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Call for Papers

TNTESOL Journal
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The Editorial Board of the TNTESOL Journal seeks articles of general interest on any aspect of the teaching of English as a second or foreign language in elementary, middle, high school, college/university, or adult/immigrant education. The topics can be varied and wide-ranging.

Articles should be no longer than twelve pages, double-spaced, or no more than 4000 words. A section entitled, "Classroom Practices" will allow a maximum of 1500 words. Articles should follow APA style format, use nonsexist language, and have bibliographic references for all citations or works referred to in the body of the article.

Important note: All articles must be submitted electronically.

To submit your article electronically, please do the following:

- Write and save the article as a Microsoft Word document (or docx).
- Submit your paper as an attachment to an email in which you provide the following in the body of the email: your name, address, home phone number, school affiliation, email address, and title of the paper. Include a statement that your work has not been printed elsewhere and is not currently submitted for review elsewhere.
- Email to johnnaparaiso@yahoo.com and include the words "TNTESOL-J Submission" in the subject heading. You will be notified immediately by return email once the article is reviewed.

Note: We accept articles year-round. Deadline for submission for fall publication is June 1, 2013.

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Editor's Comments: In This Issue

Johnna Paraiso
Editor

As I begin my first year as editor of the *TNTESOL Journal*, I am mindful of the legacy left by the Journal's previous editors, Dr. Teresa Dalle and Dr. Dorothy Valcarcel Craig. Dr. Dalle's vision of a scholarly, peer-reviewed journal that targeted English as a Second Language educators had not been attempted prior to her efforts. However with the publication of the first *TNTESOL Journal* in the Fall of 2008, Dr. Dalle and her colleagues provided a regional forum for the publication of scholarly research dealing with the challenges of English language learning and immigrant education. Her insight and professionalism have set a high standard for the *TNTESOL Journal*—a standard that I hope to continue.

Dr. Dorothy Valcarcel Craig served as *TNTESOL Journal* editor for two years after Dr. Dalle resigned and was the assistant editor for this issue. Dr. Craig's foresight, creativity and commitment to scholarly writing in the field of English language acquisition have made this Journal a sound academic resource. Researchers seeking to publish their work and students who are conducting their own research in the field of English language teaching look to the *TNTESOL Journal* as a platform for an exchange of ideas. Dr. Craig has mentored authors, editors and scholars in her commitment to make this publication one of visual quality and academic excellence. Without her assistance, this Journal would not be possible.

The articles contained in this Journal are eclectic and cover a wide variety of topics in the field of English language teaching. Miho Nagamatsu—Associate Professor of English and English Literature at Kyushu Women's University in Japan discusses English teaching in Japanese public schools, including compulsory English classes and practical English training.

Dr. Christopher Hastings writes of the need for more research in the field of teacher motivation in his article, "Teacher Motivation: The Next Step in L2 Motivation Research." Dr. Hastings examines the factors that motivate both teachers and students in second language classrooms and maintains that when second language educators are highly motivated, that the educational experience is mutually beneficial to both students and teachers.

Dr. Dorothy Valcarcel Craig explores the practice of engaging in fieldwork in ESL teacher preparation programs in her article. "Shouts, Cries, and Echoes from the Field." In a time when alternative paths to licensure may call for coursework to be abbreviated, this action research study examines the perceptions among students who are enrolled in teacher preparation programs regarding the need for fieldwork.

The effectiveness of mentoring programs among young Latina students is the topic of Mr. Brian Seadorf's timely article, "Breaking the Trends: Academically Exceptional Young Adult Latinas." Mr. Seadorf examines how mentors and mentoring programs influence Latina students to pursue further education. He discusses the components and the implementation of effective mentoring programs geared toward young Hispanic women.

"Strategies for ELL Reading Comprehension" is the title of the article written by Elena Heath. Ms. Heath, who is the ESL coordinator for Humphreys County, Tennessee, discusses the importance of background knowledge and appropriate questioning in teaching English language learners to read. She examines the effectiveness of the practice of teaching reading skills in isolation. Ms. Heath also explores the use of literature circles in the English as a second language classroom, including the importance of assigning student roles within these literature circles in order to maximize student learning.

The explicit instruction in the use of cognates among Spanish-speaking adults who are learning English is a topic examined by Ms. Robbin Meric in her article, "Cognate use in Promoting Second Language Acquisition in Beginning Level Adult ESL Students Whose L1 is Spanish." Ms. Meric's action research article maintains that clear teaching in the use of cognates enables adult ELLs not only accelerates the students' learning, but also improves student morale.

Finally, I offer an article co-written with my colleague, Ann Stewart, regarding the use of digital storytelling as a means to enhance student writing and technical expertise. The collaborative article, "Service Learning and Middle School ELLs," examines the concept that digital storytelling used as part of a service learning project can afford ELLs the opportunity to showcase their backgrounds and provide a platform for cultural understanding within the school and business community.

The contributors in this edition of the *TNTESOL Journal* for Fall 2012 encourage ESL professionals to examine the backgrounds and needs of the diverse learners that comprise their ESL classrooms. Whether an educator is implementing specific strategies, as reflected in the practitioner articles contained in this publication, or exploring current research in the field of English language teaching, this *TNTESOL Journal* offers information that is valuable to the field of English language pedagogy.

...varied, interesting, and eclectic!

COGNATE USE IN PROMOTING SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION IN BEGINNING LEVEL ADULT ESL STUDENTS

ROBBIN MERIC

This study examined the explicit instruction of cognates and the use of cognates among adult second language learners enrolled in a government-funded program. The study utilized an action research approach with the intent of improving practice. A variety of data sets were collected and analyzed. Findings indicate that explicit instruction increased participants' knowledge base and understanding of cognates. Findings also indicate that CALP skills increased.

INTRODUCTION

There are more than 20,000 cognates (words that are spelled similarly or identically) that are shared between the English and Spanish languages (Montelongo, Hernandez, & Herter, 2011). The use of cognates in ESL classrooms and general education classrooms where ELLs are present is not a new approach (Montelongo et al., 2011). Many studies have been conducted on the use of cognates and their success in the classroom that prove that cognates are an integral part of vocabulary instruction for both academic and social English (Manyak & Bauer, 2009). One such study that was conducted concluded that the use of cognates helped students identify meaning in words that they had not encountered before (Carlo, August, McLaughlin, Snow, Dressler, Lippman, Lively, & White, 2004). According to Rodriguez, other studies have indicated that the knowledge of cognates is ideal for literacy instruction (2001).

The following action research project focused on the strategy of using cognates to help Spanish speakers learn English vocabulary more quickly and easily. At the same time, research was conducted to determine if cognate use would improve student morale within the ESL classroom. The following questions were posed due to their required responses, which would detail how effective the cognate strategy was and how it would impact students' morale. Table 1 below details the three overarching questions along with their data sets.

Table 1

Triangulation Matrix

Question	Data Set	Data Set	Data Set
Can the explicit teaching of cognates promote second language acquisition in the researcher's beginning level adult ESL classroom in English Language Learners (ELLs) whose first language (L1) is Spanish? If so, how?	Observation checklist	Student quiz scores	Small-group open-discussion sessions
Can the explicit teaching of cognates aid in the acquisition of English academic vocabulary? If so, how?	Observation checklist	Student quiz scores	Small-group open-discussion sessions
Can the teaching and use of cognates in the beginning level ESL classroom impact a student's morale? If so, how?	Observation checklist	Participant field journals	Small-group open-discussion sessions

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In the 30 years leading up to 2008, the number of children (ages 5-17) who spoke a language other than English at home catapulted from 9 to 21 percent (Aud, Hussar, Planty, Snyder, Bianco, Fox, Frolich, Kemp, & Drake, 2010). Between 2000 and 2010, it was predicted that 14 million non-English-speaking immigrants will arrive in the United States (English language learners, 2008). While the children's language acquisition needs are being met in the public school setting, their parents are also struggling to learn English. In 2001 alone, over a million adults were enrolled in English as a Second Language (ESL) classes provided at the state level with federal funds within the United States (Burt & Peyton, 2003). While immigrants represent many countries and speak many different languages, the majority of them are Spanish-speaking. Over 35 million people in America spoke Spanish at home in 2008 (Hispanic Americans by, n.d.). With the number of Spanish-speaking English Language Learners (ELLs) increasing at this rate, it is imperative for educators to determine the best possible manner in which to conduct English instruction for all learners.

This action research was conducted to determine the impact that the use of cognates has in a beginning level adult ESL class consisting of students whose first language (L1) is Spanish. Cognates are those words shared by two or more languages in phonological and/or orthographical form, and may also be semantically linked (Hall, 2002). A thorough review of the literature addressed the following aspects of cognate use in the ESL classroom: (a) vocabulary development and overall promotion of second language acquisition (SLA) due to the explicit teaching of cognates, and (b) rise in student morale and motivation due to the teaching and using of cognates in the classroom.

Vocabulary development is an integral component of SLA. Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) - the foundation of SLA, are built upon vocabulary development. The teacher of adult language learners has to provide a robust vocabulary program to ensure successful SLA. Many strategies can be utilized to promote vocabulary development, but if the student is reluctant or unwilling to use the strategy, it is useless. One such strategy that was proven ineffective in vocabulary development is the use of morphology. In a study conducted by Osburne and Mulling, they discovered that adult Spanish speakers did not employ morphology to determine word meaning because they deemed it too difficult or inconvenient to use (2001). They contributed this finding to the way in which the strategy was taught, or in some cases, whether or not the strategy was taught at all. On the other hand, the use of cognates has been proven to be highly successful in vocabulary development. In Hall's study involving the Parasitic Hypothesis, Spanish-speaking English language learners (ELLs), "on encountering novel vocabulary items [in this case nonwords], initially use already existing form information from the words they know in order to confirm or create hypotheses about word meaning" (2002). This begs the questions- shouldn't educators be utilizing a strategy that is proven to come naturally to students? Hancin-Bhatt and Nagy cite studies in which adult ELLs are shown to rely heavily on their first language to understand new words in the second language (L2) (1993). However, in the study that they conducted with Latino ELLs, they determined that children are less likely to utilize cognates at a young age, but as they get older their knowledge of cognates will increase making it a more valuable strategy (Hancin-Bhatt & Nagy, 1993). In an article by August, Carlo, Dressler, and Snow, they note that the majority of studies conducted on the use of cognates as a strategy shows many benefits in vocabulary development (2005). In one study conducted by Dressler in 2000, August et al. notes that Dressler discovered that children who were taught to use cognates as a strategy "were more successful in inferring meaning for [untaught] cognates than a control group;" however, factors had to be taken into consideration such as the literacy level of the student in his or her L1 (2005). While most studies have been conducted on children and their ability to utilize cognates in vocabulary development, the results have shown that it is a valuable endeavor to conduct more research to determine their role with adult learners.

While the research demonstrates the impact that cognates can make on vocabulary development, and as educators know, that is the building block of SLA, it also indicates their value on SLA overall. The ability to read in a language is paramount in SLA. Hancin-Bhatt and Nagy cite studies that indicated, "awareness of cognate relationships played an important role in the transfer of knowledge to second-language reading" (1993). August, Carlo, Dressler, and Snow (2005) concluded that:

- Knowledge of the cognate relationships that exist between Spanish and English is a powerful example of positive transfer in that this knowledge has been shown to facilitate English reading comprehension,
- The extent to which cognate relationships are perceived is related to the degree of semantic, orthographic, and phonological overlap they share,
- English morphological analysis is initially learned through cognates, and
- The ability to recognize cognates develops with age.

While these studies have shown the benefits of cognate use in SLA, they also have indicated that there is much variability in the use of the cognates, which necessitates further research.

The teaching of adult ELLs is vastly different than teaching children. It can be difficult for the adult ESL teacher to keep his or her students motivated and their morale high. Adults are more reserved than children, and every effort must be made to make them feel comfortable and motivated to learn. Morales and Blau describe in their article that many university students have a “persistent fear of speaking English” (2009). This fear can quickly lessen a student’s enthusiasm in learning English. They try to employ strategies to build an “English-learning community” to put their students at ease (2009). When they teach writing, they utilize cognates and Anglicisms as strategies (Morales & Blau, 2009). Again, research is lacking in the use of cognates and their impact on student morale; however, the path is set for future research.

The vast majority of literature reviewed indicates the benefits of cognate use with ELLs. However, there is an evident void of research pertaining to adult ELLs. This void leaves the future open for further research.

BRIEF OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

This study took place within a government-funded classroom for adult ESL students. The program is designed for students of all proficiency levels and native languages. Students who participate in these classes are mostly interested in receiving instruction in BICS (Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills) and eventually obtaining their high school diplomas or equivalent. The cognate enrichment program was carried out in the morning sessions as an added segment of learning. While all Spanish speakers at the beginning level were invited to participate, 11 chose to do so: three men and eight women. The participants actively took part in all sessions of the cognate enrichment program.

METHODOLOGY

The study was in the framework of a qualitative action research. Action research is based on the practitioner in the environment also being the researcher. The focus of an action research is to improve practice in the practitioner's/researcher's environment as well as other similar environments. This form of research is highly effective because it enables the researcher to identify a specific issue or problem in his or her classroom, conduct the research with his or her own students which enables adaptations to the framework to be made if necessary, create an action plan based on the findings, and report those findings to colleagues (Craig, 2009). Overarching questions guided this qualitative action research with at least three data sets aligned

to each question (Table 1). Multiple forms of data were collected in order to ensure triangulation. The data was then analyzed and the findings reported (Craig, 2009).

DATA SOURCES AND SCHEDULE OF DATA COLLECTION

Three data sets were collected during this action research for each overarching question. Observation checklists were completed for *each* overarching question and utilized during the cognate enrichment sessions. The researcher focused on how individual students responded to the strategy, what was effective, what was not effective, and how the students' moods and attitudes changed or remained constant during instruction. The second form of data collected for *all three* overarching questions was small-group open-ended discussions. Small-group open discussions were carried out after every learning session in order to determine the students' opinions of the strategy and to arrive at conclusions about their morale level regarding the strategy. Quiz scores were collected for the first two overarching questions and provided insight into the students' gains in BICS and CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency). Finally, participant field journals served as an additional data set for the third overarching question. Each participant completed field journal entries at the end of each teaching session. The student participants responded to questions pertaining to their feelings about the strategy of using cognates. This information shed light on morale levels and preferences in terms of instructional strategies.

For this qualitative action research, analysis took place after the researcher collected data sets aligned to each overarching question. The researcher coded the data and identified and analyzed emerging themes and patterns (Craig, 2009). The analysis employed the Constant Comparative method within the framework of Grounded Theory.

Coding was conducted as a means for in-depth analysis. The following steps were used to achieve this:

- Transcriptions of all classroom observations.
- Simple coding applied to each data sets.
- Data organized according to emerging themes and patterns.
- Memos entered in order to assign tributes (Craig, 2009).

A triangulation framework ensured the validity of the data sets. Finally, the researcher identified chunks of meaning derived from emerging patterns and themes. Subsetting enabled further analysis (Craig, 2009).

FINDINGS

This action research resulted in discoveries that can positively impact the way in which Spanish speaking ELLs learn English vocabulary. This research showed that the use of cognates as a learning strategy enabled Spanish-speaking ELLs to "pick-up" English vocabulary quicker and easier than with methods that had previously been utilized in this particular classroom. The following data sets for each overarching question revealed the impact that the cognate strategy

made in with the participants.

Overarching Question #1: Can the explicit teaching of cognates promote second language acquisition in the researcher's beginning level adult ESL classroom in English Language Learners (ELLs) whose first language (L1) is Spanish? If so, how?

Findings from the data sets collected for question #1 indicated that the explicit teaching of cognates impacted the second language acquisition (SLA) process in that the student participants' knowledge base was increased as well as their learning strategy repertoire. Observations collected during instructional time provided evidence that students were quick to understand the concept of utilizing cognates through the introduction of the strategy alone. The participants immediately began to ask about certain words in English that they had thought were familiar but were unsure of. Student quizzes supported the findings from the observation checklists. Quizzes that were taken after the initial lesson showed comprehension of words that all participants said that they did not know before. Small-group discussions resulted in the students showing their enthusiasm in learning a new strategy that proved so effective.

