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# Strategies of Reading as a Second Language Instruction Across Curriculum in Secondary Grades

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Strategies of Reading as a Second Language Instruction Across Curriculum in Secondary Grades

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## ABSTRACT

This study explored what themes of best practices teachers report using in real classrooms to teach reading skills to ESL students across curricula. It examined teachers' applications of the following five themes in their instruction as a regular routine described as best practices in the literature for teaching diverse students: (1) providing comprehensible input, **(**2) teaching learning strategies of metacognition to bridge the gap between school literacy practices and home literacy practices (3) lowering the affective filter, (4) implementing formative assessment, and (5) cooperating between teachers and ESL facilitators. The study involved teachers from two high schools in one school district in Northwest Arkansas. This school district was selected because it involved a large number of ESL students. The data were self-reported and collected by the Literacy Instruction Questionnaire constructed by the researcher. Based on teachers' self-reported responses, teachers' alignment were aware of the need of to implementing the first four themes in their teaching routines: (1) providing comprehensible input, **(**2) teaching learning strategies of metacognition to bridge the gap between school literacy practices and home literacy practices (3) lowering the affective filter, and (4) implementing formative assessment. However, not all the mentioned ESL strategies under each theme were frequently used. For example, the majority of teachers never integrated online communication 'blogs' as an assessment technique. Also, the fifth theme, teacher and ESL facilitator cooperation, rarely occurred and happened only for specific questions regarding student achievement. Teachers mostly depended on their knowledge of second language acquisition when they wanted to differentiate instruction to deal with diversity in classrooms.

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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

Teaching literacy in U.S. public schools has passed through two distinct stages. During these stages two main debates have dominated literature concerning how literacy instruction should be practiced in public schools. The shift of the literacy instruction debate have two stages: The first stage of literacy instruction refers to the traditional view which limits teaching English literacy skills only to the ability to read and write (Hillerich, 1976). The second stage started when the definition of the literacy skills was extended (Bellanca, Fogart, & Pete, 2012; Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010; National Literacy Summit, 2000) to include the ability to understand, to analyze, to think, to synthesize, and to evaluate the language "made available by differing textual forms associated with diverse domains such as the Internet, videogames, visual images, graphics, and layouts" (Ajayi, 2009, p. 585).

### Background of the Study

According to Cassidy, Valadez, and Garrett (2010) as a step toward improving literacy research "in 1997, Congress authorized the formation of a reading panel to assess the status of research-based knowledge, including the effectiveness of various approaches to teaching children to read" (p.644). The responsibility that was assigned to the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) was to study the varied reading approaches applied in schools, to report the findings, and to refer to the procedures of the effective ways for applying them in schools to improve reading instruction. Then NICHD was re-named the National Reading Panel (NRP). In 2000 the NRP determined five components as the main aspects of reading skills that students need to acquire through curricula and instruction in schools: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. After the establishment

of the five components of the literacy skills, the debate concerning literacy instruction in public schools shifted. Now, however, the definition of literacy focuses on more than the ability to read and write (Cassidy, Valadez, & Garrett, 2010). According to Langer (2000), literacy is defined "as the writing, reading, and language skills and knowledge that are the marks of an educated person at school, on the job, and in personal life" (p.398). Carrier (2005) stresses that the definition of literacy includes (1) demonstrating proficiency in the text language; (2) ability to question critically everyday experiences; and (3) capability of explaining and describing phenomena.

According to the National Literacy Summit, English literacy as a general term now refers to "the individuals' ability to read, write, and speak in English, compute and solve problems at levels of proficiency necessary to function on the job, in the family of the individual, and in society" (2000,¶ 7). Allison and Harklau (2010) provided three different views for defining adolescent literacy instruction in schools. The first view highlights discipline-specific language and task demands, the second stresses the importance of the learner's cognitive and academic abilities, and the third, focuses on sociocultural factors which are seen as important to enhance or hinder students' success in schools.

## English as ESL Literacy Instruction

In addition to previous views that have been introduced to define English literacy instruction, literature now emphasizes the differences between the process of learning writing and reading as a first and second language (Allison & Harklau, 2010; August, 2006; Grabe & Stoller, 2013). These distinctions are due to "the prior knowledge of culturally specific terminology and language and discourse knowledge necessary for academic tasks" (Allison & Harklau, 2010, 133). The key of how to develop ESL students' academic competence by giving

instruction is that teachers should take into account students' prior knowledge. Students' prior knowledge will help teachers to provide relevant classroom activities to upgrade the students' interest in understanding various authentic texts and do the required tasks (Ajayi, 2009; Brock, Lapp, Salas, & Townsend, 2009; Meltzer & Hamann, 2005; Reiss, 2008).

Providing effective instruction to ESL students in mainstream classrooms requires teachers to be aware of some of the difficulties that ESL students may encounter while they are emerged in classrooms with native peers (Brock, Salas, Lapp, & Townsend, 2009; Meltzer & Hamann, 2005). Brock, et al. (2009) list three factors suggested in ESL literature that contribute to learning a second language. First, acquiring a proficient level in a second language requires at least five to seven years (Cummins, 1980; Cummins, 1984; Thomas, & Collier, 2002). Although, students may acquire social communicative skills quickly, these skills are not enough to contribute to students' academic progress in school. The second factor is the level of literacy proficiency in the student's native language which can contribute or hinder the process of acquiring literacy skills in a second language (Cummins, 1984). The last one is non-linguistic factors (Krashen, 1982) such as how motivation for learning and teacher-student relationships contribute to the classroom environment by affecting the period of the learning process. For all these reasons, teachers need more than content knowledge to provide effective instruction that supports ESL student progress (Brock et al., 2009; Meltzer & Hamann, 2005).

Brock, Salas, Lapp, and Townsend (2009) assert that teachers' efforts to provide effective instruction might not be accessible to ESL students. Teachers might view the cultural and linguistic gap between students as a deficit rather than seeing this gap as due to cultural and linguistic differences (Wolf, Kao, Griffin, Herman, Bachman, Chang, & Farnsworth, 2008). ESL students need to develop academic English proficiency which is defined as "the words and

organizational strategies that [are used] to describe complex ideas and concepts" (p.12). Teaching academic English is seen as a process that has three components: linguistic, cognitive, and socio-cultural dimensions.

Lems, Miller, and Soro, (2010) explained Halliday's language-based theory of learning within the frame of second language acquisition. Halliday describes the role of language as essential in learning involves three related aspects: learning language, learning about language, and learning content through language. As an application of Halliday's language –based theory of learning in ESL, Lems, Miller, and Soro (2010) emphasized these three aspects as a framework for teaching a second language, they assert that "learners will struggle if any one of these three functions is neglected" (p.2). Thus, the linguistic dimension involves more than teaching the general vocabulary and grammatical structures. It involves teaching more specialized vocabulary that describes specialized knowledge which uses structures such as passives and conditionals (Brock et al. , 2009). In addition, literacy skills in the secondary stage require students not only to acquire the linguistic skills, but also to develop their cognitive skills to be able to understand discipline tasks (Allison & Harklau, 2010). Students need to learn "techniques that promote deeper understanding, better retention and/or increased ability to apply new knowledge" (Reiss, 2008, p.45), such as making connections between new and old learning, dividing information into smaller parts to enhance retention, using mnemonics, and classifying information (Allison & Harklau, 2010; Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010; Meltzer & Hamann, 2005; Reiss, 2008). Finally, many studies have stressed the sociocultural aspect as a factor of success among students. Students in a class come from different socioeconomic groups as well as various ethnic groups and these variations shape how they identify themselves as readers (Allison & Harklau, 2010). The sociocultural dimension involves knowledge about

social practices and how to use English for communication (Brock, Salas, Lapp, & Townsend, 2009). Therefore, literacy instruction as an additional language should address this gap between first and second language learners by focusing on the linguistic, cognitive and sociocultural aspects for improving literacy instruction (Allison & Harklau, 2010).

## The Current Debate About Literacy Instruction

The current debate of adolescent literacy focuses on how to improve students' abilities to be able to understand, analyze, think, synthesize, and to evaluate more than linguistic texts (Bellanca, Fogarty & Pete, 2012; Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010; National literacy summit, 2000). As an initiative for improving the literacy level among students in U.S. public schools now, the Common Core State Standards presents an integrated model of teaching English literacy to develop the linguistic skills and to prepare students to acquire the academic skills needed to be successful in attending college, or to find work after graduation. Developing these linguistic skills is addressed through applying interdisciplinary instruction in English language arts, history, social studies, science, and technical subjects (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010). The current debate also highlights the challenges of applying common core standards to teach English literacy to English language learners. One of these challenges is providing instruction to improve the achievement gap between English language learners and non-English learners in mainstream classrooms (Herrell & Jorden, 2008; Meltzer & Hamann, 2005; Thomas & Collier, 2002).

## Statement of the Problem

Teaching English literacy as a second language is challenging in mainstream public schools. It requires teachers to accommodate instruction, as well as assessment, to enable ESL students to develop their linguistic skills and acquire the academic knowledge to be successful in

school (Herrell & Jorden, 2008; Hall, Vue, Koga, & Silva, 2004; Meltzer & Hamann, 2005). Anders (2008) stated three challenging aspects in teaching adolescent literacy: (1) the increased demographic diversity, (2) the expanding definition of literacy texts, and (3) specific discourse of the content area.

Giving literacy instruction and assessment in mainstream classes involves the challenge of dealing with different heterogeneous groups of students: native and non-native students. Thus teachers are required to give effective instruction to students with different levels of literacy proficiency at the same time (Common Core Standards for English Language Learners, n.d.; & TESOL International Association, 2006). Although there are varied guidelines for giving instruction to diverse students in mainstream classrooms, in reality teachers are assigned with the responsibility to decide the kind of accommodation to individualize instruction to address English language learners' linguistic and academic needs (Crandall & Peyton, 1993; Meltzer & Hamann, 2005). For example, in the literature, many studies provide recommendations for best practices in ESL literacy instruction and assessment in mainstream classrooms using various research methodologies: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods (Christenbury, Bomer, & Smagorinsky, 2011; Herrell & Jorden, 2008; Li & Edwards, 2010; Meltzer & Hamann, 2005; Wood& Blantonm 2009). However, in real life not all these recommendations are practical for application in a daily classroom setting. As asserted by Gambrell, Malloy, and Mazzoni (2011), teachers' choices for differentiating instruction should be based on references from literature and research as well as from natural classroom settings to handle diversity in classrooms. There is a gap in literature about reflections on how teachers in real classrooms respond to current research findings of best practices.

## Purpose of the Study

Many interventions have been introduced, suggesting best practices to be implemented in schools, but limited research has investigated the regularity of the implementation of these best practices by teachers in everyday classrooms. Therefore, this study tries to fill the gap between theory and practice by describing what best practices are being adopted in real classrooms regularly in order to know what teachers find practical to apply in daily classroom instructional routines. The study examines how teachers in real classrooms report their response to current research findings of best practices regarding five themes recommended in the scholarly literature as best practices for teaching diverse students (Bransford, Brown, Cocking, & National Research Council, 2001; Brock, Lapp, Salas, & Townsend, 2009; Brown, 1987; Carrier 2005; Cummins, 1984; Herrera, Perez, & Escamilla, 2010; Krashen, 1982; Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2010; Meltzer, & Hamann, 2005; Reiss, 2008). The study examined how often teachers applied the following five themes described in best practices in their instruction as a regular routine: (1) providing comprehensible input, (2) teaching learning strategies of metacognition to bridge the gap between school literacy practices and home literacy practices (3) lowering the affective filter, (4) implementing formative assessment, and (5) cooperating between teachers and ES facilitators. Exploring what themes are applied as regular instructional routines of these themes will reflect how practical these suggestions are in real classrooms.

## Research Questions

The study was motivated to answer one main research question and seven sub-questions concerning the instructional strategies that are implemented by teachers across curricula in teaching ESL secondary students. The sub-research questions focused on five themes suggested

in the literature for enhancing teaching reading skills across curricula to non-native speakers. Therefore, the research questions are as follows:

Which of these best practices are being adopted and to what extent by teachers in real classrooms to teach reading skills to ESL students across curriculum?

