationwide, Anti-Arab and anti-Semitic hate crimes are following this discouraging trend (Levin, 2017), which includes language minority and/or immigrant populations.

As allocations grow for voucher programs, magnet schools, and charter schools, traditional public school revenues will shrink (D'Arcy and Richman, 2013), further undermining the potential for robust academic achievement among ELs attending underfunded schools. Noting that traditionally privileged White students are expected to leave the public schools for private institutions that accept vouchers, the research supported the notion that parents are opting out of racially integrated schools with low test scores and a high number of ELs (Brunner, Imazeki, and Ross, 2006). This move perpetuates the legacy of failing, underfunded public schools educating less privileged students, such as ELs. In the extreme, the nation could expect struggling schools to register standardized test scores demonstrating a wider achievement gap, and potentially higher rates of dropout among ELs.

The public schools play the bulwark role in the reduction and elimination of bias, as well as the welcoming of diverse students. In the face of soaring rises in hate crimes, and given the decision to extract public school funds for the use of school vouchers, the undermining of ideals valuing diversity in the nation's traditionally pluralistic culture may follow. Such a shift poses significant challenges to preservice teachers entering the work force. As the public schools remain sanctuaries of positive and determined change for all students, this change can only be achieved through the commitment of teachers who understand and support the mission of the

Social Justice platform. Their primary concern should remain the academic achievement of all students, and not just those whose culture most closely resembles their own. By valuing multiple perspectives, beliefs, faiths, ways of knowing, ways of learning, and first or home languages, the public schools can continue to promote the concepts of fairness, respect, and equity for everyone that underlie the premise of pluralism in the nation. Preservice teachers must be taught by their universities and colleges these ideals of fairness and respect for all students.

### **Background and Rationale**

This study was conducted within the context of a teacher-training program for preservice teachers majoring in elementary education, with or without an added exceptional student education major at a small, private liberal arts college in Florida. In addition to their declared major, all students earn the Florida ESOL Endorsement. ESOL, aka, English for Speakers of Other Languages, is the umbrella term used to designate teaching methods for English language instruction provided to second language speakers. In Florida, the ESOL Endorsement is earned through the completion of five specified courses, as noted by the Florida Consent Decree (LULAC et al. v. FLDOE, 1990). These courses include methods of teaching ESOL, ESOL curriculum and materials development, cross-cultural communication and understanding, applied linguistics, and ESOL testing and evaluation (LULAC et al. v. FLDOE, 1990). Additionally, preservice teachers complete a 30-hour ESOL practicum requirement. Teachers who were already certified in another area prior to enactment of the Florida Consent Decree are allowed to take a test to achieve ESOL Certification in Florida. The ESOL Endorsement and ESOL certification are not presently considered to be the same designation in Florida.

Per the study's background, there is an examination of three education trends relating to the teaching of ELs in the nation's PreK-12 classrooms, as identified by the literature. The first

trend is teacher training and professional practice in meeting the instructional needs of ELs (Simmons, 2009). This trend is particularly relevant due to the growing demographic of ELs in the public schools that need qualified teachers. The second trend concerns the perceptions held by preservice teachers regarding the ELs they teach (Karabenick and Noda, 2004). This trend is important because the number of monolingual, White teachers-in-training is not in sync with the diverse EL and public school populations, so perceptions may be skewed. The third trend is a potential shift in public schools through the growing perception of “otherness” in classrooms, with a subsequent move away from inclusive education environments, as it relates to ELs (Zeller, Griffith, Zhang, and Klenke, 2010). The importance of this trend is relevant to the notion of pluralism and classroom equity issues in the nation’s schools.

All three trends should have been addressed in the university or college preparation and field experiences of preservice teachers. However, the continuing presence of these issues among teachers-in-training indicates a potential continuing need to consider a more robust means through which to provide adequate or pertinent preparation among education students as they begin to enter mainstream classrooms, where they will teach both ELs and native speakers of English.

### **Statement of the Purpose**

The purposes of this study were to investigate the attitudes of preservice teachers toward the teaching of ELs in mainstream classrooms, to examine whether face-to-face ethnographic interviews with adult ELs would change the attitudes of preservice teachers regarding the teaching of ELs in the public schools, and to study which, if any, shifts in bias occurred as a result of the treatment. The study addressed one of the most pressing issues currently facing teacher educators and the leaders of professional education programs: the most effective strategy

or method to prepare teachers-in-training to proficiently meet the educational needs of ELs, who represent almost 10% of all public school students (USDOE, 2016).

Non-Hispanic White preservice teachers, who represent more than 80% of students earning a bachelor's degree in education, are increasingly teaching in schools in which the number of Hispanic, African-American, and Asian-American students outnumber White students (AACTE, 2013; NCES, 2004). Although teaching with the best of intentions, preservice educators often experience a dissonance between their own culture, and the home cultures of their increasingly diverse classrooms. This dichotomy is viewed in the study as a manifestation of the phenomenon of cultural mismatch (Garrett, 2016).

Cultural mismatch is also manifested between monolingual, White preservice teachers and the diverse, bilingual and multilingual students learning Standard American English (SAE) simultaneous to content area subjects. Despite calls to recruit a more diverse preservice teacher cadre (AACTE, 2013), little ground has been made in this initiative. As long as teacher preparation programs continue to fail in recruiting students who more closely mirror the cultural, linguistic, racial, and ethnic diversity of the nation's classrooms, it is reasonable to assume that the dropout rate among ELs will remain high. This a mistake on the part of higher education, but the error then shifts to the PreK-12 classrooms when new teachers leave the profession, often because they do not feel a connection to the cultures, values, and behaviors of the students they teach. The recruitment of preservice teacher candidates must more closely strive to include new teachers who share cultural commonalities with the students they will teach after college graduation, if the public schools are to survive and thrive under school defunding initiatives currently being considered by the USDOE.

The onus remains for educator preparation programs to implement every available advantage in assisting preservice teachers in understanding their future classroom learners. In particular, practicum and internship opportunities must be replete with experiences that will provide teachers-in-training with a deep understanding of the pluralistic culture as it manifests in the PreK-12 classroom. It is imperative that the university classroom experience move beyond the comfortable milieu of theory and into the domain of real-world practice. A clearer understanding of diversity and the perception of “otherness” must be addressed as a recognized bias in order for preservice teachers to more successfully instruct ELs (Zeller et al., 2010). Such an attitude is at the heart of the Social Justice Theory and strives to humanize the EL, rather than to further marginalize the student based on his or her language minority status. As researchers from Michigan State University noted (Mavrogordato and White, 2017), ELs are treated very differently when educators and school administrators are given the background knowledge necessary to understand the legal requirements pertinent to the education of ELs. In addition to knowledge of legal requirements, preservice teachers could benefit from preparation that relates specifically to cross-cultural communications, ethics, and educational expectations among ELs and their families.

The concept of personal insight among preservice teachers, as it related to their own biases against ELs, prepared the setting for the research problem: following treatment, would a correlation be found between the recognition of bias, resulting from contact exposure, and a subsequent reduction and/or elimination of bias toward ELs. For the purposes of this study, the research problem focused on the recognition of bias against ELs and the use of an ethnographic interview as a process that might eliminate said bias. The research problem focused on the belief

that contact with ELs (viewed as “others”) could significantly reduce, and potentially eliminate, biases held by preservice teachers against ELs.

### **Significance of the Study**

This study was a result of a personal need to respond to growing concerns regarding perceived increasing limits being layered upon the educational equity of students learning English in U.S. public schools. Equity is the foundation of social justice, and the promulgation of social justice should be the foundation of educational endeavors.

The study is significant for multiple reasons, including the gaining of research-based knowledge regarding the nature of bias against ELs as it can be expressed or experienced by preservice teachers. Additionally, the phenomenon of cultural mismatch within the academic milieu was in need of further study in order to institute efforts to offset the biases associated with it. Finally, the study was important to provide an overview and introduction to a research-based university- or college-level instructional strategy. This strategy would be appropriate for use in cross-cultural communications courses utilizing an ethics approach, designed to assist in the preparation of teachers-in-training, who are planning to work in today’s diverse classrooms.

### **Theoretical Constructs and Operational Definitions**

#### **Theoretical Constructs**

The theoretical construct supporting this study focuses on two critical constructs, cultural mismatch and preservice teacher education, and the motivation-based theories of Albert Bandura. Cultural mismatch is the degree of perceived discord that occurs when a student’s or an educator’s personal culture conflicts with the dominant culture found in the classroom (Garrett, 2016), and it can occur when a student and an educator do not find shared cultural determinants in the classroom. Preservice teacher education strives to train individuals in a

university or college program to allow them to become certified, credentialed, or licensed as professional practitioners in PreK-12 classrooms (Mulder, 2016).

**Cultural mismatch.** Throughout the U.S., public classroom student demographics are changing, but the demographics of PreK-12 teachers and teachers-in-training remain relatively unchanged. Historically, teaching as an occupation has been dominated by women, and pre-service teachers are most often White, female, monolingual English speakers who are unfamiliar with the diverse cultures populating U.S. classrooms (Lue, 2003). Although preservice teachers are eager to teach and may also be driven by a calling of socially just values, they can unconsciously bring unrecognized biases into their classrooms, particularly in relation to English Learners. Because they are ELs, this student population is in the process of learning both SAE and content area matter. The dual nature of the EL's classroom learning needs presents the preservice teacher with an opportunity to achieve two distinct equity goals supporting the concept of a pluralistic culture, such as is found in the U.S. Too often, however, educators-in-training are underprepared by their own cultural milieu and by their teacher education program to instruct students whose diversity includes the need to learn SAE. It is important to prepare preservice teachers to work in a classroom environment that is welcoming of the EL's cultural knowledge, and respectful of their cultural traditions. If the preservice teacher is not prepared in this way, then as the teacher-in-training encounters an EL whose clothing, mannerisms, lunch, worldview, or pragmatics differs significantly from that to which they are accustomed, she can experience dissonance leading to emotional disconnect from the EL. The inability to welcome diverse cultures into the classroom is a manifestation of cultural mismatch. As the U.S. population becomes more diverse, cultural mismatch between preservice teachers and ELs can be expected to continue.

**Preservice teacher education.** There are multiple paths to achieving teaching certification, credentialing, or licensure, including Teach for America, the Peace Corps, emergency certification, alternative certification, and preservice teacher education (Childs, 2011). A typical teacher preparation program will offer classes specifically designed to prepare preservice educators to teach both grade-level and content area subjects. The program may include classroom management techniques, learning theories, lesson planning, professional dispositions, and other aspects of the work of education. Depending on the state where the educator-in-training studies, teacher preparation programs may also mandate an ESOL endorsement or ESOL certification (NCELA, 2008) for all preservice teachers. The teaching of ethics and bias recognition in ESOL endorsement or certification courses attempts, in large part, to prepare teachers-in-training to recognize and strive to eliminate cultural mismatch in their future classrooms.

**Albert Bandura.** Student motivation, or the lack thereof, is a major issue that preservice educators may have to confront as they prepare to teach ELs in their future classrooms. Although teachers-in-training are typically knowledgeable regarding methods of motivating their students in practicum and internship experiences, they may know very little about how to overcome obstacles regarding their own levels of motivation. When working with students who appear to be very different from themselves, preservice teachers may feel low motivation to engage with, or educate, students in the EL population.

Albert Bandura moved from aggression studies (Bandura and Walters, 1959) to the idea of self-efficacy as a foundational aspect of motivation. Bandura believed that success in any endeavor would rely upon an individual's belief in her own ability to succeed (Bandura, 1986). For Bandura, motivation depended largely on self-efficacy, which tapped into the "ability to

succeed” concept that said that persons who had a higher degree of self-efficacy in a given domain would also have a higher rate of success in that domain, and vice-versa (Bandura, 1999). Associating self-efficacy with a task area meant that a student would be more motivated to complete an assignment, but only if the student understood how to do so (Bandura, 2012). Accordingly, a student who did not achieve the goal would lessen her personal expectations due to lower self-efficacy, while a student with greater self-efficacy in a content area would raise her personal goals (Bandura & Cervone, 1986).

In the classroom setting, teachers-in-training could notice that when they possess high self-efficacy in their perceived ability to meet the challenges inherent in the teaching of ELs, they would then adapt to these new challenges in an anticipatory way instead of reactively. Such a shift would promote a spiral of increasingly complex, self-set objectives that the preservice teacher would feel motivated to achieve (Bandura, 2012). Educators-in-training could be given agency by understanding that lower self-efficacy would be linked to ambiguity, as it related to the task requirements, rather than to their actual ability (Bandura, 2012). This understanding could support their effort to increase their own classroom expertise by encouraging them to be certain that they, as preservice teachers, receive explicit, clear instructions, coupled with modeling. All of these directives and practice opportunities could be available to the preservice teacher through their university or college education coursework, online resources, and the assistance of their cooperating teacher during practicum or internship experiences. If preservice teachers are taught the motivational theory that underlies their success in teaching ELs, this should increase their comprehension of the task as it relates to their future employment.

## Operational Definitions

- **Attitude**-a complex mental state involving beliefs and feelings and values and dispositions to act in certain ways (Webster, 2016)
- **Bias**-a partiality that prevents objective consideration of an issue or situation (Webster, 2016)
- **Cooperating teacher**-mentor teacher who has been trained to guide and supervise a preservice teacher
- **Cultural mismatch**-feeling of dissonance experienced by persons whose understanding of the meanings of culture comes into conflict (Garrett, 2016)
- **Culture**-all of the knowledge and values shared by a society; the attitudes and behavior that are characteristic of a particular social group or organization (Webster, 2016)
- **Diversity**-a multiplicity of difference (Webster, 2016). In the classroom, the term expresses differences and similarities of student and educator populations, as well as the recognition of same
- **Dominant culture**-group who holds the political, financial, and/or decision-making authority in a culture (Samovar, Porter, McDaniel, and Roy, 2017)
- **EL**-acronym for English Learner, a PreK-12 student who is studying and learning both Standard American English and content area matter
- **ESOL**-acronym for “English for Speakers of Other Languages”
- **Preservice teacher**-university or college student enrolled in education classes designed to train the student to become a professional educator
- **SAE**-acronym for “Standard American English,” a contrived form of English found predominantly in written works, such as textbooks and formal publications
- **Whiteness**-term originating the 1980s with diverse conceptual understandings. In this study, the term is based on the work of McIntosh (1988), who posited that Whiteness is seen as the norm against which all races and ethnic groups are viewed, thus assuming that some cultures are flawed due to mismatch with Whiteness, and that privilege inherent in dominant culture membership is unrecognized by group members

Additional terminology included in the study is recognized to be standard and therefore generally understood by all readers.

## Research Questions

For the purposes of this quantitative study with qualitative insights, three research questions provided guidance:

- 1) Do preservice teachers who have completed an ethics course in the ESOL Endorsement sequence (control group) demonstrate more positive attitudes toward ELs than preservice teachers who have not taken an ethics course in the sequence (experimental group)?

- 2) Could interviews conducted between preservice teachers and Adult ESOL learners precipitate any noticeable change in potential biases held by preservice teachers?
- 3) Based on a limited focus group interview, what factors might be noted by preservice teachers, following treatment, as factors that enabled the teachers-in-training to review and potentially rethink their potential biases against ELs?

### **Research Methodology**

A quantitative study with qualitative insights incorporated a pretest, treatment, and posttest design. It was implemented under the context of a preservice teacher education preparation program in a private, liberal arts, four-year college located in Florida. The control group volunteers for the study were completers of a cross-cultural communications class, offered by the college as the ethics class for the ESOL endorsement sequence. The experimental group volunteers were not enrolled in the cross-cultural communications class, and had not conducted an ethnographic interview with an Adult ESOL learner. The research study occurred during the fall semester in order to learn whether the preservice teachers were exhibiting cultural mismatch with ELs as they were enrolled in their ESOL practicum experience and teacher education coursework. All control group students were classified as first or second semester juniors. All experimental group students were classified as first-semester students at the liberal arts college.

The quantitative study with qualitative insights experimental design examined preservice teachers' cross-cultural attitudes and biases toward, and beliefs about, ELs, through a self-report instrument. The instrument was administered as pretest and posttest, to the experimental group. It was also administered to the control group. The experimental group received one type of educational treatment administered during the fall semester. The experimental design included a treatment consisting of an informal ethnographic interview of Adult ESOL learners, conducted

by an experimental group of preservice teachers, having no prior ESOL Endorsement education coursework, and enrolled in a seminar-based education class. It also included a focus group interview following the ethnographic interview experience and classroom-based seminars examining the ESOL practicum requirements. Additionally, a control group, with prior ESOL Endorsement coursework and prior treatment, received the self-assessment instrument. The utilization of a bias recognition survey, an ethnographic interview with an Adult EL, a follow-up bias recognition survey, a focus group qualitative interview, and a control group, were included in the study to ascertain attitude shifts regarding the teaching of ELs.

### **Population Sample**

The population for this research study ( $N=51$ ) consisted of two groups of preservice teachers, one control group ( $N=22$ ) and one experimental group ( $N=29$ ). All preservice teachers were enrolled in a teacher training program at a small, private, liberal arts college in Florida. Demographically, students varied in age, gender, and race. The experimental group consisted of students having no completed or attempted prior ESOL Endorsement coursework. The control group consisted of students who had completed the cross-cultural communications and ethics course of the ESOL Endorsement sequence.

### **Research Instrumentation**

An attitudinal assessment instrument designed to measure attitudes toward cross-cultural awareness was administered at the beginning (pretest) and at the end (posttest) of the research during the fall academic semester. The Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI) was the survey instrument. The CCAI was introduced by Kelley and Meyers (2015), and carries a considerable history of both use and high validity and reliability as a measurement of an individual's adaptability to cross-cultural interactions (Kelley and Meyers, 2015).

In addition to the CCAI, a focus group informal interview was conducted following college seminar coursework regarding ESOL practicum requirements and expectations, to register shifts relating to preservice teachers' attitudes toward the teaching of ELs in mainstream classrooms. The verbal responses from the interview were coded to measure insight. Insight was viewed, in the study, as linguistic responses that represented the same pattern. Sameness of expressed idea was the pattern utilized for coding. There was no member check in the focus group, and coded responses were viewed as explanatory after the treatment.

### **Limitations and Delimitations of the Study**

Factors beyond the control of the researcher would likely not interfere with study results. They could conceivably include an inability on the part of the preservice teacher to comprehend the verbal linguistic output of the EL, or to incorrectly interpret nonverbal communications expressed in the cultural context most familiar to the EL. Conversely, due to the nature of second language acquisition, ELs vary in their language proficiency, a factor which would contribute to their linguistic intake and output. Additionally, prior experiences held by the preservice teachers, with non-English speakers in either educational or non-educational settings, either negative or positive in nature, could not be controlled for.

An additional limitation included the fact that the experimental students could not be randomly assigned to the course taught by the clinical educator. All limitations could, theoretically, decrease or increase bias toward ELs in the classroom setting.