Overarching Question #2: Can the explicit teaching of cognates aid in the acquisition of English academic vocabulary? If so, how?

While most of the ELLs participating in the research were not as interested in academic English—for the purpose of the study—it was included to determine the effectiveness of cognates in learning CALP. Findings indicated that CALP was increased due to the use of cognates. Students were able to define academic words that they were unsure of before being taught how to use cognates. These findings were evident in all data sets that were collected. The observation checklists completed during instruction proved that the students were quick to identify what they called “hard” words with relative ease. The quiz scores after instruction supported this finding. Finally, during the small-group discussion, the participants showed astonishment that they were able to identify the “school” words and were anxious to share these with their own children who were enrolled in ESL classes.

Overarching Question #3: Can the teaching and use of cognates in the beginning level ESL classroom impact a student's morale? If so, how?

Data sets collected for the third overarching question showed undeniable proof that the use of cognates significantly impacted student participants' morale in the ESL classroom. The observation checklists completed during the sessions resulted in data that showed that all participants were excited to learn a new strategy that would help them build their English vocabulary bank. Participant field journals completed after each session supported these findings. Student participants recorded words such as “happy,” “fun,” and “good” to describe how they felt about what they had learned. Further evidence of the participants' raised morale was evident in the data collected in the small-group discussions. All of the participants had smiles on their faces and expressed excitement and anticipation for the next learning session.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, the explicit teaching of cognates to the participating Spanish speakers proved to be extremely effective. Using this strategy in the ESL classroom in other settings might lead to an increase in vocabulary and also in adult ELL morale. Although the study was limited to one specific adult learning setting, the findings may be applied to other adult learning settings as well as the K-12 learning environment. The adult Spanish speaking English language learners who participated in the study benefitted from the instructional strategies in their personal language learning from the use of cognates and related strategies. In addition, their success in the classroom carried over to the home as they shared certain aspects of language learning with their children.

The Author

Robbin Meric graduated from Columbia College in Columbia, South Carolina in 2008 with an undergraduate degree in Elementary Education. After relocating to middle Tennessee, she attended and graduated from Middle Tennessee State University with a graduate degree in Curriculum and Instruction with a concentration in ESL in 2012. Her teaching experiences include elementary social studies and ESL for adult learners.

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SHOUTS, CRIES, AND ECHOES FROM THE FIELD: AN EXAMINATION OF THE VALUE, VIEWS, AND PERCEPTIONS OF ESL GRADUATE COURSE FIELDWORK FOR ESL LICENSURE

DOROTHY VALCARCEL CRAIG

This action research study adopted a qualitative stance in examining perceptions of fieldwork held by graduate students enrolled in field-based classes as part of the ESL Add-On Endorsement program. Within the qualitative framework, the study employed systematic procedures of grounded theory. The broad goal of the study was to develop a theory in order to provide explanations regarding process, actions, tasks, interactions, and research involved in fieldwork. Data were collected over a three-month period and consisted of interviews, surveys, online discussions, artifacts, and field journals. Analysis utilized open, axial, and selective coding, which enabled categorization, development of attributes, and the identification of patterns and themes. Analysis continued throughout the data collection period as units were examined and theory was established and grounded in data, codes, themes, and patterns. Findings indicate that—although fieldwork presents numerous challenges to graduate students who are also practicing teachers—the benefits prove to be assets in preparing to work with linguistically diverse learners. In addition, participants provided feedback regarding the relevancy of creating in-depth profiles of learners, schools, and communities that serve second language student populations. Findings from the study will be used in program development, program improvement, and ongoing program updates.

INTRODUCTION

In an age of accountability in the public school arena, teacher preparation in all areas is “under fire.” Alternative paths to teaching and professional licensure call for abbreviated coursework and then full entry into the classroom without prior fieldwork or classroom experience. In the state of Tennessee, there are several licensure areas that are offered as an add-on endorsement to the initial license—English as a Second Language is one of those areas. Although candidates who seek add-on endorsements are already licensed teachers—state requirements include a clinical practice fieldwork component because the add-on area focuses on different subject areas, different student populations, and may span multiple grade levels such as PreK-12. Experts in the field hold differing views of the value of fieldwork and the benefits or hindrances that fieldwork may impose on teacher preparation and entry into the classroom. On one side of the fieldwork debate, educators stress the need for prior experiences in the classroom before entering the profession as a licensed or certified teacher – even in cases where the endorsement is being added to a current license. The fieldwork affords the educator opportunities to gain experience with targeted populations, ages, and content. In the case of ESL classrooms, fieldwork enables the educator to interact in a specific environment—exclusive of the regular education classroom—dedicated to promoting second language learning, thus promoting the development of culturally-responsive teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2002, Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009; Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

Opponents of fieldwork in teacher preparation feel that the best path to the profession is through abbreviated—if any—coursework followed by immediate entry into the classroom (Hess, 2005; Rochester, 2002). Although much of the rhetoric is aimed at initial licensure programs, the fact remains that fieldwork is still a part of current teacher preparation programs at the undergraduate

and graduate levels. The question however, is this—is fieldwork, which has been viewed as vital to teacher preparation—still a viable component of add-on endorsement coursework in terms of benefits, opportunity cost, and logistics. In addition, no matter what critics of formal teacher preparation programs debate—insight provided by professional educators is possibly one of the best sources of data in which policy makers can draw upon.

This action research study explored fieldwork and perceptions held by graduate students enrolled in clinical practice field-based classes as part of the additional endorsement in English as a Second Language. The participants—who were mostly practicing teachers working in an area other than ESL—engaged in ongoing fieldwork as well as a semester-long class dedicated to applied research and teaching in an ESL public school classroom. Within the qualitative framework, the study employed the systematic procedures outlined in the Grounded Theory approach and design (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The broad goal of the study was to systematically develop a theory that would assist in explaining process, action, and interaction of a situation and practice (fieldwork). The theoretical sampling included graduate students who were experiencing and engaging in fieldwork and who consented to participate. The study was framed by a set of overarching questions that guided the inquiry:

- What are the perceptions of fieldwork in terms of value, benefits, and hindrances among graduate students enrolled in field-based course and who are seeking the add-on endorsement in English as a Second Language?
- What views do participants hold regarding connections between the classroom, university, and fieldwork and how might these impact teacher efficacy and teacher effect?
- What insight may be revealed from artifacts collected and/or designed as a result of the fieldwork experience and how are the artifacts resulting from field tasks perceived by the participants?

The rationale for the action research design was grounded in improving practice (Craig, 2009). The graduate programs aligned with licensure requirements, national standards, and state standards are dynamic in that the coursework must frequently be revisited and revised based on revisions to standards as well as accreditation guidelines.

The State of Clinical Practice Fieldwork in Teacher Preparation

Rethinking teacher education is not new to the profession. As part of the continuing cycle of accreditation, policy makers as well as professional educators engage in ongoing examinations of current practice. However, in recent years—teacher education programs have been closely scrutinized resulting in “streamline” and accelerated paths to licensure. In many cases, fieldwork requirements have been decreased, discouraged, and omitted entirely from programs leaving teacher candidates at a loss and frankly at a disadvantage. In response, experts in the field of professional education continue to stress the need for clinical practice fieldwork and relevant field experiences integrated into coursework and programs. Advocates of stronger teacher preparation point out that it is while in the field—that one can begin to truly understand how different students learn, the differences and similarities among cultures, and how to design

effective instruction to meet the needs of extremely diverse student populations (Darling-Hammond, Holtzman, Gatlin & Heilig, 2005).

As a result of this ongoing debate, many programs now reflect a hybrid preparation model that includes: a) coursework delivered face-to-face or online, b) coursework delivered onsite at a selected public school location, and c) at least one year of clinical practice fieldwork matched with training modules. Another term for the hybrid model is, residency model, both of which are becoming more and more common in undergraduate and initial licensure teacher preparation programs. The hybrid and residency models call for rigorous, clinical fieldwork that is closely aligned with course content and application of the content to the classroom (NCATE, 2010; Sawchuk, 2010).

Specific to the second language learning classroom and the different structures associated with English as a Second Language and Bilingual Education programs, recent research offers the following critical points regarding the integration of fieldwork to encourage understanding of diverse populations:

- Teacher candidates for the ESL classroom continue to represent white, female, middle-class populations from suburban or rural environments,
- Exposure and experience working with English language learner (ELL) populations representative of varied sociocultural characteristics encourages the development of skills related to the ability to design effective instruction, integrate a variety of appropriate methods, use varied assessment tools and strategies, and select materials specific to the English language learner's needs.
- Fieldwork is critical in teacher efficacy and is vital for experienced, regular education teachers moving to the ESL setting as well as newly licensed teachers preparing to work with second language learners (Hollins & Guzman, 2005; NCES, 2007).

In addition, the National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality IQ (McGraner & Saenz, 2009) cites professional engagement and collaboration via fieldwork as one of the key factors that must be included in preparing to teach ELLs in both the regular education and ESL setting. Supporting the need for fieldwork in a time of quick paths to the classroom, Villegas and Lucas (2002) point out that fieldwork may be designed in a manner that systematically weaves six salient characteristics of effective preparation, which are critically needed for preparing to work with linguistically diverse students. One of the salient characteristics jumps out in terms of the ESL classroom and that is sociocultural consciousness. Sociocultural conscious—developing an understanding that one's way of thinking and behaving is influenced by race, ethnicity, social class, and language—is something that all teachers must accomplish, in particular those working with second language learners. By engaging in meaningful fieldwork, teachers are better able to begin developing this awareness. Closely related are: a) developing an emerging, affirming attitude toward students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds and b) a commitment to act as agents of change and advocates for English language learners. Although three of the six salient features have been discussed—all are critical in moving to the ESL classroom and to culturally responsive teaching. Thus, fieldwork serves as the vehicle for acquiring the skills, dispositions, and knowledge needed to: a) transition from the regular

education classroom to the ESL learning setting or b) to enter the field of ESL as an initially licensed teacher.

Designing Meaningful Clinical Practice Fieldwork for the ESL Professional

Professional educators who engaged in fieldwork as part of their teacher preparation programs know that there are pros and cons to working in the field. In addition, tasks related to fieldwork can be designed in a meaningful, relevant, connected manner or – in some cases – can be merely busy work without any value. The National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE, 2011) offers several suggestions when designing fieldwork for those preparing to work with English language learners. First, to be well prepared to teach ELLs, fieldwork must involve multiple tasks including: a) lesson preparation for English instruction, b) lesson and materials preparation for content instruction, c) assessing students' oral and written language development, and d) considering community, home, and school as resources for ELL development. Second, fieldwork must involve reflective practice and examinations of school culture, classroom contextual factors, and applied research with the intent of improving practice. Third, fieldwork tasks must integrate interactions, collaboration, breadth and depth of curriculum design, alignment of standards, and overall literacy development.

Furthermore, Curcio and Artz (2006) stress the need for moving beyond theory and creating a connection that reflects a theory-in-practice framework for fieldwork tasks. In the case of initial licensure programs—candidates for ESL licensure must be carefully placed in field classrooms that reflect best practice as well as the overall approaches and theoretical frameworks presented and established by previous coursework. However, with add-on endorsement programs—many candidates for licensure are already teaching on waivers, Alternative licenses, or within the regular education classrooms. The fieldwork placement is more challenging than in the case of the initial licensure candidates because in some cases—those pursuing the add-on endorsement work within their own school and classroom as they “self-place” to complete requirements for licensure.

Therefore, the fieldwork tasks and courses must be carefully designed and sequenced in a manner that affords appropriate opportunities and encourages connection, transaction, and application. In the case of this study, participants enrolled in a course dedicated to fieldwork, ethnography, instructional design, and reflective practice. The structure of the fieldwork course reflected the Instructional Model for Fieldwork presented by Hughes (2009). This three-step model encourages the identification of current practice, examining evidence with the field classroom, and engaging in self-reflection and research to improve practice. The course structure includes specific assignments and performance tasks that reflect three critical areas: a) Gathering and Utilizing Data, b) Designing Instruction and Related Materials, and c) Problem Identification, Action Research, and Developing an Action Plan. Some of the tasks include:

Gathering data to create a Neighborhood, School, and Classroom Profile. The tasks require students to identify the neighborhoods where their ELL students resided, take pictures, locate resources, and compile an overall Neighborhood Profile. The data collection then moves deductively to an examination of the overall school community and culture to the specific

classroom and contextual factors present that have the potential to impact language learning. The tasks enable analysis, reflection, and self-examination of practice.

Developing an Ethnographic Case based on a selected English language learner identified within the field classroom. A body of evidence in the form of data is collected. Methods and materials are examined along with current practice and instructional strategies. The data are analyzed and an individual plan to promote language learning is developed. The process of gathering data involves interviewing the identified student, parent, and regular education teacher along with observations and analysis of resources for ELL instruction.

Designing and implementing Literature Circles for literacy development. Curriculum development and instructional design based on reflective decision making is critical for ELL success. This particular task involves selecting appropriate, leveled literature and designing lessons that promote transactional reading, writing, language use, and comprehension.

Engaging in Action Research by identifying a problem. Reflecting on practice is a constant thread running through the field-based course. Given the multiple challenges involved in ESL teaching, licensure candidates are required to identify a problem that is within the realm of their possibility to solve and which may result in improved practice and ELL student success. As a result of engaging in self-action research—a plan to improve practice (Action Research Plan) is designed with the second language learner in mind.

Although the fieldwork course structure seems educationally sound in encouraging a connection between theory and practice as well as providing opportunities to apply skills and knowledge, there were no data available regarding the effectiveness of such a course. This issue became the rationale for the study.

SHOUTS, CRIES, AND ECHOES

This study examined the perceptions, views, and reflections of fieldwork held by graduate students enrolled in a field-based course as part of the Add-On Endorsement in English as a Second Language Program. Because of the online delivery of the course, participants were located across the state of Tennessee and represented practicing teachers working in a variety of ESL settings as well as full-time graduate students.

The Participants

All graduate students enrolled in *Fieldwork and Applied Research in ESL Learning Environments* were invited to participate. Eighteen of the 20 students enrolled elected to take part in the study. Although some of the participants were candidates in the full degree program (M.Ed. in Curriculum and Instruction with Concentration in ESL) and others were in the add-on only program—all were seeking the ESL endorsement. Participants represented the three regions of the state and rural, suburban, and urban public school settings. Teaching experience ranged from one year to 20 years with most of the experience being in the regular education classroom (Table 1).

Table 1

Fieldwork Study Participants

Participant Code	Status	Formal Teaching Experience	ESL	Professional License	Current Position / Status
A1	Licensure	2 years	0 years	Spanish	Teaching on Alternative License in ESL
M1	Licensure	1 year	Current	ELEM	Teaching Pre-K with ESL Service
E1	M.Ed.	8 years	Current	Middle School	Teaching 8th grade ESL on Waiver
J1	Licensure	2 years	0 years	ELEM	3rd grade
M2	M.Ed.	1 year	0 years	Middle School	8th grade
M3	M.Ed.	6 years	0 years	ELEM	Graduate student
K1	Licensure	1 year	Current	ELEM	ESL interim position
W1	Licensure	11 years	0 years	Spanish	Spanish - 9-12th
J2	M.Ed.	6 years	0 years	Science	Teaching 7th grade Science
C1	M.Ed.	2 years	0 years	English	Graduate student
K2	Licensure	4 years	1 year	Spanish	Teaching on Alternative License in ESL
J3	M.Ed.	7 years	0 years	Spanish	Spanish - 9-12th
N1	Licensure	12 years	0 years	SPED	Special Education -K-5
C2	M.Ed.	7 years	2 years	ELEM	Teaching on Alternative License in ESL
S1	M.Ed.	5 years	0 years	English	Substitute teacher and Graduate Student
G1	Licensure	20 years	3 years	Math	Math - 5-8th and ESL Pull Out
M1	M.Ed.	0 years	2 years	ELEM	Graduate student
O1	Licensure	2 years	2 years	Spanish	Spanish - 9-12th

METHODOLOGY

The study employed the processes and steps involved in Action Research (Craig, 2009) and took a qualitative stance in design and analysis. The study was guided by a set of overarching research questions—as appropriate for qualitative methods. The overarching questions served as the framework for the study and data sets were identified to best inform each question as indicated in the Triangulation Matrix.