1. Theme one: Providing Comprehensible Input

   1.a. What are the most used strategies by teachers for providing comprehensible input to teach reading across curricula?

   1.b. What are the most used strategies by teachers for providing comprehensible input in teaching vocabulary across curricula?

2. Theme two: Teaching Learning Strategies of Metacognition to Bridge the Gap Between 2 School Literacy Practices and Home Literacy Practices

   What meta-cognitive strategies do teachers use most to match school literacy practices to home practices?

3. Theme three: Lowering the Affective Filter

   What strategies do teachers implement most for lowering the affective filter to provide an encouraging learning environment?

4. Theme four: Implementing Formative Assessment

   What type of formative assessments do teachers use as a regular routine to assess the ESL students' academic literacy growth?

5. Theme five: Cooperation between Teachers and ESL Facilitators

   5.a. Do teachers set objectives to cover literacy skills needed to enable ESL students to achieve curriculum objectives?

   5.b. Do teachers cooperate with ESL facilitators to help them write their ESL objectives?

## Significance of the Study

The study relates second language acquisition theories to daily classroom application in public schools where teachers face challenges of dealing with diverse students in achieving English proficiency. Although, many interventions have been introduced and best practices implemented in schools, limited research has investigated how these suggestions are applied by teachers in real classrooms. Exploring these suggested best practices for diverse students as regular instructional routines will provide new insights into how practical these suggestions seem to teachers in real classrooms (Fantilli & McDougall, 2009; Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Knowing this will lead to a further understanding of teachers' challenges in using best practices.

## Definitions and Operational Terms

1. Common Core State Standards (CCSS): an initiative for developing a standard curriculum to be used in US schools. It is coordinated by the National Governors Association Center (NGA) and the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) for Best Practices (Common Core State Standards Initiatives, 2010).
2. Culturally and linguistically diverse students (CLD): students who have different cultural and linguistic background than the U.S. majority population (Herrera, Prerez, & Escamilla, 2010).
3. Assessment accommodation: " A measure that is taken to ensure that the results of a typically formal student assessment reflect only measurement of the targeted skills knowledge rather than the student's language ability, level of acculturation, or testing finesse" (Herrera, Murry, & Cabral, 2007, p 287) .
4. Limited English proficient (LEP) students:

"Individuals who do not speak English as their primary language and who have a limited ability to read, speak, write, or understand English can be limited English proficient or 'LEP'. These individuals may be entitled language assistance with respect to a particular type of service, benefit, or encounter" (Energy.Gov Office of Economic Impact and Diversity, n.d.).

5. English as a second language (ESL) is an acronym used to refer to those whose first language is not English (Fitzgerald, 1995).
6. English language learner (ELL) a common acronym used to refer to students' who are learning English but may need support for school success. Common core standards identify ELLs as " a heterogeneous group with differences in ethnic background, first language, socioeconomic status, quality of prior schooling, and levels of English language proficiency" (Common Core Standards for English Language Learners, ¶ 2, n.d). Some educators in school districts prefer to use ELL to describe non-native students who need ESL services to promote the view that students are in the stage of developing English rather than LEP which describes them as deficient (Wolf, Kao, Griffin, Herman, Bachman, Chang, & Farnsworth, 2008, P.5).

# CHAPTER II

## LITERATURE REVIEW

The ending of the conflict between theoretical linguistics and applied linguistics to reach the stage of collaboration was a great leap in second language acquisition (Ellis, 2010). It is important for ESL literacy teachers to have basic knowledge about the process of learning a second language in order to be able to communicate with students effectively. Currently, many teacher preparation programs require teachers to have the basics of how second language acquisition has been investigated with the implications for classroom instruction. Teachers who lack this knowledge may not recognize that non-native speakers have different challenges in learning content subjects different than their native peers (Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2010; Meltzer & Hamann , 2005). Brown (1987) pointed out that learning a second language requires learners to "survive in a strange culture as well as learn a language on which they are totally dependent for communication" (p136). Therefore, knowledge about ESL basic instructional techniques helps teachers to prepare their lesson plans effectively and to differentiate instruction to suit native students and ESL students' needs without changing curriculum standards (De Jong, & Harper 2005; Lems, Miller, and Soro, 2010; National Center on Accessing the General Curriculum, n.d; Reiss, 2008).

This chapter discusses the main strategies suggested in literature as best practices to instruct and assess diverse students in mainstream classrooms. The chapter begins with a brief background of English literacy development in public schools. Then it discusses the main components of adolescent literacy instruction in public school. Next, the chapter gives a brief introduction to current ESL approaches. Finally, the chapter presents the key features of ESL literacy best practices in public schools.

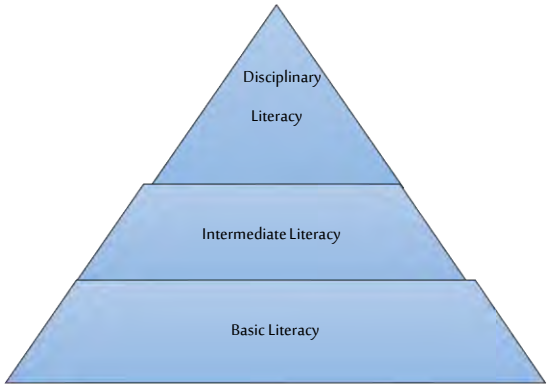
## English Literacy Development in Public Schools

The debate between reading phonics instruction versus whole language instruction dominated research in the seventies and eighties, about which approach for literacy instruction was the best. Reading phonics instruction focused on teaching sounds to help students to recognize the systematic relationship between letters and spoken sounds. The supporters of this approach believe that the knowledge of phonics will help students to read fluently new words which appear in new contexts (Allington, 1997; Denton, 1998; and Torgerson, Brooks, & Hall, 2006). On the other hand, the whole language approach appeared as a reaction to phonics instruction for teaching reading skills in schools. Supporters of this approach argue that "children need to be exposed to large quantities of quality literature and that all aspects of the curriculum, whether math or science or social studies, should be viewed as opportunities to teach reading skills" (Denton, 1998, p.2). Now, the debate on phonics versus whole language instruction has evolved to a stage that points to the effectiveness of using both approaches for classroom instruction. Fallon, Light, McNaughton, Drager, and Hammer (2004) state that "current literature suggests that a balanced, comprehensive reading program should include instruction in the areas of alphabetics, reading fluency, vocabulary, and text comprehension" (p.1425). Barclay (2009) stresses that reading instruction can be implemented in schools as a balanced approach to teach the reading sub-skills: vocabulary, comprehension, phonemic awareness, fluency, and phonics.

## Main Features of Adolescent Literacy Instruction in Public School

Shanahan and Shanahan (2008) provided a model for literacy progression which explains the language literacy cognitive demands in each school stage. The model divides acquiring literacy skills into three stages. The first stage is basic skills' decoding and convention skills that

constitute the base of the literacy pyramid progression, and this stage is usually achieved by native speakers in elementary school. The second stage refers to intermediate literacy skills, which focus on reading skills needed to understand general tasks, such as "generic comprehension strategies and common word meaning" (p. 44). The last stage is disciplinary literacy which includes all skills required to understand specific demanding tasks in various specializations. As students advance to higher grades, they need to develop specific cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies to understand content area tasks. In addition to cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, which enhance thinking about thinking, are part of disciplinary literacy (Allison & Harklau, 2010; Reiss, 2008). The following diagram shows the progression model:




Source: Shanahan and Shanahan (2008, P. 44)

Therefore, in order for teachers to help students to achieve disciplinary literacy, they need to go beyond basic literacy instruction that focuses on phonemic awareness and phonics. The next section describes the aspects of vocabulary skills, comprehension skills, and fluency skills.

**Vocabulary as a Skill**

Vocabulary is an important part of the five reading pillars stressed in the report of the National Reading Panel in 2000: phonics, fluency, comprehension, phonemic awareness, and vocabulary (Cassidy, Valadez, & Garrett, 2010). Harmon, Wood, & Hedrick (2008), state that vocabulary instruction is not only confined to general usage, but it focuses "on the interplay

between vocabulary knowledge and conceptual understandings" (p. 150) in the middle and secondary content classrooms. As mentioned by Harmon, Wood, & Hedrick (2008), specialized vocabulary is challenging because it refers to specific scientific or historical contexts. Understanding content vocabulary is different than understanding general vocabulary because students are required to read informational texts which use context-specific terms. Thus, students cannot rely on their general knowledge to derive meaning from context as they can do with non-informational texts. Harmon, Wood, and Hedrick (2008) mentioned four classifications for content-specific vocabulary and can be summarized as follows: First, academic technical terms both of which are associated with each subject, such as the term "absolute value" to refer to a specific concept in math, and using the general knowledge of each word in isolation to guess the meaning can be misleading for students. It requires specific knowledge of what 'absolute value' means as a term to be able to answer math problems. Second, nontechnical specific words refer to "words that appear across differing contexts but hold special meaning within a subject matter area" (p.156). For example, 'degree' as a general word refers to more than one thing. In science it refers to measuring temperature, while in geometry it refers to a piece of an angle. Third, specific phrases are needed for describing or interpreting certain topics in every subject matter such as the phrase "composed of". Understanding these patterns helps students to put together meaning. Knowing how to use these phrases is a key for a successful classroom communication. Finally, symbolic representations are challenging for students because symbols convey specific meaning and students need direct instruction to learn them, (such as chemicals and map abbreviations).

Enriching vocabulary in content area is fundamental in implementing a successful reading program in schools. Graves, August, and & Mancilla-Martinez (2013) introduced four

components for enriching vocabulary in content areas. Providing rich and varied language experiences, teaching individual words, teaching word-learning strategies, and promoting word consciousness.

**Comprehension as a Skill**

Barclay (2009) defines comprehension as readers' abilities "to understand, interpret, and critique what they read" (p.167). According to Duke, Pearson, Strachan, and Billman (2011), there are seven essential elements of reading comprehension instruction that teachers need to take into account to provide effective instruction:

First, readers' previous knowledge reflects the world knowledge readers have, which is the key point for comprehending texts. Students' engagement with texts depends so much on what disciplines' related knowledge students bring to the class (Duke, Pearson, Strachan, & Billman , 2011). According to Vacca, Vacca, and Mraz (2011), one way to increase disciplinary and world knowledge among students is to understand how concepts displayed in content areas are discussed in students' previous world knowledge. Especially, the gap in literacy increases when the ways of acquiring knowledge are not similar with those adopted in the new school due to the cultural differences between the school and the home cultures.

Second, using motivating texts is among the most important factors that facilitates students' engagement with texts and comprehension. Duke, Pearson, Strachan, and Billman (2011) assert that "reading motivation is fostered by complex interactions of text topics and text characteristics, classroom social norms, and instructional practices" (p.60). Providing motivating texts is used to engage students in reading texts that attract their attention, such as engaging students in reading texts that have authentic purposes that are connected to their interests and lives (Vacca, Vacca, & Mraz, 2011). According to Turner and Paris (1995) to motivate students

to be involved in reading texts, students need to have some role in choosing types of texts. They also need challenging texts that are a step beyond students' reading level to motivate students to be engaged in the reading process and activities for discovery purposes (Duke, Pearson, Strachan, & Billman 2011; Krashen, 1982).

Third, equipping students with a range of genres is important. Providing students with a volume of varied experiences dealing with different types of texts enhances students' comprehension skills. Students need to be exposed to all types of genres, formational and non-formational texts, to be able to build their comprehension strategies (Duke, Pearson,Strachan, & Billman, 2011). Another important aspect for improving comprehension is exposing students to different types of writing styles such as reading texts that are written in accessible styles and more sophisticated styles as well. Exposing students to experiences in reading various levels of difficulties helps students to think of themselves as writers who "can make text easier or more difficult to understand" (p.60). The level of text difficulty should address the text complexity indicated in the Common Core Standards.