A delimitation of the study included the control group, who were not enrolled in the cross-cultural communications and ethics course, and who were randomly selected from three additional courses offered at the same time as the education seminar course containing the experimental group.

## Chapter Summary

In Chapter 1, following the introduction, a discussion on the background and rationale supporting the study is included. This chapter presents a statement of the problem, the significance of the study to the problem, theoretical constructs and operational definitions utilized within the study, and the research question. Furthermore, a synopsis of the research methodology, the population sample, and the instrumentation utilized in the study are included. Finally, limitations of the study are listed.

In Chapter 2, the related literature is reviewed. The chapter begins with a description of the cultural mismatch that currently exists between preservice teachers and ELs, followed by a brief history of this education phenomenon. Next, the chapter examines the attitudes held by preservice teachers as it relates to cultural mismatch, followed by a discussion of the application of Social Justice Theory to the educational milieu. An examination of the actual manifestation of cultural mismatch as it is experienced in the nation's public school system is then followed by a review of the literature demonstrating efforts to mitigate the phenomenon among teachers-in-training and teachers in the classroom.

In Chapter 3, the research design, methods, questions, procedures implemented for the collection of data and the statistical analysis are examined for this research study. The validity and reliability of the instruments chosen for the study are explained, and an examination of the study's limitations and delimitations is provided.

Chapter 4 provides in-depth documentation of the data, as well as a summary of the results of the data collected. Chapter 5 presents a summary of the study's findings, conclusions reached, and recommendations for additional future studies. This chapter is then followed by an appendix and a references section.

## **CHAPTER 2: Literature Review**

This chapter will examine literature relevant to comprehending the evolution and various understandings of the results of this research study. The first section of this review will describe the literature pertaining to the cultural mismatch between teachers in the U.S. public schools and their EL students as it relates to the history of research on the topic. The second section explores concepts pertaining to preservice teachers' attitudes relating to cultural mismatch. The third section will describe Social Justice Theory and applications in education. The fourth section will explore manifestations of cultural mismatch in the classroom. The fifth section will elucidate efforts at mitigation of cultural mismatch. This chapter is designed to acquaint the reader with the academic understandings associated with the phenomenon of cultural mismatch, as it exists between preservice teachers and ELs. As such, the insights in this chapter relate specifically to the design of this quantitative study with qualitative insights, clarify the need for additional study of the topic, and provide subsequent interpretation of the research results found in the literature.

### **History of Research on Cultural Mismatch**

The U.S. public school system is growing increasingly diverse, and has a rich history of educating immigrants, refugees, and second language learners. Because preservice teachers are placed throughout public, private, magnet, and charter schools in communities across the U.S., theories of cultural mismatch focus primarily on race, ethnicity, and gender differences of teachers and teachers-in-training. These individuals are mostly White, female, middle-class, monolingual, native English speakers (Hansen-Thomas, Grosso Richins, Kakkar, and Okeyo, 2016). However, the ESOL population tends to register lower socioeconomic status than preservice teachers, often speaks a different home language, includes, out of necessity, a propensity to bilingualism or dual language learning, is consistently over-recommended for ESE

services, and experiences substantially reduced social interactions, all due to their minority language status (NCELA, 2011). Additional observed differences between preservice teachers and ELs can include racial and ethnic diversity in their immigrant status, and prior academic experiences in which the EL may, or may not, have been taught by females in previous academic settings.

Cultural mismatch does not occur only between preservice teachers and ELs, but can extend to additional stakeholders, such as parents or guardians. Given that “estimates of school-aged English learners are derived from national counts of children enrolled in school” (NCELA, 2011, p. 1), parent or guardian counts may be inaccurate due to potential underreporting of undocumented immigrants. As noted by Hansen-Thomas et al (2016), communication with EL students and their parents is seen by teachers as being a challenging issue, but will necessarily occur throughout the school year. By extension, preservice teachers could reasonably be expected to experience a similar communicative disconnect as they enter into their state-mandated internship. Due to cultural mismatch, which includes a mutual inability to speak each other’s first language, both on the part of the teacher-in-training and that of the parent, preservice teachers can be at a significant disadvantage. Circumstances in which the teacher-in-training can be in an unfavorable position could include observation of a parent-teacher conference, where communication is of the utmost importance, or when tasked by the cooperating teacher with tutoring an EL. Further research is needed to understand the manifestation of the cultural mismatch phenomenon when preservice teachers attempt to communicate with stakeholders whose English language proficiency may be limited or absent.

Research on cultural mismatch has not recognized and included an understanding of the need for the thoughtful preparation of the preservice teacher, with the objective of recognizing

personal bias against EL students. This preparation should include a subsequent striving to eliminate bias through the utilization of research-based strategies. Secondly, it has not been historically viewed as being critically necessary to raise educator awareness of the mismatch phenomenon. Such research is currently not robust.

Existing research of cultural mismatch within the PreK-12 classroom setting demonstrates a historical proclivity toward improving classroom interactions between White teachers and minority students. The earliest education theories addressed primarily classroom interactions described by academic settings in which White teachers taught White students. During the Civil Rights Movement in the U.S., the phenomenon of cultural mismatch began to achieve a focus relating to the creation of inclusive classrooms in which White teachers, whose classrooms continued to be populated by a majority White population, began to teach a growing minority demographic of African American students (Ravitch and Vinovskis, 1995). Historical considerations included numerous changes in school functions, including how schools would be governed, addressing issues of classroom equity and changing student demographics, curriculum standards that would provide inclusivity for all students, and matters pertaining to school choice (Ravitch and Vinovskis, 1995). Given the breadth of the historical changes, preservice teachers were impacted, and continue to be impacted, by all of these factors. Unfortunately, they often remain unprepared or underprepared to teach multicultural classrooms in the modern public school system, despite decades of education reform and continuing efforts at racial inclusivity.

Villegas (1988) further explored cultural mismatch as a manifestation of social inequalities perpetrated against minority students. From this perspective, teachers and preservice teachers must be trained to attend to the myriad political links that engage the EL, the school, the greater culture, and stakeholders who support the EL.

More recently, human migration and globalization patterns have again changed the demographics of the minority student population (Samovar, Porter, McDaniel, and Sexton Roy, 2017), while the teacher population has remained majority White. In spite of opportunities to shift academic research to considerations that would include ELs as a rapidly growing student demographic, quality research on cultural mismatch between preservice teachers and ELs remains extremely limited. Additionally, casual observation would suggest that available research tends to be utilized most often by ESOL teachers, who are potentially the educators who already understand cultural mismatch and its implications within the classroom. Given these relevant and major considerations, the diverse needs of the EL population require further study. In order to support preservice teachers as they shift from learner to instructor, the need for additional studies and research on the effects of the known cultural mismatch phenomenon between teachers-in-training and ELs is now a critical paradigm.

Since current research on cultural mismatch in the preservice teacher population is most often focused on the classroom intersections between White teachers and African American students, studies that focus on all preservice teachers, regardless of race or ethnicity, and their interactions, understandings, and beliefs about ELs continue to remain a noticeable deficit in the literature. Due to the increasing need noted for diversity among the preservice teacher populations, and the inherent diversity of the EL population, research must extend beyond traditional confines.

### **Preservice Teacher Attitudes Related to Cultural Mismatch**

On World Refugee Day 2016, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) reported that approximately 1% of the world's population, a staggering 5.8 million increase from 2015, is either seeking asylum, is internally displaced, or is a refugee. To bring

perspective to this data, the global number of forcibly displaced humans is now larger than the population of the United Kingdom, making it the 21<sup>st</sup> largest resident population in the world (UNHCR, 2016). In the 2017 UNHCR report, Secretary-General Antonio Guterres noted that 1 out of 113 humans globally has been forcibly displaced, a figure exceeding 65.6 million persons (UNHCR, 2017). The majority of forcibly displaced individuals currently arrive from Syria, Afghanistan, and Somalia. At the time of this study, the U. S. is hosting 66,500 forcibly displaced persons, and because many of these refugees are children (UNHCR, 2016), the likelihood that preservice teachers will begin instructing this subset of the EL population is evident. Therefore, it is incumbent upon preservice teachers to be prepared to assist and mentor this newest group of young pioneers in U.S. classrooms.

### **Cultural Mismatch, Dominant Culture, and White Privilege**

Preservice teacher attitudes and perceptions of ELs can adversely impact the learning experience of this expanding student population. There are numerous challenges in the perception of ELs by preservice teachers. However, potentially the most cogent contributing factor is the cultural mismatch experienced between the teacher-in-training and the student who is both a content classroom learner and a foreign language learner.

First introduced in 1977 by Bourdieu and Passeron, the term “cultural mismatch” attempted to account for educational outcome discrepancies among different socioeconomic student populations. From their findings, it was believed that the incongruities between school and home values, priorities, backgrounds, and knowledge led to lower academic outcomes for students of lower socioeconomic status. This set of findings was called “cultural mismatch” (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1977).

Cultural mismatch was also discussed by Anderson (1984) as schemata, or the noticeable incongruences between the individual’s schema and the person’s social location. Anderson

(1984) included factors such as age, race, nationality, etc., as schema. In the education setting, which can be taken as a person's social location, this mismatch is particularly apparent when preservice teachers encounter ELs whose nationality, language, race, age, grade level, prior academic experiences, clothing, adornment, food preferences, and attitudes toward education may not resemble those of the teacher-in-training.

To expand upon this understanding, Spring (2006) defined the dominant culture as the one most widely recognized as being the group of persons who hold the majority of governmental, economic, and social power within any given society. The dominant culture promotes the values, norms, and beliefs most widely recognized as being affiliated with a given culture. In the U.S., the dominant culture is understood to be White males. Observational evidence of this assertion can be seen in all federal, state, and local government entities, agents of commerce, and the societal industries of sports, leisure, and entertainment as examples of the "primary influencers in the formation of values and beliefs" (HDIAC, 2017). White female preservice teachers and classroom teachers hold significant rank in the dominant culture, and may experience a personal disconnect with those who do not. English learners, who reside outside of the dominant culture, face the brunt of this disconnect, and without access to either the culture or the language, may not succeed academically or in other venues. Co-culture and subculture group members, who may feel threatened by stereotypical or otherwise biased perceptions of ELs, will tend to retain power through tacit support of the dominant culture and its exclusionary practices. Preservice teachers could be considered as a subculture. As such, they may not have the training necessary to recognize the deleterious effects of such a paradigm. Unhappily, they may unconsciously add to it by their own culturally-imbued classroom behaviors and biases.

The immigrant culture, which often includes ELs, typically remains outside of the dominant culture, and can unwittingly be instrumental in the perception among preservice teachers of creating a discomfiting cultural mismatch. Because teachers are a cultural product, then their systems of belief, personal values, knowledge of what they believe to be true or untrue, and their ways of doing everyday activities can affect how they teach ELs (Ahearn, Childs-Brown, Coady, Dickson, Heintz, and Hughes, 2002), which can perpetuate biases against ELs. Cultural mismatch could then manifest as a wholly disadvantageous disconnect between the home culture of the EL and the classroom environment. While this dissonance may be obvious to the EL, many preservice teachers remain oblivious to it, and so never attempt to remediate or address the issue.

The United States Department of Education states that ELs are the fastest growing student demographic in the public school system, representing nearly 10% of all public school students, and 17.4% of kindergartners (USDOE, 2016). The same report noted that “the percentage of ELL students in public schools increased between 2003-04 and 2013-14 in all but 14 states” (p. 1), and represents “as much as 16.6 percent of the total public school enrollment in many large cities” (p. 2). With the influx of forcibly displaced individuals noted earlier, it is cogent to assume that these numbers will increase.

The majority of ELs are minority students with a high correlation to poverty and an incumbent lack of supports (Libby, 2009), and because their parents often do not speak English, there may be issues of little or no homework help, and/or low literacy in the home. Demographics of the teaching profession continue to indicate that approximately 80% of teachers are White, female, middle-class, and native speaker English monolingual, while minority children represent more than 50% of their pupils (Boser, 2014). Before the EL enters

the classroom, the potential for cultural mismatch is apparent and problematic. The need for additional research on this issue could clarify the lack of diversity within the teaching profession, while adding to understandings of the need for education inclusivity for all students.

Education is arguably the most influential gatekeeper of the status quo, which currently inculcates a divisive cultural mismatch between teachers-in-training and ELs. When the education system is unable to provide equal educational results for all students, then pupils emblematic of the growing diversity in classroom demographics are denied access to opportunities and resources. These fundamental opportunities can include civil rights, personal liberties, self-respect, the power to engage as agents of change, opportunities to access higher education, income distribution, and wealth accumulation.

In addition to cultural mismatch, ELs are often subject to White privilege, described by McIntosh (1988) as the unearned advantages of privilege and elitism experienced by White Americans. Because these experiences are a normalized, routine aspect of their daily life, those who live with White privilege can be oblivious to it. English learners, who might have experienced privilege in their first country, are faced with the loss of their prior status as currency, which is then compounded by additional losses, including their language and their cultural understandings (European, 2007). Preservice teachers who do not comprehend White privilege are often unaware of the ramifications of their actions, and may fail to recognize loss-related behaviors demonstrated by ELs, and a symptom of cultural mismatch.

Milner (2003) stated that cultural mismatch can be successfully addressed in the preservice teacher and teaching population through the comprehension of three major points:

- 1) There remains a “necessity of race reflection in cultural contexts for both White teachers and teachers of color,
- 2) Schools retain “racial and cultural mismatches between teachers and students, which can stifle learning, and

- 3) There is yet a “need for pedagogical tools to enhance discussions and activities around difficult topics such as race” (p. 2).

Milner’s position that cultural mismatch was prevalent among teachers is a reminder that preservice teachers are also subject to the phenomenon, regardless of their race or ethnicity.

### **Establishment of Social Justice Theory**

Young and Lopez (2005) posited that the three theoretical approaches of critical race theory, queer theory, and feminist post-structural theory combine to form a broad platform through which Social Justice Theory is able to address cultural and demographic changes that have occurred in the U.S. during the past century. Such losses can manifest as economic disparities, loss of educational attainment, and impingement upon civil rights. Critical race theory (Delgado and Stefancic, 2011) examined racism in multiple venues, including relationships of power in political, legal, organizational, and social arenas. Queer theory (Foucault, 1976) explored the nexus of sexual identity to understand behaviors and governing structures that intertwine sexual identity with power. Feminist post-structural theory (Randall, 2010) examined subjectivity and resistance in relation to gender. All constructs feed into the social justice leadership theory.

Theoharis (2007) defined Social Justice Theory in the educational setting as making issues of race, class, gender, disability, sexual orientation, and other historically and currently marginalizing conditions in the United States central to... advocacy, leadership practice, and vision. This definition centers on addressing and eliminating marginalization in schools. Thus, inclusive schooling practices for students with disabilities, English language learners (ELLs), and other students traditionally segregated in schools are also necessitated by this definition (p. 4).

At its core, Ahlstrom (1972) maintained that just social leadership is grounded in theology. Social Justice Theory also echoes Vygotsky’s work in social development theory and his proposed Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), because both theories focus on the

connections between students and their sociocultural contexts at school (Berk and Winsler, 1995). Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943) is equally foundational to Social Justice Theory, as defined by the marginalization of diverse learners whose educational needs are often left unmet.

Ultimately, preparing students to live in a multicultural, multi-ability, multiethnic, multi-faith, and multinational pluralistic culture is best met through Social Justice Theory, explained by Lunenburg (2010) in the following way:

Social justice in schooling, then, would mean equal treatment, access, and outcomes for children from oppressed groups. It would mean closing the achievement gap between children from low-income communities and communities of color and their mainstream peers so they are successful in school.... It would mean working toward such a vision of social justice in school by engaging the powerful force of accountability policy, that is, excellence and equity for all children (pp. 2-3).

### **Social Justice Theory in Education**

Evans (2007) posited that “educational leaders have a social and moral obligation to foster equitable school practices, processes, and outcomes for learners of different racial, socioeconomic, gender, cultural, disability, and sexual orientations backgrounds” (p. 250), a moral base exemplified by Shapiro and Stefkovich's (2016) Ethic of Care paradigm. The Ethic of Care paradigm, in turn, placed the responsibility of searching for, securing, and utilizing caring behaviors toward all students with the educator. In preservice teachers who are learning about ELs and their educational needs, caring behaviors can be taught and modeled by mentoring teachers or by college instructors. Such behaviors could include greeting the EL in a culturally appropriate manner, pronouncing the student's name correctly, speaking clearly and slowly, and increasing wait times for EL student responses. Such simple actions have been demonstrated by the literature to produce a more welcoming, caring classroom environment for ELs, while acknowledging that EL students are additives to the student population (New Levine and McCloskey, 2013).

The notion that students of all abilities are additives in a classroom extends easily to the diverse population of students with Limited English Proficiency (LEP), when no student is seen as subtractive under the Social Justice Theory. Lunenburg (2010) noted that institutional racism is not “consciously intended or even recognized by educators,” but does remain “systemically embedded in assumptions, policies, and procedures, practices, and structures of schooling” (p. 2) in the U.S. In the Social Justice Theory, the marginalization of students of color, language minority students, and students of poverty, is manifested in U.S. schools through tracking systems, limited resources, and the employment of under-credentialed teachers, which is a denial of opportunity, rights, and equitable education for all students (Stromquist, 2012). An example of this phenomenon can be found in research demonstrating that ELs from Mexico are the largest group of students in U.S. schools who have parents who are immigrants, but also educationally experience limited access to more academically demanding classes, which can then limit their chance to access available opportunities in higher education (Stromquist, 2012). To identify and address these inequities, Santamaria (2014) suggested that educational leaders and educators approach their professional practice through the lens of the critical race theory, which responds to diversity by viewing it as being intrinsically valuable to the classroom. Preservice teachers need access to the critical race theory bias reduction teachings that will allow them to understand this concept.

English learners can be best taught under the auspices of Social Justice Theory, which assumes its legal foundations from *Lau v. Nichols* (1974), the ruling by the U.S. Supreme Court mandating that all public schools are responsible for teaching students the English language. Language equity was viewed in this decision to be a civil right under regulations prohibiting discrimination based on national origin, which includes home language. Preservice teachers

should be given ample education theory to include the knowledge of the application of English language learning as a basic civil right that is guaranteed for all pupils, regardless of their immigration status. A 2008 report noted that state-by-state requirements for ESOL education of preservice teachers vary widely with regards to specific coursework, as well as licensure and/or certification requirements for teaching ELs (NCELA, 2008). The *Lau v. Nichols* ruling clarified that such developmental mandates would be established by each state, for each state, so there remain significant gaps in what might be considered sufficient professional training in the area of ESOL education for preservice teachers.

Everson and Bussey (2007) noted that Social Justice Theory can be introduced to education professionals through teacher preparation programs at the advanced level, although the theory itself is embedded in ethics classes taken by students as early as the undergraduate level. The Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium's (ISLLC) standards (1996) thoroughly addressed the responsibilities of the school to perpetuate a culture that actively promotes equity of opportunity of learning for all students, as explained by Jean-Marie, Normore, and Brooks (2009).