Table 2

Triangulation Matrix

Overarching Question	Data Set	Data Set	Data Set
What are the perceptions of fieldwork in terms of value, benefits, and hindrances among graduate students enrolled in field-based course and who are seeking the add-on endorsement in English as a Second Language?	Initial Survey	Discussions and Interviews	Artifacts
What views do participants hold regarding connections between the classroom, university, and fieldwork and how might these impact teacher efficacy and teacher effect?	Classroom-Based Tasks	School, Community, and Student Profiles	Classroom Materials for Second Language Learners
What insight might be revealed from artifacts collected as a result of fieldwork and field tasks and how might these inform practice?	Researcher Fieldnotes	Participant Web Logs (Blogs)	Practitioner-Based Research and Inquiry Artifacts

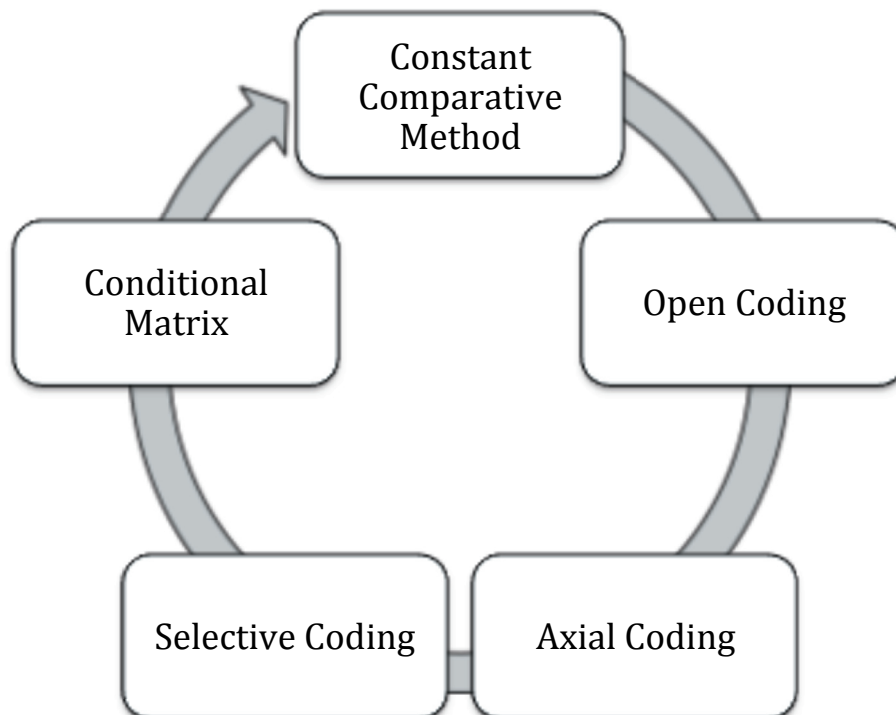
Through the framework of action research, those working within practitioner-based environments are encouraged to use their expertise and knowledge to conduct systematic inquiry to improve practice (Craig, 2009). In addition, participants were conducting their own action research within the field classroom. Therefore, their participation served as a model for their own practice. Because the process is viewed as community-based research, action research was employed in terms of the structure and processes of the inquiry. The action research process utilized a qualitative approach in: a) overarching questions that frame the study, b) triangulation

processes, c) coding and analysis procedures, and d) reporting findings in a thick, descriptive narrative.

DATA ANALYSIS

Data were collected over a three-month period. Analysis followed the Constant Comparative process (Figure 1) and involved specific types of coding including: a) open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. A conditional matrix was developed and served as a coding device (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Analysis procedures involved levels of categorization, assigning attributes, and identifying emerging themes and patterns. Once collected, each data set was organized, coded, and memoed. The use of a triangulation matrix provided an organizational framework and assisted in determining the results of the inquiry. In addition, the researcher engaged in epoche in order to re-examine all data, engage in reflection, and remove any preconceptions, biases, and assumptions (Craig, 2009; Patton, 2002). The next step in the analysis required the researcher to identify chunks of meaning derived from emerging patterns and themes. Subsetting enabled further analysis. Additional coding was applied in order to break down the data sets, examine, compare, and categorize one last time (Corbin & Strauss, 2007; Craig, 2009; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994).

Figure 1. Constant Comparative Analysis Process



FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Findings are aligned and presented based on each overarching question that framed the study. Emerging themes are outlined and further explanations are offered. The themes emerged as a result of the data sets collected to inform each overarching question and were identified throughout each of the data sets.

Question #1: What are the perceptions of fieldwork in terms of value, benefits, and hindrances among graduate students enrolled in field-based course and who are seeking the add-on endorsement in English as a Second Language?

- Theme 1: Benefits of fieldwork – Participants indicated that the fieldwork involved in the required tasks strongly encouraged them to redirect their instructional focus to English language learners. In addition, the fieldwork encouraged an examination of practice as well as self-reflection.
- Theme 2: Hindrances of Fieldwork – Challenges to fieldwork that prevented some participants to fully acclimate to the related tasks included lack of prior fieldwork, scheduling problems, and lack of collaboration between colleagues (regular education teachers and ESL teachers).
- Theme 3: Research-Based Practice – Participants indicated that the fieldwork encouraged the development of ethnographic skills and enabled the development of research skills in terms of problem identification and designing a plan to improve practice. In addition, participants (who were also practicing teachers) shared that they took a closer look at their own practice as a result.

Question #2: What views do participants hold regarding connections between the classroom, university, and fieldwork and how might these impact teacher efficacy and teacher effect?

Theme 1: Good Profiling – Fieldwork assisted with creating a body of evidence from community-to-neighborhood-to-school-to individual student. The tasks helped to create cultural awareness that lead to heightened sensitivity to student needs. This was a recurring theme that emerged across data sets.

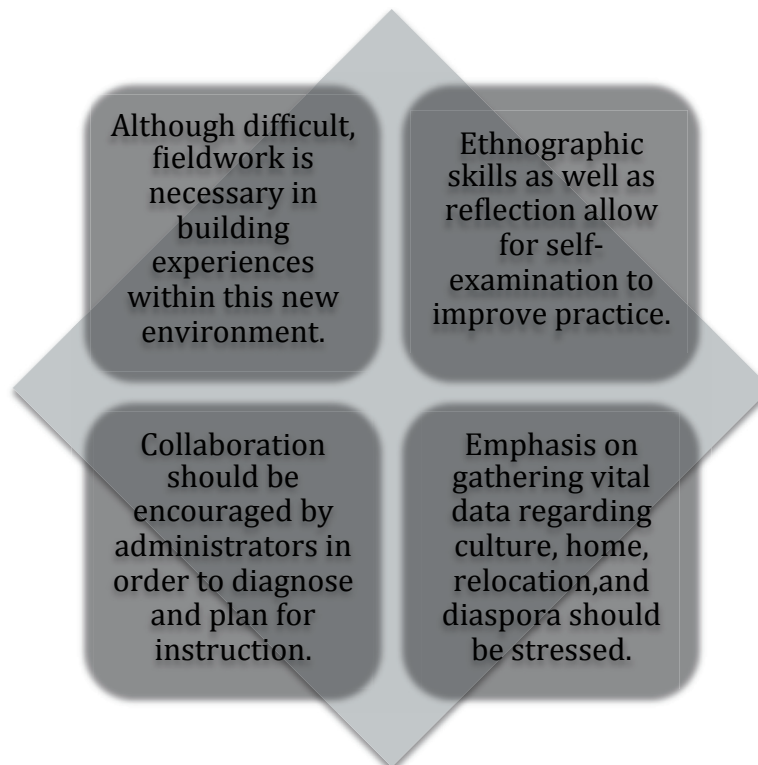
Theme 2: Perceptions – Some participant views of fieldwork remained constant and did not change over the duration of the study. Others expressed increased awareness of the connectivity between culture and language, awareness of processes involved in language acquisition, and increased self-examination. All indicated that fieldwork was critical and an essential component of their preparation to work with ELLs.

Theme 3: Look Inside – This theme emerged as participants expressed the need for more opportunities to engage in self-examination of personal practice, self-reflection on effectiveness and effect on student learning, and the need for ongoing evaluation of practice and student success.

Question #3: What insight might be revealed from artifacts collected as a result of fieldwork and field tasks and how might these inform practice?

- Theme 1: The Designer – Participants stressed that instructional materials must be “tailor-made” for the ELL. In addition, they cited drawing on resources including school, home, and community in the design of lessons and learning experiences. Last, participants indicated that instruction for ELLs require specific models, methods, and strategies that reflect and promote second language acquisition.
- Theme 2: The Diagnostician – This emerging theme reflected the need for implementation of the ongoing cycle of assessment-instruction-diagnosis. Most of the participants indicated that ethnographic skills are needed when working with linguistically diverse populations. The need for data collection in terms of testing as well as classroom artifacts was high priority in building a body of evidence as the basis for instruction. Two quotes selected from participant web logs (blogs) are particularly interesting in telling the story of fieldwork in the ESL learning environment. These include: a) *“This is not your mother’s regular ed classroom!”* and b) *“The ESL teacher is like a pediatrician—always diagnosing!”*
- Theme 3: The Profession – Participants offered that collaboration between the ESL professional and regular education teacher is critical. The school should develop into a learning community that welcomes and nurtures ELLs and celebrates their success through sharing and highlights. Last, disseminating information regarding what works, best practice, and effective strategies should be part of the overall school culture.

Figure 2. General Conclusions



This study was conducted in order to evaluate the use and integration of fieldwork in graduate level teacher preparation coursework. Findings will assist with program development, revision, and in ongoing updates that reflect current practice and standards for licensure. Although fieldwork is challenging and in many cases difficult – especially for full time practicing teachers

– it is critically necessary in building experiences in the ESL classroom. The tasks involved in fieldwork assist in creating meaning and understanding of the uniqueness of linguistically diverse students and their needs. Fieldwork also helps to build skills needed for applied research with the intent and goal of improving practice. Ethnographic skills such as observing, recording, interviewing, and diagnosing are vital when working with ELLs. The need for diagnosing needs in those who cannot express their thoughts is critical, thus, fieldwork encourages the ESL professional to think like a diagnostician. Although not always part of the school culture, collaboration is also needed. If ESL professionals are viewed as a vital part of the school community—collaboration follows. The central vision of “learning for all” is at the heart of collaboration and is always present in a healthy school environment. Fieldwork encourages collaboration and serves as an entry point and introduction in terms of strategies to encourage working together, diagnosing together, and planning instruction to promote language learning. Last, fieldwork—if structured to include data collection and ethnography—facilitates data collection to build a body of evidence as the basis for instruction. With practice, comes ease and expertise. Tasks included in fieldwork provide an avenue to practice data collection and with practice—ESL professionals are better able to identify vital data the leads to insight and student success.

The Author

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Anticipating the Improvement of Japanese Students' English Ability: English Education in Japanese and South Korean Elementary Schools

MIHO NAGAMATSU

English became compulsory for 5th and 6th graders at Japanese elementary schools in April 2011, much later than in South Korea. Many Japanese specialists in English education were against the idea of teaching English to elementary school students mainly because the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has not solved the problem of who can teach them English. However, MEXT decided they must be taught English. It seems that MEXT considered other Asian countries' stances toward English education and followed them. The purpose of this paper is to introduce the aims of English education in Japanese elementary schools and survey the different teaching methods and curricula employed in Japanese and South Korean elementary schools.

INTRODUCTION

The image of most Japanese citizens not being good at English is commonly reinforced by a wide range of media commentators. It is said that they do not speak English after having studied it at school for about six years. Critics note that this is not only due to the way English is taught at Japanese schools. One typical explanation emphasizes that Japanese and English are grammatically unrelated. This apparently national difficulty of learning the grammar rules of English is further compounded because most Japanese have no opportunity to practice what they have learned at school in their daily lives. It means that English is not rooted in their lives. However, the same can be said about South Koreans. Their environment of learning English is almost the same as that of the Japanese.

Today, thanks to increasingly easy access to improved travel systems, the growth of internet-based community networks and the increase in international marriages, foreign countries seem closer to Japan. There is common acknowledgement across the nation that it will be necessary for Japanese to communicate in English with foreigners in the 21st century. As a result, in the past two decades the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has endeavored to gradually change the way English is taught in secondary and tertiary education. The earlier MEXT focus on teaching grammar, reading and writing is being supplemented by attention to teaching practical English. However, these changes in pedagogical methods have not been effective. Most young Japanese are still unable to communicate in English. Worse still, their reading and writing abilities seem to have declined due to these changes in teaching methods. In response to this situation, MEXT is now targeting elementary school students, who have not been taught English before. In this paper, the author would like to consider the reasons for teaching English at Japanese elementary schools and then explain the differences in English teaching methods between Japanese and South Korean public elementary schools, by reference to fieldwork conducted in Fukuoka, Japan and in Busan, South Korea.

The Process of Making English Education Compulsory at Japanese Public Elementary Schools

In Japan, attendance at elementary school and junior high school is obligatory. Japanese have to go to school from the age of 6 to 15. 99% of elementary schools and 93% of junior high schools are public. After junior high school, 97% of students enter high school, whether public or private. The percentage of private high schools is 25.8%. English is a required subject at high schools as well as at junior high schools (*Central Educational Group in the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2005*). MEXT strictly decides the number of teaching hours and curricula for each subject at public schools. Therefore, most Japanese study English for at least six years and they are taught English in almost the same way.

Until ten years ago, elementary school students did not have to study English at public schools. However, MEXT issued a revised elementary school course of study which implemented the teaching of conversation in foreign languages at elementary schools in 2002 (www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/shuppan/sonota/990301b/990301a.htm). In accordance with this, many Japanese focused on English as the one foreign language to learn, and around that time it was said that the study of English would become compulsory in the near future. Japanese classroom teachers or guest teachers, mainly native speakers of English, began to teach English at many elementary schools by using the hours allotted to general classes. However, there were no clear guidelines from MEXT about English education. Consequently, it was up to elementary schools whether English would be taught or not, how many hours would be allocated to teaching English and which textbook would be used. It is natural that some schools should be enthusiastic about teaching English and others not. This kind of chaos in the field of English education at elementary schools continued for about seven or eight years.

At Japanese elementary schools, one classroom teacher teaches all subjects to his or her students including PE, music and so on. These classroom teachers had not taught English before and had not been trained to teach English to their students. Given this situation, many Japanese specialists of English education were opposed and are still opposed to the idea of teaching English at public elementary schools, mainly because they think that classroom teachers are not qualified to teach English to their students. They say something like “It is very easy for small children to absorb everything, just like sponges inhaling water” (Ootsu and Torikai, 2005). They are afraid that if students have acquired wrong English at elementary school as taught by non-qualified teachers, it will be very difficult to correct it at junior high school and it will take them much more time to recover from it (Ootsu and Torikai, 2005). MEXT understands this kind of fear, and that this is why MEXT has trained public elementary school teachers how to teach English to for the past ten years. After trial and error, English became compulsory for the 5th and 6th graders of Japanese elementary schools in April 2011.