Fourth, preparing students by teaching comprehension strategies helps students to build their reading skills and to be involved in text discovery, such as setting purposes for reading, predicting, and activating prior knowledge, creating visual representations, drawing inferences, and self-questioning and thinking aloud (Duke, Pearson, Strachan, & Billman,2011). It is suggested that teachers teach comprehension strategies collectively to enable students to use various strategic skills to understand texts.

Fifth, illustrating text structure by providing a volume of genres is important, and it should be accompanied by direct instruction to make students aware of the regular structures that are found in various genres. Illustrating text structure to students improves students'

comprehension skills and helps them to engage in a conversation with texts and understand meaning "between the lines" and text purposes. Each text has a specific structure; therefore, providing direct instruction helps students to recognize the basics of each text, such as the elements of structure in narrative and informational texts. In reading narrative texts, there are seven important elements: characters, setting, goal, problems, plot, resolution and theme. Illustrating all these elements makes reading instruction more efficient because students concentrate on answering specific questions, which leads them to understand the whole text. On the other hand, informational texts have various structures such as descriptive, sequential, comparison and contrast, and cause and effect. For example, in descriptive structures of informational text, students will focus on the details that constitute the description of the topic mentioned in the text (Duke, Pearson, Strachan, & Billman, 2011).

Sixth, comprehending texts is better facilitated if students are engaged in reciprocal discussions which activates previous knowledge, and helps students to develop their critical thinking to extract meaning from texts (Duke, Pearson, Strachan, & Billman, 2011). In a study by Branden (2000), he found that engaging students in daily activities for negotiating meaning around comprehension among students. According to Duke, Pearson, Strachan, and Billman, (2011, p.72) "higher comprehension may have resulted from the challenges of explaining oneself to others." Therefore facilitating student discussion in class supports struggling students to correct misunderstandings about texts if they have reading difficulties, which in turn helps them with confidence after they have grasped text meaning from the process of negotiating meaning during class discussions.

Seventh, connecting reading and writing instruction is one of the most essential elements of reading comprehension instruction that teachers need to take into account to provide effective

instruction (Duke, Pearson, Strachan, & Billman, 2011). According to Olson (2007), reading and writing skills constitute two types of composition. They both cannot be learned without formal instruction. According to Carnine, Silbert, Kame'enui, and Tarver (2010) " learning to read is gaining knowledge of and practicing an agreed-upon convention for the written representation of language, and it is not genetically inherent in human development" (p. 5). Therefore, combining the learning of reading and writing together consolidates each other because they depend "on some of the same cognitive processes" (p.76). According to Olson (2007), both experienced writers and readers use similar cognitive processes when they write and read. When experienced readers read or reread texts, they construct meaning from texts through making several mental drafts of the passage as they continue reading; they make refinements of meaning till they comprehend what the writers say. In a similar way, writers do not start writing at once; they write various drafts before they produce the final draft of the text. Pausing, reviewing, and rethinking, and revising are similar cognitive processes that both readers and writers need to go through to be able to interpret and generate ideas while they are practicing reading and writing.

**Fluency as a Skill**

Algozzine, O'Shea, and Obiakor, (2009) defines fluency as the following: "the ability to project the natural pitch, stress, and juncture of the spoken word on written text, automatically and at a natural rate, coupled with the ability to group words quickly to gain meaning from what is being read" (p.157). According to Rasinski, & Samuels (2011), fluency is the component that connects comprehension and phonetics. Therefore, for students to have fluency in reading they have to master two parts: automatic word recognition and prosody.

According to Archer, Gleason, & Vachon (2003), the number of students in secondary schools at the reading grade levels 2.5 to 5.0 is increasing due to problems of automaticity word

recognition for multisyllabic words. Although, "in many schools, the focus of fluency instruction has been biased towards automaticity through instructional programs aimed at improving reading rate" (Rasinski, & Samuels, 2011, p.96), fluency does not refer to reading speed only. Automaticity is "the ability of readers to decode words not just accurately but effortlessly" (p. 96) which means that focusing only on the reading rate is only part of the skill. The cognitive efforts spent by students show how much fluency students have in reading texts. Less cognitive reading efforts spent on word recognition is a sign that readers can engage with text easily and use their cognitive efforts for constructing meaning of the text. Building fluency among readers is a result of a memory trace representation. When readers come across a new word, they focus on it. While they focus on it, they process the meaning in their memory, and after they encounter it several times and use their cognitive efforts to recognize the word, the trace representation for word recognition builds in the memory (Rasinski, & Samuels, 2011; Waxler, Vaughn, Edmonds, & Reutebuch 2008).

The other important part of reading fluency is prosody. Rasinski, & Samuels, 2011 mention that fluent readers are not only fast readers, but also, readers who are able to know "when to pause within sentences, to raise or lower their voice, to insert dramatic pauses, to emphasize particular words or parts of words" (p.96). Reading fast is not a sign of reading fluently because if readers read quickly in a way that does not express the meaning of the text with the right pauses, then reading fast is a sign of readers' inability to connect between comprehension and phonetics of the text (Archer, Gleason, & Vachon 2003; Rasinski & Samuels, 2011).

As a general framework for providing instruction in public schools, Gambrell, Malloy, and Mazzoni, (2011) state that "although no single instructional program, approach, or method has been found to be effective in teaching all students to read, *evidence-based best practices* that

promote high rates of achievement have been documented" (p.17). Comprehensive literacy instruction has been described as having ten components supported by evidence-based best practices:

1. Creating a classroom culture that fosters literacy motivation.
2. Teaching reading for authentic meaning-making purposes.
3. Providing students with scaffolded instruction in phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension to promote independent reading.
4. Giving students time for self-selected independent reading.
5. Providing students with high-quality literature across a wide range of genres.
6. Using multiple texts that build on prior knowledge, link concepts, and expand vocabulary.
7. Building a whole-class context that emphasizes community and collaboration.
8. Balancing teacher- and student-led discussions of texts.
9. Integrating technologies that link and expand concepts.
10. Differentiating instruction using a variety of instructionally relevant assessments. (Gambrell, Malloy, & Mazzoni, 2011, p. 21).

The ten components above are profiled as a framework for teachers to choose activities that are aligned with it to facilitate students' academic literacy. Even with this general framework, which includes evidence-based practices, teachers need to know how to deliver them in their instructional strategies on a daily basis in mainstream classrooms in a way that suits both ESL and native learners. For example, ESL students need extensive scaffolding strategies that cover various social, linguistic, cognitive, and psychological aspects that are already familiar to native learners. Thus, having knowledge about the main ESL theories affect ESL instruction in

mainstream classrooms is necessary because it helps teachers to provide effective scaffolding instruction (Brock, Salas, Lapp, & Townsend, 2009; Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2010; Meltzer and Hamann, 2005).

## Introduction to Current ESL Approaches

Various approaches and theories of second language learning and teaching have impacted classroom instruction such as teacher-oriented approaches: audio-lingualism, grammar-translation, and total physical response. However, the current views and research in second language acquisition have changed classroom instruction to be more student-oriented (Krashen, 1982; Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2010). Krashen's second language acquisition theory and Cummins' model are among the current views that have made a strong impact on ESL classroom instruction and assessment as they provide the theoretical basis for student-oriented approaches in second language teaching methodology (Brock, Lapp, Salas, & Townsend, 2009; Cummins, 1984; Krashen, 1982; Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2010; Reiss, 2008).

### Second Language Acquisition Theory

In an attempt to answer the question of how people acquire a second language, Krashen (1982) developed his theory of second language acquisition. Krashen built his theory on five hypotheses. First, Krashen's second language acquisition theory differentiates between two ways of developing language: acquiring and learning. Initially, acquiring language is an unconscious process similar to how children acquire their mother tongue. Therefore, people are unaware of the grammatical rules that govern the structure; they only use their unconscious knowledge which is reflected in their feeling or intuition about the sound usage of the language acquired from daily communication with native speakers. The second way to develop a language is to learn it by developing a conscious knowledge about the rules that govern it and how to use these

rules in communication. As a result of this difference between the conscious and unconscious knowledge, the learned knowledge through formal classes cannot by transferred to automatic acquired knowledge (Krashen,1982).

The second hypothesis is that there is a natural predictable order for acquiring grammatical rules and morphemes. Krashen (1982) asserts that the plural marker /s/ is acquired early before the marker /s/ for third person singular among children in acquiring English.

The third hypothesis says that learning provides a conscious knowledge and this knowledge works as a monitor to language learners that make them correct their utterances while they speak, such as providing grammar and pronunciation corrections in conversation. The monitor hypothesis relates the role of monitor to the learned knowledge because speakers use their conscious competence while they speak to monitor their output. On the other hand, the acquired knowledge of language is not controlled by the conscious competence instead it is guided by speakers' intuitions about their native language (Krashen, 1982). Also, language learners use their monitor in three different ways: monitor over-users, monitor under-users, and the optimal monitor users. The difference depends on the situation and speaker's personality. Basically, monitor over-users are language learners who use their conscious knowledge all the time which in most cases make their output hesitant and full of self-correction because they pay too much attention to the form (grammar and structure) of the language other than the message. The second is monitor under-users, which refers to language learners who either did not learn the rules or they have the conscious knowledge about the rules, but they focus on message more than the form. The last one is the optimal monitor users "who use the monitor when it is appropriate and when it does not interfere with communication" (Krashen, 1982, p.19). How teachers could

make language learners balance between using the conscious knowledge and the acquired knowledge is an important question that attracts many scholars in the field of ESL pedagogy.

Fourth, the input hypothesis states that people acquire language by receiving input which helps them to develop their linguistic competence. The input that people receive to develop their unconscious competence has three characteristics, and these characteristics are what make people acquire the input unconsciously. First, people should receive comprehensible input to facilitate communication rather than teach language (Krashen, 1982). The second characteristic is comprehensible input that is one step above the current level of the learner. Krashen (1982) uses the following formula (i + 1) to explain the comprehensible input hypothesis where 'i' refers to the current level of the acquirer's linguistic competence. The acquirer uses various resources to understand and communicate with native speakers such as context, knowledge of the world, extra linguistic information. "The best input should not even attempt to deliberately aim at i + 1" (p. 21) because the language acquirer will focus on form and pay attention to structure which becomes an unnatural event. Third, language acquirers need large enough amounts of comprehensible input that spontaneously yields i +1. Therefore, providing a grammatical syllabus to teach structure does not provide i +1 for all students since not all students have the same competence level. Thus, focusing on using a grammatical syllabus to provide comprehensible input is not helpful because it does not provide a chance for natural review as it happens in daily communication (Krashen, 1982).

Finally, the affective filter hypothesis focuses on the factors that affect successes in second language acquisition. Among these factors are motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety. These affective factors affect second language acquirers to various degrees, and these degrees "vary with respect to the strength or level of their Affective Filter" (p, 31). Acquirers who have

a positive attitude about the language are highly motivated. They try to connect themselves with the new language by getting regular input from various resources while their anxiety level is low (Krashen, 1982).

**Cummin's Model**

Cummins framework distinguishes between two different types of knowledge that second language learners have: basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS) and cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 1980). Cummins asserts that English language learners' daily communication with teachers and peers is not a sign that they have acquired the cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) required for success in school. Cummins provides four contexts of cognitive demand activities that vary in their difficulties (Reiss, 2008, p.7):

1. Cognitively Undemanding activities are those context embedded, such as face to face social conversation with peers.
2. Cognitively Undemanding activities are those context reduced, such as engaging in social conversation on the telephone.
3. Cognitively Demanding activities which are context embedded, such as solving math word problems with modifications to simplify it.
4. Cognitively Demanding activities which are context reduced, such as solving math word problems without modifications to simplify it.

Also, Cummins emphasized that the level of literacy proficiency in student's native language contributes to the process of acquiring literacy skills in a second language. It is suggested that the knowledge acquired through first language about the processes of reading and writing helps ESL students to understand the concepts and purposes involved in these processes.

Therefore, students will refer to their background to find similarities and differences which will develop their understanding of these skills. On the other hand, students who lack the basic skills of literacy in their native language need to develop new knowledge toward new concepts and purposes required as basic writing and reading skills (Cummins, 1980; Brock Salas, Lapp, & Townsend, 2009).