Jean-Marie et al. (2009) stated that Social Justice Theory allows teachers to become “the architects and builders of a new social order wherein traditionally disadvantaged peoples have the same educational...and social opportunities as traditionally advantaged people” (p. 4). After examining the historical roots of the U. S. education system, in which standardization and regimented curricula separate students, Jean-Marie et al. (2009) noted that inclusivity and diversity are “overshadowed by the norms of” the dominant culture (p. 6). This narrow lens of viewing diversity serves to reinforce traditional power structures benefitting the wealthier, better educated members of U.S. society, while ensuring that culturally diverse students remain

marginalized and dependent. Social Justice Theory encourages preservice teachers to be aware of how the issues of social justice, including factors of gender, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and poverty, can be transcended to create a hopeful, harmonious, and equitable society. Everson and Bussey (2007) echoed this sentiment when they explained that fairness and respect are demonstrated in communities, cultures, and social settings by the incorporation of social justice. They further noted that “the extent to which fairness and equity exist in a school community is...the responsibility of its leaders” (p. 178), which could include preservice teachers.

### **Manifestation of Cultural Mismatch in the Classroom**

Salerno and Kibler (2013) examined cultural mismatch between preservice teachers and an increasingly diverse population of ELs. Noting that preservice teachers were predominantly White, middle class females, the authors expressed concern that the teachers-in-training engaged as research subjects did not demonstrate teacher capacities of collaboration, content knowledge, teaching practices in diverse classroom settings, and the development of critical consciousness skills that would empower them in multilingual classes. Additionally, the authors argued that the preservice teachers’ lack of professional capacity caused them to make biased judgements regarding ELs, a trait the authors note could carry over into the teacher-in-training’s future classrooms. This view is expressed via multiple venues, including preservice teachers’ perceptions that ELs are quiet or shy, an assertion that misinterprets the role of linguistic proficiency in ELs’ classroom behaviors. Interestingly, Salerno and Kibler (2013) noted that “descriptions of how students and families did not participate rather than how they did participate, or on language they did not speak rather than language they did speak, were limited perspectives from which teachers made instructional decisions” (p. 20). If preservice teachers enter the classroom with limited perspectives on linguistics and without an examination of the

biases they hold, then their beliefs about ELs will tend to be negative, an extension which may apply to the EL's family. Practitioner teachers, too, may bring negative beliefs regarding ELs to the classroom, resulting in issues relating to cultural mismatch. During a historical period in which so many children are globally displaced or socially marginalized, the need to recognize cultural mismatch is critical.

Cultural mismatch was also researched by Keengwe (2010), who argued for a greater concentrated teaching of cultural and linguistic diversity in teacher education programs, to address biased perceptions of EL's families. Keengwe noted that modeling, as well as supporting of appropriate cultural competencies by teacher educators, are critical to the recognition and potential elimination of biases held against minority learners by preservice teachers. Furthermore, Keengwe stated that after pairing teachers-in-training with ELs and their parents in a cross-cultural conversation, critical reflections were generated by the preservice teachers following the experience. The research found that limited linguistic and cultural knowledge, fear based on limited cultural competencies, and a narrow understanding of second language acquisition, are concerns frequently paired with cultural mismatch issues. Teacher educators should caution preservice teachers that recognition of an in-depth understanding of issues related to the EL's home language is a critical component of the reduction of cultural mismatch and bias.

In an attempt to address cultural mismatch and bias from the viewpoint of the EL, Preble and Fitzgerald (2011) invited ELs to describe their linguistic and cultural needs to preservice teachers in a 90-minute seminar. The results indicated that when teachers-in-training are able to hear directly from ELs their concerns and needs regarding their education goals, the preservice teachers successfully connect background knowledge of ESOL teaching strategies to the

betterment of their own teaching of ELs in their future classrooms. The project appeared to mediate both the dissonance and the bias previously held by preservice teachers. Teacher educators of teachers-in-training should cultivate and model empathy and sensitivity in connecting subjectively with ELs and their parents in order to recognize and reduce discord among all stakeholders.

### **Ethnocentrism**

Yang, Rancer, Trimbitas, and Sunhee Lim collaborated on multiple studies designed to research ethnocentrism and attitudes toward communication between college students and those considered to be the “other.” In research comparing general traits of intercultural communication apprehension with intercultural willingness-to-communicate (2003a), Romanian and U.S. students’ levels of ethnocentrism as it relates to willingness-to-communicate (2005), and identical studies comparing Korean and U.S. students (2003b), attitudes relating to ethnocentrism and willingness-to-communicate were found to be culturally bound (Yang, Rancer, Trimbitas, and Sunhee Lim, 2003a, 2003b, 2005). Although the students in the studies were not specifically preservice teachers, extrapolation is possible and relevant. Via extrapolation, the results of the research confirm the need for teachers-in-training to become aware of the limiting role that ethnocentrism could play in their willingness-to-communicate with ELs. Because the preservice teachers’ individual traits and predispositions will impact their classroom teaching behaviors, including their attitudes toward, and communications with, ELs (Beatty, 1998), then additional research is needed. Such research would necessarily clarify how these dimensions of cultural mismatch could manifest as bias-based behaviors when the preservice teacher experiences classroom interactions with non-English speakers. Additionally, research could provide novel strategies to use in raising awareness among preservice teachers as to what constitutes bias, and how it is perceived.

## Mitigation of Cultural Mismatch

### Teacher Education Programs

Although preservice teachers ostensibly spend 13 years in school prior to beginning their teacher preparation studies, schools vary in their demographic diversity, and some schools have few, or no, ELs. Following the U.S. Supreme Court ruling in *Lau v. Nichols* (1974), states were mandated to initiate coursework in teacher education programs that would address the teaching of ELs, or to prepare teachers in other ways. Olson and Jimenez-Silva (2008) explored follow-up data to search for change in cultural mismatch attitudes among preservice teachers who complete state-mandated ESOL endorsement coursework. Research indicated that teachers-in-training overwhelmingly express positive effects resulting from completion of ESOL endorsement courses in regard to bias reduction and to assumptions about teaching ELs. The need for teacher educators to create causal relationships between what is taught in teacher preparation programs and what the preservice teachers could expect to encounter while teaching ELs in their future classrooms is posited as an additive measure to redress issues of cultural mismatch. Teacher practitioners who do not complete the ESOL endorsement sequence prior to graduation should be prepared to begin this process in order to best serve the EL's educational needs, both content and linguistic.

From the perspective of preparing preservice teachers to instruct ELs in diverse U.S. classrooms, Vaughn, Bos, and Schumm (2000) stressed the ongoing need for a critical framework of school culture that engages in practices of equity, explores concepts of bias, provides stakeholders with strategies to reduce or eliminate bias, and encourages self-esteem, much as Bandura (2012) promoted. To create such a positive learning environment for ELs, Lau (2003) suggested the following strategies and concepts be taught to preservice teachers:

- 1) "Begin with the basic premise that all children can learn,

- 2) “Create a culture of achievement,
- 3) “Foster critical thinking and problem solving skills,
- 4) “Use storytelling skills to facilitate communication,
- 5) “Understand the importance of culture and language on learning and achievement,
- 6) “Model support and respect for diversity,
- 7) “Provide culturally relevant literature,
- 8) “Teach effective study habits,
- 9) “Instill a love of reading, and
- 10) “Embrace technology” (pp. 6-10).

The problem of cultural mismatch and the bias incumbent in difference focus is not a challenge faced only in U.S. schools. In Ontario, Webster and Valeo (2011) researched cultural mismatch, and noted that preservice teachers’ demographics in Canada mirror those found in the U.S., with much the same results. Because teachers-in-training lack cultural competency and express a strong disconnect with respect to teaching ELs, the authors found that preservice teachers often identify ELs with Exceptional Student Education (ESE) students, and consider them with outsider, or “other,” status. This research could partially explain the high rate of referral of ELs to ESE programs, despite evidence that the services are often unnecessary. Preservice teachers could benefit from further educational training examining the similarities between the process of learning a second language, and the manifestation of a learning disability.

Overrepresentation of ELs in ESE programs is thoroughly documented in the literature, as suggested by Krings (2017), who noted that “national estimates reveal that English-language learners may be over-represented in the learning disabilities category due to the fact that neither a method for accurate identification nor a consistent definition of learning disabilities across states exists” (p. 1). Preservice teachers with little practical classroom teaching experience may not recognize the need to differentiate teaching strategies to best support the learning needs of ELs if they are characterized as ESE students in the PreK-12 classroom. Additionally, noteworthy is an interesting study by Smith (2014), who found that Latino ELs in San Diego

public schools were 70% more likely to receive an ESE referral than Latino learners who were not English learners. They were also identified for ESE services at an earlier age than were non-ELs. Krings (2017) clarified that “distinguishing between learners with limited English proficiency and those who also have a learning disability is critical because special education law requires the distinction... based on determination of the...Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act” (p. 1). It follows that when cultural differences are ignored, discounted, or misunderstood, cultural mismatch between the educator and the EL can manifest as over-referral to ESE services. Because cultural differences are so much more evident to teachers than are cultural similarities, preservice teachers must be cognizant of the presentation of cultural dissonance as acculturation occurs in the EL. Furthermore, they must also understand the processes of second language acquisition, which, although typical indicators of language proficiency, are too often deemed to be indicators for referral for ESE services. It is incumbent among researchers to clarify through additional studies the best practices that will encourage the preservice teacher to seek out cultural similarities between themselves and the ELs they serve.

### **Service Learning Experiences**

To mitigate cultural mismatch between preservice teachers and ELs, service learning experiences have been implemented as practicum experiences, internships, and classroom learning projects in teacher preparation programs. Nichols and Soe (2013) examined preservice teachers' attitudes regarding cultural mismatch in a service-learning experience that paired preservice teachers with ELs for literacy tutoring. Following tutoring, the qualitative analysis revealed that teachers-in-training experience frustration in teaching ELs, enjoy some pleasant experiences related to social justice, further their comprehension of poverty issues related to ELs, and ponder language difference. The authors posited the need for preservice teachers to meet with the parents of ELs to further reduce cultural mismatch. Teacher educators who are

coaching and supporting teachers-in-training would benefit from arranging an informal meeting with the parents of volunteering ELs, and should consider inviting the preservice teacher to observe the meeting, if this is agreeable to the parents.

Continuing in the vein of the service learning experience, Uzum, Petron, and Berg (2014) studied preservice teachers completing such an endeavor to determine elements of cultural mismatch, denoted through qualitative examination of critical reflections. Findings confirmed that preservice teachers experience considerable cultural dissonance, but also increase their professional ability to recognize that ELs need substantial classroom lesson planning through sheltered instruction to reduce gaps in their language proficiency, as well as the provision of continuous, ongoing language support. The authors noted that teacher educators who are unfamiliar with sheltered instruction protocols for the content and second language linguistic instruction of ELs should utilize the extensive professional development opportunities available to learn about sheltering instructional formats.

Zeller, Griffith, Zhang, and Klenke (2010) also researched cultural mismatch remediation through a service learning project, resulting in a clearer understanding of diversity and the perception of “otherness” as a method utilized by preservice teachers in formulating their personal understandings of ELs. Upon examination, it was found that teachers-in-training experience a shift in perception of ELs from “strangers” to “friends” following the conclusion of the service learning project, with a substantial decrease noted in cultural mismatch. Teacher educators should monitor the preservice teacher’s interactions with the EL, and if necessary, guide the teacher-in-training toward a perception of “friend” rather than “other” or “stranger.”

Rodriguez-Valls and Ponce (2013) introduced a three-step teacher preparation method designed to produce a “we” space that would engage ELs as active learners in mainstream

classrooms. They hypothesized that prioritizing EL student voices and experiences is critical in creating the “we” classroom, particularly as was demonstrated in a summer migrant education program designed to increase understanding of cultural mismatch among preservice teachers. Preservice teachers should receive additional educational training, when needed, to ensure that protocols for inclusivity of all learners in the classroom are followed and enforced.

In a similar study, Wong (2008) researched cultural mismatch through the addition of culturally responsive teaching experiences to the curriculum of preservice teachers. In Wong’s service-learning experience, teachers-in-training were paired with ELs for tutoring, 2-4 hours per week for 13-14 weeks. To counter Whiteness and privilege among preservice teachers, critical reflections were elicited and coded, with three resultant relationships noted, namely, transactional, transformational, and transcendent. Students remaining in transactional relationships demonstrate the lowest propensity to develop empathy and to exit from the Whiteness paradigm. Because of the racial socialization described above, the “Whiteness as privilege” model posits that Whiteness is characterized not so much by racial bias (i.e., racism), but by racial privilege. Preservice teachers need to better understand these concepts.

To coalesce a better understanding of Whiteness and privilege in preservice teacher education, the work of McIntosh (1988) is important. McIntosh (1988) asserted that Whiteness is viewed as the norm against which “others” (ELs) could be compared, and as a lack of awareness of one’s race and how it might impact “others” (ELs) who are minorities. McIntosh (1988) noted that Whiteness is an invisible and typical paradigm for people who harbor it, but is a visible and disturbing manifestation of bias that is painful and apparent to individuals who do not embrace this perspective. English learners who leave their home country may find that they are suddenly minorities in their new country. Having lost the dominant culture privilege and/or

equity incumbent with holding majority status, however it was manifested, ELs may experience frustration, confusion, and loneliness in a classroom in which they, and they alone, are the only representative of what was previously, for them, the visible societal norm. Preservice teachers need to incorporate caring behaviors (Shapiro and Stefkovich, 2016) to support ELs.

### **Supportive Literacy Experiences**

The bias inherent in Whiteness, although unwittingly manifested, can lead to deficit views of students, such as ELs, who come from marginalized cultural constituencies. Literacy needs of ELs and dissonance related to preservice teacher cultural mismatch were researched by Brock, Case, and Taylor (2013). The researchers found, through the examination of preservice teacher discourse, that literacy needs of ELs are frequently dismissed by teachers-in-training who verbally decline to discuss diversity, or who state that “normal” classrooms do not include minority or EL students. These are beliefs which could be viewed as manifestations of the Whiteness paradigm and cultural mismatch. In order to realign preservice teachers’ views of ELs in this service learning project, the researchers engaged the teachers-in-training in ESOL literacy practicum assignments pressuring the teachers-in-training to reflect upon their assumptions of this marginalized student population. The authors concluded that collaboration in curriculum planning, to potentially include critical reflection, should be utilized by higher education faculty to isolate and eradicate biases held against ELs. Discourse and the analysis of discourse are powerful tools for the personal recognition of bias, and can be effectively used by preservice teachers in their work with ELs.

Keller (2017) posited that orality among ELs impacts learning in profoundly cultural ways, as evidenced by brain scans culled from oral-dominant cultures when compared to those taken from persons in literate cultures. According to Keller, orality, when viewed as “a culture and tradition existing without any writing or reading, in contrast to literate cultures” (p. 2), is

often seen as being an inferior linguistic construct by Western educators. It is likely that preservice teachers also view orality as an edifice of lack, as opposed to an efficient method of learning. To support this supposition, Keller further explained the following:

“(M)any Western teachers feel a wide chasm between their own literate culture and oral culture: no claim can be documented, no fact ‘looked up,’ no historical event written down, and no modern Western systems of law and government put into place. Many literates also find it hard to accept that an emphasis on literacy is not always shared by other cultures... (T)eachers must learn to see their refugee students’ oral culture as an asset, rather than a deficit, and learn how to utilize the particular characteristics of their students’ oral culture as a paradigm for teaching” (p. 2).

Additionally, Ong (1982) noted that Saussure considered writing to be complementary to spoken language, and therefore, an additive. Given this assertion, Keller reminded educators that orality is comprised of seven characteristics, namely that it is formulaic, epithetic, redundant, traditional, story-based, experiential, and group-oriented (2017). Keller also stated that the three countries sending the preponderance of refugees to the U.S. are Syria, Afghanistan, and Somalia, all of which are located in global regions where orality dominates communication.

Understandably, teachers in the U.S., and by extension, preservice teachers, will need to modify their instructional methods relating to supportive literacy experiences to accommodate students whose communicative competence is constructed upon the premise of orality (Keller, 2017).

Although this construct of inclusivity of multiple ways of knowing is a desirable quality among preservice teachers, the reality is not yet so positive. In synthesizing the work of Samovar, Porter, McDaniel, and Roy (2017) as it relates to the “Three Deep Structures of Culture,” preservice teachers may find themselves under a pending, if not perpetual, sense of emotional loss when encountering ELs for whom they feel no particular sense of responsibility, and perhaps whom they do not respect, due to their personal biases. As explained by Samovar et al (2017), the three structures of family/clan, worldview, and nation/historical antecedents are

very difficult and slow to change, and when they do shift, can leave behind a sense of loss. Unless teachers-in-training are professionally prepared to teach ELs whose culture of orality permeates their ways of knowing, their values, and their beliefs, then the Deep Structures of Culture will continue to persuade vulnerable preservice teachers to remain in more emotionally comfortable environments, including retention of literacy-laden assignments, even when such a decision could mishandle and compromise classroom inclusivity.

### **Constructed Professional Identity Issues of Preservice Teachers**

Kayi-Aydar (2015) examined the perceived professional identities of preservice teachers in the United States as they taught ELs. The author found that the teachers-in-training position themselves either as coaches to ELs or as a social bridge between the ELs and the school; ultimately, the preservice teachers see themselves as being disempowered in their capacity to act on behalf of, and to teach, ELs. The loss of both teacher identity and the ability to be agents of positive change are negatives left unaddressed by the preservice teachers' higher education program, as determined by this study. This research would seem to support Bandura's (2012) assertions regarding self-efficacy. Additional research needs to be conducted to verify results and conclusions in this very timely area of consideration.

Trent (2015) continued the examination of the role of the preservice teacher's constructed professional identity as teachers of ELs by situating his study in Australia. He noted that discourse in Australia is seen as a divisive entity in which students may be labeled as "English as an Additional Language or Dialect (EAL/D)" while teachers utilize Standard Australian English in the classroom. Trent found that this linguistic difference implies a discourse of equity and inclusivity within the classroom when teachers are professionally grounded in their professional identity role, but leads to a discourse of difference when preservice teachers experience conflict between their perceived role as teacher and their posited role as disempowered. As EAL/D

learners are taught using sheltered instruction methods or scaffolding techniques, this leads to a perception among teachers-in-training that ELs are receiving privileges. Trent found resistance to the lawful requirements of language inclusive classrooms, which do not view EAL/D learners as additives, but as subtractive pupils. Such findings would seem to support the current understanding of cultural mismatch.

Martinez, Penner-Williams, Herrera, and Rodriguez (2011) also explored discourse in preservice teachers, noting that the utilization of critical reflection on their professional practice prompts an increased ability among teachers-in-training to test, and ultimately modify, their existing biases regarding ELs. The authors concluded that critical reflection can change teachers' biases in classrooms in which ELs are viewed as subtractive. Enacting a reduction in bias could be viewed as engendering a lessening of cultural mismatch.