Now, English is compulsory at elementary schools but it has not been accepted as one subject. Instead, it is treated as one part of each field. Therefore, classroom teachers evaluate students' English scores not as A, B or C grades which can be tallied to rank students, but as holistic sentences which place English outside the ranking system of grades. In addition to the 5th and 6th graders, English is taught to most grades at many elementary schools despite not being compulsory. In the case of 1st to 4th graders, there are no officially approved class hours for

English. Teachers teach English by using general class hours or flexible hours allocated to the schools. Thus, English will become a subject in the future, but MEXT will probably have to revise the curricula gradually because of many specialists' objections and because of the need for teacher training.

The Purpose of and the Reason for Teaching English to Elementary School Students in Japan and the Difference in Teaching Methods Between Japan and South Korea

Most Japanese study English for at least six years. However, they have a lot of difficulty in making themselves understood in English. There are many reasons for this situation. The author thinks that the main reason is that English is not rooted in their daily lives. They cannot learn the language from their everyday experience. When it comes to mastering a language, there exists an ideal period for language acquisition (Ootsu and Torikai, 2005). Advocates of this approach by MEXT argue that if we pass that critical period, it becomes increasingly difficult for us to master any language other than the first. They think that the younger we are, the easier it is to master languages. South Koreans seem to be more enthusiastic about studying and mastering English. The author hears that rich South Koreans send their children to the U.S. with their mother to master English during this critical period. However, such cases are rare in Japan.

Many Japanese have complained about the contradiction between a university entrance exam system which does not test communicative skills and the Japanese educational system that claims to teach practical English. Pressed by these social complaints, MEXT has come to focus on teaching speaking and listening rather than grammar, reading and writing. It is said that high school English teachers will have to give lessons in English from 2013, based on students' English communication ability (MEXT, 2009a). However, actually, many high school English teachers have not lived in English-speaking countries and do not speak English. What MEXT has to do first, in the author's opinion, is to train present high school teachers. Still, the English ability of Japanese students seems to have been getting lower since MEXT changed its teaching methods. Even many Japanese university students do not know the grammar rules of English very well and cannot read English stories or essays which older generations of students could.

In Japan, many parents and company leaders support English education at elementary schools because they feel that mastery of English is essential to surviving in the competitive 21st century. These community members have strong memories of the experience of trying to learn a second language. Furthermore, MEXT is conscious of other Asian countries' stances toward English education and has therefore decided to teach English at elementary schools.

South Korea started to teach English at elementary schools much earlier than Japan. However, as in Japan, the process of introducing English to primary education was not without minor setbacks. English officially became obligatory at South Korean elementary schools in 1997. The English-learning environment for Japanese and South Koreans is quite similar: the grammar of their mother languages is completely different from that of English and English is not rooted in their daily lives. It is commonly asserted that the English speaking and listening abilities of South Korean students have improved since they started to learn English at elementary-school level (*Central Educational Group in the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports,*

Science and Technology, 2005). Busan is the second biggest city in South Korea. When the author visited Busan, she spoke to South Koreans in English, but they did not understand her even though they were younger. However, it is true that South Korea is more advanced than Japan in the field of English education. The South Korean government allocates a much larger budget to English education. In Japan, mainly classroom teachers teach English to their students but in South Korea, South Korean teachers of English, mostly having studied in English-speaking countries, teach English even to elementary school students. South Korean students begin to study English in the 3rd grade, but in the case of Japanese students, in the 5th grade. Even though a lot of up-to-date teaching equipment is used in classrooms and South Korean teachers give lessons almost entirely in English to upper grade students of elementary school, students are sometimes required to go to Global Village to practice English. There, they practice English by acting as bankers, flight attendants, hotel receptionists and so on.

The following charts present Asians' TOEIC and TOEFL scores. TOEIC only evaluates examinees' reading and listening abilities, so the score does not show their English ability precisely. Nevertheless, we can judge that Japanese people's English ability has remained almost the same for the past twenty years, whereas South Koreans' English ability has been getting better. Also, as for TOEFL, South Koreans' scores are much higher than those of Japanese. These differences may be due to the differences between teaching methods and curricula.

Table 1

TOEIC Scores Comparing Japan and South Korea

Year	1987	1988	1995	2000	2003	2005	2008	2010
Japan	549	546	572	561	573	562	580	574
South Korea	No data	No data	561	558	586	598	610	634

Based on Institute for International Business Communication (IIBC)'s Data

Table 2

TOEFL Scores (iBT) (Each item's full score is 30)

Country	Reading	Listening	Speaking	Writing	Total
Japan	18	17	17	18	70
South Korea	21	20	20	21	81
China	20	18	18	21	77

ETS-Test and Score Data Summary for TOEFL Internet-based and Paper-based Tests
JANUARY 2010-DECEMBER 2010 TEST DATA

According to MEXT, the purpose of teaching English at elementary schools is to let the students become accustomed to the sounds of English and the basic expressions of English (MEXT, 2008a). The MEXT assumption is that once elementary-school students are accustomed to the phonology of English, they will begin to whisper or say some words in English. Because they are so young, MEXT policy-makers believe them to be free of the constraints of peer pressure and individual self-consciousness (Izumi, 2007). The MEXT expectation is that they do not hesitate to whisper or say something in their classroom in another language. This is why teachers have to employ a phonology-based system of English pedagogy. The following pictures are typical examples of how English phonemes are taught in classroom practice sessions that combine picture cards labelled in English with Japanese script providing thematic orientation.

Students look at the picture card and say the word in English, repeating what the teacher has said. The teacher shows the picture card to the students and teaches the meaning of the word. They sometimes say easy sentences in English by repeating the utterances of the teacher, but teachers are not required to teach them English grammar. How can students understand the meaning of the sentences? Although there is the possibility that some students will use contextual clues to build up a repertoire of grammatical competence, the majority of students seem to merely repeat what the teacher has said just like parrots. However, as the explicit MEXT purpose of teaching English to elementary school students is to accustom them to the sounds and the basic expressions of English through exposing them to English (MEXT, 2008a), teachers cannot avoid choosing this teaching method. MEXT says something like “English activities at elementary school should not be considered preliminary steps to English education at junior high school” (MEXT, 2007). However, it also says that English activities at elementary schools are connected with English education at junior high schools, especially with regard to communicative skills (MEXT, 2008b). MEXT clearly focuses on teaching practical English.

While elementary school teachers are required to teach English sounds to their students, some teachers are not confident of pronouncing English words or sentences. That being the case, MEXT recommends that they should utilize CDs and/or videos (MEXT, 2007). Even so, teachers need to have to have good knowledge of English phonology and of the common pronunciation errors produced by native speakers of Japanese. Students are so young that they can very quickly imitate what the teacher has said, so it is crucial that the teacher provide accurate models of the target phonemes and give timely individual correction.

Teaching Materials and Methods at Japanese Elementary Schools

In Japan, schools start in April. Until April 2011, English was not compulsory at elementary schools. This means that each school had the autonomy to select which textbooks it would use and how many teaching hours would be allocated to English learning. Consequently, there was no unity in the field of English education across Japanese elementary schools.

MEXT published a series of English textbooks called *English Note* about three years ago. The chapter titles listed in the contents are as follows:

Figure 1. English Note Chapters

<i>English Note 1</i> (For 5th Graders)		<i>English Note 2</i> (For 6th Graders)	
Lesson 1	Hello.	Lesson 1	That's right.
Lesson 2	I'm happy.	Lesson 2	Aa Bb Cc
Lesson 3	How many?	Lesson 3	When is your birthday?
Lesson 4	I like apples.	Lesson 4	I can swim.
Lesson 5	I don't like blue.	Lesson 5	Turn right.
Lesson 6	What do you want?	Lesson 6	I want to go to Italy.
Lesson 7	What's this	Lesson 7	What time do you get up?
Lesson 8	I study Japanese.	Lesson 8	Please help me.
Lesson 9	What would you like?	Lesson 9	I want to be a teacher.

It is rare that MEXT publishes textbooks. However, this fact shows that many elementary schools were greatly at a loss about teaching materials and methods. Once these English textbooks had been approved by MEXT for distribution to all public elementary schools in Japan, they constituted a unified English curriculum. However, according to MEXT, schools do not have to use them if they have more suitable textbooks (www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/shotou/new-cs/qa/11.htm). It means that these textbooks are not mandatory but rather recommended as if by a guideline. Whether they are mandatory or recommended, the author's Kyushu fieldwork suggests that the real situation is that most classroom teachers use them to conduct their classes. They are almost entirely written in Japanese because MEXT does not focus on teaching English spellings to elementary school students and students cannot read English. They consist of colorful pictures, games, work activities, and so on.

Teachers have to give 35 English classes per year to 5th and 6th graders. In the case of South Korea, these class hours are for 3rd and 4th graders. As for 5th and 6th graders in South Korea, they have to attend 68 English classes per year, though one class hour is 40 minutes whereas in Japan it is 45 minutes (*Central Educational Group in the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2005*). In any case, classroom teachers in Japan must usually give one English class per week if they take care of 5th or 6th graders. If the municipal or prefectural government has an adequate budget, their schools can hire assistant teachers who are mostly native speakers of English. Even if assistant teachers give classes, the number of classes given by them is very few. They give less than ten classes per year in each classroom at most elementary schools, so most English classes are taught by Japanese classroom teachers. When assistant teachers give classes, they usually do so by themselves and Japanese teachers seem to assist their students' class participation. On the other hand, at South Korean elementary schools, an assistant teacher and a Korean teacher give classes together and a Korean teacher mostly presides over the class. Assistant teachers in Japan usually do not use any textbook, although picture cards tend to be an essential component of their classroom practice. They teach English words, make students pronounce them and ask some questions in English. It is apparent from the author's classroom observations that many students do not understand the questions because they are mostly taught English words by their classroom teacher. Assistant teachers sometimes make students play games during the classes to allow them to practice using the English words the assistant teacher has taught.

The classes given by the classroom teacher and those given by the assistant teacher are completely different. The classroom teacher usually uses the approved textbooks and gives classes conforming to them. The assistant teacher usually does not use any textbook and gives individually distinctive classes following his or her own pedagogical and private preferences. It seemed to the author that classes given by the assistant teacher were close to play. However, the purpose of teaching English to elementary school students is to let them become accustomed to English sounds and then to nurture the basis of their English communication ability (MEXT, 2008a). As long as those activities achieve the MEXT objective, it is not undesirable to let them play games, using English words and questions. However, from the point of view of the long-term effect of this approach, the author is very doubtful about this method.

CONCLUSION

After a great deal of trial and error, English education in Japan has become compulsory for elementary school students. MEXT says that English education in elementary schools is not intended to enable students to learn English reading and writing, which are to be taught at junior high schools (MEXT, 2008b). This is why elementary school students are not taught English grammar. The author has observed the fact that Japanese tend not to communicate in English with foreigners after having studied it for at least six years, which is why MEXT is now focusing on teaching practical English. Its one idea is to let elementary school students grow accustomed to English sounds. However, the pronunciation skills students learn in elementary school should not be made independent from the grammatical foundations acquired in junior high school. English education at the primary and secondary levels must be related in a more cohesive

Japanese elementary school students have to attend 70 English classes before entering junior high school. Primary education is an important foundation for the challenges provided by higher education. As one Japanese who lived through this problem, the author can understand the reasoning and the methodology underpinning English education at elementary schools. However, when compared to the situation in South Korea, the educational methods and equipment at Japanese elementary schools seem to be old-fashioned. It is easy to say that MEXT should invest more time and money in training present teachers, but there remains the problem that some of them are old enough to be reluctant to learn anything new. This policy has been carried out over about twenty years, ever since MEXT began to think of adopting English education at elementary schools. However, teacher training for every elementary school teacher started only about ten years ago. The number of training hours seems to have been inadequate for them. As long as English education is compulsory at elementary schools, universities have to change their curricula to educate future elementary school teachers. The author hears that some universities have already changed their curricula for student teachers (Izumi, 2007). However, such universities are in a small minority, and some classroom teachers still hesitate to pronounce English words. We must make every effort to remedy this reluctance.

English education at elementary schools has officially only just begun. However, if the present teaching methods and curricula continue, the author worries about the negative impact this will have on Japan's future, and her opinion is shared by many professionals in this country.

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Breaking the Trends: A Meta-Analysis of Current Research Related to Young Adult Latinas

BRIAN SEADORF

This meta-analysis of current research revealed that Latinas had the highest high school dropout rates among all other races and genders, as well as the highest rate of depression, suicide, and alcoholism. Academically successful Latinas had strong relationships with their mothers, family, peers, and teachers. Mentoring programs were effective in assisting Latinas. The retention rate among Latinas is low in collegiate settings, however. Overall, mothers and mentoring programs were the most responsible for a Latina's academic success.

An 8th grade Language Arts teacher at a high-poverty school in suburban Nashville, Tennessee, requested that six of his Latina students complete a short questionnaire about goals and expectations for their educational future. Four of the six students had an A/B average in the first nine-week grading period of the 2010-11 school year, while the other two had A's and B's, with just one C. When asked why they felt that many Latinas in the school made very high grades, two wrote that their parents were a major influence on their academic progress, and three mentioned how much they want to learn new materials, (Luna, personal communication, October 10, 2010) , (Lopez, personal communication, October 10, 2010) , (Sandoval, personal communication, October 10, 2010). Regarding the question of their family's expectations for them, all six said that it was expected for them to graduate with honors, attend college, graduate, get a good job, and/or be independent (Espinoza et al., personal communication, October 10, 2010).

Five of the six interviewed were born in the United States, with the remaining girl was born in Mexico; all six had at least one parent born in Mexico, Latin America, or South America. None of the girls had ever been a member of a mentoring program, and five of the six had been in an English as a Second Language (ESL)/English Language Learners (ELL) program for at least a short period of time. Five of the six girls had been speaking English since at least kindergarten, and most began learning English before entering school. As for motivation to make good grades, answers varied from "seeing the grades I make when I don't turn in work" (Garcia, personal communication, October 10, 2010), to "I want to go somewhere in life and have a good career" (Espinoza, personal communication, October 10, 2010), to "so I can attend a good college" (Sandoval, personal communication, October 10, 2010). These Latinas defied national trends regarding social issues such as the high school drop-out rate, alcoholism, and teen pregnancy and excelled academically in secondary education.

Population Statistics

Regarding population, Latinos (consisting of males and females) are now the youngest and largest minority group in the United States (Zalaquett, 2006, p. 35) (Gonzalez & Portillo, 2006, p. 247) (Devos & Torres, 2007, p. 293), as well as the fastest-growing minority group (Kaplan, et al., 2009, p. 213), (Locks, Oseguera, & Vega, 2009, p. 23). By the year 2020, it is projected that more than 20% of the children and youth in the United States younger than 18 will be of Latino

origin (Locks et al., 2009, p. 24). By 2025, Latinos are estimated to make up one-fourth of all U.S. public school students, and by 2050, they will make up more than one third of the entire United States population (Locks et al., 2009, p. 23).

Education

Along with these gains in the population, there were several negative trends coinciding in the field of education with Latinos. In academic achievement, Latino students achieved less in elementary and secondary schools than Caucasian students (Jesse, 2004, p. 23). Latinos had the highest high school dropout rate of all racial and ethnic groups, with a rate that was close to four times that of Caucasian youth (Zambrana, 2002, p. 39) (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 35) (Kaplan et al., 2007, p. 175), with a rate of 43% (Alfaro et al., 2006, p. 279). Compared to all other female racial and ethnic categories, Latinas' graduation rate remained lower than any other group, and the rates continued to decrease yearly, though only slightly (Zambrana, 2002, p. 40). From 1973-2002, the percentage of Latino young adults who were dropouts remained higher than that of Caucasian and African American youth (Zambrana, 2002, p. 39). Since 1990, the percentage of Latinas over 25 who held high school diplomas increased but only by a very slight margin (Gonzalez, 2006, p. 250).

Alongside these trends, the following were the keys to academically high achieving Latinas:

- Mentoring programs,
- High mother-daughter mutuality,
- High achieving family background and support,
- Peer support,
- Effective educators, and
- Students' own attitudes and behaviors.