## Key Features of ESL Literacy Best Practices in Public School

Meltzer and Hamann (2005) conducted an extensive research review of more than 250 resources to investigate instructional strategies that contribute to the academic literacy development of adolescents generally and specifically to ELL. They have stated that "reading and learning are acknowledged by researchers to be complex, interconnected, synergistic composites of cognitive and metacognitive habits and skills and sociocultural perspectives and motivations" (p, 9). There are main five principles that contribute to ESL students' learning in a mainstream classroom best practices as asserted by ESL linguists and ESL educators: (1) providing comprehensible input, (2) lowering affective filter, (3) matching school literacy practices to literacy home practices by teaching ESL students learning strategies as metacognition, (4) cooperation between content area and ESL teachers, and (5) implementing formative assessment (Bransford, Brown, Cocking, & National Research Council, 2001; Brock, Lapp, Salas, & Townsend, 2009; Carrier 2005; Cummins, 1984; Herrera, Perez, & Escamilla, 2010; Krashen, 1982; Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2010; Meltzer, & Hamann, 2005; Reiss, 2008).

In addition, according to TESOL Standards Correlation Chart reproduced in Herrell and Jordan (2008), there is a strong correlation between academic achievement among ESL students and the usage of these suggested best practices as they help ESL students to achieve the

identified five standards for proficiency for grade levels as determined in the TESOL Pre-K-12 English Language Proficiency Standards Framework below.

*Table 1*
*The TESOL Pre-K-12 English Language Proficiency Standards Framework*

| Standards | Levels of English Language Proficiency |
|---|---|
| Standard 1: | English language learners communicate for social, intercultural, and instructional purposes within the school setting |
| Standard 2: | English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of language arts. |
| Standard 3: | English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of mathematics. |
| Standard 4: | English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of science. |
| Standard 5: | English language learners communicate information, ideas, and concepts necessary for academic success in the area of social studies. |

Source: (TESOL International Association, 2006, ¶ 2)

**Providing Comprehensible Input**

Providing comprehensible input plays an important role for encouraging students to learn specifically among adolescents in content areas. Meltzer and Hamann (2005) stressed that modeling is the most useful suggested scaffolding strategy for making input comprehensible and for facilitating learning among ESL students. Beed, Hawkins, and Roller (1991) distinguish between two types of scaffolding. First, incidental scaffolding occurs when adults unconsciously help children to acquire specific communicative skills. The second is strategic scaffolding in which the assistance is more explicit and articulated by modeling such as showing the rules of playing specific game or solving situational problems. In addition to modeling, Lems, Miller,

and Soro, (2010) provided various scaffolding strategies supported by research as the best practices for providing comprehensible input for reading and writing ( pp. 201,203):

- Modeling specific skills
- Describing the processes writers use
- Sharing journals
- Doing interactive reading aloud to discuss the author's style
- Doing regular peer editing, using written rubrics
- Retelling fieldtrips, holidays and creating a class book with illustrations
- Paired writing with a more capable peer
- Using native language writing and reading resources
- Involving library staff in teaching research writing and referencing skills

In addition, Meltzer and Hamann (2005) revealed in their extensive literature review that most of the studies conducted on developing adolescent literacy emphasized the importance of using instructional strategies that enhance student access to the content by providing comprehensible input for teaching content-specific skills that require teaching vocabulary, and equipping students with specialized structures, genres, discourse, and terms. There are six strategies for how to utilize best practices for content-specific skills as they are supported by extensive research (Herrera, Perez, & Escamilla, 2010, pp. 104-127; Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2010, pp. 187).

1. Reader-based instruction for teaching word parts (prefixes, roots, and suffixes)
2. Interactive language learning through engaging students in building vocabulary activities before, during, and after reading
3. Teaching systematically selected vocabulary
4. Encouraging bilingual pairs who understand the same languages

5. Relating students' personal experiences in discussion of new vocabulary to support comprehension
6. Using nonlinguistic presentations such as concept maps, T-charts, and Venn Diagrams for teaching specialized vocabulary

**Lowering Affective Filter**

Krashen's affective filter hypothesis has heavily influenced educators (Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2010) to eliminate factors that hinder students from being engaged in a task. Meltzer and Hamann's (2005) review asserted that motivating students to develop their academic literacy skills is essential for addressing ELL students' needs. Waxman and Tellez (2002) asserted that when ELL students are engaged in a learner-centered environment, they become more active in small groups because describing the ways they approach the task with their peers gives them opportunities to improve their linguistic and thinking skills. In addition, Lems, Miller, and Soro (2010) asserted that besides engaging students in small and flexible grouping, there are other psychological factors to be taken into account when dealing with students in mainstream classrooms such as referring to cultures and languages present in the classroom. Lems, Miller, and Soro (2010) presented eight strategies suggested in the literature as best practices teachers can use to provide a comfortable environment where diverse students feel that they will be understood when they communicate in a class (Lems, Miller,& Soro, 2010; Reiss, 2008).

1. Giving students choices about ways of responding
2. Allowing sufficient wait time for students to formulate answers
3. Providing opportunities for students to present in small groups instead of presenting to the entire class
4. Using games, skits, and brain teasers

5. Pronouncing the names of all the students correctly, and using their names often
6. Explaining the meaning of the written feedback
7. Talking about the cultures presented in the classroom
8. De-emphasizing "correctness" in favor of developing writing comfort

**Enhancing Learning Strategy as Metacognition**

Teaching learning strategies has been asserted by many educators as a part of providing effective instruction in schools (Brown, 1997; Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2010; Reiss, 2008). Research suggests when the literacy practices at home do not match school literacy practices; students may set different performance and success expectations because they have different literacy habits. Therefore, they face the risk of being struggling readers since task demands in content area include more than just decoding reading skills (Brock, Lapp, Salas, & Townsend, 2009; and Meltzer & Hamann 2005). Brock, Lapp, Salas, and Townsend cited several academic features that are signs for academic literacy among adolescents (2009, pp. 86, 87):

1. Using figurative expressions such as metaphors, analogies, idioms, and using concrete terms for abstract ideas.
2. Detachment from the message where the exclusion of emotions and opinions, and inclusion of logic and evidence are necessary.
3. Using evidence to support claims and main ideas.
4. Interpreting and using modal verbs (can, could, would, should…etc) to convey nuances of meaning.
5. Interpreting and using qualifiers to soften messages to avoid claims of absolute truth.
6. Interpreting and using long sentences with condensed, complex messages which have multiple connected phrases and clauses.

7. Interpreting and using passive voice when the emphasis is on the action, not on the actor, because of the absences of the passive in the first language.
8. Interpreting and using general academic vocabulary accurately: abstract words that are not key content words.

According to Meltzer and Hamann (2005), to provide best practices instruction that helps ELL adolescents develop their academic literacy skills, teachers should be aware that the level of fluency in students' who exit from ESL programs cannot be compared with the level of fluency of native adolescents since they have "uneven content-area backgrounds, and vastly different family and schooling experiences" (p.6). Also, Bransford, Brown, Cocking, & National Research Council, 2001 emphasize teachers should not assume that students have developed the required skills needed for learning content in school previously and that they are now ready for learning subjects. The previous instruction, if it is different than what they are experiencing in the current schooling, will force them to use certain learning strategies that might not help them in approaching new tasks. Thus, the literature confirms that teachers need to utilize metacognitive strategies among ELLs to bridge literacy mismatched activities between school and home (Brock, Lapp, Salas, & Townsend, 2009, Meltzer & Hamann, 2005; Reiss, 2008). Reiss (2008) has verbalized various classroom routines that can be used to help students develop their metacognitive skills for thinking and organizing, self-evaluation, and enhancing recalling (Reiss, 2008, p. 44-46):

Strategies to Enhance Thinking about Organizing and Planning for Learning

1. Using a homework notebook
2. Keeping a calendar to remind students with long-term assignments
3. Dividing long-term assignments into shorter segments and tasks.

4. Setting deadlines for completion of each segment or task.
5. Helping students to use efficient strategies to learn content.

Strategies to Develop Deeper Understanding

1. Making connections between new and old learning
2. Making connections between English and the student's native language
3. Highlighting important information while reading
4. Dividing a large body of information into smaller units
5. Note taking in students' native language
6. Using flash cards
7. Making visual associations such as using graphic organizers, maps, charts, diagrams, and timelines to aid in retention
8. Making categories and classifications.

Using Mnemonics as Recalling Tools

9. Poems
10. Acronyms
11. Silly sentences and word patterns
12. Using native languages to create memory devices

**Cooperation Between Content Area and ESL Teachers**

Generally, the nature of classroom situations that ELL students are taught through vary across schools; therefore, students are sometimes taught by (1) content ESL teachers trained to be content teachers, (2) partnership teaching between ESL teachers and content teachers, (3) content teachers who modify instruction in sheltered immersion instruction, or (4) mainstream

classroom teachers with no ESL endorsement without ESL partner (Meltzer, & Hamann, 2005). Among these approaches, partnership teaching is a highly asserted factor for success among ESL students. However, applying partnership teaching needs careful communication between ESL and content teachers to make this cooperation fruitful (Carrier, 2005; Davison, 2006; Meltzer, & Hamann, 2005; and Villa, Thousand & Nevin, 2013).

Carrier (2005) suggested a practical framework that can help content teachers prepare their learning objectives to enhance literacy among English language learners. First, content teachers can start writing their objectives by listing all the literacy skills needed to achieve the content objectives. As an example, Carrier (2005) mentions science teachers can use scaffolding, such as sentence frames in which students put the appropriate vocabulary to help them communicate concepts and make a verbal report about scientific findings. Second, after content teachers list the literacy skills needed, they should cooperate with students' ESL teachers to help them write their ESL objectives. This cooperation makes content teachers aware of the linguistic patterns that are needed for making verbal or written reports about any scientific topic. Finally, teachers should inform students about the assigned literacy objectives to facilitate metacognitive knowledge by posting these objectives in the classroom. This regular routine will lead students to focus, which helps students to build conscious knowledge that leads them to learn the assigned objectives. Although this description of the relationship between content and ESL teachers seems easy, partnership teaching in real classrooms is complex. Davison (2006, p. 459) stated that ESL facilitators and classroom teachers "belong to distinct discourse communities, each with their own often implicit assumptions and beliefs about their subject area and its importance within the school curriculum." These beliefs come from the content preparation which makes them depend on intuitiveness to establish priorities of what to include as language

objectives to serve subject-specific contexts (Grossman & Stodolsky, 1995). Teachers must set language objectives for academic success; therefore they must cooperate with ESL specialists to decide what linguistic priorities to address (Carrier, 2005; De Jong & Barko-Alva, 2015).

**Implementing Formative Assessment**

Although ELL students' receptive skills grow faster than their productive skills, this progress cannot be shown because speaking and communicative skills are needed for demonstrating this knowledge (Herrell, & Jorden, 2008). Thus, evaluating students using only formal assessments such as quizzes will not give them a chance to show their progress, because tasks might be "extremely language-based, requiring exact vocabulary to read and answer questions" (p, 6). In addition, one formative assessment strategy should not be used as a source for evaluating final class outcomes. Instead, combining a set of formative assessment strategies such as anecdotal records, performance sampling, and portfolios should be used to assess students' growth on a regular basis to help teachers to check understanding, find out the weaknesses, and provide individualized instruction (Herrell, & Jorden, 2008; Meltzer, & Hamann, 2005). There are four main characteristics that should be taken into account when teachers use formative assessments: (1) the goal of using any form of formative assessment should aim to monitor students' understanding; (2) it is important that teachers notice students' involvement in the task; (3) it is crucial to document students' performance because it inform teachers about students' progress; and (4) adjustments instruction is necessary based on assessment feedback (Nichols, Walker, Mclntyre, 2009). In addition, Knowles and Brown (2000) stressed the importance of involving students in the assessment by providing choices that help students to present their knowledge about the topic. (Herrell, & Jorden, 2008; Herrera, Murry, & Cabral, 2007; Meltzer, & Hamann, 2005; Nichols, Walker, & Mclntyre, 2009).