Bunten (2010) also examined domains of discourse which conflict with models of empathy in the teaching of ELs. Authoritative discourse among preservice teachers includes multiple misconceptions, particularly the notion of what constitutes "proper classrooms," namely those which do not include ELs. Additionally, English language proficiency and time spent in the U.S. do not correlate smoothly, so teachers-in-training believe that ELs should exhibit higher proficiency sooner than is linguistically possible. Furthermore, failure among preservice teachers to recognize that writing and oral proficiency in language development do not develop at the same rate is noted by the author. Finally, preservice teachers demonstrate a high level of discursive resistance to a shift in levels of caring. Bandura's (2012) theories relating to perception of ability would seem to suggest, through this study, that preservice teachers would demonstrate higher levels of self-efficacy.

Continuing in the vein of second language acquisition (SLA), Batt (2008) studied cultural mismatch through the lens of two distinct notions, namely that preservice teachers demonstrate a significant need to learn more about the processes involved in SLA, and that meeting the parents of ELs bolsters efforts to address both cultural mismatch and deficiencies in understanding SLA. The author posited that these dual aspects are significant causes for the marginalization of the TESOL profession, which was viewed by preservice teachers in the study as being little more than a source of professional development. Despite the constraints on the TESOL profession that the author found, the remedies proposed include utilizing ESOL specialists as providers of professional development, a potential source of education for preservice teachers.

Diniz de Figueiredo, Hammill, and Fredricks (2010) provided further evidence of the marginalization of the TESOL profession in their study of empathy in preservice teachers. Their research demonstrates that the district's or school's ESOL specialist can provide substantial assistance to classroom teachers of ELs by sharing both cultural insights and information about second language acquisition. Preservice teachers should be encouraged to utilize the wealth of information regarding the instruction of ELs that can be obtained from the ESOL specialist.

Cho and McDonnough (2009) examined shared responsibility difficulties noted by high school science teachers instructing ELs. The researchers stated that teachers' perceptions regarding the shared responsibility of educating ELs diminish as they struggle with language barriers that can accompany EL students' lack of background knowledge in the sciences. Although in-service and professional development are posited as potential remedies, the overall perception that ELs do not belong in mainstream classrooms would likely persist unless intense, prolonged cultural and linguistic strategies could be provided to teachers and/or to preservice teachers. Bandura's work (2012) would seem to support this assertion.

DelliCarpini and Alonso (2014) also researched shared responsibility challenges experienced by high school math and science teachers of ELs. The authors found that teachers express concern regarding the appropriateness of including ELs in mainstream math and science classes, and fail to support the notion of shared responsibility in educating ELs. Following a program implementing coursework at the preservice teacher level, teachers' attitudes and teaching practices shifted in a positive direction toward the inclusion of ELs in mainstream classrooms. When ELs are readily included, it follows that cultural mismatch should diminish.

Inclusive behaviors were discussed as Cheatham, Jimenez-Silva, Wodrich, and Kasai (2014) examined 214 preservice teachers. They noted that when the cohort was provided with information regarding an EL's home language, English language proficiency level, and a description of the student's literacy level, preservice teachers were much more likely to attribute the EL's classroom behaviors to a language deficit. The authors proposed that such knowledge be given to classroom teachers and to teachers-in-training to lower the rate of unsubstantiated referrals to ESE interventions.

In studying self-efficacy scores among 62 PSTs, Durgunoglu and Hughes (2010) found that self-efficacy relates to teacher commitment, teacher strategies, and behavior changes. They further noted that self-efficacy levels remain stable over the years, which could negatively impact the teaching of ELs whose low achievement may be viewed as being based on factors outside of the teacher's control. They noted that preservice teachers express low self-efficacy in teaching ELs, and that mentoring teachers often fail to provide adequate guidance to the teachers-in-training in teaching isolated ELs. Intervention could lower unsubstantiated biases against ELs. Another 2010 study (Zong, Griffith, Zhang, and Klenke) found similar outcomes as

preservice teachers shifted their attitudes toward a more inclusive classroom environment for ELs, following intervention.

Professional constructs are further explored by Tran (2015), who studied a comparison of efficacy levels between teachers holding ESL certification as opposed to teachers without this credential. Efficacy levels were statistically significant, demonstrating that teachers holding ESL certification show greater competence in teaching ELs. Results indicate that all states should prepare teacher candidates to obtain initial licensure with an ESOL-infused curriculum.

Examining inclusive views, Hamann and Reeves (2013) synthesized historically differing worldviews, inductions into the teaching field, presumed teaching responsibilities, and teacher preparation programs in the United States. They concluded that historically, teachers have failed to view ELs as part of their professional responsibility, and that teacher preparation programs have inadequately prepared preservice teachers in the skills and capabilities necessary for successful instruction of ELs. Work remains to be done to improve teacher self-efficacy.

### **Language Immersion Experiences**

Teacher educators assume the unique responsibility of “teaching the teachers,” a phrase acknowledging their role in educating students who will eventually become classroom teachers or school administrators in the PreK-12 U. S. public school arena. The need for critical, ongoing self-reflection is inherent in such employment because the attitudes and biases of education professors can be taught, albeit unwittingly, to their students, who are preservice teachers. In examining the instructional practices that best support the educational experiences of ELs, there is reason to conclude that the development of empathic and caring behaviors toward all classroom students is an essential component of the successful educator’s skill set.

Language immersion experiences in the fostering of empathic and caring behaviors in preservice teachers can provide a deeper understanding of “otherness” among teachers-in-training who instruct ELs, as is documented by the research. De Oliveira (2011) designed a language immersion math simulation activity in Brazilian Portuguese to increase preservice teacher empathy for ELs. In the simulation, a multi-step, complicated math procedure was taught in Brazilian Portuguese to monolingual English-speaking teachers-in-training, both with and without supportive ESOL strategies. Preservice teachers reported feeling frustrated by their lack of language skills, and subsequently gained empathy for ELs.

A paired, bilingual immersion environmental education program was utilized by Arreguin-Anderson and Garza (2014) to study the development of empathy for ELs among monolingual English-speaking preservice teachers. The authors noted that as monolingual teachers-in-training began to rely on the linguistic assistance of their bilingual peers, who were also preservice teachers, in order to complete the assigned tasks, their level of empathy and caring increased. The authors posited that monolingual classmates would more easily develop caring behaviors in classrooms in which the modeling of the ethics and dynamics of empathic care are demonstrated by teachers of ELs. Ultimately, care reduces the concept of the “other” in the program participants, which could serve to reduce cultural mismatch.

Settlage, Gort, and Ceglie (2014) explored preservice teachers’ empathic perceptions of ELs through the use of Trauma Pedagogy, a language immersion technique in which a physics class was taught entirely in Spanish to monolingual, English-speaking teachers-in-training. For purposes of the study, Whiteness was considered to contain monolingualism in English as a component of this construct. Notions of power and powerlessness combined to disrupt preservice teachers’ biases against ELs by providing them with a content-rich, in-depth lecture in a

language they did not comprehend. The researchers reported that empathy is significantly increased for ELs following treatment, and that notions of Whiteness are challenged as teachers-in-training begin to acknowledge this construct.

Fitts and Gross (2012) further explored the nexus of language use and empathy when they conducted research on the attitudes of preservice teachers who were required to learn a second language, and then to reflect upon this experience. Although language proficiency was not the goal of the experiment, the researchers found that preservice teachers gained practical knowledge of SLA through the learning of a second language, and through subsequent critical reflection. Because colleges typically require study of a second language, teacher educators could mine and apply these research findings in their own classrooms in which ethics and caring behaviors are addressed among cohorts of preservice teachers utilizing reflection.

### **Summary of Mitigation of Cultural Mismatch**

The UNHCR has stated that the population of forcibly displaced persons is growing rapidly, and the USDOE asserts that the population of ELs is increasing, whether they are born in the U.S. or born abroad. Teacher educators who mentor preservice teachers during practicum or internship experiences, along with the preservice teachers themselves, must be academically and professionally knowledgeable regarding cultural differences, cultural similarities, and the processes of second language acquisition. In order to best educate the increasing group of young pioneers, who will present in U. S. classrooms as ELs, this knowledge is fundamental. All educators must understand the concepts that underlie cultural mismatch, and begin steps to remediate personal biases, eliminate negative value judgements against ELs, and be vigilant about any assertion of “otherness” in the classroom.

Increasingly, preservice teachers must also be prepared to compassionately and fairly encounter political, economic, cultural, racial, identity, and social issues, and do so with an aim to advocate for the educational advancement of all students. Preservice teachers need to strive to become more understanding of the diversity spectrum that they will encounter in U. S. public schools, and can capably do so by implementing and following a mandate of social justice in their classroom teaching. In as much as education will continue to preside as the gatekeeper to a robust array of opportunities, the teacher-in-training must become more socially just. This action will enable educators-in-training to become more capable of providing inclusive and welcoming representation of the school community to ELs. The pluralistic society upon which the democratic principles of equity and fairness are built will be most successfully promulgated through the execution of teaching consistent with theories based in notions of social justice.

Preservice teacher attitudes and perceptions of ELs can adversely impact the learning experience of this growing student population. Constructed professional identity as experienced by preservice teachers, the use of discourse and empathy development, acknowledgement of the presence of cultural mismatch, cultural mismatch remediated by service learning projects, cultural mismatch and the marginalization of the TESOL profession, shared responsibility for the teaching of ELs, literacy concerns relating to ELs, and immersion programs for teachers-in-training are some of the many aspects to consider in relation to preservice teacher attitudes and perceptions of ELs in mainstream classrooms.

Research supports and demonstrates conclusively that there are many venues through which to recognize and ameliorate cultural mismatch between preservice teachers and ELs, including the options discussed. With abundant resources at hand, the teacher-in-training should

intentionally prepare to teach content matter and second language acquisition to ELs, and to do so using unbiased, practical strategies that promote and model inclusivity in the classroom.

As the research has substantiated, much of this knowledge can be easily acquired by preservice teachers. Educators-in-training must understand the concepts that underlie cultural bias, and begin steps to remediate personal biases, value judgements against ELs, and any assertion of “otherness” in the classroom. The need for further research to inculcate a deeper understanding of the cultural mismatch phenomenon between preservice teachers and ELs is clearly substantiated by the limited research currently available, particularly as it relates to these two distinct populations.

## CHAPTER 3: Research Methodology

### Research Methodology

#### Introduction

The purpose of this study was to gauge preservice teachers' potential bias toward English Learners (ELs) in the PreK-12 public school setting. As educators-in-training progress through their college and/or university teacher education coursework, they will likely encounter ELs during practicum and internship experiences. Bias held toward ELs, whether the preservice teacher is aware or unaware of it, can negatively impact the education of the EL. The survey instrument used in this study, along with its concomitant reliability and validity estimates, are described, as is the follow-up semi-structured interview conducted with the focus group. Research procedures used in the administration of the survey instrument, along with the focus group interview, are explained. The chapter concludes with a description of the data analysis procedures utilized in the exploration of the research questions.

Preservice teachers' potential biases toward ELs were examined through quantitative and qualitative measures in order to achieve a more thorough understanding of the views held by college students studying to become teachers. Data from this study could potentially add to the collective knowledge of research as it relates to bias identification and bias reduction efforts supported by teacher education programs. By exploring potential bias in preservice teachers, college and university teacher education program directors and professors can make better-informed decisions regarding how best to strive toward bias recognition and bias reduction in teacher preparation programs. Personal demographics of the preservice teachers and potential prior educational exposure to ELs are the independent variables in this study, and measures of

self-reported cross-cultural adaptability on the survey instrument is the dependent variable that was investigated.

### **Research Question 1.**

Do preservice teachers who have completed an ethics course with an ethnographic interview in the ESOL Endorsement sequence (control group) demonstrate more positive attitudes toward ELs than preservice teachers who have not taken an ethics course in the sequence (experimental group)?

Hypothesis 1: There will be a statistically significant difference in survey scores of preservice teachers who have completed an ethics course including an ethnographic interview in the ESOL Endorsement sequence when compared with scores from preservice teachers who have not completed an ESOL Endorsement ethics course.

### **Research Question 2.**

Could interviews held between preservice teachers and Adult ESOL learners precipitate any noticeable changes in potential biases held by preservice teachers?

Hypothesis 2: There will be a statistically significant relationship between preservice teachers' potential biases toward ELs and the interview conducted with Adult ESOL learners.

### **Research Question 3.**

Based on a semi-structured focus group interview, what factors might be noted by preservice teachers, following treatment, as factors that enabled teachers-in-training to review, and possibly rethink, their potential biases toward ELs?

Hypothesis 3: Factors noted by preservice teachers, following treatment, as concepts that enabled them to review and potentially rethink their potential biases, will vary according to the individual.

## Population and Sample

The study was conducted during the fall semester of 2017 in a small, private, liberal arts college in Florida. The target population was preservice teachers attending an undergraduate teacher preparation program in the U.S. The sample consisted of two groups of preservice teachers who attended the college, and represented random sampling. In a random sample, all members of the preservice teacher population who had not yet taken or completed the ESOL Endorsement coursework, had an equal probability of participating in the study (Ary, D., Jacobs, L., Sorensen, C., and Walker, D., 2012). The sample was selected for convenience and was accessible, which were necessities in order to complete the research study.

The accessible volunteers were preservice teachers at the liberal arts college, and were representative of preservice teachers in the U.S. At the conclusion of the study, the researcher collected 22 responses from the control group, and 29 from the experimental group. The demographics of the control group educators-in-training who volunteered to participate in the study included 22 preservice teachers who had completed an ethics-based cross-cultural communications course in partial fulfillment of Florida's ESOL endorsement sequence, and who had conducted an ethnographic interview with an Adult ESOL learner. Nineteen volunteers in the control group self-identified as female, one volunteer was male, and two volunteers declined to state a gender identity. In terms of age, 11 volunteers self-identified as being 18-23 years of age, six were 24-30 years, one was 31-40 years, two were 51-60 years, and two declined to state an age range. The demographics of the control group were representative of both traditional and non-traditional college age groupings, and were predominantly female.

Volunteers from the experimental group were drawn from third-year college students enrolled in their first Education Department course. The experimental group of volunteers had

not taken, or begun, any of the Florida ESOL endorsement sequence of courses, and had never conducted an ethnographic interview with a non-native speaker of English. All 29 volunteers self-identified as female. Nineteen volunteers stated their age range as 18-23 years, three were 24-30, and seven were 31-40 years of age. The demographics of the experimental group were representative of both traditional and non-traditional college age groupings, and self-identified as female.

A total of 29 preservice teachers volunteered for the experimental group ( $N=29$ ), 22 preservice teachers volunteered for the control group ( $N=22$ ), and 5 students participated as focus group members ( $n=5$ ).

### **Description of Instruments**

The Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI) is an instrument designed to assess adaptability through measurement of an individual's scores on four adaptability dimensions, namely emotional resilience, flexibility/openness, perceptual acuity, and personal autonomy (Kelley and Meyers, 2015). These dimensions encourage survey "participants (to) explore their own cultural identity and learn to improve their interactions with other cultures" (HRDQ, 2017).

The dimensions are described here:

1. "Emotional Resilience: Measures how one balances emotions, navigates difficult feelings and maintains a positive outlook.
2. "Flexibility/Openness: Indicates how nonjudgmental and tolerant one can be towards new ideas and customs. This also measures how much a person enjoys encountering different ways of thinking and behaving.
3. "Perceptual Acuity: Measures how effective an individual is at discerning the subtle verbal and nonverbal cues in a cultural environment. Perceptual acuity encompasses attention to detail, sensitivity to the feelings of others, and general awareness of nuanced interpersonal context.
4. "Personal Autonomy: Indicates how dependent one is on familiar cultural cues to form an identity. This dimension shows how strongly one retains his or her self and values in any environment or culture" (Kelley and Meyers, 2015).

Because the “purpose of this inventory is to help assess an individual’s adaptability to...interact effectively with people of other cultures” (HRDQ, 2017), then the instrument can be utilized with groups or with individuals to learn more about potential bias, known or unknown.

Therefore, it was appropriate for use in this research project.

The instrument is complete in one section, totaling 50 questions. The CCAI is situated so that “*emotional resilience* (is) measured by 18 items, *flexibility/openness* by 15 items, *perceptual acuity* by 10 items and *personal autonomy* by 7 items” (Nguyen, Biderman, and McNary, 2010). The CCAI was designed so that responses are scored according to a six-point Likert scale, with 1=definitely true up to 6=definitely not true. Reliability was established by Kraemer and Beckstead (2003). Validity was established by Nguyen, Biderman, and McNary (2010). The CCAI utilizes four scale dimensions (Kelley and Meyers, 2015).

### **Research Procedures and Time Period**

Concepts upon which this study was based arose during doctoral classes completed throughout the researcher’s curriculum. The doctoral dissertation committee approved the researcher’s proposal in May of 2017. Permission to complete the study was sought on June 13, 2017, and was received from the Institutional Review Board at Carson-Newman University on June 28, 2017 (Appendix B). Once approval was received from the IRB at Carson-Newman University, the researcher secured access to the intended sample population via formal written contact with the coordinator at the liberal arts college. The researcher received an email regarding notification of approval to proceed with the study from the liberal arts college’s representative on July 6, 2017 (Appendix C).

In the fall of 2017, the researcher provided a brief explanation of the quantitative survey instrument (HRDQ, 2017), its purpose for the researcher, informed consent, and a written notice

of confidentiality to the volunteer participants, who were students at the liberal arts college (Appendix A). Volunteers were informed in writing that the survey responses would not impact their grade or result in any repercussions. They were also advised in writing that their participation was not required and that they could withdraw from the study at any time. Volunteers had the opportunity to opt out of the study if they did not want to participate, and any volunteer who declined to participate was excluded from the study. No personally identifiable data were collected, so no coding was needed to ensure confidentiality. Volunteers were instructed to not include their name on the survey because all responses were intended to be anonymous. Responses to each CCAI survey were scored according to a six-point Likert scale. The survey was administered after class to avoid disruption of instruction. Because surveys only asked volunteers about their beliefs regarding cross-cultural adaptability, no harm or adverse effects were anticipated for the study's participants. All survey results and written communications from volunteers were kept in a locked cabinet in the researcher's office.

The qualitative research conducted with the focus group was concluded the fall of 2017. Each volunteer in the focus group was provided with the same written consent form that noted the length of the study, the purpose of the study session for the researcher, and a written notice of confidentiality to the volunteer participants, who were students at the liberal arts college. Volunteers were informed in writing that their responses would not impact their grade or result in any repercussions. They were also advised in writing that their participation was not required and that they could withdraw from the study at any time. Volunteers had the opportunity to opt out of the study if they did not want to participate, and any volunteer who declined to participate was excluded from the interview. Personally identifiable data relating only to the volunteers' initials were collected, and were protected via the use of code numbers to ensure confidentiality.