For Latinas who did excel academically, there were factors involved. Latinas with significantly higher overall grades expressed that they enjoyed going to school as opposed to students who said they did not enjoy school had lower grades (Badger et al., 2007, p.187). The successful students believed in the importance of earning competitive grades and in the development and maintenance of rigorous study habits (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 40). The students developed a sense of pride in their accomplishments in education, and most believed that their success in education would have a positive impact on the way that others recognized and treated them (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 41). There was a definite "positive relation between academic motivation and tangible measures of academic success such as GPA" (Alfaro et al., 2006, p. 280).

For those Latinas who immigrated to the United States after first attending school in a native country, they exhibited stronger academic drive in Language Arts classes, and they surpassed Latino peers who were born in the United States (Davis et al., 2004, p. 39). If Latina students were taught the materials first in Spanish and then transitioned to English, students became better readers in English (Davis et al., 2004, p. 27). For immigrant and minority students, those that embraced their native communities while incorporating chosen aspects of the new culture into their self images had more academic success (Kaplan et al., 2009, p. 214). For Latinas, having the ability to adapt to the way of life in the United States while still retaining culture heritage and

219). Researchers had documented ways in which Latinas have challenged, rather than accepted, the confined feminine roles of traditional Latin American society, and were “stretching the borders of gender within Latino culture (and) contributing to the reshaping of these roles” (Johnson, 2009, p. 261).

Meta-Analysis Review and Overview

The following review is a meta-analysis of research which used studies completed based on broad references to statistics from studies. Information was compiled from a review of publications appearing in professional journals including *Child Development*, *Journal of Hispanic Higher Education*, *Journal of Education for Students Placed At Risk*, *Child and Family Social Work*, *Family Relations*, *Education Digest*, and *Ethnic and Cultural Diversity in Social Work*. These publications dealt with Latina issues such as teen pregnancy, family, drugs, alcohol, language barriers, crime, imprisonment, and collegiate aspirations. Most of the articles were reports using mixed methods in completing the research, with the majority of the research done in a qualitative method.

The review will begin with social issues affecting Latinas, followed by negative educational trends. Next, the review will focus on family, peer, and teacher relationships and how they affect the academic success of Latinas. Lastly, the focus will be on the success of mentoring programs, followed by how Latinas are not making a successful transition to post-secondary schools and the workforce.

Working Theories

Three themes were present throughout the literature. The themes are evident and provide a working theory related to reasons for Latinas excelling academically in secondary schools:

Maternal Influences: Girls with strong maternal, peer, and educator relationships had more success academically than Latinas with weaker or nonexistent relationships.

Mentoring: Latinas who were involved with mentoring programs and other after-school activities had more academic success than those that were not involved with mentoring programs or other activities.

Advanced Education: Even with high Latina academic success in secondary school settings, the population percentage that transitioned to university settings was low because of: a) unpreparedness for the complexities of the college application process, b) secondary schools did not give adequate support for collegiate decisions, and c) minimal adult supervision for unfamiliar post-secondary choices.

Social Issues Affecting Latinas

For Latinas, there were many social issues that affect their abilities to excel academically in secondary schools. Self-esteem of Latinas was considerably lower than that of Caucasian and African American girls, and depression is also more prevalent in these females than the other racial groups (Badger et al., 2007, p.176). Forty-five percent of Latina high school students felt helpless or depressed to the point that they had given serious consideration to attempting suicide, or even making an actual suicide plan, which compares to 33% of Caucasian female high school students and 31% of all African-American students (Kaplan et al., 2009, p. 214), (Kaplan et al., 2009, p. 174, 214). Fifteen percent of high school Latinas made an actual suicide attempt that required medical attention (Kaplan et al., 2009, p. 214).

Teen pregnancy is a social issue that was described as a “crisis of epic proportions” (Johnson, 2009, p. 257). Teen pregnancy rates amongst Latinas between the ages of 15 and 19 were higher than either Caucasian or African American young women (Kaplan et al., 2009, p. 214), (Kaplan et al, 2009, p. 214), though over the past half-century, the rates have decreased considerably (Johnson, 2009, p. 257). In United States culture, the issue of teen pregnancy had been blamed for several societal problems, such as childhood poverty and the increase in high school dropout rates (Johnson, 2009, p. 257).

Prison population and drug abuse amongst Latinas was also a social issue with a negative impact. The prison population for Latinos continued to grow between the years 1993-2005 from 14.6 percent to 20.2 percent (Gonzalez & Portillo, 2005, p. 251). In 2005, Latinos were 20.2% of the prison populations, but only 14% of the total population in the United States (Gonzalez & Portillo, 2005, p. 251). Illegal drug use was high for Latina teens, as cocaine, marijuana, and alcohol were used at a higher rate than that of Caucasian and African American high school students (Kaplan et al., 2009, p. 214).

Negative/Positive Trends for Latinos in Education

Academic achievements for Latinos were compromised by an assortment of factors, such as poverty, attendance at poor schools, little or no participation in preschools, negative self image, few role models, and being placed in lower-track classes (Zambrana & Zoppi, 2002, p. 41). For low-academic achieving schools, there were three major trends associations: “concentration and segregation in resource-poor, low quality schools, high school non-completion, and non-participation in early preschools” (Zambrana & Zoppi, 2002, p. 37), with focus on Latino students who were considerably less likely to attend early preschool programs than African American or Caucasian children, therefore, being less likely to being sufficiently prepared for kindergarten (Zambrana & Zoppi, 2002, p. 37). Illiterate students fell behind as early as 7th grade, which coincided with many Latino young adults entering juvenile detention systems, or assume economic provider roles in their families (Zambrana & Zoppi, 2002, p. 39).

For many Latinas, the education system was a negative experience, since as a whole, Latino teens felt less of a bond to the school environment and were subjected to greater school-related stress than Caucasian teens (Badger et al., 2007, p.175). Many students disconnected from

school, lost interest in learning new things, and ultimately dropped out of school (Badger et al., 2007, p. 174). A few factors that affected Latinas' displacement from education include: a) poverty, b) lack of early childhood literacy development, c) inability to establish a cultural context, d) racism, and e) negative peer pressure (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 35-6).

Latino youth had the highest national dropout rate (Zambrana & Zoppi, 2002, p. 39) compared to Caucasian or African American teens, as Latino boys and girls are three times more likely to drop out of high school (Badger et al., 2007, p. 175). The dropout rate among Latino teens possibly resulted from school policies that are based on low expectations, a school's poor contacts with Latino parents of teens concerning academic progress, and differential treatment (Badger et al., 2007, p. 175). The highest number of Latino dropouts occurred in high school, with some occurring in middle schools, where important basic literacy and English language acquisitions occurred and is where the important conversion between elementary and high school takes place (Davis et al., 2004, p. 24).

From 1973 to 2002, the percentage of Latino teens that dropped out of school without earning a diploma was higher than that of Caucasian and African American youth (Zambrana & Zoppi, 2002, p. 39), as the graduation rate for solely Latinas had remained lower than all other female ethnic groups (Zambrana & Zoppi, 2002, p. 40). While it is true that there was a decrease in the dropout rate for Latinas from 1972-2000, there were key measures of academic achievement in which they are lagging behind other female racial groups, as they have not benefitted from gender equity gains as much as the other subgroups (Zambrana & Zoppi, 2002, p. 40). In some cases, even with average grades, Latino students dropped out of school at higher rates than their peers and were still not considered to be at-risk students because these students were "pushed out of school by the implementations of schools' curriculum and regulations that only meet the needs of mainstream students" (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 36).

Since 1990, the percent of Latinos 25 years old and older who have earned a high school diploma or more had progressed, though it had been at a slow rate (Gonzalez & Portillo, 2005, p.250). A large number of the United States Latino population was without even a high school education because of this pace, even though there had been a dramatic population increase (Gonzalez & Portillo, 2005, p.250). There were three main obstructions that affected the academic success of Latino students: (a) choice of less flourishing options (b) lack of strong adult direction and (c) lack of correct information about collegiate requirements (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 36). There was a disconnect between what schools recommended to Latino students and what parents actually wanted for their children in the educational sense, and this problem lead to academic failure, which contributed to the low percentage of college entrants and high number of high school dropouts (Stern, 2004, p. 41). Many institutions used a cultural deficient viewpoint that defined Latino students by what they did not accomplish rather than what effort they simply brought to school (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 36).

In contrasting ineffective schools, successful schools had advanced academic opportunities for Latinas. A large majority of studies completed on education had found that school leadership was a key characteristic (Davis et al., 2004, p. 25). These successful schools kept parents informed about school events, policies and student progress through formal communications such as letters, newsletters, phone calls, and e-mails in which almost all of the information was

available in both English and Spanish (Davis et al., 2004, p. 35). For effective urban schools, the following were characteristics that were associated with them: a) they established collaborative relationships with parents and community b) they included faculty in collaborative school governance c) they developed caring and consistent interactions with students d) they employed advocacy-oriented assessment practices that reduced the likelihood that LEP students would be identified as deficient (Davis et al., 2004, p. 37).

Mother-Family/Peer/Educator Influences

The core aspects of Latino culture included practices and beliefs that endorsed family support and interdependence among family members, (Devos & Torres, 2007, p. 306), as well as emphasized the extended relatives and social relationships outside of the family (Alfaro et al., 2006, p. 280). One of the strongest cultural values of Latinos was the strong emotional connection, respect for, and obedience to the family makeup (Alfaro et al., 2006, p. 280). This aspect was connected to Latinas' success in school. Academic excellence for Latinas was affected by a strong relationship between a Latina daughter and her mother, as well as strong relations with friends; this was associated with an optimistic attitude toward school (Badger et al., 2007, p.176, 190), (Alfaro et al., 2006, p. 279-280). Latinas' academic motivation was also influenced by their educators' support (Alfaro et al., 2006, p. 287). Family, peer relationships, and teachers could be helpful academic allies who could provide support in completing academic assignments, give intellectual advice on important decisions, and express interest in the educational outcomes of Latinos (Alfaro et al., 2006, p. 280). High performing Latinas usually had more sources of support from their families compared to low-performing Latinas, who reported having a lower amount of support from family (Alfaro et al., 2006, p. 280).

The impact on academic motivation with parental support of their young adult's education was based on the gender of both the parent and the young adult (Alfaro et al., 2006, p. 288). With the focus on Latinas and their mothers, research demonstrated that mothers were more likely to have gender role socializations with their daughters than with their sons (as it was also true that fathers are more likely to spend more time with their sons rather than their daughters) (Alfaro et al., 2006, p. 288). Latinas' perception of mutuality with their mothers affected their feelings toward school (Badger et al., 2007, p.190) and was possibly an important factor in advancing better adjustment to the United States' culture (Badger et al., 2007, p.175-6). The girls who felt like their mothers were responsive, respectful, understanding, and involved in their lives were more likely to claim that they enjoyed school, which connected to higher overall grades (Badger et al., 2007, p.175, 187). Supportive behavior from a mother to a daughter was strongly connected with better academic performance and more adaptive school functioning abilities (Badger et al., 2007, p.176). High mother-adolescent mutuality had also been found to be a factor in lowered levels of depression amongst Latinas, as the girls were more likely to seek out support from mothers when under stress (Badger, et al., 2007, p.176).

Another conventional aspect of Latino families was the emphasis on social female roles involving submission and obedience, which was a common origin of conflict between parents and modern Latinas (Kaplan et al., 2009, p. 214). However, even though many Latino parents wanted to support the educational goals of their children, it was a difficult task since many did not speak fluent English, had not acquired the experience in the higher educational system

(Zalaquett, 2005, p. 36), and found it difficult to make certain their children's academic success (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 40). Even with language struggles, families still placed a large emphasis on the education of their children, with many of the students saying that the family support assisted them in their success in high school and in the pursuit of a college education (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 40), (Alfaro et al., 2006, p. 281). Parents who were more likely to positively affect their children's future were more prone to direct them toward positive social and educational prospects (Badger et al., 2007, p.175). Latinos felt they had helped their siblings and honored their parents by pursuing academic success and achieving a career status (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 41).

The support of Latinas' friends and peers is highly pertinent to academic success as well. Peers' academic support had been found to be positively related to academic motivation, and those who reported elevated levels of positive interactions with peers were more likely to place a high value on education (Alfaro et al., 2006, p. 281). A majority of Latinas with positive associations with friends and peers saw those relationships as being a significant part of the process of getting a college education (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 42).

Educators and overall school support also made an impact on the academic success of Latinas. Studies found that teachers' encouraging academic support was related to academic motivation for Latinas (Alfaro et al., 2006, p. 281). Latinas' had an awareness of higher family stress and lower teacher support, and these resulted in higher depression rates, dislike for school, and lower self esteem (Badger et al., 2007, p.175). Schools that had large minority populations usually had few minority teachers (Badger et al., 2007, p.175), as Latino administrators and faculty members were key components in retention efforts because their existence in the school sends a message of inclusiveness (Locks et al., 2009, p. 37). Caucasian teachers might not have recognized the consequence that the environment of a school had on student levels of comfort and learning (Badger et al., 2007, p.175). Ineffective educators had a tendency to think of minority students as deficient, and their low academic expectations of Latinas challenged the parents' high expectations (Stern, 2004, p. 41). These educators showed little interest in Latinas' future and offered little leadership in assisting them when they made higher education choices (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 36). The ineffective educators believed that Latinas were incapable of having academic success, and they were not interested in a quality educational experience, thus the high Latino dropout rate (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 36). However, a portion of these educators failed to meet these challenges in schools because they already felt overwhelmed by so many pressures of their jobs, therefore, were not able to assist the students as much as they would prefer (Stern, 2004, p. 41).

However, the successful teachers were known to communicate positive and high standards for their students, and the teachers who were preferred and respected made their students work diligently, had high standards for success in academics and behavior, and pushed their students to learn (Davis et al., 2004, p. 33-4). At the secondary level of education, the high-achieving schools had successful, experienced, and certified teachers with a strong knowledge of the subject matter, practical knowledge facilitating and planning effective learning activities, and strong cognitive and verbal skills (Davis et al., 2004, p. 25). These schools offered a learning atmosphere that supported teacher-led innovation, ongoing teacher learning and development, and a connection between student achievement and high teacher expectations (Davis et al., 2004, p. 25). An example of an effective school entity was the Phoenix Union district, which identified failing students in its feeder schools early, as well as assisted teachers in the classrooms to better

prepare the students for the rigors of the curriculum (Johnson, 2009, p. 263). Bilingual teachers also visited parents and guardians in the summer before the Fall semester, made introductions, and offered themselves as an educational source to help their young adult (Johnson, 2009, p. 263). Studies found that if educators would embrace the worthiness of building on the home culture and value of celebrating with the same sincerity in which they valued achievement skills' tests of basic English skills, they would be able to "create coherent schools in which Latino students excel academically without losing or devaluing the rich elements of culture that they shared with their parents and grandparents" (Davis et al., 2004, p. 40).

Mentoring/After-School Programs

Mentoring and after-school programs showed great strides in assisting in academic improvements for Latinas. Many girls who attended after-school programs had good relationships with their mothers and had superior grades (Badger et al., 2007, p.187). For those Latinas who said that they only somewhat liked school, mentoring and after-school programs could have prevented those from a worse scenario, such a potentially dropping out of school altogether (Stern, 2004, p. 40). Teenage and pre-teen Latinas were the ideal candidates for strong mentoring programs that offered strong emotional associations with authenticity, empathy, and warmth, as pairing Latinas with other Latina mentors was quite beneficial because of how the common elements improve the emotional connections (Kaplan, et al., 2009, p. 214). If there was a close connection between a mentor and a mentee, then this relationship had a prospect of enhancing the Latina's "social-emotional development, cognitive development, and academic and social competence" (Kaplan et al., 2009, p. 214).