# CHAPTER III

# RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research methodology for the study. The organization of the chapter is presented in the following order: Overview, research questions, sampling schema, data collection, and data analysis, and time line of conducting the study

## Overview

The study was conducted to answer one main research question and seven sub-questions to investigate the instructional strategies that are implemented by teachers across curricula in teaching ESL secondary students. The sub-research questions focused on five themes suggested in the literature for enhancing teaching reading skills across curricula to non-native speakers: (1) providing comprehensible input; (2) teaching learning strategies of metacognition to bridge the gap between school literacy practices and home literacy practices; (3) lowering the affective filter; (4) implementing formative assessment, and (5) cooperating between teachers and ESL facilitators. Therefore, the research questions were as follows:

## Research Questions

Which of these best practices are being adopted and to what extent by teachers in real classrooms to teach reading skills to ESL students across curriculum?

1. Theme one: Providing Comprehensible Input

    1.a. What are the most used strategies by teachers for providing comprehensible input to teach reading across curricula?

    2.a. What are the most used strategies by teachers for providing comprehensible input in teaching vocabulary across curricula?

1. Theme two: Teaching Learning Strategies of Metacognition to Bridge the Gap Between School Literacy Practices and Home Literacy Practices

   a. What meta-cognitive strategies do teachers use most to match school literacy practices to home practices?

2. Theme three: Lowering the Affective Filter

   3.a What strategies do teachers implement most for lowering the affective filter to provide an encouraging learning environment?

3. Theme four: Implementing Formative Assessment

   4.a. What type of formative assessments do teachers use as a regular routine to assess the ESL students' academic literacy growth?

4. Theme five: Cooperation between Teachers and ESL Facilitators

   5.a. Do teachers set objectives to cover literacy skills needed to enable ESL students to achieve curriculum objectives?

   5.b. Do teachers cooperate with ESL facilitators to help them write their ESL objectives?

## Sampling Schema

In the sampling schema, the researcher used a purposive sample. The selection of the sample was based on two criteria: the number of ESL students in the school district and the national literacy assessment performance:

1. "Over the last eight years the population of language-minority children enrolled in the Northwest regional public school has increased over 62%" (Arkansas Department of Education , 2012, p.1). Table 2 shows the ten school districts in the mid-south region. School district referred to hereafter as School District A has the largest population of LEP students 2011-2012 academic year (Arkansas Department of Education, 2012).

*Table 2*
*School Districts with Largest Number of LEP Students 2011-2012*

| School Districts | Number of ESL Students |
|---|---|
| A | 8259 |
| B | 4850 |
| C | 3380 |
| D | 2139 |
| E | 944 |
| F | 721 |
| G | 713 |
| H | 710 |
| I | 532 |
| J | 470 |

Source: Adapted from (Arkansas Department of Education, 2012, p. 11)

2. Although the number of English language learners in Northwest is high, 2011-2012 national assessment data shows an increased literacy growth among English language learners in School District A (Arkansased.org, 2012).

The researcher used this procedure to get the primary data: (1) the researcher depended on the school districts websites to find the secondary public schools in each school district and the schools that showed improvement on the national assessment. Then, in August (2013) the researcher contacted by phone the ESL coordinator and ESOL program specialist in School District A to get the number of content teachers, ESL endorsed teachers, ESL facilitators, and ESL students in the high schools. By email the researcher received initial information. There

were two high schools in the School District A. Then after receiving IRB approval and contacting school principals, the researcher received teachers' information and prepared teachers' lists. The information displayed in Table 3 shows the number of ESL students in high schools by grades in School District A, and Table 4 shows the number of content teachers, ESL endorsed teachers, and ESL facilitators in School District A.

*Table 3*
*Total of ESL Students in High Schools by Grade in A School District*

| District | 10th Grade *n* | 11th Grade *n* | 12th Grade *n* | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | 163 | 114 | 100 | 377 |
| B | 379 | 307 | 245 | 931 |
| Total | 542 | 421 | 345 | 1308 |

*Table 4*
*Total of Content Teachers, ESL Teachers, and ESL facilitators in High Schools in A School District*

| ESL endorsed Teachers *n* | Content Teachers *n* | ESL facilitator Schools *n* |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 34 | 115 | 1 |
| 2 | 30 | 148 | 1 |
| Total | 64 | 263 | 2 |

## Data Collection

The researcher used a questionnaire to collect data from the ESL endorsed teachers and content teachers about the strategies of teaching reading across curricula to ESL students in secondary grades. The researcher constructed the ESL Literacy Instruction Questionnaire (See Appendix C) to collect quantitative data and demographics. The questionnaire was based on the key features of ESL best instructional practices, second language acquisition theories, and learning theories suggested in the literature for teaching literacy to ESL students in mainstream

classrooms. The questionnaire depended on different sources to ensure content validity: relationship to the literature, a peer review and two pilot studies.

The ESL Literacy Instruction Questionnaire contained five themes used in this survey as the key features of ESL best instructional practices for teaching reading to ELLs (1) providing comprehensible input, (2) teaching learning strategies of metacognition to bridge the gap between school literacy practices and home literacy practices (3) lowering the affective filter, (4) implementing formative assessment, and (5) cooperation between teachers and ESL facilitators.

**Pilot Studies**

After having IRB approval for a pilot study, a survey was conducted on secondary pre-service teachers who were doing their internships in School District A in Fall 2013(See Appendix A). The pilot study showed two necessary modifications:

The first modification revealed the importance of changing the type of response that was used for collecting the quantitative data in the pilot study because the questions originally sought multiple-responses. This approach was applied in a previous survey study (Ferris, 2014) to investigate the extent of implementing best practices to respond to student writing. Although, the response rate was high and gave an indication about the content validity of real classroom applications of the suggested best practices, these types of questions did not allow the researcher to report the internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha. The participants were asked to choose all the answers that apply which means the total of the responses was more than100%. Thus, the researcher decided to use item Likert-scale to collect data as it allows participants to make only one choice. Second, the open-ended questions about the theme of implementing formative assessment to ESL students were not informative enough to reveal assessing procedures; therefore, the researcher decided to conduct a second pilot study providing more open-ended

questions to help the researcher understand the assessment process. The survey that was used after these modifications represented five main themes recommended by ESL linguists and ESL educators as key features for ESL best instructional practices for teaching reading skills across curriculum (See Appendix A). In order to analyze the data obtained from the ESL Literacy Instruction Questionnaire and answer the research questions, three main procedures were followed.

## Procedures of Analyzing Data

### Procedures of Analyzing Sub-research Questions 1, 2, 3 and 4

Two steps were followed for analyzing data and answering the first four sub-research questions regarding: (1) providing comprehensible input, (2) teaching learning strategies of metacognition, (3) lowering the affective filter and (4) implementing formative assessment. The first step was defining the term 'used strategies'. The second step was deciding the class intervals for the level of frequency percentage usage.

First, for measuring the frequency percentage of the used strategies, a four point item Likert-scale was used instead of five or seven item Likert scale: always, sometimes, rarely, and never. Cummins and Gullone (2000) found that, people interpret the adverbs of frequency differently as they compared four studies. For example, they found that there was not a clear cut point for the interpretation of five adverbs: never, rarely, very unusual, unusual, and seldom. Also, they showed that participants had various perceptions of understanding five frequency adverbs. In addition, they found that people also viewed the five frequency adverbs differently. Finally, they noticed that there were variations in the participants' interpretation of the adverbs 'most of the time' and 'always'. Thus, in this study, 'always' and 'sometimes' were used as scores to refer to the repeatedly used strategies utilized by teachers. Similarly, 'rarely' was used

as a boundary that separates the frequently used strategies from the infrequently used strategies that were utilized by teachers. Therefore, the term 'used strategies' as a measurement in this study refers to the first two choices of the item Likert-scale 'always' and 'sometimes' which are grouped together under one group named 'used strategies'. Likewise, the second two choices of the item-Likert scale 'rarely' and 'never' were grouped together to refer to the infrequently used strategies.

**The Second Step, Deciding the Interval Classes for the Level of Usage Percentage.** In order to know the level of the used strategy percentage among teachers, it was necessary to decide the class intervals. As explained by Colwell and Carter (2012), "a class interval is a set of values that are combined into a single group" (p.44). There were four necessary basic steps for creating a class interval: (pp.46-47) finding the range, deciding the width and number of the class intervals**,** **f**inding the class boundaries**,** and finding each class interval midpoint.

The range was counted using the following formula: the highest observed percentage – the lowest observed percentage.

Table 4 shows the lowest and highest observed percentages of the used strategies. The highest observed percentage was 98 %. The lowest observed percentage was 2% = 96%.

*Table 4*
*Lowest and Highest Observed Percentages of the Used Strategies*

| Questions Constructs | Lowest Observed Percentage | Highest Observed Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 3 % | 97 % |
| 2 | 12% | 88% |
| 3 | 3% | 97% |
| 4 | 2% | 98% |

Second, the width and number of class intervals were determined by dividing the range of the data by the number of the desired class interval. The number three was decided to be the desired number of the class. W = 96% / 3 = 32. There were three usage intervals:

Low level of usage percentage (1 -32)

Moderate level of usage percentage (33-65)

High level of usage percentage (66- 98)

Third, the class boundaries were used to exclude any observations that may come at boundaries between two interval classes. These class limit boundaries were used as "the real limits of the class intervals" (p.47). The class interval boundaries were calculated by "subtract[ing] 0.5 from the lower class limit and add[ing] 0.5 to the upper class limit for each class intervals" ( p.47). The class boundaries for the three levels of usage percentage intervals are as follows:

Low level of usage percentage .5 to < 31.5

Moderate level of usage percentage 32.5 < 64.5

High level of usage percentage 65.5 < 98.5

Finally, each class interval midpoint was used "as a rough estimate of the average of the average case in each interval" (p.47). The midpoint was counted by adding the upper limit and the lower limit of the interval and dividing the sum by two. For example, as shown in Table 5, the midpoint for the low level interval class (1-32) was 32 = 33 / 2 = 16.5

*Table 5*
*The Midpoint for the Low Level Interval Class*

| Level of Usage Percentage | Class Interval | Class Limits | Class Boundaries | Mid Points |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Low level | (1- 32) | (1- 32) | .5 to < 31.5 | 16.5 |
| Moderate Level | (33- 65) | (33-65) | 32.5 < 64.5 | 49 |
| High Level | (66-98 ) | (66-98) | 65.5 < 98.5 | 82 |

**Procedure For Analyzing Sub-research Question 5**

For measuring the percentage of using the formative assessment techniques, a four point item-Likert scale was also used: daily, weekly, monthly, and never. The first three choices referred to the three used assessment routines: the daily routine assessment, the weekly routine assessment, and the monthly routine assessment. The fourth option 'never' was used as a boundary that excluded the unused assessment techniques. Therefore, for knowing the type of formative assessments teachers use as a regular routine to assess the ESL students' academic literacy growth, three analyses were presented:

1. The highest percentage of the assessment techniques used on the daily basis.
2. The highest percentage of the assessment techniques used on the weekly basis.
3. The highest percentage of the assessment techniques used on the monthly basis

**Procedures of Analyzing Sub-research Questions 6 and 7**

Descriptive statistics: percentages, frequencies and crosstabs were used to analyze teachers' responses. After presenting the frequency tables regarding setting ESL objectives to cover literacy skills needed to achieve lesson objectives, resources used for preparing lesson objectives, and consulting the ESL facilitators for writing lesson objectives, two further descriptive analyses using crosstabs were used to get information to better understand how cooperation between ESL facilitators and teachers is practiced. The quantitative data obtained from the questionnaire was analyzed by summarizing the frequency of the implemented ESL practiced strategies and percentages for teaching reading skills across curricula.