There were no written communications received from the volunteers. Handwritten notes written by the researcher during the focus group meeting were kept in a locked cabinet in the researcher's office.

The tripartite combination of the Likert-scale, ranking system, and semi-structured interview with the focus group provided a degree of triangulation to the data acquired, which confirmed the data (Ary et al., 2012).

### **Data Collection Procedures.**

Once the researcher secured approval for the survey from the methodologist and the chairperson for the dissertation, the survey was purchased from the CCAI website. An email that included the notification of approval to proceed from the dean of the liberal arts college was sent to the Chairman of the Education Department at the liberal arts college. The CCAI paper version was utilized in the study, so a link to the CCAI website was made available to the volunteers on the consent form, and provided the overview of the survey. The consent to participate form assured the participants that the information provided would remain anonymous, and also provided consent to participate, as required by the liberal arts college. The consent form explained the purpose, provided context for the research, and gave the instructions. The demographics form (Appendix D) provided participant demographics. As participants completed the CCAI survey, data was collected via paper surveys in order to calculate total scores. The findings for the semi-structured, focus-group interview are included in Chapter 4.

### **Data Analysis.**

The target sample number was 51 preservice teachers, which is statistically appropriate for a t-Test for control and experimental groups involving random sampling, and utilizing an

alpha level of .05 and a chi-square value of .7025 for the control group. In all, a total of 51 participants were included in the study.

The data from the CCAI survey were collected through the CCAI paper survey program. The CCAI survey was a Likert-type scale that included six intervals ranging from 1=definitely true to 6=definitely not true. The data analysis utilized the Microsoft Excel Analysis Tool Pak. Both the control group and the experimental group were known to be comprised of random samples chosen for convenience, and comparison of demographics established that both samples were representative of the target population. In the quantitative analysis, the Jarque-Bera test was performed for each group. Additionally, a QQ Plot was created for each group.

To analyze Research Question 1, the results from the CCAI were used to find a sum total score for all four scale dimensions in the control group and in the pre-test group. Additionally, the mean, median, and standard deviation were calculated. Since all scores are valid, then totals are valid.

The researcher tested the assumption for normality by using a QQ Plot, and confirmed results using the Jarque-Bera test for each group. Because establishing the averages for both groups required methods of increasing the likelihood of fair comparisons, and to generate correct conclusions regarding the research data, these methods were utilized. In the control group, at an alpha level of .05 and a chi-square value of .7025, we failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating that the control group data is normal. A second test for normalcy was also run. In the control group, the QQ plot is normal because the spread of points for actual values is close to expected values. Proof that the control group data is a normal data set is established.

In the pre-test group, at an alpha level of .05 and a chi-square value of .0766, we failed to reject the null, indicating that the pre-test data group is normal. A second test for normalcy was

also run. In the pre-test group, the QQ plot is normal because the spread of points for actual values is close to expected values. Proof that the pre-test group data is a normal data set is established.

This analysis of control group data and pre-test group data enabled the researcher to comprehend statistically significant differences in preservice teacher beliefs as they relate to cross-cultural adaptability in the teaching of preK-12 EL students in the public schools.

Next, results were calculated for the CCAI administered post-test to the experimental group, in order to address Research Question 2. In the post-test group data, at an alpha level of .05 and a chi-square value of 1.2175, we failed to reject the null hypothesis, indicating that the post-test group data is normal. Initially, the QQ Plot was performed. In the QQ Plot, actual values varied a little over the expected values. However, a second test for normalcy was also run. In the post-test group data, the Jarque-Bera test failed to reject the null hypothesis, so the pre-test group data is normal. Proof that the control group data is a normal data set is established.

This statistical analysis offered the researcher insight into the cross-cultural adaptability measures of preservice teachers who are preparing to teach ELs. Tables are included and explicated.

Finally, semi-structured interviews were conducted with five participants ( $n=5$ ) to address Research Question 3. Because “it is impossible to develop a meaningful understanding of human experience without” an understanding of the context in which beliefs are generated (Ayr et al., 2012) (p. 449), a qualitative approach was utilized. A purposive, homogeneous sample of preservice teacher volunteers from the experimental group was selected post-test in order to provide the researcher with additional understanding of the effect of the treatment. The

qualitative study utilized an interview guide comprised of five questions (Appendix E) in a semi-structured interview with the focus group. To provide anonymity and confidentiality to focus group participants, code numbers were utilized to note which responses were provided by which participant, without revealing the preservice teachers' identities. To analyze the qualitative data collected from the interviews, the researcher looked for trends and patterns as it related to the participants' perceptions toward ELs, as suggested by Ayrs et al. (Ayrs, et al., 2003). This coding scheme analyzed linguistic responses as patterns in which sameness of contextualized meaning was represented by similar phrases. Similar phrases were grouped into discrete categories of linguistic responses. Following coding for sameness of meaning, sum total counts were conducted for each category of phrases.

### **Summary**

One expected outcome in the experimental group was that participants would show bias toward ELs, with a higher degree of bias being linked to a smaller degree of adaptability, based on understandings examined in Chapter 2. Adaptability was deemed to be linked to self-efficacy as described by Bandura (2012). Another expected outcome in the experimental group was that a larger degree of adaptability would engender a smaller degree of bias, based on understandings of cultural mismatch remediation examined in Chapter 2. A third expected outcome involved the relationship between the control group and the experimental group post-test and post-treatment. It posited that, following treatment, participants would exhibit a lower degree of bias with a higher degree of adaptability since there would be an expected increase in self-efficacy.

The collection of data in the research was quantitative and qualitative in nature, resulting in a quantitative study with qualitative insights. Chapter 3 included the introduction, research questions, population and sample, description of the instruments, research procedures, time

period, data collection procedures, data analysis, and the summary. The results of the study and the analysis of the data are presented in Chapter 4.

## CHAPTER 4: Analysis of the Data

### Introduction

Chapter 4 describes the results found in the demographic survey that was utilized, the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory survey (CCAI), and the focus group questionnaire. Additionally, Chapter 4 reports the statistical analysis of the data gathered from all instruments included in the study. The purpose of this study was to explore the perceptions held by preservice teachers as it relates to the teaching of ELs. The chapter is arranged so that every research question and the hypotheses are examined together with the statistical outcomes obtained from the data analysis. Data analysis was performed utilizing sum total counts, measurement of the mean, the median, and the standard deviation, QQ Plots, Jarque-Bera tests, and linguistic coding. Descriptive statistics extracted from the demographic survey are presented in Tables 4.1 and 4.2. Descriptive statistics for the CCAI are presented in Tables 4.3–4.5. Descriptive statistics in Tables 4.6-4.8 describe normality checks. Descriptive statistics in tables 4.9-4.11 describe equal variance checks. Descriptive statistics in Table 4.12 provide results of the check for outliers in the differences of pre- and post-test (paired samples) data. Final tests and conclusions are provided in Tables 4.13-4.15. In qualitative testing, descriptive accounts are discussed. Chapter 4 concludes with a summary examination of the statistical analysis, as well as the overall findings from the research study.

### Descriptive Statistics

Fifty-one ( $N=51$ ) volunteer college students participated in the study. All of the volunteers attend a small, private liberal arts college in Florida. The CCAI was completed by all 51 volunteers, and all students' data was utilized since every question was answered. The focus group consisted of five ( $n=5$ ) students, and this number is included in the total number of 51

student volunteers. The completion rate was 100%, as was the response rate. The demographic survey statistical results are presented in Table 4.1 for the control group, and Table 4.2 for the experimental group. Overall, 74.5% of respondents self-identified as “Caucasian or White,” which is lower than the national average of 82% among teachers (Boser, 2014). Additionally, the age range of 18-23, representing a culturally traditional age range for college students (Henking, 2013) included only 60.7% of respondents. The female-to-male ratio among volunteers was 98%, which is substantially higher than the nationally reported average of 56.37 females to 43.64 males (NCES, 2017). All control group data were derived from volunteers who had completed an ethnographic interview in a previous ESOL Endorsement ethics in a cross-cultural communications class at the college. Alternatively, experimental group data were derived from students taking their first semester of education courses at the college, and who had never completed an ethnographic interview in any ethics course at the college.

Table 4.1  
*Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Survey of  
 the Control Group*

Category	Descriptor	N	%	
Gender Identity	Female	21	95.5%	
	Male	1	4.5%	
	N=	22		
Race	African American or Black	3	13.6%	
	Asian American	0	0.0%	
	Biracial	1	4.5%	
	Caucasian or White	17	77.3%	
	Hispanic or Latino/Latina	1	4.5%	
	Middle Eastern or North African	0	0.0%	
	Multiracial	0	0.0%	
	Native American	0	0.0%	
	Pacific Islander or Hawaiian Islander	0	0.0%	
	Age	18 to 23	12	54.5%
		24 to 30	5	22.7%
31 to 40		1	4.5%	
41 to 50		0	0.0%	
51 to 60		2	9.1%	
61 to 70		0	0.0%	
71 and over		0	0.0%	
Undeterminable		2	9.1%	

Table 4.2  
*Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Survey of  
 the Experimental Group*

Category	Descriptor	N	%	
Gender Identity	Female	29	100.0%	
	Male	0	0.0%	
	N=	29		
Race	African American or Black	6	20.7%	
	Asian American	0	0.0%	
	Biracial	0	0.0%	
	Caucasian or White	21	72.4%	
	Hispanic or Latino/Latina	1	3.4%	
	Middle Eastern or North African	0	0.0%	
	Multiracial	0	0.0%	
	Native American	0	0.0%	
	Pacific Islander or Hawaiian Islander	0	0.0%	
	Undeterminable	1	3.4%	
	Age	18 to 23	19	65.5%
		24 to 30	3	10.3%
		31 to 40	7	24.1%
41 to 50		0	0.0%	
51 to 60		0	0.0%	
61 to 70		0	0.0%	
71 and over		0	0.0%	

In the CCAI quantitative survey instrument, summation across the four scale dimensions derived a raw score for the control group ( $N=22$ ), and raw scores for the experimental group, pretest ( $N=29$ ) and posttest ( $N=29$ ). These findings are reported in Tables 4.3-4.5. The CCAI

Scale Dimensions on the quantitative survey instrument are described below (Kelley and Meyers, 2015):

**Emotional Resilience (ER):** Ability to cope with stressful situations while maintaining a balanced emotional attitude, as well as the flexibility needed to cope with novel experiences are examined.

**Flexibility/Openness (FO):** Adaptability to alternative ways of thinking and behaviors different from those one might be accustomed to. Tolerance for difference is measured.

**Perceptual Acuity (PAC):** Cross-cultural communication skills for both verbal and nonverbal language, accuracy in communication, and sensitivity to others are scaled.

**Personal Autonomy (PA):** Self-identity and the ability to remain self-confident while among persons whose cultural beliefs may differ from one's own are explored.

The limits for each scale dimension are ER = 0-108, FO = 0-90, PAC = 0-60, and PA = 0-42 (Kelley and Meyers, 2015). Summation across the dimension derived a raw score, achieving a total score for all four scale dimensions. Individual mean, median, and standard deviation scores were obtained for all three groups. Since all scores are valid, then the totals are valid.

**Table 4.3** Control Group Individual Mean Scores for Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory

Control Group: N=22									
Out of:	108	90	60	42		300			
Volunteer	ER	FO	PAC	PA		Cont Total	Mean	Median	STD
1	83	55	54	34		226.00	56.50	54.50	20.14
2	82	61	50	37		230.00	57.50	55.50	19.05
3	66	51	49	34		200.00	50.00	50.00	13.09
4	80	57	54	35		226.00	56.50	55.50	18.45
5	77	62	48	36		223.00	55.75	55.00	17.71
6	75	57	45	36		213.00	53.25	51.00	16.86
7	92	60	56	40		248.00	62.00	58.00	21.79
8	74	54	50	30		208.00	52.00	52.00	18.04
9	89	65	55	33		242.00	60.50	60.00	23.23
10	83	54	48	31		216.00	54.0	51.00	21.65
11	89	60	49	35		233.00	58.25	54.50	22.91
12	74	61	50	32		217.00	54.25	55.50	17.78
13	80	56	51	36		223.00	55.75	53.50	18.26
14	85	63	57	31		236.00	59.00	60.00	22.21
15	83	55	51	36		225.00	56.25	53.00	19.62
16	78	62	45	32		217.00	54.25	53.50	20.04
17	72	60	42	38		212.00	53.00	51.00	15.87
18	95	67	52	40		254.00	63.50	59.50	23.73
19	84	68	55	39		246.00	61.50	61.50	19.12
20	85	61	52	39		237.00	59.25	56.50	19.40
21	81	54	47	34		216.00	54.00	50.50	19.82
22	75	58	47	34		214.00	53.50	52.50	17.37

Count	22				
Alpha Lvl	0.05				
Chi-Sq.CV	5.991				
Mean	81.00	59.14	50.32	35.09	225.55
Median	81.50	60.00	50.00	35.00	224.00
Std Dev	6.91	4.46	3.88	2.94	13.97
Variance	47.71	19.93	15.08	8.66	195.02
Skewness	0.00572141	0.21878276	0.16279805	0.0995089	0.373713
Kurtosis	0.05028751	-	0.39555748	0.8124853	0.455739
Jarque-Bera	0.002348104	0.260515668	0.167721521	0.61419827	0.318413
Test	Fail to Reject				
Normal?	Normal	Normal	Normal	Normal	Normal

**Table 4.4** Pre-test Group Individual Mean Scores for Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory

Experimental Group: N=29									
Volunteer	ER	FO	PAC	PA		Pre Total	Mean	Median	STD
23	79	53	46	36		214	53.50	49.50	18.38
24	75	49	51	34		209	52.25	50.00	16.96
25	89	52	46	40		227	56.75	49.00	22.05
26	71	54	40	34		199	49.75	47.00	16.46
27	84	59	44	34		221	55.25	51.50	21.75
28	90	64	52	39		245	61.25	58.00	21.72
29	63	59	38	31		191	47.75	48.50	15.65
30	68	57	42	32		199	49.75	49.50	15.92
31	74	59	44	37		214	53.50	51.50	16.46
32	68	58	45	33		204	51.00	51.50	15.25
33	67	49	43	34		193	48.25	46.00	13.94
34	91	64	59	38		252	63.00	61.50	21.80
35	56	48	34	25		163	40.75	41.00	13.89
36	70	56	54	38		218	54.50	55.00	13.10
37	84	61	43	30		218	54.50	52.00	23.42
38	68	52	40	29		189	47.25	46.00	16.72
39	63	57	45	31		196	49.00	51.00	14.14
40	77	57	49	28		211	52.75	53.00	20.27
41	78	62	47	34		221	55.25	54.50	19.00
42	73	49	50	21		193	48.25	49.50	21.28
43	82	64	49	37		232	58.00	56.50	19.44
44	82	59	49	37		227	56.75	54.00	19.09
45	74	55	44	37		210	52.50	49.50	16.13
46	85	59	42	31		217	54.25	50.50	23.51
47	68	50	45	30		193	48.25	47.50	15.67
48	75	49	53	36		213	53.25	51.00	16.21
49	92	55	54	35		236	59.00	54.50	23.85
50	94	58	58	38		248	62.00	58.00	23.32
51	88	60	52	35		235	58.75	56.00	22.11

Count 29

Alpha Level 0.05

Chi-Sq. CV 5.991

Mean	76.83	56.14	46.83	33.59	213.38
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Median	75.00	57.00	46.00	34.00	214.00
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Std Dev	9.90	4.88	5.84	4.33	20.07
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Variance	98.00	23.84	34.15	18.75	402.82
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	-	-	-	-	-
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Skewness	0.0076	0.14708	0.139120	1.0261881	0.1237115
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	49222	7694	984	39	25
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Kurtosis	0.7802	0.96047	0.108179	1.2727780	0.2193640
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	39631	7433	911	95	28
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Jarque-Bera	0.7356 72474	1.14084 9957	0.037527 862	3.2299066 29	0.0766386 85
Test	Fail to Reject				
Normal?	Normal	Normal	Normal	Normal	Normal

**Table 4.5** *Post-test Group Individual Mean scores for Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory*

Experimental Group: N=29									
Volunteer	ER	FO	PAC	PA		Post Total	Mean	Median	STD
23	79	54	48	39		220.00	55.00	51.00	17.15
24	79	56	50	28		213.00	53.25	53.00	20.97
25	86	49	43	41		219.00	54.75	46.00	21.11
26	64	52	40	31		187.00	46.75	46.00	14.36
27	84	60	51	35		230.00	57.50	55.50	20.47
28	89	63	54	38		244.00	61.00	58.50	21.34
29	62	57	43	31		193.00	48.25	50.00	14.03
30	62	57	41	30		190.00	47.50	49.00	14.71
31	76	62	53	40		231.00	57.75	57.50	15.15
32	71	54	46	33		204.00	51.00	50.00	15.90
33	73	62	39	35		209.00	52.25	50.50	18.25
34	92	61	60	40		253.00	63.25	60.50	21.47
35	63	54	41	29		187.00	46.75	47.50	14.89
36	83	59	58	36		236.00	59.00	58.50	19.20
37	78	58	54	35		225.00	56.25	56.00	17.63
38	76	57	45	34		212.00	53.00	51.00	17.98
39	66	60	47	32		205.00	51.25	53.50	15.09
40	71	55	50	30		206.00	51.50	52.50	16.90
41	81	64	45	34		224.00	56.00	54.50	20.77
42	71	52	46	27		196.00	49.00	49.00	18.13
43	86	61	50	37		234.00	58.50	55.50	20.79
44	94	62	58	36		250.00	62.50	60.00	23.91
45	84	62	46	36		228.00	57.00	54.00	20.94
46	86	64	49	32		231.00	57.75	56.50	22.93
47	84	61	49	37		231.00	57.75	55.00	20.06
48	92	64	55	32		243.00	60.75	59.50	24.81
49	92	61	52	35		240.00	60.00	56.50	23.90
50	98	61	58	39		256.00	64.00	59.50	24.67
51	70	55	44	29		198.00	49.50	49.50	17.33
Count	29								
Alpha Level	0.05								
Chi-Sq. CV	5.991								
Mean	79.03	58.52	48.79	34.17		220.52			
Median	79.00	60.00	49.00	35.00		224.00			
Std Dev	10.34	4.09	5.83	3.86		20.34			
Variance	106.8201	16.75862	33.95566	14.9334		413.61			
Skewness	97	069	502	9754		57635			
	-	-	0.222635	-		-			

	0.105570	0.541886	569	0.04083	0.0788
	534	232		1215	35703
	-	-	-	-	-
Kurtosis	0.951478	0.619775	0.790915	0.89913	1.0006
	007	952	954	738	77663
Jarque-Bera	1.107383	0.818963	0.815763	0.97888	1.2174
	771	527	527	9219	81447
Test	Fail to Reject				
Normal?	Normal	Normal	Normal	Normal	Normal

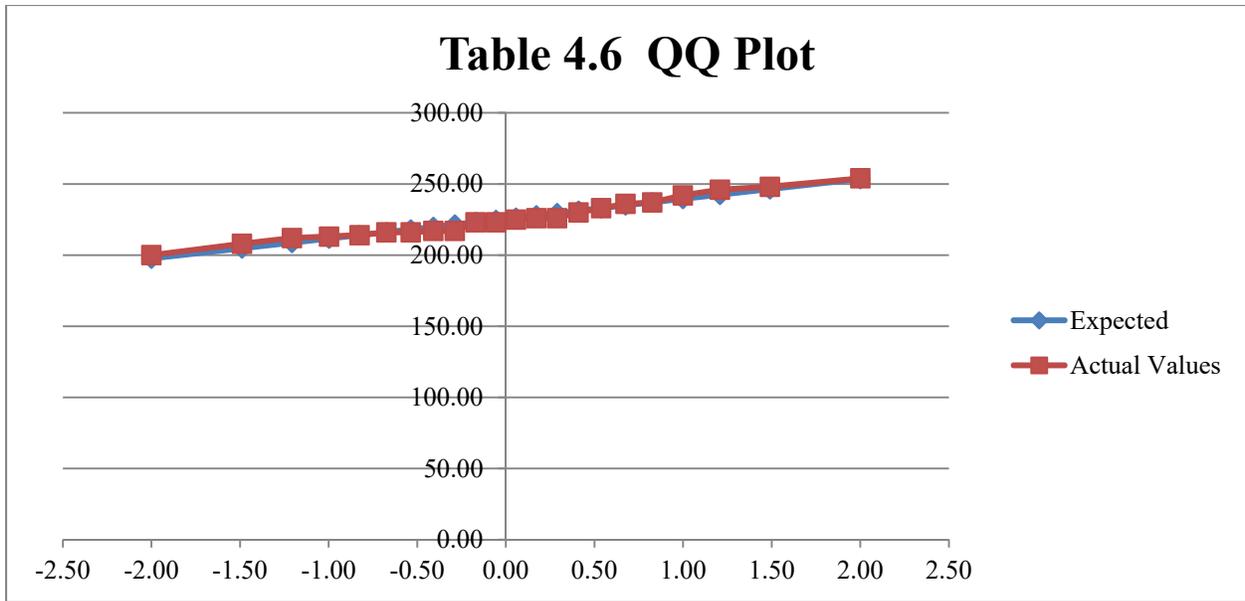
To determine which tests to run, assumptions to be met included random sampling, normality checks, and testing for equal variances. Three tests were needed to find the results.