Some of the activities included in these programs included: helping the girls with computer literacy, assisting with homework, watching films, touring the mentors' collegiate campus, practicing dance moves, and discussing family life, school life, and boyfriend and friend issues, and other stressful situations (Kaplan et al., 2009, p. 215). To combat the negativity surrounding many Latinas' lives, the mentors wanted their mentees to understand that it was possible to realize accomplishments in school while also maintaining cultural relevancy and femininity (Kaplan et al., 2009, p. 215). A significant increase in mentees' self-esteem was evident in these programs from the beginning to the conclusion (Kaplan et al., 2009, p. 218). Parent involvement in these effective mentoring programs had also been shown to be a vital element in successful after-school programs (Kaplan et al., 2009, p. 216).

Post-Secondary School Issue/Workforce Problems

While there were academic achievements being met by Latinas in secondary schools, there was a discrepancy in success of the transfer to the collegiate level. More Latinas dropped out of four-year colleges and attended two-year colleges (Stern, 2004, p. 40), and only 10% between the ages of 24 – 64, held college degrees (Locks et al., 2009, p. 23). Compared to other racial and ethnic groups, Latinos were among the least likely to complete their bachelor's degree (Devos & Torres, 2007, p. 294), and only 46% of Latino college students obtained that honor (Oseguera, 2009, p. 23). Latinos also obtained less financial aid than the other undergraduate students (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 35). Latinas were less likely to take the ACT, SAT, and other standardized

tests, and those who did, scored lower on average than other racial female subgroups (Zambrana & Zoppi, 2002, p. 40).

The combined factors of poor information and minimal adult supervision were often the cause of Latina students making poor choices about post-secondary education decisions (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 39). Numerous Latinas had very little knowledge of the application processes, financial aid, and higher education prospects that were available for them (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 39). Numerous high schools had few or no programs to help Latinas prepare for college, and the schools either were not using curriculum that was relevant for Latinas, not investing in resources from kindergarten through high school, or not preparing teachers to assist them with rigorous collegiate applications (Stern, 2004, p. 40). For the most part, Latinas were in charge of their own post-secondary application process, and they easily became stymied and overwhelmed by the complex process (Stern, 2004, p. 40).

Even for those Latinas who were accepted into colleges because of academic success in high school, the retention rate in post-secondary education was low, as colleges and universities did not have adequate programs to assist in retention of students. While the number and proportion of minority students that attended colleges gradually increased, the retention rates of Latinos in higher education settings decreased (Zalaquett, 2005, p. 35). As for collegiate retention structure, there were five facets: (a) academic services (b) curriculum and instruction (c) students' services (d) financial aid and (e) recruitment and admissions (Locks et al., 2009, p. 30). The three types of retention (program, such as year-to-year; student; and course, such as individual classes) should have been "intensive to the degree that they are able to employ the academic and/or social skills necessary to being successful in their college environment" (Locks et al., 2009, p. 30). The short-term or one-time programs that were often used were prone to be ineffective (Locks, Oseguera, & Vega, 2009, p. 30). The retention rate was influenced by an assortment of factors that affected the probability of completion of college: social and academic experiences throughout college, initial obligations to finish a degree, final commitments that were shaped as a result of the post-secondary experience, and the growth of cognitive and non-cognitive qualities (Locks, Oseguera, & Vega, 2009, p. 31).

For those Latinas who did graduate and get a job, or for those who did not attend college and went directly to the workforce, the statistics were also not in their favor. By 2012, studies projected that Latinas would make up 6.2 percent of the labor force in the United States, rising 3.5 percent from 1992, which was an increase of 128 percent (Cocchiara & Bell, 2006, p. 274). However, employment rates for Latinas were lower than those of all other races of women, with 57 percent of Latinas having worked outside the home by 2002, and this percentage was expected to rise to 59 percent by 2012 (Cocchiara & Bell, 2006, p. 275, 281). Even though these employment participation rates were lower, Latinas were still entering the work force at a more rapid pace than the other races (Cocchiara & Bell, 2006, p. 275). Latinas (along with African American women) had lower education levels than white women and men, as well as started at lower salary levels (Cocchiara & Bell, 2006, p. 275-6). Perhaps because of the lower education levels, there was an overrepresentation of Latinas in employment of clerical, labor, sales, and service positions while there was an underrepresentation as professionals, craft workers, ad operatives, technicians, officials, and managers (Cocchiara & Bell, 2006, p. 277).

CONCLUSION

This meta-analysis provided information that may be useful to teachers and those who work with young Latinas. Future research is needed on certain aspects of Latinas and academics. The mutuality between Latinas and their close friends did not emerge as significant to girls saying how much they liked school, as the more conventional view was that Latinas put more emphasis on relationships with friends than mothers (Badger et al., 2007, p.187). Studies did not address that issue, as more study is needed on culture and ethnicity and how they affect the girls' perception of education (Badger et al., 2007, p.187). More studies and research are also needed to examine the importance of teachers', peers', and parents' influence concurrently on Latinas' academic motivation (Alfaro et al., 2006, p. 280), as well as classroom settings and environment (Alfaro et al., 2006, p.9). Lastly, future studies are needed to determine if differences in gender and in time spent together (i.e. sons and fathers, daughters and mothers) would influence more time spent involved in educational activities, therefore influencing how much parents have on Latinas' academic motivation (Alfaro et al., 2006, p. 288).

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The Importance of Reading Comprehension

ELENA HEATH

The most crucial element of reading is to construct meaning of literature (Samway & Taylor, 2007). Reading comprehension is the act of understanding text (Brummitt-Yale, 2011). ESL students can struggle with reading comprehension in the second language. However, teachers may not be familiar with current, effective reading comprehension strategies to utilize in the ESL classroom. For many years, reading comprehension was taught for students to learn a set of isolated skills such as finding the main idea, comparing and contrasting, identifying cause and effect relationships, and sequencing (Teaching Reading Comprehension, 2009). Reading comprehension strategies consisted of teachers mentioning a comprehension skill, students practicing the method by completing worksheets, and the instructors testing students' mastery of the skill. However, the effectiveness of this strategy was never proven.

Students build reading comprehension through instruction of effective comprehension activities that support understanding of text (Teaching Reading Comprehension, 2009). Reading comprehension is an engaging process of constructing meaning, and not simply skill application. It is imperative for educators to teach ESL students active strategies to help them develop into successful, purposeful readers.

Four effective reading comprehension strategies that teachers can utilize to help develop ESL students' reading comprehension skills include the following:

- Visualization- creating mental images in the mind that reflect ideas in the text (Into the Book).
- Questioning- asking and answering questions of the text
- Graphic organizers- a visual communication tool used to express ideas and concepts to convey meaning (Instructional Strategies Online, 2012)
- Literature Circles- a method in which students are actively involved in reading by critically thinking, discussing, and responding to literature (Instructional Strategies Online, 2012).

Several strategies have been proven effective in the ESL classroom. Specific methods have been helpful in decoding the text and making connections between what students read and what they know (Comprehension, 2012). One successful method is comparing and contrasting graphic organizers. This strategy enables students to see a picture of the information being presented and to determine relationships among text (Manning, 2012). Visualization is an additional technique that enables students to create a mental image of the text (Visualizing, 2012). Lastly, literature circles are useful because they keep students engaged, assists students in questioning the text, and learning new vocabulary (Cavanaugh, 2008).

CRITICAL SKILLS FOR COMPREHENSION

There are three critical skills ESL students need to develop in order to comprehend text. These include 1) to decode what they read, 2) to make connections between what they read and what they know, and 3) to think about what they read (Comprehension, 2012). Some ways that students can apply these skills independently are by:

Outlining,
Mapping,
Taking notes,
Reading passages in short sections,
Asking questions after reading,
Summarizing, and
Creating mental pictures.

Manning's (2012) proposal coincides with these methods. Manning indicates that when teachers utilize graphic organizers in the classroom, this technique can help students see a picture of the ideas and their relationships. This strategy will initially help students remember the idea being presented. There are six additional strategies which are closely related and—when applied—may encourage comprehension (Comprehension Strategies, n.d.). These include:

- Making connections- the student makes personal experience, text-to-text, and real-world connections with literature.
- Visualizing- mental pictures develop in the mind that makes reading three- dimensional.
- Questioning- deepens and clarifies meaning of the text.
- Inferring- using context clues, drawing conclusions, or making predictions to interpret meaning of the text.
- Determining importance- understanding fact from fiction, and distinguishing important from unimportant information.

FURTHER EXPLORATION OF STRATEGIES FOR ELL READING COMPREHENSION

Visualization

Visualization is one of the strategies outlined that has great potential for comprehension of text. Visualization consists of creating mental images based on the text students read, or words they hear (Visualizing, 2012). Visualization strengthens reading comprehension as students gain more and more understanding of what is read because they are continually creating mental pictures of the text. Students who can visualize what they read can make personal connections between the text and themselves. This phenomenon can heighten interest and cause the student to continue to read.

How can teachers help students develop their visualization skills for reading?

How can teachers help students develop their visualization skills for reading? One way is to start small (Visualizing, 2012). The teacher can select a paragraph or even a sentence that contains descriptive language and numerous verbs. The sentence does not have to be too detailed, but it is a start to getting young readers to picture what they read in their minds. Another way to help students visualize what they read is by allowing the students to draw pictures while the teacher reads. All of the images are going to look different, and there is no right or wrong way for students to sketch pictures. The students can also compare and contrast their pictures to other students' illustrations.

Background Knowledge

Irujo (2012) offers further proven comprehension strategies ESL teachers should be aware of prior to assigning reading text to students. Irujo explicates that ESL students may not have the background knowledge they need in order to understand certain text. Some ESL students' educational experiences may have been substandard or interrupted. Even if students have had a strong educational background, their cultural differences and culturally biased assumptions can cause a lack of background knowledge, and therefore lack of comprehension. The teacher needs to be sure that all students acquire the appropriate background knowledge of the concept prior to reading the chosen text.

Peregoy and Boyle (2008) also elucidate that the lack of background knowledge can greatly deter comprehension. For example, if the teacher reads the story *Snow White* to students, English speaking students will have a better chance of comprehending the story because they may be familiar with the story and the language. However, ESL students may not be familiar with the word structure. Phrases such as "Once upon a time" and "They lived happily ever after" may be foreign to them. This is why it is imperative for teachers to provide reading material that is familiar to students and to build background knowledge prior to reading the text.

The language level of some reading material may be difficult for even advanced ESL students (Irujo, 2012). English language learners will have a difficult time understanding unusual vocabulary, complex sentence structures, unfamiliar genres, and figurative language. Idioms such as "crocodile tears" and "sweet tooth" can also be perplexing to ESL students (Atunez, 2012). This is why it is important for teachers to build background knowledge prior to reading the text (Peregoy & Boyle, 2008).

Teachers can also use nonverbal methods to assist in reading comprehension such as pictures, diagrams, graphic organizers, objects, acting, and gestures (Irujo, 2012). The teacher can plan interactive activities in order to help students interpret the text. Students can share ideas, agree or disagree with the text, and compare perspectives. Participating in these activities can help students grasp the literature in a meaningful manner, and therefore increase comprehension.

Literature Circles

An additional reading comprehension method is literature circles. Literature circles allow students to be engaged and involved with reading (Cavanaugh, 2008). Students can discuss and respond to the text, and reshape and develop their understanding as they construct meaning with

other readers. A literature circle usually involves 4-6 students in which they cooperatively read a text or passage together. Each student is designated a specific role. These roles provide an avenue for students to engage in critical thinking by reading, discussing the text, and responding to books. This activity also gives students an opportunity to monitor their own learning.

There are several key benefits to teachers and students for utilizing literature circles in the ESL classroom. Firstly, the teacher has the opportunity to actually teach comprehension, and not simply check it (Cavanaugh, 2008). Secondly, the teacher can teach numerous aspects of comprehension. Thirdly, the teacher can encourage students to learn from one another. Lastly, the students are motivated to learn in a natural manner.

The website *Mrs. Cowen's Literature Circles* (n.d.) coincides with Cavanaugh's work in that the author describes literature circle responsibilities that students can practice. The first job is the team leader (Cowen). The team leader makes sure everyone participates, and they also write down the discussion questions. The second job is the illustrator who draws a moment or "snapshot" of what is happening in the story. The third job is the story mapper who creates a graphic organizer that is appropriate for the story. Lastly, the summarizer writes a brief summary of the story. The students are to share their work with the rest of the group to encourage discussion and comprehension.

CONCLUSION

There are many connections among current reading comprehension practices for ESL students. Findings gleaned from Manning (2012) and D'Ambrosio (2004) indicates that questioning helps students understand what they read. Further conclusions described by Irujo (2012) and Peregoy & Boyle (2008) specify that student background knowledge is imperative in order for students to understand the text. Cavanaugh (2008) explains the benefits of literature circles, such as teachers are able to teach multiple aspects of comprehension, critical thinking, cooperative learning, and discussion. Cowen's research specifies the students' responsibilities while engaging in literature circles. These are team leader, illustrator, story mapper, and summarizer. Irujo (2012) and Manning (2012) explicate that graphic organizers are beneficial to reading comprehension.

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Service Learning and Middle School ELLs

JOHNNA PARAISO AND ANN STEWART

The number of students who are non-native speakers of English is at a steady growth in the United States. Between 1995 and 2005 the number of English language learners in the state of Tennessee has increased more than 300% (Office of English Language Acquisition, 2008). This number is not expected to decline, although growth may slow. These students bring a number of challenges to the classroom other than English language acquisition. Frequently these students are from lower socioeconomic backgrounds, may have limited or interrupted formal schooling, or may be struggling with cognitive difficulties that hinder both language development and content area learning. However not only do these English language learners face educational and cultural challenges, they face the same emotional and developmental challenges as do other students in their age groups.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN THE MIDDLE SCHOOL

In the middle school, these changes may be more evident than at any other time in a student's life. Not only are young adolescents faced with the physical changes associated with adolescence, but with profound social and emotional changes as well. Moral and family values may be questioned. Functioning within the social and academic culture of the school can cause a great deal of stress for students in this age group. Between ages 10 -15—which is generally the time students are enrolled in middle school—is a significant time of change and confusion in young people's lives (National Middle School Association, 2003).

English language learners in the middle school face all the developmental challenges of other young adolescents, but also may encounter difficulties unique to their situations. Frequently English language learners (ELLs) are unfamiliar with the nuances of the culture into which they have been transplanted. Not only do language issues keep these students from finding a place in the social aspect of their schools, but cultural issues may prevent ELLs from taking full advantage of the learning opportunities that school has to offer. Due to their educational, social and language backgrounds are different from mainstream middle school students—ELLs frequently are misunderstood by peers, teachers, and administrators (Freeman & Freeman, 2007).

Because these children have backgrounds different from many mainstream students, ELLs have interesting stories to share. In one school district, middle school ELLs found a way to share their stories through a combination of digital video and service learning. Digital storytelling is a combination of narration, music, still photos and video that tells a story or shares an experience. Digital stories are created using a program such as MovieMaker on a Windows operating system or iMovie on a Mac. These videos told the stories of these English language learners lives, whether they came from a refugee background or were born in the United States. These digital videos were shared with the individual school communities, the English as a Second Language department, and the news media. This foray into digital storytelling combined with service

learning gave these frequently silent and marginalized students a unique voice within their school culture.

SERVICE LEARNING EXPLAINED

Service learning combines course content objectives with community service objectives in an integrated fashion (Nelson & Eckstein, 2008), cross-curricular content areas, are student-focused, and collaborative in nature (Jensen & Burr, 2006). The strategy incorporates five different phases: investigation, planning, action, reflection, and demonstration/celebration (Furco & Root, 2010; Kaye, 2010; Kaye, 2004) and can tie in with virtually any course content area.