**TimeLine of Conducting the Study**

In March (2014) the researcher contacted School District A to receive permission to start IRB procedures. After the researcher received the Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval for

conducting the study in April (2014), the researcher contacted the first school principal for permission to contact teachers and distribute the face to face survey, but the principal suggested that the researcher should use an online survey to save teachers' time and not to interrupt them during classes. Therefore, in May (2014) the researcher applied to modify the IRB as one question was added to identify the school's name. After receiving the approval for modifications, the researcher contacted the second school principal and received permission to start the online survey. The first email sent to School A was on May 7th 2014 and the first email sent to School B was on May 14th. The data collection was from May 2014 to September 2014.

In the study, the total of 244 online surveys was sent to the two high schools in district. The survey response rate from both schools was 64%. In School A, the online survey link was forwarded by the school principal to 101 teachers after the researcher received a list of teachers' contact information from the assistant principal in the school. From the 100 surveys that were returned there were 55 complete surveys. In School B, after getting permission from the school principal, the online survey link was sent to 143 teachers' emails by the researcher. From the 56 surveys that were returned, 31 were complete. See Table 6 for the distributed surveys' overview.

*Table 6*
*Overview of the Distributed Survey*

| Schools | Sent | Returned | Rate of Returned Surveys | Completed |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| School A | 101 | 100 | 99% | 55 |
| School B | 143 | 56 | 39% | 31 |
| Total | 244 | 156 | 64% | 86 |

# CHAPTER IV

## DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the results of the analysis of the data collected from secondary teachers from two high schools in one district in a region of the mid-south to explore the most used strategies of reading instruction as a second language across curriculum at the secondary level. The data were the teachers' self- reported responses to the ESL Literacy Instruction Questionnaire. The ESL Literacy Instruction Questionnaire contained five themes which included ESL strategies considered best practices in the literature. These strategies included as the parts of ESL Literacy Instruction Questionnaire were (1) providing comprehensible input, (2) teaching learning strategies of metacognition to bridge the gap between school literacy practices and home literacy practices (3) lowering the affective filter, (4) implementing formative assessment, and (5) cooperation between teachers and ESL facilitators. The chapter is organized around three main sections. The first section introduces the participant demographical information. The second part presents the data analysis and results of the teachers' self-reported data. The last part is a summary. The research was guided by the following main research question and the seven sub-research questions:

Which of these best practices are being adopted and to what extent by teachers in real classrooms to teach reading skills to ESL students across curriculum?

1. Theme one: Providing Comprehensible Input

    1.a. What are the most used strategies by teachers for providing comprehensible input to teach reading across curricula?

    1.b. What are the most used strategies by teachers for providing comprehensible input in teaching vocabulary across curricula?

2. Theme two: Teaching Learning Strategies of Metacognition to Bridge the Gap Between School Literacy Practices and Home Literacy Practices

What meta-cognitive strategies do teachers use most to match school literacy practices to home practices?

3. Theme three: Lowering the Affective Filter

What strategies do teachers implement most for lowering the affective filter to provide an encouraging learning environment?

4. Theme four: Implementing Formative Assessment

What type of formative assessments do teachers use as a regular routine to assess the ESL students' academic literacy growth?

5. Theme five: Cooperation between Teachers and ESL Facilitators

5.a. Do teachers set objectives to cover literacy skills needed to enable ESL students to achieve curriculum objectives?

5.b. Do teachers cooperate with ESL facilitators to help them write their ESL objectives?

**Participant Demographical Information**

In the next section, the demographic information about gender, age, years of teaching experience, and level of education, ESL endorsement, taking a course in teaching reading in content areas, grades, languages spoken or understood besides English, ethnicity**,** teaching and content areas described and introduced in tables 7.1 through 17.2.

The following Table 7.1 and Table 7.2 represent participants' responses by gender. As shown in table 7.1 generally the highest response rate was 45.5% from females in both schools

while the male participation was 17.3%. In addition, as displayed in table 7.2, there were 22 male and 38 female teachers from School A. In addition, there were 33 female and five male teachers from School B.

*Table 7.1*
*Participants by Gender (N=156)*

| | Frequency | Percent % |
|---|---|---|
| Male | 27 | 17.3 % |
| Female | 71 | 45.5 % |
| No response | 58 | 37.2 % |
| Total | 156 | 100 % |

*Table 7.2*
*Gender by Schools (N=156)*

| | Gender Frequency | | No Response Frequency | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Male | Female | | |
| School A | 22 | 38 | 40 | |
| School B | 5 | 33 | 18 | |
| Total | 27 | 71 | 58 | 156 |

The participants' age groups were illustrated in tables 8.1 and 8.2. The highest response percentage for participants was in the 41-55 age group (31.4%), there were 49 participants. Then 26-40 was the second highest group (20.6%) out of 32 teachers. The lowest age group represented teachers from 25 or under (1.9%) where there were 3 teachers. Finally, the age group 56 or older represented (8.3%) out of 13 teachers. Table 8.2 gives details about all the reported

age groups in each school. Participants from School A represented three age groups while participants from School B represented the four age groups.

*Table 8.1*
*Participant by Age (N=156)*

| | Frequency | Percent % |
|---|---|---|
| 25 or under | 3 | 1.9 % |
| 26-40 | 32 | 20.6 % |
| 41-55 | 49 | 31.4 % |
| 56 or older | 13 | 8.3 % |
| No response | 59 | 37.8% |
| Total | 156 | 100% |

*Table 8.2*
*Age by Schools (N=156)*

| | Age Groups Frequency | | | | No response | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 25 or under | 26-40 | 41-55 | 56 or older | | |
| School A | 0 | 18 | 32 | 9 | 41 | |
| School B | 3 | 14 | 17 | 4 | 18 | |
| Total | 3 | 32 | 49 | 13 | 59 | 156 |

The following Table 9.1 and Table 9.2 highlight the years of teaching experience among teachers. The most reported years of experience was 39.7% more than 10 years. There were 62 participants from both schools. Also, there were 16 teachers (10.3%) with 7-9 years' of teaching experience, 11 teachers (7.0%) with 4-9 years of teaching experience, and nine teachers (5.8%) with less than three years of teaching experience. As shown in Table 9.2, School A had 38 teachers with teaching experience of more than 10 years and School B had 24 teachers with the same amount of teaching experience.

*Table 9.1*
*Participants by Years of Teaching Experience (N=156)*

| | Frequency | Percent % |
|---|---|---|
| Less than 3 Years | 9 | 5.8 % |
| 4-6years | 11 | 7.0 % |
| 7- 9 years | 16 | 10.3% |
| More than 10 Years | 62 | 39.7% |
| No response | 58 | 37.2% |
| Total | 156 | 100 % |

*Table 9.2*
*Years of Teaching Experience by Schools (N=156)*

| | Years of Teaching Experience Frequency | | | | No response | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Less than 3 | 4.6 | 7- 9 | More than 10 | | |
| School A | 1 | 8 | 13 | 38 | 40 | |
| School B | 8 | 3 | 3 | 24 | 18 | |
| Total | 9 | 11 | 16 | 62 | 58 | 156 |

Table 10.1 and Table 10.2 show the participants' highest level of education. Most responses to this question were first from 62 teachers 39.8%, who had master's degrees or equivalent, and then from 32 teachers who had bachelor's degrees (20.5%). There was only one teacher who had a doctoral degree (0.6%). Also, there were three teachers (1.9%) who choose 'other' to refer to the highest educational level. Table 10.2 shows that one out of the three teachers who chose 'other' finished 15 hours in ESL classes from School A. Also, from School B, one teacher had completed doctoral course work, and one teacher was an education specialist.

*Table 10.1*
*Participants by Highest Level of Education (N=156)*

| | Frequency | Percent % |
|---|---|---|
| Bachelor's | 32 | 20.5 % |
| Master's or equivalent | 62 | 39.8 % |
| Doctoral Degree | 1 | 0.6 % |
| Other | 3 | 1. 9 % |
| No response | 58 | 37.2 % |
| Total | 156 | 100% |

*Table 10.2*
*Highest Level of Education by Schools (N=156)*

| | B | M or E | D | Other | | | No response | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | 15 hours in ESL Classes at UALR | Doctoral course work | Educational Specialist | | |
| School A | 20 | 38 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 40 | |
| School B | 12 | 24 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 18 | |
| Total | 32 | 62 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 58 | 156 |

Note
B = Bachelor, M or E= Master or equivalent, D= Doctoral Degree,

Tables 11.1 and Table 11.2 introduce participants by ESL endorsement. In both schools, 59 teachers (37.8 %) reported that they did not have ESL endorsement while 39 teachers(25.0%) mentioned that they were endorsed. In addition, Table 11.2 shows that there were 26 teachers with ESL endorsement from School A and there were 13 ESL endorsed teachers from School B.

*Table 11.1*
*Participants by ESL Endorsement (N=156)*

| | Frequency | Percent % |
|---|---|---|
| Yes | 39 | 25.0 % |
| No | 59 | 37.8 % |
| No response | 58 | 37.2 % |
| Total | 156 | 100 % |

*Table 11.2*
*ESL Endorsement by Schools (N=156)*

| | ESL endorsement Frequency | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Yes | No | No response | |
| School A | 26 | 34 | 40 | |
| School B | 13 | 25 | 18 | |
| Total | 39 | 59 | 58 | 156 |

Table 12.1 and Table 12.2 represented the participants' information about the number of courses in teaching reading in content areas. The largest percentage of teachers (43.6%) 68 teachers reported that they did not study a course in teaching reading in content areas. There were 30 teachers 19.2% took a course in teaching reading in content areas. Also, Table 12.2 shows that there were 13 teachers in School A and 17 teachers in School B who reported that they took one course or more on teaching reading in content areas.

*Table 12.1*
*Participant by Taking a Course in Teaching Reading in Content Areas (N=156)*

| | Frequency | Percent % |
|---|---|---|
| Yes | 30 | 19.2 % |
| No | 68 | 43.6 % |
| No Response | 58 | 37.2 % |
| Total | 156 | 100 % |

*Table 12.2*
*Taking a Course in Teaching Reading in Content Areas by Schools (N=156)*

| | *Taking a Course in Teaching Reading in Content Areas* | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Yes | No | No response | |
| School A | 13 | 47 | 40 | |
| School B | 17 | 21 | 18 | |
| Total | 30 | 68 | 58 | 156 |

In a follow-up, open-ended question, participants described the courses that they took in teaching reading in content areas. Table13.1 and Table 13.2 show participants' responses to having taken a course in teaching reading in content areas. The participants 'responses from both schools were analyzed around nine themes as displayed in Table 13.1. There were six teachers who took one course, five teachers who took more than one course, seven who attended ESL professional development hours, four who reported the course as having a background in teaching reading from post-secondary education, two who took ESL classes only, one teacher

who took the course through ESL endorsement, and one teacher who took the course through reading specialist certification. Also, there was one unrelated response and one incomplete answer.

Table 13.1 Participants *by Answering Yes to Taking a Course in Teaching Reading in Content Areas (N=30)*

| Themes | Frequency | Percent % |
|---|---|---|
| One course | 6 | 20 % |
| More than a course | 5 | 17 % |
| ESL professional development hours | 7 | 23 % |
| Background in teaching reading from post-secondary education | 4 | 13 % |
| ESL classes | 2 | 7 % |
| ESL endorsement | 1 | 3 % |
| Certification for reading specialist | 1 | 3 % |
| Incomplete Answer | 1 | 3% |
| Response was not related | 1 | 3% |
| No Response | 2 | 7 % |
| Total | 30 | 100 % |

In addition, Table 13.2 demonstrates that the most common answer was taking ESL professional development hours among teachers. There were three teachers from School A and four teachers from School B who attended ESL professional hours. The second highest percentage was taking one course, one teacher in School One and five teachers from School Two had done so.

*Table 13.2*
*Answering Yes to Taking a Course in Teaching Reading in Content Areas (N=30)*

| Themes | School 1 | School 2 | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| One course | 1 | 5 | 6 |
| More than a course | 3 | 2 | 5 |
| ESL professional development hours | 3 | 4 | 7 |
| Background in teaching reading from post-secondary education | 3 | 1 | 4 |
| Uncompleted Answer | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Response was not related | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| ESL classes | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| ESL endorsement | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Certification for reading specialist | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| No Response | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Total | 13 | 17 | 30 |

Table 14.1 and Table 14.2 display teachers by grades. In both schools, there were 29 teachers (18.6%) in 10th grade, 38 teachers (24.3%) in 11th grade, and 31 teachers (19.9 %) in 12th grade. As it was presented in Table 14.2, in School A there were 21 teachers in the 10th grade, 17 teachers in the 11th grade and 22 teachers in the 12th grade. At the same time, in School B there were eight teachers at 10th grade, 21 teachers at 11th grade and 9 teachers at 12th grade level.