Normality was established for the control group ( $N=22$ ), the pre-test experimental group ( $N=29$ ), and the post-test experimental group ( $N=29$ ). Results are shown in Tables 4.6-4.8.

Calculations were performed for expected values for the mean and the standard deviation. The Jarque-Bera test was performed, and the QQ Plot was created. The control group data include an alpha level of .05 and a chi-square value of .7025 in the Jarque-Bera test. The control group for QQ Plot is normal because the spread of points for actual values is close to expected, and further examined the normality. The null hypothesis failed to be rejected, indicating that the control group data is normal (Table 4.6).

**Table 4.6** Control Group Normality Check

	Control Data	Distribution	CDF	Expected	Z Value
	200	0.005361212	0.02	197.61	-2.00
	208	0.012974788	0.07	204.74	-1.49
	212	0.017847329	0.11	208.68	-1.21
	213	0.019082013	0.16	211.61	-1.00
	214	0.020297767	0.20	214.02	-0.83
	216	0.022615995	0.25	216.13	-0.67
	216	0.022615995	0.30	218.04	-0.54
	217	0.023689672	0.34	219.82	-0.41
	217	0.023689672	0.39	221.51	-0.29
	223	0.02809663	0.43	223.15	-0.17
	223	0.02809663	0.48	224.75	-0.06
	225	0.028545482	0.52	226.34	0.06
	226	0.028552136	0.57	227.94	0.17
	226	0.028552136	0.61	229.58	0.29
	230	0.027150289	0.66	231.27	0.41
	233	0.02477387	0.70	233.05	0.54
	236	0.021585947	0.75	234.96	0.67
	237	0.02040687	0.80	237.07	0.83
	242	0.014269187	0.84	239.49	1.00
	246	0.00977267	0.89	242.41	1.21
	248	0.007842577	0.93	246.35	1.49
	254	0.00358385	0.98	253.48	2.00
Count	22				
Mean	225.55				
St Dev	13.96501504				
Alpha Lvl	0.05				
Chi-Sq. CV	5.991				
Skewness	0.373713969				
Kurtosis	-0.455739511				
Jarque-Bera	0.702484773				
Significant	Fail to Reject				
Normal?	Normal				

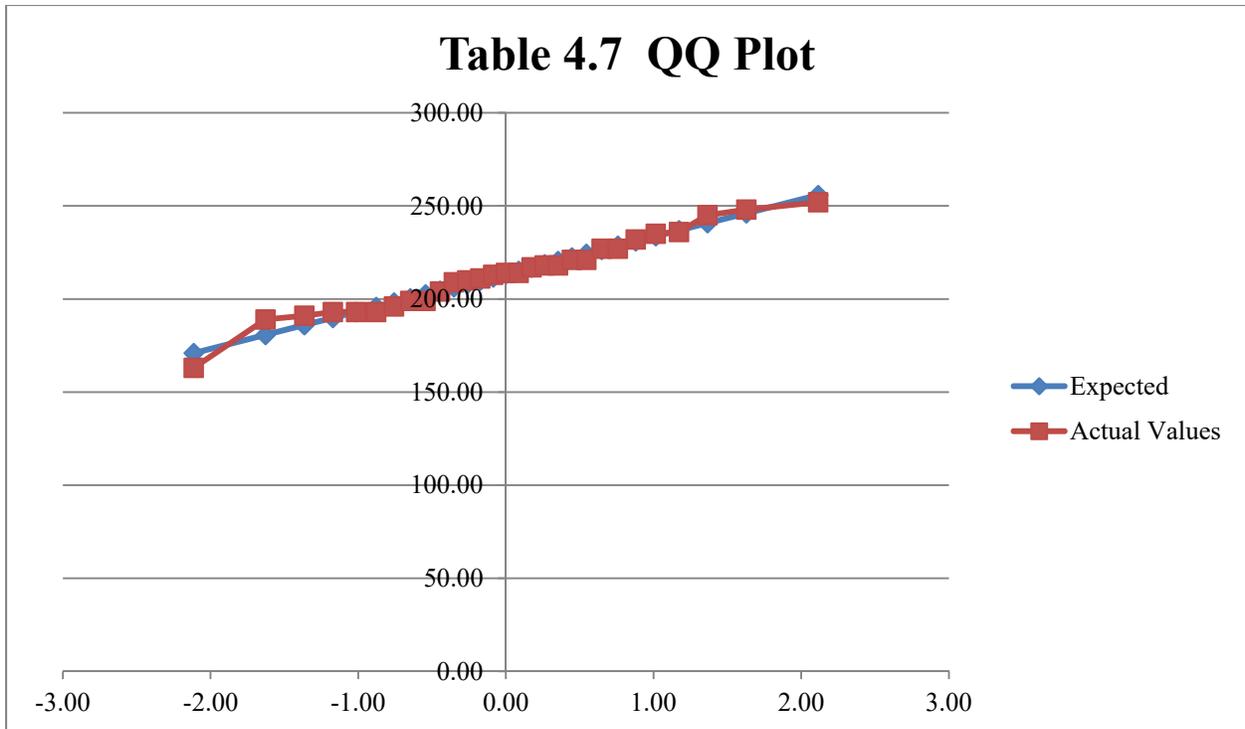


Calculations were performed for expected values for the mean and the standard deviation. The Jarque-Bera test was performed, and the QQ Plot was created. The pre-test experimental group data include an alpha level of .05 and a chi-square value of .0766 in the Jarque-Bera test. The pre-test group for QQ Plot is normal because the spread of points for actual values is close to expected, and further examined the normality. The null hypothesis failed to be rejected, indicating that the pre-test group data is normal (Table 4.7).

**Table 4.7** *Pre-Test Group Normality Check*

	Pre Data	Distribution	CDF	Expected	Z Value
	163	0.000851426	0.02	170.94	-2.11
	189	0.00950513	0.05	180.70	-1.63
	191	0.010675071	0.09	185.99	-1.36
	193	0.011870551	0.12	189.87	-1.17
	193	0.011870551	0.16	193.02	-1.01
	193	0.011870551	0.19	195.73	-0.88
	196	0.013662651	0.22	198.16	-0.76
	199	0.015377853	0.26	200.38	-0.65
	199	0.015377853	0.29	202.45	-0.54
	204	0.017821078	0.33	204.42	-0.45
	209	0.019409688	0.36	206.30	-0.35
	210	0.019597516	0.40	208.12	-0.26
	211	0.0197381	0.43	209.89	-0.17
	213	0.019873737	0.47	211.64	-0.09
	214	0.019867784	0.50	213.38	0.00
	214	0.019867784	0.53	215.12	0.09
	217	0.019556457	0.57	216.87	0.17
	218	0.019357419	0.60	218.64	0.26
	218	0.019357419	0.64	220.46	0.35
	221	0.018494834	0.67	222.34	0.45
	221	0.018494834	0.71	224.30	0.54
	227	0.0157887	0.74	226.38	0.65
	227	0.0157887	0.78	228.60	0.76
	232	0.012925398	0.81	231.02	0.88
	235	0.011126657	0.84	233.74	1.01
	236	0.010532108	0.88	236.89	1.17
	245	0.00574585	0.91	240.76	1.36
	248	0.004489802	0.95	246.06	1.63
	252	0.003121024	0.98	255.82	2.11

Count	29
Mean	213.3793103
St Dev	20.07025837
Alpha Lvl	0.05
Chi-Sq CV	5.991
Skewness	-0.123711525
Kurtosis	0.219364028
Jarque-Bera	0.076638685
Significant	Fail to Reject
Normal?	Normal

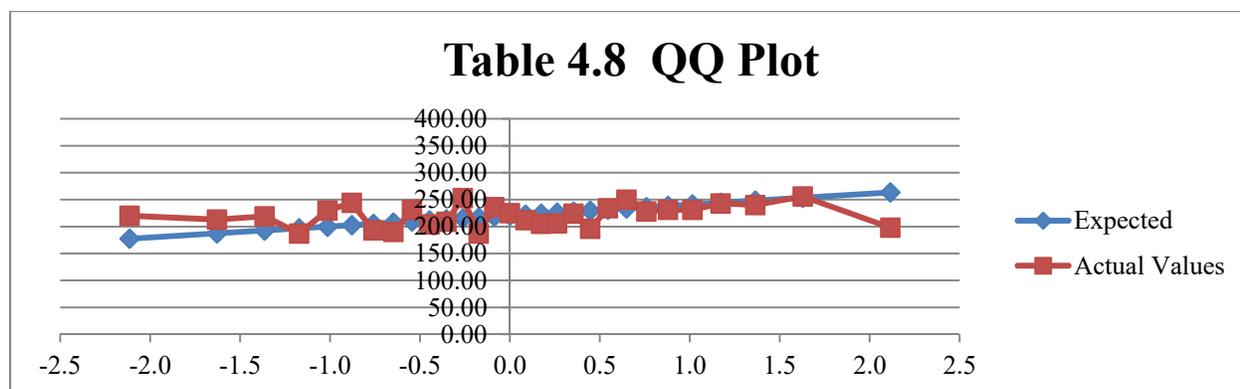


Calculations were performed for expected values for the mean and the standard deviation for the post-test group. The Jarque-Bera test was performed, and the QQ Plot was created. The post-test experimental group data include an alpha level of .05 and a chi-square value of 1.2175 in the Jarque-Bera test. The post-test group for QQ Plot demonstrated that actual values varied a little over the expected. However, the Jarque-Bera test failed to reject the null hypothesis, therefore the post-test group data is normal (Table 4.8).

**Table 4.8** *Post-Test  
Group Normality Check*

Post Data	Distribution	CDF	Expected	Z Value
220	0.019609705	0.02	177.52	-2.11
213	0.018320802	0.05	187.40	-1.63
219	0.019561537	0.09	192.77	-1.36
187	0.005044597	0.12	196.69	-1.17
230	0.017595529	0.16	199.88	-1.01
244	0.010071796	0.19	202.64	-0.88
193	0.007853878	0.22	205.10	-0.76
190	0.006363269	0.26	207.35	-0.65
231	0.017175939	0.29	209.45	-0.54
204	0.014105292	0.33	211.43	-0.45
209	0.016709839	0.36	213.34	-0.35
253	0.005478619	0.40	215.18	-0.26
187	0.005044597	0.43	216.98	-0.17
236	0.014681192	0.47	218.76	-0.09
225	0.019145276	0.50	220.52	0.00
212	0.017969104	0.53	222.28	0.09
205	0.014662233	0.57	224.05	0.17
206	0.01520436	0.60	225.85	0.26
224	0.019330519	0.64	227.70	0.35
196	0.009485016	0.67	229.60	0.45
234	0.015746171	0.71	231.59	0.54
250	0.006859088	0.74	233.69	0.65
228	0.018332261	0.78	235.94	0.76
231	0.017175939	0.81	238.40	0.88
231	0.017175939	0.84	241.15	1.01
243	0.010647281	0.88	244.34	1.17
240	0.012397499	0.91	248.27	1.36
256	0.004281796	0.95	253.63	1.63
198	0.010627327	0.98	263.52	2.11

Count	29
Mean	220.5172414
St Dev	20.33754566
Alpha Lvl	0.05
Chi-Sq. CV	5.991
Skewness	-0.078835703
Kurtosis	-1.000677663
Jarque- Bera	1.217481447
Significant	Fail to Reject
Normal?	Normal



The test for equal variances was run for the control group data, pre-test group data, and post-test group data. Results are shown in Tables 4.9-4.11. F-Test Two-Sample for Variances was run for all three groups.

With an alpha level of .05 and a p-value of .0453, the null hypothesis was rejected, indicating that variances for the control group and the variances for the pre-test group are not equal. Assume unequal variance for further testing (Table 4.9).

Table 4.9 Test for Equal Variances

<b>Table 4.9 F-Test Two-Sample for Variances</b>		
	<i>Cont Total</i>	<i>Pre Total</i>
Mean	225.5454545	213.3793103
Variance	195.021645	402.8152709
Observations	22	29
df	21	28
F	0.484146603	
P(F<=f) one-tail	0.045296312	
F Critical one-tail	0.494330101	

With an alpha level of .05 and a p-value of .0399, the null hypothesis was rejected, indicating that variances for the control group and the variances for the post-test group are not equal. Assume unequal variances for further testing (Table 4.10).

Table 4.10 Test for Equal Variances

<b>Table 4.10</b> <i>F-Test Two-Sample for Variances</i>		
	<i>Cont Total</i>	<i>Post Total</i>
Mean	225.5454545	220.5172414
Variance	195.021645	413.6157635
Observations	22	29
df	21	28
F	0.471504382	
P(F<=f) one-tail	0.039853436	
F Critical one-tail	0.494330101	

With an alpha level of .05 and a p-value of .4723, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected, indicating that variances for the pre-test group and the variances for the post-test group are equal. Assume equal variances for further testing (Table. 4.11). However, for a Paired Sample t-Test, this is an unnecessary assumption.

Table 4.11 Test for Equal Variances

<b>Table 4.11</b> <i>F-Test Two-Sample for Variances</i>		
	<i>Pre Total</i>	<i>Post Total</i>
Mean	213.3793103	220.5172414
Variance	402.8152709	413.6157635
Observations	29	29
df	28	28
F	0.973887619	
P(F<=f) one-tail	0.472342873	
F Critical one-tail	0.531327202	

The check for outliers in the differences of pre- and post-test data groups as paired samples was completed. There are no outliers in the differences between groups because there are no values less than the minimum bounds for outliers, and there are no values greater than the maximum bounds. Results are shown in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12 *Check for Outliers in the Differences of Pre- and Post-Tests (Paired Samples)*

Pre Total	Post Total	Gains in Post
214	220	6
209	213	4
227	219	-8
199	187	-12
221	230	9
245	244	-1
191	193	2
199	190	-9
214	231	17
204	204	0
193	209	16
252	253	1
163	187	24
218	236	18
218	225	7
189	212	23
196	205	9
211	206	-5
221	224	3
193	196	3
232	234	2
227	250	23
210	228	18
217	231	14
193	231	38
213	243	30
236	240	4
248	256	8
235	198	-37
Mean	7.137931034	
St Dev	14.56935173	

Final tests and conclusions are shown in Tables 4.13-4.15. Test 1 included assumptions of random sampling, normality, and variances that cannot be assumed equal. In test 1, the first two tests were not the same (assumed unequal), so the two-sample two-tailed t-Test for Unequal Variances was indicated. After checking the variances, the testing indicated that they were unequal. Two samples were used because there were two groups. The t-Test was utilized

because variances for the population samples were unknown. For test 1, the final conclusion states that with an alpha level of .05 and a p-value of .0139, the null hypothesis is rejected, and there is a significant difference between the control group data and the pre-test group data (Table 4.13).

<b>Table 4.13</b> <i>t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances</i>		
	<i>Control</i>	
	<i>Data</i>	<i>Pre Data</i>
Mean	225.5454545	213.3793103
Variance	195.021645	402.8152709
Observations	22	29
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
Df	49	
t Stat	2.550447742	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.013934359	
t Critical two-tail	2.009575199	

Test 2 included assumptions of random sampling, normality, and variances that cannot be assumed equal. In test 2, normality was run for all three groups. Control group normality check is good, indicating that the expected value would fit for a normal distribution for the mean and the standard deviation. The QQ Plot was used to check for normality where the expected value plot against actual values is very close. The Jarque-Bera test was needed to test for normality. Following testing, the null hypothesis failed to reject, so the hypothesis for this test is normal and follows a symmetrical distribution. The first two tests were not the same (assumed unequal), so the Two-sample Two-tailed t-Test for Unequal Variances was indicated. After checking the variances, the testing indicated that they are unequal. Two samples were used because there were two groups. The t-Test was utilized because variances for the population samples were unknown. For test 2, the final conclusion states that with an alpha level of .05 and a p-value of .3009, the null hypothesis fails to be rejected, indicating that there is no significant difference

between the control group data and the post-test group data (Table 4.14). This is a positive outcome for the research.