For service learning projects to be effective, they must be rigorous, initiated and developed by students, multi-faceted, and include a strong reflection component (Nelson & Eckstein, 2008). The activities are also directly derived from the learning goals of the course or classroom involved. The impact and evidence of student-voice must be present in any service learning application. An essential element of all service-learning projects is the use of student-voice however, “far from honoring student voices, mainstream schooling tends to silence them” (Swaminathan, 2007, p. 23). The incorporation of student-voice and personal reflection can present the glue that binds service learning and the ELL student. Student-voice is the power to allow students to make the decisions regarding their project and learn from their actions (Nelson & Eckstein, 2008). Allowing students to use their voice and desires as part of the learning process gives students some form of control in an environment that may feel uncontrollable to them and will help provide ownership of their learning. One of the key outcomes of service learning activities is the ability for students to gain exposure to career opportunities they had not considered in an experiential way (Nelson & Eckstein, 2008). Through constructivist service learning opportunities, the disenfranchised and disillusioned student can be re-engaged in their own education (Nelson & Eckstein, 2008).

Through the use of authentic situations such as service-learning students can develop ownership of their own learning (Green & Gredler, 2002; Kaye, 2004, Schukar, 1997). An effective method of providing content to students in a service-learning environment stems from the use of just-in-time lecture opportunities (Jensen & Burr, 2006), a lecturing situation that provides information in small segments as needed and directly related to the project. This allows students to clearly understand the relevance of the information shared. For ELL students, the use of service-learning provides an opportunity to practice communication, both written and verbal, express creativity, and, through the use of digital storytelling, share their experiences with others.

Reflection is developed as a key instructional practice to enhance meta-cognition and foster deeper understanding of content (Boghossian, 2006) and a key component of service-learning assessment and evaluation. Learning best occurs in meaningful contexts within reflective communities of learners (Terwel, 1999). These communities of learning can be nurtured within the service-learning environment. Through the integration of authentic learning opportunities, and reflective practices service-learning can bloom and provide a community connection for ESL learners. In a digital storytelling activity, the reflections can also take a video form allowing students to articulate or demonstrate sometimes difficult emotional concepts.

Service-learning is often confused with traditional community service activities which do not consider general course objectives as part of the fundamental design of the learning to take place. There are numerous definitions and levels of service-learning. However, most researchers agree that service-learning involves a learning opportunity where knowledge is deepened through service to the community in conjunction with academic learning objectives (Kaye, 2004). According to Dewey, it is the discomfort that develops between what is known and unknown that promote knowledge through reflection within the learner (Dewey, 1938). By using digital storytelling, students can enhance learning in virtually any content area from literacy skills to science.

The component of reflection is critical to the success of service-learning within the educational arena. Service learning provides a mechanism to enhance and solidify a student's connection to both the community and the curriculum (Gross, 2010). Service-learning follows the structure of experiential learning identified by Kolb including concrete experience, observation and reflection, development of abstract concepts, and application (1984). Since traditional classroom settings begin at the development of abstract concepts phase, the use of service learning presents new information in a more natural context for students by focusing on experience in reference to learning (Long, Larsen, Hussey, & Travis, 2001).

WHY USE DIGITAL STORYTELLING

Although there are many means through which an English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher could incorporate both cultural understanding and service learning into the classroom, digital storytelling is particularly effective. The images of the families combined with the music from the students' homelands and the student-read narration create a very intimate and personal look into the struggles and triumphs of these English language learners. The power of the children reading their own words in their own voices allows the listeners to see these students not only as immigrants but as important members of the larger society. Connections to both the community and to the curriculum are solidified as the students present their written and spoken work to school and community leaders, yet since the student does not have to speak before a live audience but has created a recorded film in advance of the event, the affective filter is lowered and learning is maximized (Crawford & Krashen, 2007).

Creating Stories

The teacher introduced the idea of digital storytelling to the English as a Second Language class as a whole by showing some digital stories done by immigrant students. These stories were found on YouTube and TeacherTube. After showing each video to the class, the teacher and the students created a class concept map. The class discussed what they liked best and least about the stories they had seen. The teacher then moved the discussion to what the students would do if they could create a digital story such as the ones they had seen. The students wrote ideas for their personal digital stories on Index cards and discussed them with their classmates.

The teacher then helped the students develop the assignment idea: students would create their own digital stories using the immigration or life experiences of their families. Students were sent home with permission slips explaining the assignment to the families and giving permission to share the images and video in a public forum. Students whose families did not sign the permission slip were still given the opportunity to make the digital story, but those stories were not published online or shared with the news media.

Students, with the help of their families, collected family photos from home and brought them in to the school. These photos were put into digital format using either a scanner or a digital camera. The digital images were stored in the students' personal folders located on the school server. In case there were not enough images to create a full digital story, students were given the opportunity to search the internet for still images that would complete their movie. These images might include maps, flags, or famous landmarks from their countries of origin.

After the images were collected and placed in a digital format, the teacher gave the students a storyboard template. There are a number of storyboard templates available online for the purpose of creating digital stories. The template used by students included an empty square at the top to represent the digital image and lines beneath the square on which to write the narrative. Students either drew a picture of the digital image in the square or wrote a description of the image. Underneath the square, students wrote a narrative script of what they would say when that particular image appeared on the screen. The storyboards were then placed in the order that their digital images would appear in the movie.

Students served as peer editors as they read each other's storyboards both silently and aloud. The teacher gave students guidance in grammar, usage and pronunciation. The students edited their narratives and practiced reading the storyboards aloud several times until both they and the teacher were satisfied that the stories were being told accurately and sensitively.

At this point, the students were ready to begin recording the narrative for their digital stories. Although there are a number of programs that can be used to record and edit audio, the teacher at this middle school used Audacity. Audacity is available as a free download from Soundforge and the interface is simple for students to master. Students were taught the use of Audacity as they became ready to record their audio. Each student recorded the narratives using the storyboards as a script. Mistakes were edited by the teacher or a student. The completed narratives were saved in an MP3 format in each student's digital folder on the school server.

Music was integral to the students' digital stories. Students were encouraged to bring in compact discs of music from their countries of origin or to find appropriate music from reputable online sources. The teacher worked with the students to locate appropriate music using online sites such as iTunes, Amazon or Freeplaymusic.com. Care was given to observe copyright and fair use guidelines. The students collected the sound clips of their music of choice and edited these sound clips using Audacity to a length of ten to thirty seconds. The sound clips created from the students' music choices were placed into the digital stories, usually at the beginning and the end of the movies (McLeod & Lehmann, 2012).

The teacher then began working with the students on synthesizing the digital images and audio into a movie format. Because the schools involved used PCs, MovieMaker was chosen as the program to do this. Students were taught the process of importing the audio and visual elements into MovieMaker, as well as how to edit the movies. Movies were limited to a length of not more than three minutes each in order to allow time for all student movies to be shown during the planned Family Movie Celebration. Students became producers and directors of their own digital autobiographies as they edited and critiqued one another's work. A sense of collaboration and community developed within the ESL classroom as students taught each other how to use MovieMaker and Audacity and shared music and image files. They watched each other's movies, gave constructive feedback, and reflected on their own creations.

Using Reflections

It is important to keep in mind that cognitive reflection provides the mortar that binds service with learning and allows the student to recognize the accomplishments made in the completion of the service activity as well as the disconnects/discomforts that occur during the process of the project; it is the opportunity for learners to develop meaning from their experience (Kiely, 2005). It is through reflective journaling that students are able to articulate meaning from the service experience and connect it with classroom objectives (Mills, 2001).

Effective journaling incorporates five components: connection, continuity, context, challenge, and coaching in a structured reflection model (Eyler & Giles, 1999). Each of these elements provides a different perspective of the learning experience. Connection allows learners to draw connections between the service and learning in an explicit manner in an informal environment (Mills, 2001; Eyler & Giles, 1999). Continuity provides opportunity to reflect, before, during and at the conclusion of the service learning—giving the student time to view their actions and feelings from a variety of perspectives (Mills, 2001; Eyler & Giles, 1999). With context, learners apply the learning in the real world and can see from their writing how that works and changes over time (Mills, 2001; Eyler & Giles, 1999). Challenge reflective opportunities stem from the safe environment in which to test the student's individual beliefs before the service experience and after to see how their views change (Mills, 2001; Eyler & Giles, 1999). With coaching exercises, students are able to see their own growth through their writings (Mills, 2001; Eyler & Giles, 1999). Research from Hatcher, Bringle, and Muthiah found that structured reflection given allows students to crystalize their own personal values and regular practice of preparing reflections should deepen understanding (2004). Using frequent structured reflective practices in service learning experiences allows students to tie classroom learning to other aspects of their life and enables better transfer of course content (Kaye, 2004). The students kept journal reflections of their storytelling experience regularly throughout the activity.

Sharing: Community-Family Movie Night

As the students were completing their digital stories, the teacher and her educational assistants along with the students made plans to share the movies in a community/family movie night. The teacher reserved a meeting space for the celebration in the library and arranged for refreshments.

In this particular situation, a local restaurant donated some refreshments and the school principal provided cake and beverages.

Involving other school personnel is essential to the success of an event of this type. When the teacher decided to initiate this service-learning project, she discussed her idea with the principal, the guidance counselor and the librarian. The principal agreed to allow the news media access to the school and the students in order to promote understanding of the students and their backgrounds and needs. The librarian offered to make the completed student movies available on disc for checkout by other students and teachers. The community/family movie night became a group effort as faculty heard about the students and their work. Different faculty members provided funding for the event or donated items such as blank DVDs or disc covers.

Families were notified well in advance of the event and encouraged to participate. Invitations to the community/family movie celebration were sent out well in advance. Teacher assistants and ESL Department translators translated the invitations into the native language of each family and sent them through the mail. One week before the event, the translators and teacher assistants called each family and confirmed attendance, usually talking to the families in their native language. Because the families knew that the event was about their personal stories, that accommodations would be made for their language needs and that all were welcome, the community/family movie celebration was very well attended. Entire families came, including grandparents and younger siblings. The teacher also notified the local newspaper about the event. A reporter attended the celebration and subsequently wrote an article for the local paper about the middle school ESL students and their digital stories.

Extending the Experience

The students were overwhelmingly enthusiastic about both the product and the process of digital storytelling. They were proud of their work and their families' stories. Many of these students expressed that they felt as though their voices had been heard and that their stories were important. Copies of the completed student videos were sent home with the families and placed in the school library for checkout. As teachers used these videos to complement other content areas, they were able to see the ESL students moving stories and technical skill and to draw upon the resources that the ELLs offered to help the mainstream students in their classes.

Some of the ELL students entered the digital storytelling contest sponsored by the Tennessee Educational Technology Association. One student from a particular middle school in this district placed first in the state for his digital story. Other ESL students won honorable mentions. Students from the Rutherford County ESL department continue to enter this and other digital video contests annually.

An important aspect to the digital storytelling/service learning project is involvement from the community. Community leaders and the local news media provided funding, publicity and affirmation for the students and their work. The students were also able to promote a clearer understanding of their ethnic groups and immigration stories. While the basic concept of service learning supports the idea of the students doing something specific for the community, quite often it becomes a two-way learning situation where the students receive support from the

community. In this particular project, the students were able to view the community more as partners in their efforts than recipients of their services.

Examples From Two Tennessee Middle Schools

Although a number of ESL students in Tennessee have created digital stories, two middle schools in particular have made the digital movies a part of a service learning project. At the first middle school ESL students created digital movies about their immigration or family stories and presented these as part of a community/family movie celebration. School administration and central office personnel attended the celebration in addition to the students and their families. One student's movie told of his family's escape from persecution in Iraq under the rule of Saddam Hussein. His story was painfully touching and many in the room were brought to tears. This student eventually entered his digital story in the Tennessee Educational technology Association eTales competition and won first place. His story—and other student stories—were used by social studies teachers at this middle school to provide mainstream students a sense of understanding of what challenges their language minority classmates were facing.

Another middle school in Tennessee used this service learning project successfully. The students created digital movies about their families' immigration stories. The teacher hosted a community/family movie celebration in the school library with refreshment provided by both school administration and local businesses. The ESL students at this middle school are a diverse population, with a high number of refugees. One of these refugee students produced a digital story about his escape from Iraq, after he watched some of his classmates gunned down on the school playground. Other students from this middle school, who are Karen refugees from Burma, created videos about their experiences escaping genocide in their home country. The Karen refugee students also talked about life in Thailand's refugee camps and their subsequent escape to the United States. These refugee students expressed how difficult the change was for them to make and how they missed the familiarity of their homeland, even though they knew it was no longer safe for them to live there. The local newspaper sent a reporter who commented that the students' stories moved him deeply. He wrote a positive article for the newspaper, highlighting the students and their immigration experiences. The students were proud not only of their digital stories but of their experiences and of their language and culture.

CONCLUSION

English language learners in the middle school have many of the same needs as mainstream middle school students, but may have experiences that their age mates do not share. Frequently ELLs come from a background of poverty or political upheaval. They may not feel as though they have a place in the larger culture of the local middle school. A service-learning project centered on the creation and sharing of digital video can contribute to these students' sense of self-worth. Their technical and writing skills are improved through the process of creating the digital story. Personal connections and cultural understanding are built through the sharing of the student movies with the school and business community. As the school becomes a more understanding and welcoming environment, learning is enhanced; not just for English language learners, but for all the middle school students involved. By incorporating the service-learning

aspect into the activity, the experience becomes a win-win situation for the students and community together.

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Teacher Motivation: The Next Step in L2 Motivation Research

CHRISTOPHER HASTINGS

Research in L2 motivation has evolved since Gardner and Lambert introduced the socio-educational model and highlighted the importance of attitudes and affect to the SLA process. Though the field expanded focus, little work has been done into L2 teacher motivation; instead, most studies have focused on student attitudes and motivation. This paper highlights the need for research into teacher attitudes and L2 teacher motivation in the ESL/EFL classroom.

Research in second language (L2) motivation has gone through 4 distinct phases since the late 1950s: the *social psychological* period from the 50s until the 90s; the *cognitive-situated* period in the 90s; the *process-oriented* period at the beginning of the 21st century, and the current *socio-dynamic period* (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, pp. 49–50). Closely related to behaviorist trends in psychology, L2 motivation research began with beliefs that are now considered outdated: that L2 motivation could be viewed as the response to an environmental stimulus; that language learning occurred in an environment where individuals were caught in transition between two cultures, which were possible to characterize in stereotypes (Ricento, 2005, p. 898). As psychologists adapted the cognitive approach, motivation studies began to focus more on the needs that drive learners' decisions, "the choices people make as to what experience or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort that they will exert in that respect" (Keller, 1983, p. 389). This was followed by the adoption of the constructionist view in both psychology and L2 motivation research, which "places even further emphasis on the social context as well as individual choices" (Brown, 2000, p. 161).

While the phases of L2 motivation research are closely related to learning motivation research in psychology, Dörnyei & Ushioda (2010) inform us that "the study of L2 motivation has evolved as a rich and largely independent research field, originating in a concern to address the unique social, psychological, behavioural and cultural complexities that acquiring a new communication code entails" (p. 49). Current research recognizes the role of the individual identity in an ever-changing social environment. In addition to considering the motivation of L2 learners, the authors tell us that current motivation studies recognize the "interactive relationship between teacher and student motivation" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 204).

L2 motivation research has evolved from macro-contextual views, viewing language learners and cultures as static entities that can be characterized and defined and seeing the SLA process as one of moving from one culture to the next, to increasingly micro-contextual views. The scope narrowed to consider the situations in which L2 learning was occurring and eventually the individual processes as they occurred. Currently, the perspective is becoming much more focused and, as a result, is viewing the complexity of L2 learners and the contexts within which SLA happens.