*Table 14.1*
*Participants by Grades (N=156)*

| | Frequency | Percent % |
|---|---|---|
| Grade 10 | 29 | 18.6 % |
| Grade 11 | 38 | 24.3 % |
| Grade 12 | 31 | 19.9 % |
| No response | 58 | 37.2 % |
| Total | 156 | 100% |

*Table 14.2*
*Grades by Schools (N=156)*

| | *School Participants by Grades* | | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 10 grade | 11 grade | 12 grade | No response | |
| School A | 21 | 17 | 22 | 40 | |
| School B | 8 | 21 | 9 | 18 | |
| Total | 29 | 38 | 31 | 58 | 156 |

The following table 15.1 and Table 15.2 highlight participants by knowledge of languages spoken besides English. Generally the knowledge of a second or a foreign language percentage was as follows: German (1.3%), Spanish (12.8 %), none (39.7%) and other (7.1%).The highest percentage was “none" to describe not speaking or understanding a language other than English. Table 15.2 shows that in School A there were two teachers who spoke French, one teacher who knew a little Spanish, one teacher who chose "other" as an answer but did not report the language, and one teacher who provided an unrelated answer. Also, in School B, two teachers reported that they speak or understand French as well as English, two teachers reported knowing more than two languages, and one teacher knew a little Spanish.

*Table 15.1*
*Participants by Languages Spoken Beside English (N=156 )*

| Languages | Frequency | Percent % |
|---|---|---|
| German | 2 | 1.3 % |
| Spanish | 20 | 12.8 % |
| None | 62 | 39.7 % |
| Other | 11 | 7.1 % |
| No response | 61 | 39.1 % |
| Total | 156 | 100% |

*Table 15.2*
*Languages Spoken Beside English* by Schools *(N=156)*

| | German | Spanish | None | Other | | | | | | No Response | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | | |
| School A | 2 | 9 | 41 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 43 | |
| School B | 0 | 11 | 21 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 18 | |
| Total | 2 | 20 | 62 | 4 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 61 | 156 |

Note:
Participants' answers for Other 1= French, 2= More than one, 3= Italian, 4. Little Spanish, 5= Answer Not Mentioned, 6= answer Not related

Table 16.1 and Table 16.2 represent participants' ethnicity. In both schools, white was the highest ethnicity percentage (57.6 %) while African American and Native American both had the same percentage (1.3). Also, Table 16.2 shows that in School A there were 57 white teachers, two African American teachers, and one native American teacher. In School B, there were four Hispanic teachers, and one Caucasian teacher counted as white, so the total is 33 teachers.

*Table 16.1*
*Participants by Ethnicity (N=156)*

| | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Hispanic | 4 | 2.6 % |
| White | 90 | 57.6 % |
| African American | 2 | 1.3 % |
| Native American | 2 | 1.3 % |
| No Response | 58 | 37.2 % |
| Total | 156 | 100 % |

*Table 16.2*
*Ethnicity by Schools (N=156)*

| | Hispanic | White | African American | Native American | No response | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| School A | 0 | 57 | 2 | 1 | 40 | |
| School B | 4 | 33 | 0 | 1 | 18 | |
| Total | 4 | 90 | 2 | 2 | 58 | 156 |

Table 17 represents the participants by content areas. In School A, there were two who stated they teach special education, and two teachers who taught ESL sheltered classes. There were 16 teachers who teach a course in science studies, and thirteen teachers who teach a course in social studies. Also, there were eight teachers who teach more than one course in science studies and five teachers who teach more than one course in social studies. In School B, there was one who teaches special education, and two teachers reported that they are not in the classroom. There were nine teachers who teach a course in science studies, and seven teachers who teach a course in social studies. Also, there were three teachers who teach more than one course in science studies and nine teachers who teach more than one course in social studies.

Table 17
*Participants by Teaching Areas (N=156)*

| | School A | School B |
|---|---|---|
| Special Education | 2 | 1 |
| Sheltered classes | 2 | 0 |
| Not in the classroom | 0 | 2 |
| A course in science studies | 16 | 9 |
| A course in social studies | 13 | 7 |
| More than a course in science studies | 8 | 3 |
| More than a course in social studies | 5 | 9 |
| Total response | 46 | 31 |
| No Response | 54 | 25 |
| Total | 100 | 56 |

## Data Analysis and Results

This section reports the data analysis of: (1) providing comprehensible input in teaching reading, (2) providing comprehensible input in teaching vocabulary, (3) teaching learning strategies of metacognition to narrow the gap between school literacy practices and home practices, (4) lowering the affective filter to provide an encouraging learning environment, (5) implementing formative assessment, and (6) cooperation between teachers and ESL facilitators. The seventh section is a summary.

### Question 1.a Providing Comprehensible Input to Teach Reading

To identify the most used strategies of teachers for providing comprehensible input to teach reading across curricula, two steps were followed. First, the frequencies of the teachers' responses were analyzed as shown in Table 18.1. In the second step, the first two choices of the item-Likert scale 'always' and 'sometimes' were clustered together under one group entitled frequently used strategies. Also, the second two choices of the item-Likert scale 'rarely' and 'never' were grouped together to refer to the infrequently used strategies. Then the percentages of strategies used in both groups were calculated as presented in Table 18.2. Finally, the frequently used strategies were classified under three levels of usage percentage around an average midpoint: low level of usage, moderate level of usage, and high level of usage as displayed in Table 18.3. Reliability for the internal consistency estimated with Cronbach's alpha was good ($\alpha = .841$). The first sub-research question asked the teachers about the frequency of implementing nine statements about using nine instructional strategies for provide comprehensible input to teach reading across curricula. Teachers' responses to the question "What are the most used strategies that content teachers utilize for providing comprehensible input in teaching reading across curricula?" were displayed in Table 18.1 and showed that

teachers' responses clustered around three trends as the following. First, teachers' responses showed a tendency in favor of frequent usage of strategies mentioned in statements 1, 2, and 5 as either 'always' or 'sometimes' using these strategies in their teaching routines. In teachers' responses to statement one about modeling, there were 63 teachers that stated they always used modeling a specific skill as a strategy for providing comprehensible input to teach reading across curricula and 40 teachers stated that they 'sometimes' used modeling specific skills as a strategy. There was only one teacher who rarely used modeling as a strategy of providing comprehensible input and two teachers who never used it.

Similarly, teachers' responses to statement 2 displayed a tendency toward a frequent usage of strategy two teaching academic language to describe the writing process in their teaching. There were 54 teachers declared that they always used it, and 40 teachers said that they 'sometimes' did. There were six teachers who rarely used it and six teachers who 'never' used it in their teaching. Finally, statement 5 showed that the majority of teachers 67 either 'always' or 'sometimes' used regular peer editing using rubrics. There were 26 teachers who said they 'always' used regular peer editing with rubrics as a strategy to provide comprehensible input to teach reading across curricula and 41 teachers said they 'sometimes' used regular peer editing. There were 20 teachers who rarely used it as well as18 teachers who 'never' used it.

Interestingly, statements 4, 7, 8 and 9 showed a clear polarization as compared to strategies in statements 1, 2, and 5. In interpreting the Likert-scale, polarization is the tendency of responses to be divided into two extreme responses (Hogg, Turner, & Davidson, 1990). In statement 4, there were 18 teachers who 'always' used interactive reading aloud and 39 teachers said that they 'sometimes' used it. Also, a somewhat similar consensus demonstrated infrequent use of interactive reading aloud in teaching of nonfiction and discussing author's style. There

were 20 teachers who ‘rarely’ used it and 28 who ‘never’ used it. Similarly statement 7 paired writing with more capable peers showed a division of teachers’ responses between two groups. The first group included 11 teachers who stated that they ‘always’ used paired writing with more capable peers and 47 teachers who stated that they ‘sometimes’ used paired writing. On the other hand, the second group showed a tendency toward infrequent usage of paired writing with more capable peers. There were 25 teachers who rarely used it and 22 teachers who ‘never’ used it. Also, teachers’ responses to statement 8 were separated between two preferences. The infrequent usage of supporting native writing and reading resources was somewhat higher than the frequent usage. Again, 18 teachers reported that they ‘always’ encourage using native writing and reading resources, and 30 teachers ‘sometimes’ used it. There were 23 teachers who rarely used it as well as 34 teachers who ‘never’ used it. The same trend appeared in the teachers’ responses to statement number nine. There were 16 teachers who always involved library staff in teaching research writing and referencing skills and 30 teachers who ‘sometimes’ involved library staff. At the same time, there were 25 teachers ‘rarely’ used it and 34 ‘never’ used it.

Finally, the only strategy that showed infrequent usage by most participants was strategy six where 21 teachers rarely and 66 teachers ‘never’ used retelling fieldtrips and creating a class book with illustrations. At the same time, five teachers ‘always’ and 13 teachers ‘sometimes’ used retelling in their teaching.

Teachers’ responses displayed in Table 18.1 were reclassified in table 18.2 to present the percentage usage for each strategy. The first two choices of the item-Likert scale, ‘always’ and ‘sometimes’ were clustered together under one group entitled frequently used strategies. Also, the second two choices of the item-Likert scale, ‘rarely’ and ‘never’, were grouped together to refer to the infrequently used strategies. Then, the frequently used strategies were classified

under three levels of usage percentage: low level of usage, moderate level of usage, and high level of usage as shown in Table 18.3.

*Table 18.1*
*Strategies of Providing Comprehensible Input for Teaching Reading Across Curriculum (N=156 )*

| Statement | Always | Sometimes | Rarely | Never | Total Reported Response | No Response | Mean | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| # 1 | 63 | 40 | 1 | 2 | 106 | 50 | 1.4528 | .61925 |
| # 2 | 54 | 40 | 6 | 6 | 106 | 50 | 1.6604 | .82678 |
| # 3 | 9 | 27 | 37 | 32 | 105 | 51 | 2.8762 | .94762 |
| # 4 | 18 | 39 | 20 | 28 | 105 | 51 | 2.5524 | 1.06501 |
| # 5 | 26 | 41 | 20 | 18 | 105 | 51 | 2.2857 | 1.02577 |
| # 6 | 5 | 13 | 21 | 66 | 105 | 51 | 3.4095 | .88465 |
| # 7 | 11 | 47 | 25 | 22 | 105 | 51 | 2.5524 | .94035 |
| # 8 | 18 | 30 | 23 | 34 | 105 | 51 | 2.6952 | 1.10178 |
| # 9 | 16 | 30 | 25 | 34 | 105 | 51 | 2.7333 | 1.07656 |

1. I model specific skills to the whole class, in small groups, and one on one (Lems, Miller, and Soro, 2010, P. 201-203).
2. I teach academic language to describe the processes writers use
3. I ask students to share journals in small groups
4. I do interactive read aloud of nonfiction and discussing author's style
5. I train students to do regular peer editing, using written rubrics
6. I use retelling fieldtrips, holidays and creating a class book with illustrations
7. I do paired writing with more capable peer
8. I support native language writing and reading resources
9. I involve library staff and aids in teaching research writing and referencing skills

*Table 18.2*
*Percentage of Infrequently and Frequently used Strategies of Providing Comprehensible Input for Teaching Reading Across Curricula*

| | | Infrequently used strategies (Rarely and Never ) | | Frequently used Strategies (Always and Sometimes) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strategies | N | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| #1 modeling | 106 | 2 | 3% | 103 | 97% |
| #2 teaching academic language | 106 | 12 | 11% | 94 | 89% |
| #3 sharing journals | 105 | 69 | 66% | 36 | 34% |
| #4 interactive read aloud | 105 | 48 | 46% | 57 | 54% |
| #5 peer editing | 105 | 38 | 36% | 67 | 64% |
| #6 retelling fieldtrips | 105 | 87 | 83% | 18 | 17% |
| #7 paired writing with more capable peers | 105 | 47 | 45% | 58 | 55% |
| #8 using native language resources | 105 | 57 | 54% | 48 | 46% |
| #9 using library staff in teaching | 105 | 59 | 56% | 46 | 44% |