<b>Table 4.14</b> <i>t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances</i>		
	<i>Control Data</i>	<i>Post Data</i>
Mean	225.5454545	220.5172414
Variance	195.021645	413.6157635
Observations	22	29
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
Df	49	
t Stat	1.045566946	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.300891648	
t Critical two-tail	2.009575199	

Test 3 included assumptions of normality, matched pair samples, continuous scale, and no significant outliers. In test 3, assumption was normal, indicating that the expected value would fit for a normal distribution for the mean and the standard deviation. Matched pair samples of pre-test group and post-test group samples were utilized because the same person in each group completed the same survey instrument both times the testing occurred. The continuous scale was utilized because the survey instrument was the same for both administrations of the test. There were no significant outliers in the difference between the groups. All differences between pre- and post-test data points fell within 3 standard deviations of the mean, and fell between the acceptable range of -37 (lower bounds) and 51 (upper bounds). There were no values below -37 and no values above 51. For test 3, the final conclusion states that with an alpha level of .05 and a p-value of .0134, the null hypothesis is rejected, indicating that there is a significant difference between the pre-test data and the post-test data (Table 4.15).

<b>Table 4.15</b> <i>t-Test: Paired Two Sample for Means</i>		
	<i>Pre Total</i>	<i>Post Total</i>
Mean	213.3793103	220.5172414
Variance	402.8152709	413.6157635
Observations	29	29
Pearson Correlation	0.740072182	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
Df	28	
t Stat	-2.638342166	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.013451585	
t Critical two-tail	2.048407115	

### Qualitative Results

Because the focus group participant sample size is small ( $n=5$ ), then qualitative insights into the quantitative data are critical for a deeper understanding of the treatment outcomes. Focus group interviewing supports quantitative data as it relates to increases in preservice teachers' understandings of bias in the teaching of ELs. Focus group volunteers indicate novel conceptual understandings of bias by recognition of stereotypes about ELs, clarification of volunteers' individual need to rethink stereotypes held of ELs, and reflections examining linguistic output of ELs in the conversational setting. Qualitative insights from the focus group interview support the quantitative data.

In question 1, the study asked volunteers to describe their feelings prior to meeting the Adult EL learner. Four participants reported feeling nervous, and one stated excitement. For volunteers who felt nervous, anxiety was reported as it related to apprehension of having nothing to say, asking questions that would be considered silly by the Adult EL, and fear of offending the Adult EL in conversation.

In question 2, the study asked volunteers to describe their feelings after meeting the Adult EL learner. All five students stated that they felt surprised, although the reasons for their

surprise varied. One student noted a stereotype regarding age, stating that she had been expecting a younger Adult EL learner. Two students specifically related an appreciation for the courage demonstrated by the Adult ELs, who had left their home country to go to a foreign country and learn a new language. Empathy was expressed by all five students, who recognized the discomfort level of the Adult EL learners during the ethnographic interview.

In question 3, the study asked volunteers to examine their thoughts regarding the English language proficiency level of the Adult EL learners. One student did not address the proficiency level, noting instead the volume level of the speaker, which she said was lower than expected, and which she attributed to a cultural norm. One student said that the Adult EL learner was depending on survival English, and appreciated the linguistic assistance of another learner. Three students expressed that they had not expected high proficiency in speaking and listening skills in the Adult EL learners, and were very surprised by demonstrated high proficiency.

In question 4, the survey asked volunteers to note anything about the Adult EL learners that they had not been expecting to encounter. Although all five questions in the focus group survey were designed to explore bias-related perceptions, question 4 elicited the most evident results of bias and concomitant recognition. Four volunteers stated that they had expected all of the Adult EL learners to be Hispanic, and were surprised when none of them were. One participant also expressed surprise that students from Africa and the Caribbean were present. The fifth volunteer stated that she had previously been unaware that there were any international students learning English on campus.

In question 5, the survey asked volunteers to reflect upon their thoughts about why people might immigrate to the U. S., and whether those thoughts had changed post-treatment. Three volunteers expressed surprise at the high levels of educational attainment held by the

Adult EL learners in their home country, explaining that they had not realized that professional positions existed outside of the U.S., and that even with high educational attainment, some persons might immigrate to the U.S. in order to find employment. One participant noted that her views of life in Africa had changed dramatically after one of the Adult EL learners showed photos of the large city where she had grown up and lived. The participant stated that she had previously believed that persons in Africa lived in simple structures and in small villages. Two volunteers noted that learning English did appear to be tied to economic and social success in the U.S., stating that this was a new concept for them, and one which had come about as a result of the ethnographic interview.

The results of the qualitative study further explicate the findings of the quantitative data, and fully support them.

### **Research Question and Hypothesis One**

Do preservice teachers who have completed an ethics course with an ethnographic interview in the ESOL Endorsement sequence (control group) demonstrate more positive attitudes toward ELs than preservice teachers who have not taken an ethics course in the sequence (experimental group)?

H1-A1

There will be a statistically significant difference in survey scores of preservice teachers who have completed an ethics course with an ethnographic interview in the ESOL Endorsement when compared with scores from preservice teachers who have not completed an ESOL Endorsement ethics course containing an ethnographic interview with an Adult EL.

### H1-A0

There will be no statistically significant difference in survey scores of preservice teachers who have completed an ethics course with an ethnographic interview in the ESOL Endorsement when compared with those who have not.

The first question explored whether there would be a difference in the perceptual attitudes between students who have met and conversed with Adult ELs, as a requirement of the completion of their ESOL Endorsement sequence, and students who had not. In order to analyze this question, summation across the four dimensions was utilized to derive a raw score, achieving a total score for all four dimensions in both groups. Summative scores were appropriate because they could determine if the raw scores of the control group and the experimental group pre-test were statistically different from each other. Additionally, mean, median, and standard deviation were calculated for both groups. Comparison of the mean of 225.55 for the control group, alpha level of .05 and chi-square CV of 5.991 (Table 4.3), and the mean of 213.38 for the pre-test group, alpha level of .05 and chi-square CV of 5.991 (Table 4.4), indicates a statistically significant difference between the two groups. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

### **Research Question and Hypothesis Two**

Could interviews held between preservice teachers and Adult ESOL students precipitate any noticeable changes in potential biases held by preservice teachers?

### H2-A1

There will be a statistically significant change demonstrated following the preservice teachers' ethnographic interview conducted with Adult ESOL learners, as it relates to their potential biases toward ELs.

## H2-A0

There will be no statistically significant difference in potential biases following the ethnographic interview.

The second research question considered whether preservice teachers with no prior ethnographic interview experience (pre-test experimental group) could experience a statistically significant change post-test in their biases and attitudes after meeting and conversing with Adult ESOL learners. Research question 2 compared mean scores from pre-test and post-test experimental group data. In order to analyze this research question, the summation across the four dimensions was utilized to derive a raw score, achieving a total score for all four dimensions in both groups. Summative scores were appropriate because they could determine if the raw scores of the experimental group pre-test and the experimental group post-test were statistically different from each other. Additionally, mean, median, and standard deviation were calculated for both groups. Comparison of the mean of 213.38 for the pre-test group, alpha level of .05 and chi-square CV of 5.991 (Table 4.4), and the mean of 220.52 for the post-test group, alpha level of .05 and chi-square CV of 5.991 (Table 4.5) indicates a statistically significant difference between the two groups. Therefore, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected.

### **Research Question and Hypothesis Three**

Based on a semi-structured focus group interview, what factors might be noted by preservice teachers, following treatment, as factors that enabled teachers-in-training to review, and potentially rethink, their potential biases toward ELs?

## H3-A1

Factors noted by preservice teachers, following treatment, as concepts that enabled them to review and possibly rethink their potential biases, will vary according to the individual.

### H3-A0

Focus group members will find no factors related to the interview that would have caused them to review and possibly rethink potential biases toward ELs.

The third research question asked whether focus group members drawn from the experimental group could articulate specific factors contributing to an intentional lessening of their potential biases toward ELs, following the ethnographic interview. In order to answer this question, analysis of linguistic responses for patterns of sameness was explored. Following a handwritten recording of responses from the volunteers, responses were sorted into patterns of sameness.

### **Analysis of Results**

At the conclusion of all sections of the research process, a total of 22 control group responses had been collected, a total of 29 experimental group responses were collected pre-test, 29 experimental group responses were collected post-test, and discussion responses were collected from the focus group. Each of the volunteers answered 50 discrete prompts in the CCAI regarding their ability and/or desire to live among, and to work with, people from other cultures. The qualitative survey contained 5 interview questions designed to support, explicate, and further describe responses from the quantitative survey. Educators-in-training provided a rich array of qualitative responses, which was indicative of the focus group drawn from the larger experimental group. The majority of the 51 volunteers were female (98%), Caucasian or White (74.5%), and in the age range of 18-23 (60.7%). Overall, the change in mean of .96% from pre-test to post-test indicated that volunteers were able to make intentional and significant positive perceptual gains in their perceptions of ELs following the ethnographic interview. Qualitative results from the focus group confirmed that the ethnographic interview experience,

viewed as exposure in the study, provided volunteers with the opportunity to recognize that they share multiple areas of sameness and similarity with the Adult EL learners. Such understandings represent some degree of recognition of personal bias, and a change in their perceptions of ELs.

A summation across the dimensions was conducted in order to understand Hypothesis 1, along with the calculation of mean, median, and standard deviation for control group data and pre-test experimental group data. Results indicated that there was a significant difference in beliefs about ELs between volunteers who had already completed an ethnographic interview with Adult ESOL learners, as opposed to participants who had not.

**Emotional Resilience (ER).** In responding to the 18 prompts designed to measure the preservice teachers' ability to remain emotionally balanced and positive in their teaching of ELs, the means were examined. In the control group, the mean of 81.00 supports the notion that the control group demonstrated high emotional balance and a positive attitude toward the presence of ELs in their future classrooms. The experimental group pre-test demonstrated an EO mean score of 76.83, demonstrating a lower propensity to exhibit a positive emotional response to ELs in their future classrooms. The control group demonstrated a high level of resiliency when compared to the lower ER score derived from the pre-test experimental group. Following treatment, the post-test experimental group demonstrated an EO mean of 79.03, which indicated a statistically significant increase in this scale dimension from the pre-test mean.

**Flexibility/Openness (FO).** Responses to the 15 prompts examined the teacher-in-training's objectivity, tolerance, and ability to enjoy working with students whose precepts and behaviors are reflective of other cultures. While the control group responded with an FO mean of 59.14, indicating a likely high degree of tolerance, the experimental group pre-test scored a mean of 56.14, indicating a significantly lower degree of tolerance. Following treatment, the

post-test experimental group demonstrated an FO mean of 58.52, which indicated a statistically significant increase in this scale dimension from the pre-test mean.

**Perceptual Acuity (PAC):** To examine the ability of preservice teachers to respond to ELs in a culturally sensitive manner, with an intentional understanding of the communication context, PAC was measured by 10 prompts. The control group demonstrated a PAC mean of 50.32, indicating a solid understanding of cross-cultural communications, while the experimental group pre-test PAC mean score was significantly lower, at 46.83. The lower score could indicate a lower sensitivity to the communicative needs and culturally-imbued behaviors of ELs in their future classrooms. Following treatment, the post-test experimental group demonstrated a PAC mean of 48.79, which indicated a statistically significant increase in this scale dimension from the pre-test mean.

**Personal Autonomy (PA).** To examine the preservice teachers' dependency on culturally-based teachings that form both collective and personal identities, seven prompts were included in the quantitative survey. The control group PA mean of 35.09 demonstrates a high degree of ability to retain markers of personal identity when working among persons from unfamiliar cultures. Alternatively, the lower pre-test experimental group's PA mean score of 33.59 shows a proclivity toward a lower ability to maintain one's personal identity in this situation. Following treatment, the post-test experimental group demonstrated a PA mean of 34.17, which indicated a statistically significant increase in this scale dimension from the pre-test mean.

In classrooms in which ELs are present, preservice teachers with higher PA raw scores could demonstrate a stronger reliance upon personal self-efficacy (Bandura, 2012) in making instructional decisions relating to the teaching of ELs.

## Summary

In order to examine the perceptions of preservice teachers as they relate to the instruction of ELs, statistical analyses using summation across the dimensions were performed. Since all scores are valid, then the totals across the scale dimensions are valid.

Summation across the dimensions was performed to derive raw scores, and calculation of means, medians, and standard deviations were performed to compare the control group to the pre-test experimental group in order to explore Hypothesis 1. Results of the data analysis showed that there was a significant difference in perception of ELs between the control group and the pre-test experimental group using the survey instrument. A comparison between pre-test and post-test experimental group data was performed to test Hypothesis 2 to assess whether a statistically significant change would occur to either increase or decrease potential biases toward ELs, as held by teachers-in-training, following an ethnographic interview. Results of the summation across the CCAI scale dimensions demonstrated a statistically significant change in the level of bias, as calculated from all four dimensions. Hypothesis 3 was explored using linguistic coding for patterns of sameness to explore qualitative factors indicative of change in perception of bias. Results of the qualitative analysis indicated several factors that did cause the preservice teachers to review and potentially rethink their potential biases toward ELs.

In summary, the null hypothesis for Research Question 1 failed to be rejected, and the null hypothesis for Research Question 2 was rejected. Significant differences pre- and post-test were found. Research Question 3 provided qualitative insights into the results from Research Questions 1 and 2. Chapter 5 will provide interpretation and further discussion of the research results. Additionally, possible future considerations of these areas will be explored.

## CHAPTER 5: Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

### Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative study with qualitative insights was to explore the perceptions held by preservice teachers as it relates to the teaching of ELs. Cultural mismatch between preservice teachers and classroom teachers, as they work to instruct ELs, has been studied through multiple perspectives. Biases, attitudes, and constructs of White privilege as they relate to the perceptions of majority White preservice teachers in today's diverse classrooms have been researched. Additionally, the role of Social Justice Theory in the educational environment has been studied to better understand the manifestation of cultural mismatch between preservice educators and the ELs they teach. Attention has also been given to mitigation strategies designed to decrease or eliminate cultural mismatch. The present study attempted to understand how cultural mismatch variables can impact the teacher-in-training's experience with ELs in diverse classrooms. To investigate these variables as they relate to a specific mitigation strategy, three research questions were explored.

1. Do preservice teachers who have completed an ethics course with an ethnographic interview in the ESOL Endorsement sequence demonstrate more positive attitudes toward ELs than preservice teachers who have not taken an ethics course in the sequence?
2. Could interviews held between preservice teachers and Adult ESOL learners precipitate any statistically significant change in potential biases held by preservice teachers?

3. Based on a semi-structured focus group interview, what factors might be noted by preservice teachers, following treatment, as factors that enabled teachers-in-training to review, and potentially rethink, their potential biases towards ELs?

A discussion of the study's findings as they relate to each research question will be examined in Chapter 5. In conclusion, implications for practice and suggestions for further research will also be addressed.

## **Discussion of Findings**

### **Research Question One**

Do preservice teachers who have completed an ethics course with an ethnographic interview, in the ESOL Endorsement sequence, demonstrate more positive attitudes toward ELs than preservice teachers who have not taken an ethics course in the sequence?

“In the final analysis, it is between you and God. It was never between you and them anyway” (Mother Teresa, n.d.). In rewriting “The Paradoxical Commandments,” (Keith, 1968), Mother Teresa’s words signal to the preservice teacher that the perception of ELs as having outsider status in the classroom is both false and ethically unsound. Although preservice teacher attitudes have been studied carefully and widely, only very limited research has given focus to the relationship between teachers-in-training and the ELs they are learning to teach. The need to further explore this relationship includes the understanding that because they are educators-in-training, then the most opportune time in which to address attitudes and biases toward ELs would occur during their college or university years. These years serve, in essence, as the formative period for this student population. In Florida’s ESOL Endorsement sequence, the teaching of ethics through the cross-cultural communications class creates an opportunity for the preservice teacher to examine the notion of what constitutes bias, while also applying that knowledge to

concepts of cultural perception, cultural ways of knowing, and culturally-imbued means of communicating.

The first research question considered whether volunteers who had already experienced the nexus of culture and communication would be better able to recognize and apply concepts of the Social Justice Theory to their instructional relationship with ELs. When preservice teachers were conducting an ethnographic interview with Adult ESOL learners, they were being asked to view their guests as students like themselves. This new approach shifted the ELs from outsider or “other” status to in-group status, and reordered the thinking of the preservice teachers. When the Adult ESOL learners were viewed in the role of students, the teachers-in-training recognized and responded positively to this new role. Teachers teach, and this role was familiar and comfortable for the preservice teachers, particularly because they are both students and teachers (in training). In the study, preservice educators in the control group had already completed the cross-cultural communications class, which was taught using an ethics-based approach, and had then applied their knowledge of communications and ethics during their own ethnographic interview experience. Control group volunteers demonstrated a group mean of 225.55 in the survey, compared to the pre-test experimental group’s group mean of 213.38 across the four scale dimensions. The difference between the two groups was significant.

**Emotional Resilience (ER).** In this study, the control group mean of 81.00 from volunteers indicated a high level of flexibility and adaptability when encountering new situations. When teaching ELs, these ER abilities are helpful to teachers who must teach both the English language and subject area content, and do so while communicating in what is a foreign language to the student. The ability to remain objective, emotionally balanced, and open to new cultural perceptions can be viewed as adaptive measures desirable in preservice teachers

of ELs. By contrast, pre-test experimental group volunteers produced a group mean of 76.83 in ER, which is lower than that of the control group. With no prior expertise in applying the dual understandings of cross-cultural communication and ethics, the experimental group demonstrated a need to increase their levels of flexibility and adaptability to accommodate a deeper understanding of the cultural and ethical considerations found in teaching ELs. Having no prior understanding of the benefits to teachers who utilize the ethnographic interview strategy, and bereft of a formal understanding of how, or even why, to teach the English language to non-native speakers, experimental pre-test group members demonstrated an inclination to access their familiar and known precepts. Unhappily, such precepts would not necessarily include flexibility toward the ways and values of other cultures, even when those cultures are represented by students in the classroom.

**Flexibility/Openness (FO).** While control group volunteers demonstrated a group mean of 59.14, pre-test experimental group members provided a group mean of 56.14 in FO. When teaching ELs, the ability to possess and demonstrate an emotional openness toward unknown and unexpected cultural norms is critical. The FO score could be seen as encompassing curiosity and a lack of burdensome entanglements. Rather than creating a biased opinion when encountering a culturally based way of knowing, a preservice teacher who is emotionally comfortable with tolerating differences in the classroom could be expected to view actions with objectivity and sensitivity. Given the low group mean, and lacking the ethical underpinnings taught in the cross-cultural communications class, the experimental pre-test group appeared significantly less able to merge a higher level of tolerance with previously held beliefs regarding difference. In the broadest sense, the pre-test experimental group volunteers seemed to demonstrate a preference for similarity as the primary marker of inclusion. The concept that difference could also be

viewed as a marker of in-group status did not appear to be as relevant to the pre-test experimental group volunteers.