STUDENT AND TEACHER ATTITUDES

Motivation research in SLA has determined a link between *integrative motivation* (the desire to integrate into a culture), *instrumental motivation* (desire to learn for practical reasons), and identification with an L2 culture as having a symbiotic relationship with students' language learning success. Most studies in this field have focused on the attitude and motivation that the student brings to the classroom or learning environment, while little work has been done on the attitude and motivation that the language teacher brings to the classroom. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) assert:

While the fields of educational psychology and teacher education may currently be experiencing a zeitgeist of interest in teacher motivation (Watt and Richardson, 2008a), this does not seem to have filtered through yet to the L2 teaching and language teacher education context where the literature on teacher motivation remains scarce. (p.189)

An exception to this trend is Martha Pennington's 1991 seminal report on teacher motivation, in which she circulated a job satisfaction questionnaire to TESOL members (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 189). The questionnaire concerned job related non-linguistic factors, such as teacher autonomy in the classroom, opportunities for advancement, company policies, recognition, and working conditions. However, not one facet was related to teachers' attitudes towards the language, their students, or their students' language. In the same report, Pennington (1989) lists the attitudes, knowledge and skills necessary to become a successful ESL teacher, with the attitudes being:

A belief in the importance of language teaching and an attitude towards students of empathy and interest, confidence in one's own knowledge and classroom skills, positive attitudes about the language and culture being taught, positive attitudes about the language and culture of the students, openness to new ideas about language, learning, teaching approach. (p. 170)

TEACHER MOTIVATION

While Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010) inform us that a "teacher's level of enthusiasm and commitment is one of the most important factors that can affect learners' motivation to learn," they quote psychologist Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi as saying in 1997 that "he was not aware of a single study relating teacher's motivation to the effectiveness of his or her teaching and to the motivation of his or her students" (p. 170). They examine the limited work done in teacher motivation, stating that most research is done on teachers' career choice, "complexities during the teaching process," factors contributing to teacher stress and burnout, and student and teacher development" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 170).

Clearly, as the transition in focus has been made in L2 motivation research from the macro level (societal attitudes and conditions that create social distance) to the micro level (the individual learner in the language learning context), and eventually to the learner's identity in social

interactions, a need has developed to understand the role of L2 teachers in the classroom, the ones with whom learners have a great deal of social contact, and how that relates to student motivation and success. Attention can then be drawn to the role that teacher motivation plays in this process. Dörnyei (2003) concurs with this assertion, stating that “teacher motivation is an important factor in understanding the affective basis of instructed SLA, since the teacher’s motivation has significant bearings on students’ motivational disposition and, more generally, on their learning achievement” (p. 26).

Watt and Richardson (2008) explain that limited work on teacher motivation has explored “career choice among teachers, the complexities during teaching, and important factors that impact on the development of teachers and their students” (p. 405). Other topics, such as teachers’ relationships with their students, as well as teacher and student identity, still remain relatively uncharted. The need for research into these issues has been identified, and Praver & Oga-Baldwin (2008) have noted that “Especially important to the issue of EFL/ESL teacher motivation is the recognition and appreciation of the teacher’s home culture and value for her or his skill as a teacher”.

Up until this point, we have been examining how language learners are inspired to learn and what fuels and maintains this inspiration. Ryan and Deci (2000) highlight the importance of preserving this inspiration, noting that, “Unlike unmotivated people who have lost impetus and inspiration to act, motivated people are energized and activated to the end of a task” (p. 54). Dörnyei (2001b) defines motivation as the force responsible for “why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity and how hard they are going to pursue it” (p. 8). The concepts applied to language learners with regard to L2 motivation are equally applicable to L2 teachers, and that the “factors that motivate teachers are the same as those that motivate students” (Oga-Baldwin & Praver, 2007, p. 881).

WORK MOTIVATION

An important difference does exist between teacher motivation and student motivation, namely that, for teachers, teacher motivation is synonymous with work motivation. In the larger field of motivation studies, work motivation is “a broad construct pertaining to the conditions and processes that account for the arousal, direction, magnitude, and maintenance of effort in a person’s job” (Katzell & Thompson, 1990, p. 144). Scholars researching motivation in educational contexts first turned to the work motivation theories of Maslow and Herzberg for perspective (Gheralis-Roussos, 2003, p. 65). Herzberg identifies two factors that affect motivation to work, motivators, which are synonymous with intrinsic motivating factors, and hygiene factors, which are not part of the essential nature of the job and include the environment, interpersonal relations and working conditions; according to this theory, “satisfaction depends on motivators while dissatisfaction results from the absence of sufficient hygiene factors.” (Shoib, 2004, p. 46). It is interesting to note, however, that unlike other jobs, interpersonal relations are inherent to the teaching profession, as teachers must interact with both coworkers and their pupils (Nias, 1981). Researchers, including Barnabé and Burns, have noted other differences between business work environments and the teaching environment, including organizational structure and assessment practices (1994). So, while work motivation research could provide

some insight into teacher motivation, the need arose to examine teacher motivation in its own context.

TEACHER MOTIVATION AS A TOPIC IN L2 MOTIVATION STUDIES

Numerous motivation researchers explain that teacher motivation can be conceptualized and understood by considering various related theories that focus on:

- Expectancy-value,
- Self-efficacy,
- Goal-setting,
- Goal orientation, and
- Self-determination.

More than many other careers, teaching is a profession whose practitioners are paid more in intrinsic rewards than financial ones. In some cultures, teachers are regarded with great respect, while in others they are subject to a considerable amount of criticism; however, teachers are almost universally paid less than other professionals with similar educational qualifications, a problem that both keeps many qualified professionals from entering the profession and forces many to leave it (Macdonald, 1999, pp. 842–43). Those who choose teaching usually understand this and accept it when making the decision to pursue a career in education.

When considering the decision to pursue a career in education, contextual factors and other extrinsic components usually take a back seat to the intrinsic components. Pennington (1995) asserts that many people go into teaching for intrinsic rewards and intellectual satisfaction in their subject area, work process, and human interaction. Oga-Baldwin and Praver (2008) add to this, stating, “Teachers generally believed their jobs to be stimulating and fun. Additionally, most reported that they had a good relationship with their students and were able to help them to enjoy the subject” (p. 887). If the value of knowledge is inherently accepted by teachers’ intrinsic motivation to pass on that knowledge, it would be fair to assume that, or at least to question if, teachers are intrinsically motivated to learn. Likewise, we can assume that language teachers enter the profession with a similar respect for knowledge and intrinsic motivation to share it.

After citing Deci and Ryan as associating autonomy, relatedness, and competence to intrinsic motivation while claiming teachers’ sense of efficacy to be paramount, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2010, p. 175) synthesize the characteristics of the intrinsic motivation to teach as “the inherent joy of pursuing a meaningful activity related to one’s subject area of interest, in an autonomous manner, within a vivacious collegial community, with self-efficacy, instructional goals and performance feedback being critical factors in modifying the level of effort and persistence” (p. 175)

Dissatisfaction In Teaching

In a study of secondary teachers' perceptions of working conditions in five countries, Menlo, Marich, Collet, Evers, Fernandez, and Weller Ferris (1990) determined that, "the development of warm, personal relationships with students is the second-strongest influence on professional life quality for US teachers" as well as for teachers in almost all of other countries studied (p. 245). In researching the job satisfaction of ESL/EFL teachers, Martha Pennington (1995) agreed that intrinsic motivation and interpersonal relations provided teachers with the bulk of their support, but that teachers almost universally complained of pay and other extrinsic elements of their work (p. 80). Poppleton and Riseborough (1990) explain that compensation is a factor of job satisfaction that affects all other aspects of the job, stating, "Pay does not have absolute importance in relation to job satisfaction but, if it is perceived to be good...all other aspects appear to have relatively less significance" (p. 219).

Remuneration is not the only demotivating factor negatively affecting teachers' satisfaction and motivation. A study by Dinham and Scott asserts that declining teacher satisfaction is a worldwide problem in education (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 180). Among the negative influences on teacher motivation that systematically undermine and erode the intrinsic character of teacher motivation" are stress, a lack of autonomy in the classroom, a sense of efficacy, and a career structure providing opportunities for professional development and advancement (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 180). Pennington (1995) identified:

A pattern among teachers of high satisfaction in terms of the intrinsic rewards of the work itself and relationships with co-workers, and low satisfaction in terms of the extrinsic factors of pay and promotion, as well as some other aspects of employment which are extrinsic to the work and which can interfere with job performance and the achievement of psychological satisfactions. (p. 67)

Dörnyei and Ushioda's summary of the teacher motivation construct built upon Pennington's foundation by adding intrinsic aspects of teaching that decreased teachers' job satisfaction and consequently their motivation to teach. It should be noted that the factors they identified did not include any mention of relationships with students. The six factors Pennington (1995) highlighted were:

- The exceptionally high stress level.
- The increasing restrictions of teaching autonomy (by externally imposed curricula, tests, methods and other directives).
- The fragile self-efficacy of practitioners, most of whom are undertrained in areas concerning group leadership and classroom management.
- The difficulty of maintaining an intellectual challenge in the face of repetitive content and routinized classroom practices.
- An inadequate career structure to generate effective motivational contingent paths.
- The economic conditions that are usually worse than those of other service professions with comparable qualifications (p. 187).

With all of these factors at play, it should come as no surprise that Kottler, Zehm, and Kottler (2005) warn that “burnout is a professional hazard,” as many of the negative aspects of the teaching profession can lead to a loss of motivation and job satisfaction (p. 111). This loss of motivation can manifest itself in many ways, such as depersonalizing the relationships with students and coworkers or becoming cynical about the job. Additionally, burned out teachers suffer from emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and dissatisfaction with their own personal accomplishments (Suslu, 2006). Pennington (1995) warns of the consequences of stress and burnout on teachers; citing a study by Travers and Cooper, she claims that, “Rather than being comparable to the psychological profile of other professionals, the mental health profile of U.K. school teachers appears more comparable to that of individuals suffering medically diagnosed psychological disorders” (p. 102–3).

One of the most notable results of this burnout is that “academic performance and achievement, both their own and the students’, are affected” (Pennington, 1995, p. 90). Whether it is stressed out teachers who demotivate students or vice versa, as Shoaib (2004) would suggest in saying “teaching students who lack motivation is one of the main sources of stress facing teachers today,” the two elements seem to exist in a symbiotic relationship, each feeding the downfall of the other (p. 61). Various studies “(Pennington, 1991, 1995, Pennington & Ho, 1995; Doyle & Kim, 1999, Kim & Doyle, 1998 and, Kassabgy et al., 2001)” have demonstrated that language teachers are no different from other teachers in terms of motivation and are just as likely to suffer from stress and burnout (Gheralis-Roussos, 2003, p. 97).

L2 TEACHER MOTIVATION

While there is a lack of research on teacher motivation and a paucity of research on L2 teacher motivation, three studies directly relate to the topic of this dissertation. The first, by Martha Pennington was an attempt to accurately describe teacher satisfaction and the working conditions of ESL teachers, primarily in US and British contexts. Her work was the result of two studies by Pennington and Riley, where random members of TESOL were sent the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) and others were sent the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). They reported some benefits unique to ESL teaching, namely “travel opportunities, interaction with people from other cultures and teaching creatively” (Shoaib, 2004, p. 83). The results of the surveys showed that, as with other content area teachers, ESL teachers were “satisfied with the intrinsic nature of the job. Conversely, they claimed to be dissatisfied with the external factors, namely their pay and advancement prospects, as well as with supervisory, policy and procedure matters” (Gheralis-Roussos, 2003, p. 97). Pennington also reported that “like others in education fields but in contrast to certain non-professionals, those who work in ESL do so to satisfy higher level psychological needs that are often not well compensated financially” (Pennington, 1995, p. 136).

Pennington (1995, p. 109) made five recommendations to alleviate the stress created by negative external work factors:

- An orderly and smoothly functioning environment.
- Clean, adequately lit, sufficiently large, and well-equipped work spaces, including offices and classrooms.

- Textbooks, teaching equipment and other teaching resources which are plentiful, in good condition and up-to-date.
- Reasonable work responsibilities in terms of workload and nature of teaching assignment.
- Moral and work support from administrators.

It should be noted that none of these recommendations addressed issues with interpersonal relations between teachers and students or between teachers and their coworkers, as it was reported that the intrinsic nature of teaching was what provided the most job satisfaction. In fact, her final recommendation for “the use of employment action plans to improve teacher motivation through serious attention to teacher development, career structure, and academic structure” only applied to extrinsic factors in ESL work (Doyle & Kim, 1999, p. 35).

Another related study into teacher motivation and satisfaction was done by Terry Doyle and Young Mi Kim and was concerned with ESL teachers in the US and EFL teachers in South Korea. Rather than solely relying on questionnaires, Doyle and Kim used a combination of surveys, written comments and semi-structured interviews. While they credited Pennington with laying the groundwork, they criticized her work for not examining “the underlying social, cultural, and political factors which diminish teacher motivation and cause dissatisfaction and low morale,” stating that “a critical approach is necessary” to do so (Doyle & Kim, 1999, p. 35). Again, as with Pennington and others, Doyle and Kim found out that the factors that curbed teacher satisfaction primarily related to extrinsic aspects of the work. Viewing the occupation through a critical theory perspective, they concluded that the negative factors “pertained to the *political nature* of the curriculum and the state-mandated tests, which some teachers felt to be limiting their autonomy and consequently their motivation” while teacher satisfaction primarily could be accredited to the intrinsic factors of teaching (Gheralis-Roussos, 2003, p. 100).

The third study that most directly correlates to this dissertation is that of Amel Shoaib, who addresses the topic of EFL teacher motivation in Saudi Arabia through semi-structured interviews with thirty female Saudi EFL teachers. In attempting to “map out the teacher motivation terrain” in Saudi Arabia to make recommendations to Saudi institutions for improving teacher motivation, “she distinguishes three main levels where motivational change can be made: *the teacher level, the managerial level and the ministerial/institutional level*” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 192). Within these three levels, Shoaib (2004, p. 194) identified different motivational strategies (Table 1).

Again, the most noticeable characteristic of her recommendations was the fact that, aside from the first recommendation to teachers to self-regulate or self-motivate, none of her advice dealt with intrinsic aspects of teaching. Rather, all suggestions of the advice related to extrinsic factors in teaching, again suggesting what other researchers have found, that teachers, language and others, find their motivation in the classroom when dealing with students and their subject material.

In establishing L2 teacher motivation as a topic worthy of research, it is important to recognize teacher motivation as “one of the most important factors that can affect learners’ motivation to learn. Broadly speaking, if a teacher is motivated to teach, there is a good chance that his or her students will be motivated to learn” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2010, p. 170). Noels turns to

Gardner’s research that “has demonstrated that students’ positive attitudes toward their L2 teacher are generally linked to motivation and achievement” and the resulting positive rapport between teachers and students leads to improvements in students’ “linguistic self-confidence” (Noels, 2003, pp. 103–104). Exploring this phenomenon, Knowles (2007) turns to research by Deci and Ryan that shows that motivated, stress-free teachers “are more likely to allow their students more autonomy. In turn, the more autonomous students are, the more intrinsically motivated they have been found to be” (p. 3).

It has been established that teacher motivation and student motivation exist in a mutually beneficial relationship, where healthy interactions are to the benefit of everyone involved, both for the teachers to derive enjoyment from their work and students to succeed in their studies. Since it has been demonstrated teachers’ primary sources of job satisfaction come from the intrinsic nature of their work, working with students, it is logical that we might examine how teachers build rapport with their students.

Table 1

Shoaib’s Motivational Strategies

Teacher Level	Managerial Level	Ministerial / Institutional Level
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Applying self-regulatory strategies ➤ Attending formal/professional activities ➤ Aiming for a further degree 	<p>Developing a system for collaboration and team work between language teachers</p> <p>Providing appropriate specialised in-service training for language teachers</p> <p>Recognizing and appreciating language teachers’ efforts and hard work</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Allocating more funds to the educational system 2. Restricting the regulative nature of the system 3. Allowing the participation of teachers in curriculum design

CONCLUSION

Little research has been done to explore the role of L2 teacher attitudes and motivation and the role that they play in the L2 classroom, and the work that has been done has primarily focused on factors extrinsic to the nature of the work itself. However, as the field of L2 motivation research continues to evolve to consider more micro-contextual aspects of language learning, we should begin to see more work in this area.

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