**Perceptual Acuity (PAC).** The ability to sense and then comprehend communicative cues, verbal or nonverbal, was measured by the PAC dimension. Following direct instruction in ethics and cross-cultural communications, and in combination with an ethnographic interview, the control group's mean score of 50.32 was statistically and significantly higher than that of the pre-test experimental group. With no prior training at the college or university level in the vagaries of cross-cultural communications and ethics, however, the experimental pre-test group's mean of 46.83 indicated a lack of sensitivity to expressive cues, either verbal or nonverbal. Because communicative strategies differ from one culture to the next, the ability to sense when a communication failure is occurring during a culturally-critical context is a skill that would benefit both an EL and the preservice teacher. Educators-in-training who volunteered for the experimental group in this study were encouraged to ask vetted conversational questions during the ethnographic interview, but lacked specific training in the comprehension of verbal and nonverbal communicative precepts. Such a lack of cross-cultural communicative training increases the vulnerability of both the teacher-in-training as well as the Adult ESOL learner.

**Personal Autonomy (PA).** As teachers-in-training enter the classroom, they must be able to recognize and retain their own sense of personal identity. Additionally, they should resist reshaping the complex cultural identities of their ELs, particularly if this mode of assimilation behavior could engender any aspect of "otherness" in the status of ELs, or divisiveness in the classroom. In the PA scale dimension, control group volunteers demonstrated a high degree of autonomy with a group mean of 35.09. This differs significantly from the group mean of 33.59 produced by the pre-test experimental group. Since self-efficacy is inextricably bound to a

strong sense of personal identity through self-reliance (Bandura, 2012), then teachers-in-training who demonstrate one trait are likely also to manifest the other. When teaching ELs, preservice teachers need to remain confident in their personal understandings of contextual events and their participatory role in those events. The experimental pretest group's mean score serves to confirm the notion that additional classroom exposure to ELs during practicum and internship experiences could benefit the educator-in-training who is learning to value the subcultures and micro-cultures of all students in the class. Such an attitude of willingness to learn about others supports the concepts of fairness and respect that are the basis of the Social Justice Theory.

### **Research Question Two**

In positing the second research question, the study asked the following question: Could interviews conducted between preservice teachers and Adult ESOL learners precipitate any noticeable change in potential biases held by preservice teachers? The relevance of the question rests in the current political milieu, in which determinations of who belongs in the U.S., and who, theoretically, does not, are being made without engagement between the many social and cultural groups that comprise the populace. Given the constant exposure to an often divisive political environment, preservice teachers may form biases which they simply do not recognize as being detrimental to ELs. In the absence of exposure to persons who speak many other languages, but who do not speak English, the view of ELs could easily veer toward a deficit model in which the inability to speak the only language spoken by the monolingual preservice teacher is an indicator of outsider or "other" status. In the classroom, there can be no outsiders.

By first establishing a baseline through the determination of the raw scores in all four scale dimensions of the CCAI rendered by the control group, comparisons could then be made. In this study, the control group's raw score range was 214.00 – 254.00. By comparison, the

experimental group produced a pre-test raw score range of 191 - 252. Following treatment in the form of an ethnographic interview, considered as the form of exposure for the study, the experimental group's post-test raw score range was determined to be 187-256. The post-test results indicate a strong upward shift, and correlate well with research by Ryan, Carrington, Selva, and Healy (2009) and the Florida Consent Decree (LULAC, 1990) indicating that exposure to ELs can diminish bias toward them. This study (Ryan et al., 2009) also noted that exposure to diverse student populations at different times in the preservice teacher's training can create significant changes in attitudes toward classroom diversity concepts, such as was seen in the current study.

Returning to earlier data gleaned from the scale dimensions of the CCAI, the change in group mean FO score correlates with studies citing exposure to ELs by preservice teachers as an important strategy to use in recognizing and decreasing bias (Ramirez, Gonzales-Galindo, and Roy, 2016; Gainer and Larrotta, 2010). These studies strongly support the current study's concept that conducting an ethnographic interview during the ESOL Endorsement sequence can precipitate statistically significant changes in the level of bias expressed by preservice teachers, when considered in the context of teaching ELs. As noted previously, the cross-cultural communications class that is taught utilizing an ethics-based approach can include an ethnographic interview between educators-in-training and Adult ESOL learners. By controlling the environment in which the interview occurs, the university or college professor can provide a list of vetted questions and/or conversation cues to the preservice teachers, coordinate with the appropriate administrators for the Adult ESOL program to secure conversation partners, and provide teachers-in-training with exposure to ELs. Follow-up classroom activities could include debriefing, small group discussion to determine what was helpful to the preservice teachers, and

written reflections noting any biases that might have been discovered as a result of the exposure. With great sensitivity, the university or college professor can lead additional classroom activities that serve to define the concept of bias, and teach strategies that can combat bias in the educational setting. This array of activities hinges on exposure as the pathway to bias recognition and subsequent bias reduction.

### **Research Question Three**

The data for this study would not be complete without input from the preservice teachers, indicated by their own words. Research question three asks the following: Based on a limited focus group interview, what factors might be noted by preservice teachers, following treatment, as factors that enabled them to review and potentially rethink their potential biases against ELs? The qualitative data attempts to address this question.

In considering research question three, five volunteers from the experimental group were asked a series of five questions regarding their perceptions of the ethnographic interview experience. The questions formed the qualitative section of the research. The need to formulate a personalized experience from the interview is based on reflections provided by the focus group volunteers. It is their testimony of their experiences, perceptions, and understandings of the ethnographic interview. Discovery is contained in the exploration of patterns of sameness in the linguistic phraseology shared by the volunteers, in response to the set of questions. Just as the data from the quantitative study make evident the extent of changes that occurred pre- and post-test, the qualitative data form the pathway traveled by the volunteers following treatment.

The five students were assigned numbers to protect their identity. Each number was tagged only to their initials to further ensure anonymity in the recording of responses. This research question considered all of the factors previously discussed, but engaged the volunteers

through manifestation of their own words, prefaced upon an assurance of anonymity. Verbal responses provided by the volunteers yielded consistent response patterns of sameness, demonstrating that bias was not only recognized by the preservice teachers, but was also relevant to their beliefs about ELs. The ability to recognize bias is the first step toward the possibility of the eradication of bias and the creation of empathic, caring behaviors that enable teachers, and by extension, preservice teachers, to instruct ELs (Shapiro and Stefkovich, 2016). Of major importance to the study are the actual factors expressed by the educators-in-training as having sufficient agency to challenge or contradict long-held beliefs regarding students who may not speak English, but who are enrolled in Pre-K-12 public school classrooms. Because these factors are capable of eliciting change, then they can be utilized as areas of focus when university or college professors teach cross-cultural communications courses with an ethics-based approach.

### **Implications for Practice**

Preservice teachers need an array of strategies that will allow them to recognize potential bias (Ramirez et al., 2016) that will enable them to overcome the effects of cultural mismatch. However, prior to this study, there has been limited collection of research-based data regarding the promising use of ethnographic interviews as a means of understanding and working to eradicate bias among preservice teachers and ELs. Therefore, it may have been difficult for university or college professors to initiate classroom discussions regarding the highly charged concepts that form the larger notion of bias. An effective and engaging instructional strategy to utilize in the effort to promote both recognition and reduction of bias is the ethnographic interview. The preservice teachers in this study demonstrated significant changes in their ability to recognize bias in their personal concepts of ELs, and then to apply that recognition to their teaching of ELs in their future classrooms. Such caring behaviors in educators are fully

supportive of the equity and respect valuations (Shapiro and Stefkovich, 2016) of the Social Justice Theory.

When caring behaviors are elicited from educators, then bias toward ELs is reduced (Zeller et al, 2010), and the degree of cultural mismatch is mitigated. To promote an inclusive classroom, university or college professors can begin by incorporating an ethics-based approach that incorporates culturally relevant classroom caring behaviors into the teaching of cross-cultural communications. At the beginning of the semester, the professor can introduce students to generally accepted definitions of various manifestations of bias, such as stereotyping, prejudice, racism, and nationalism. The class's conversation can focus on these concepts using a three-step approach. First, the preservice teachers can be asked to learn about the different dimensions of bias as theoretical concepts. Secondly, the educators-in-training can be encouraged to self-reflect upon their own life experiences, with a specific goal of recalling and recognizing moments when they might have unwittingly demonstrated some form of bias. Lastly, alternative methods of approaching these experienced moments can then be discussed in small groups, with a goal of isolating and naming caring behaviors that could be used to reduce bias in similar future situations. With supportive training, self-efficacy is established, and it is believed that proficiency in the area of study will be achieved (Bandura, 2012).

With a better understanding of what constitutes bias, preservice teachers can then begin to explore their specific beliefs regarding the teaching of ELs. Supportive conversations between and among classmates can allow educators-in-training to recognize and record their beliefs about ELs, as part of the self-reflection process conducted prior to an ethnographic interview.

In this study, conversing with Adult ESOL learners was a deliberate and important component. Because all of the preservice teachers in the study were adults, and were college

students, then empathy could be better achieved through the purposeful effort to arrange for ethnographic interviews with other adults who were also students. In addition to those two factors of similarity, many Adult ESOL learners may be parents, might be employed, and may be experiencing the same feelings of happiness or unhappiness in the daily quest to parent well, work well, and somehow complete all of the day's tasks. In this study, the volunteer groups, as a whole, were somewhat older than the culturally traditional college age range and brought with them a more extensive array of life experiences, many of which likely paralleled those of the Adult ESOL learners. The sense of commonality and sameness in these two groups lessened the degree of "otherness" that might have been present had the preservice teachers interviewed a younger cohort of ELs.

Following the ethnographic interview, self-reflections should be elicited from the preservice teachers. Explicit in the instructions for this independent, written exercise should be the focus of bias recognition before, and after, the ethnographic interview. By asking the students to reflect upon their personal beliefs, change agency is directly granted to the preservice teachers. After reflections have been generated, the conversation should continue throughout the semester as the students proceed through their cross-cultural communications class. After completing the class, other classes in the Education major curriculum should incorporate discussions of bias, bias recognition, and bias reduction or elimination as the content allows. Additionally, preservice teachers should be encouraged to discuss effective strategies relating to bias elimination utilized by their cooperating teachers in practicum and internship experiences. In every aspect, the focus should be to teach the theory, and then to apply it to the real-world classroom experiences of the preservice teachers.

## **Recommendations for Future Research**

Given the limited research currently available regarding the use of ethnographic interviews by preservice teachers, and with Adult ESOL learners, for the recognition and reduction of bias, the opportunity for expanded and more exacting study is great. Future research could include quantitative analysis of Adult ESOL learners' perceptions of preservice teachers, with an incumbent qualitative analysis of the cultural beliefs held by the Adult ESOL learners. Since education is viewed differently in global cultures, issues of educator status, formative assessment use in schools, and value attached to educational attainment could be examined qualitatively to understand better these perceptions. Bias rarely occurs only in one global group, so future research could be conducted to understand its manifestation as held by parents of ELs, who often are Adult ESOL learners. In addition, future studies could seek to conduct ethnographic interviews in which the Adult ESOL learners are tasked with learning more about U.S. preservice teachers.

In order to gain a deeper understanding of bias among teachers-in-training, additional survey instruments could be utilized. Factors that are not necessarily included in the CCAI could be studied through other instruments to expand the understanding of bias-related perceptions among preservice teachers. Such research endeavors could also provide an opportunity to incorporate additional strategies beyond the ethnographic interview in order to study bias reduction successes in teacher preparation programs.

Continued research should contain a focus on quantitative and qualitative methods of determining the extent of bias held by preservice teachers as it relates to their instruction of ELs. Additionally, instructional strategies for use with educators-in-training should be incorporated in the studies when possible since this would provide additional data regarding best practices for

use with this student population. Future research should focus on both recognition of, and reduction or elimination of, bias in preservice teachers of ELs.

### **Conclusion**

The purpose of this quantitative study with qualitative insights was to examine the attitudes of bias, known or unknown, held by preservice teachers toward the ELs they will instruct in their future classrooms. Overall, pre-test indicators showed a purported group mean of 213.38 when measured on the quantitative survey instrument, and a level of 220.52 when measured post-test. The most significant gain was seen in ER, reflecting the highest level of agency and accessibility of this measurement for the experimental group. When comparing post-test results against control group results, the group mean of 220.52 demonstrated gains in achieving a closer score to the control group's mean of 225.55, especially given the pre-test group mean of 213.38. This suggests that the ethnographic interview is helpful in reducing bias, but that additional factors should also be included in the course curriculum in order to achieve a more robust understanding of this complex notion. A significant main effect was seen in the ER domain, allowing preservice teachers to make important learning gains in their personal understanding of bias and the implications for their own classroom teaching.

In classroom practice, university and college professors can use these findings to initiate and explore conversations relating to bias among preservice teachers. Educators-in-training can access additional information regarding bias toward ELs by engaging in discussions with their cooperating teachers during practicum and internship experiences. Chairpersons of education departments can use this information to initiate curriculum-based work groups to suggest additional strategies to use across the curriculum. Future research can expand upon all of these concepts by including perspectives of bias held by Adult ESOL learners as it relates to the

individuals who will soon teach their children in the U.S. public school classrooms. Ongoing conversations among all stakeholders at the university or college level should produce additional understandings of the perception of bias and how it might manifest between preservice teachers and the ELs they instruct.

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## Appendices

Appendix A  
Informed Consent

## INFORMED CONSENT DOCUMENT

### Project Title: CULTURAL MISMATCH IN PRESERVICE TEACHERS OF ENGLISH LEARNERS

You're being invited to participate in a study to understand more about cultural mismatch in preservice teachers. Please be sure to take time to discuss the study with your friends and/or family, or anyone else that you feel like discussing it with. It's up to you whether you participate or not.

In this study, we're comparing preservice teachers' thoughts about English Learners (ELs) before and after a chance to meet face-to-face with Adult ELs, and to talk with them. The study is being done so that we can learn more about how volunteers think about ELs before they meet them, and then after they have a chance to talk with them. The survey instrument measures cross-cultural adaptability via self-report.

If you decide to participate, you'll be asked to complete a short survey, then talk with the ELs for a few minutes, and then take the same survey again. We think this will take about 30 minutes. The Adult ELs are here on campus, and are already waiting for the conversation with you. Focus group members receive the same safeguards, noted on this form.

The researcher can stop the entire study or take you out of the study at any time that we think it is in your best interests. We can also remove you from the study for other reasons. We can do this without your consent. Additionally, you can stop participating at any time that you wish. If you do stop, you will not lose any benefits.

The study involves the potential risk that the ELs' accents might be hard for you to understand. It might also happen that the ELs have a low ability to speak in English, and so they might not be able to say much to you. Also, it's possible that the ELs will not know what you're saying since they're still learning English. Overall, the risk level is normal for a typical day.

Benefits of the study to you are pretty slim, but might include adding to the overall knowledge about teaching English to people who don't speak English.

We will take reasonable steps to keep information about you confidential. Only the researcher has access to your data. The data will be published in the researcher's dissertation, but all volunteers will remain anonymous and will not be named. If there are any written materials, they'll be kept in a locked cabinet in the researcher's office.

There are no incentives offered for participating. The instrument is: <http://ccaiassess.com/>

As a volunteer, your participation is voluntary. You can choose not participate. You can leave the study at any time. If you decide not to participate, or if you decide to leave the study, you will not lose any benefits or be penalized, and your relationship with the researcher will not be harmed.

Send an email to Assistant Professor Burnley at [burnleya@tcc.fl.edu](mailto:burnleya@tcc.fl.edu) if you have any questions or concerns about the study.

#### Consent of Subject (Volunteer)

---

Signature of Subject (Volunteer)

Date

Appendix B  
Institutional IRB

## IRB Request

Wed 6/28, 2:04 AM

You replied on 6/28/2017 3:54 AM.

Congratulations ☐

----- Forwarded message -----

From: "IRB" <[irb@cn.edu](mailto:irb@cn.edu)>

Date: Wed, Jun 28, 2017 at 9:54 AM -0400

Subject: RE: IRB Request

To: "Brenda Dean" <[bdean@cn.edu](mailto:bdean@cn.edu)>

This request has been approved

In His service,

Gregory A. Casalenuovo, PhD, APRN, FNP-C, FNP-BC  
 Associate Professor, Nursing  
 Carson-Newman University  
 C-N Box 71883  
 Jefferson City, TN 37760

**Office:** Heritage Hall #11**Phones:** (865) 471-3236, office; (865) 471-4574, fax

God put a million, million doors in the world for his love to walk through, one of those doors is you –  
 Jason Gray

**From:** Brenda Dean**Sent:** Tuesday, June 13, 2017 3:08 PM**To:** IRB <[irb@cn.edu](mailto:irb@cn.edu)>**Cc:** Anna M Burnley <[amburnley@cn.edu](mailto:amburnley@cn.edu)>**Subject:** IRB Request

Please find attached the IRB request from Anna Burnley, a doctoral student in  
 Education.

With thanks.

BD

*Brenda Dean, Ed. D.**Assistant Professor**Education Department**Carson-Newman University**2130 Branner Avenue**Jefferson City, TN 37760**[bdean@cn.edu](mailto:bdean@cn.edu)*

Appendix C  
Permission to Proceed

Permission to Proceed

---

Thu 7/6, 9:44 AM

Anna,

You may move forward with your study.

Thank you,

██████████

**From:** ██████████ [mailto:██████████.edu]

**Sent:** Wednesday, July 05, 2017 12:39 PM

**To:** ██████████.edu>

**Cc:** ██████████.edu>; ██████████.edu>; ██████████  
<██████████.edu>; ██████████.edu>

**Subject:** Re: Permission to Proceed

As Carson-Newman University has already granted approval and we still do not have a functioning IRB (although we are close), I see no reason to delay this project - especially since the PI is a student at another school.

Best,

██████████

Appendix D  
Demographic Survey

Participant Number: \_\_\_\_\_

## DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE

*The purpose of this questionnaire is for you to provide basic background information. Please complete the following demographics questionnaire.*

1. Gender Identity: \_\_\_\_\_

2. Race:

\_\_\_\_\_ African American or Black

\_\_\_\_\_ Asian American

\_\_\_\_\_ Biracial

\_\_\_\_\_ Caucasian or White

\_\_\_\_\_ Hispanic or Latino/Latina

\_\_\_\_\_ Middle Eastern or North African

\_\_\_\_\_ Multiracial

\_\_\_\_\_ Native American

\_\_\_\_\_ Pacific Islander or Hawaiian Islander

3. Age:

\_\_\_\_\_ 18-23

\_\_\_\_\_ 24-30

\_\_\_\_\_ 31-40

\_\_\_\_\_ 41-50

\_\_\_\_\_ 51-60

\_\_\_\_\_ 61-70

\_\_\_\_\_ 71 and over

Appendix E

Focus Group Qualitative Survey

**FOCUS GROUP QUESTIONS: ETHNOGRAPHIC INTERVIEW***Questions and Responses:*

1. *What were your feelings before meeting the student?*
2. *What were your feelings after meeting the student?*
3. *What were your thoughts about the English proficiency level of the student?*
4. *Was there anything about the students that you weren't expecting?*
5. *What are your thoughts about why people might immigrate to the U.S.? Did they change after the conversation? How?*