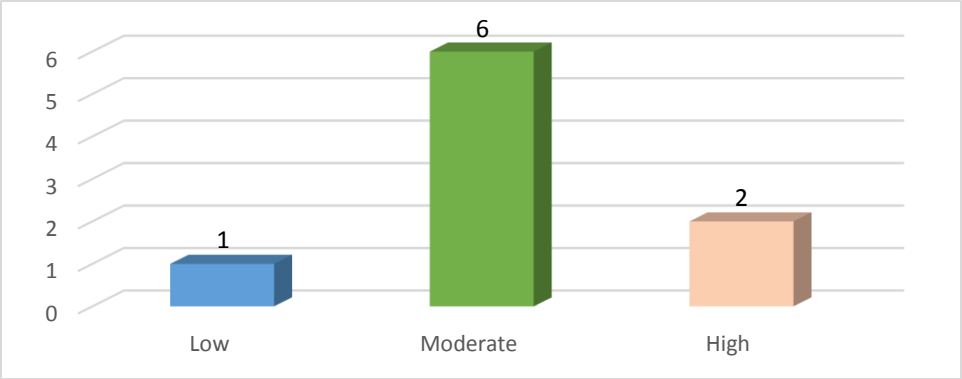
*Table 18.3*
*Levels of Usage Percentage of Strategies of Providing Comprehensible Input for Teaching Reading Across Curricula*

| Level of Usage Percentage | Class Interval | Strategies' Number | Class Limits | Class Boundaries | Mid Points |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Low level | (1%-32 %) | 6 | (1%-32 %) | .5 % to < 32.5 % | 16.5 % |
| Moderate Level | (33%- 65%) | 3,4, 5,7,8,9 | (33%- 65%) | 32.5 % < 65.5 % | 49 % |
| High Level | (66%-98% ) | 1,2 | (66%-98% ) | 65.5 % < 98.5 % | 82 % |

The teachers' responses in Table 18.3 showed the following. First, two strategies: modeling and teaching academic language were the most used strategies to provide comprehensible input to teach reading across curriculum. The percentage of teachers' consensus on highly using these two strategies in their teaching to provide comprehensible input ranged around the midpoint (82%) in their teaching. Second, the following six strategies were implemented on a moderate level: sharing journals, interactive read aloud, peer editing, paired writing with more capable peers, using native language resources, and using library staff in

teaching. The percentage of teachers' consensus in using these six strategies to provide comprehensible input ranged around the midpoint (49 %) which showed a moderate level of usage. Finally, retelling fieldtrips was the only strategy that had a low level of teachers' consensus on providing comprehensible input to teach reading across curricula.

Therefore, teachers' consensus on the frequent and infrequent usage of these nine strategies to provide comprehensible input was divided into three levels: low level, moderate level, and high level. As shown in Graph One, there were two strategies that were highly used. There were six strategies moderately used. There was only one strategy that showed a low level of usage.




Graph One Levels of Usage Percentage

**Question 1.b Providing Comprehensible Input to Teach Vocabulary**

The same approach that was applied in analyzing sub-research question one was also applied to analyzing the sub-research question two, what are the most used strategies that teachers utilize for providing comprehensible input in teaching vocabulary across curricula? Therefore, to identify the most used strategies for providing comprehensible input to teach vocabulary across curricula, two steps were followed. First, the trend of frequencies of responses was analyzed as shown in Table 19.1. In the second step, the first two choices of the item-Likert

scale ,‘always’ and ‘sometimes’, were clustered together under one group entitled frequently used strategies. Also, the second two choices of the item-likert scale ‘rarely’ and ‘never’ were grouped together to refer to the infrequently used strategies. Then, the percentages of using these strategies in both groups were calculated as presented in Table 19.2. Finally, the frequently used strategies were classified under three levels of usage percentage around an average midpoint: low level of usage, moderate level of usage, and high level of usage as displayed in Table 19.3. Reliability for the internal consistency estimated with Cronbach’s alpha was good ($\alpha = .852$). The second sub-research question asked the teachers about the frequency of using seven instructional strategies for providing comprehensible input to teach vocabulary across curricula: What are the most used strategies that content teachers utilize for providing comprehensible input in teaching vocabulary across curriculum? Teachers’ responses were displayed in Table 19.1 and showed that there was a consistency of teacher responses that can be classified into two trends.

First, teachers’ responses mentioned in the construct of the comprehensible input strategies showed a high tendency toward either ‘always’ or ‘sometimes’ using all the five strategies mentioned in statements 10, 11, 12, 14, and 15. In teachers’ responses to statement 10 about using reader-based instruction focusing on prefixes, roots, and suffixes to explain meaning, there were 71 teachers who stated that they used reader-based instruction in their teaching. There were 27 teachers that stated that they ‘always’ used it and 44 teachers replayed that they ‘sometimes’ used it as an approach for teaching vocabulary. They focused on teaching prefixes, roots, and suffixes to explain meaning. There were 15 teachers that rarely used reader-based instruction as a strategy of providing comprehensible input and 17 teachers ‘never’ used it. Similarly, teachers’ responses to statement 11 displayed a tendency towards a frequent usage of

engaging students in determining vocabulary meaning before the reading through meaningful discussion. There were 41 teachers that declared that they ‘always’ used it as well as 49 teachers who ‘sometimes’ used it. There were six teachers who ‘rarely’ used it and seven teachers ‘never’ used it in their teaching. Also, teaching selected vocabulary mentioned in statement 12 was among the frequently reported strategies used for providing comprehensible input to teach vocabulary. There were 39 teachers that declared that they ‘always’ used it as well as 51 teachers that stated that they ‘sometimes’ used it. There were eight teachers who ‘rarely’ used it and four teachers ‘never’ used it in their teaching.

Furthermore, teachers’ responses in using strategy 14 mentioned in statement 14 showed that there were 24 teachers that declared that they ‘always’ engaged ESL students in discussions to share personal and cultural experiences to support vocabulary comprehension as well as 50 teachers who stated that they ‘sometimes’ used it.

There were 19 teachers who ‘rarely’ engaged ESL students in discussions to share personal and cultural experiences to support vocabulary comprehension, and 10 teachers ‘never’ used the same strategy in their teaching. Finally, statement 15 showed that the majority of teachers used nonlinguistic representations such as maps, T-charts, and Venn Diagrams before and during the lesson to introduce targeted academic vocabulary. There were 40 teachers that said ‘always’ and 39 teachers mentioned ‘sometimes’ that they used nonlinguistic representations as a strategy to provide comprehensible input to teach vocabulary across curriculum. There were 11 teachers that ‘rarely’ did, as well 11 teachers that ‘never’ did.

On the contrary, statements 13 and 16 showed a clear polarization as compared to strategies in statements 10, 11, 12, 14, and 15. In statement 13, there were 12 teachers that ‘always’ used bilingual pairs to clarify vocabulary in a language both students understand. There

were 41 teachers that said that they ‘sometimes’ used it. Also, a somehow similar consensus stated the infrequent use of bilingual pairs to clarify vocabulary. There were 27 teachers that rarely used it and 22 ‘never’ used it. Likewise, the same trend appeared in the teachers’ responses to statement 16. There were 11 teachers that stated ‘always’ and 43 teachers stated ‘sometimes’ used semantic feature analysis to provide comprehensible input to teach vocabulary, while 25 teachers rarely used it and 34 ‘never’ used it. Generally, teachers’ consensus on strategies mentioned in statements 13 and 16 were somehow separated between two groups: the first group showed a tendency towards the frequent usage of bilingual pairs and semantic feature in teaching vocabulary. On the other hand, the second group showed a tendency towards the infrequent using of these two strategies.

Teachers’ responses displayed in Table 19.1 were reclassified in Table 19.2 to present the percentage usage for each strategy. The first two choices of the item-Likert scale ‘always’ and ‘sometimes’ were clustered together under one group entitled frequently used strategies. Also, the second two choices of the item-Likert scale ‘rarely’ and ‘never’ were grouped together to refer to the infrequently used strategies. Then, the frequently used strategies were classified under three levels of usage percentage: low level of usage, moderate level of usage, and high level of usage as shown in Table 19.3.

*Table 19.1*
*Strategies of Providing Comprehensible Input for Teaching vocabulary Across Curriculum (N=156)*

| Statement | A | S | R | N | Total Reported Response | No response | Mean | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10 | 27 | 44 | 15 | 17 | 103 | 53 | 2.21 | 1.016 |
| 11 | 41 | 49 | 6 | 7 | 103 | 53 | 1.80 | .833 |
| 12 | 39 | 51 | 8 | 4 | 102 | 54 | 1.77 | .757 |
| 13 | 12 | 41 | 27 | 22 | 102 | 54 | 2.58 | .959 |
| 14 | 24 | 50 | 19 | 10 | 103 | 53 | 2.15 | .890 |
| 15 | 40 | 39 | 11 | 11 | 101 | 55 | 1.93 | .972 |
| 16 | 11 | 43 | 24 | 24 | 102 | 54 | 2.60 | .967 |

Note : A= Always , S= Sometimes, R= Rarely, and N= Never

10. I use reader-based instruction showing prefixes, roots, and suffixes to explain meaning (Herrera, Perez, Escamilla (2010, pp.104)
11. I engage students in determining vocabulary meaning before the reading through meaningful discussion (p.105).
12. I use direct instruction which focuses on systematically teaching selected vocabulary (p.106).
13. I use bilingual pairs to clarify vocabulary in a language both students understand (p.127).
14. I engage ESL students in discussions to share personal and cultural experiences that support vocabulary comprehension (p.127).
15. I use nonlinguistic representations such as maps, T-charts, and Venn Diagrams before and during the lesson to introduce targeted academic vocabulary (p.127).
16. I use semantic feature analysis (Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2010, P.178).

*Table 19.2*
*Percentage of Infrequently and Frequently used Strategies of Providing Comprehensible Input for Teaching Vocabulary Across Curriculum*

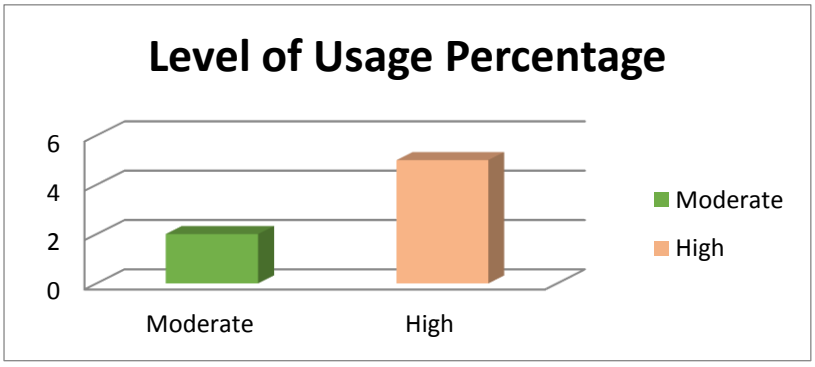
| | | Infrequently used strategies (Rarely and Never ) | | Frequently used Strategies (Always and Sometimes) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strategies | N | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| 1 Teaching Affixes | 103 | 32 | 31% | 71 | 69 % |
| 2 Determining meaning before reading | 103 | 13 | 13% | 90 | 87% |
| 3 Systematically teaching selected vocabulary | 102 | 12 | 12% | 90 | 88% |
| 4 Using bilingual pairs | 102 | 49 | 48% | 53 | 52% |
| 5 Using discussion to share cultural and personal experiences | 103 | 29 | 28% | 74 | 72% |
| 6Using non-linguistic representations | 101 | 22 | 22% | 79 | 78% |
| 7 Using semantic feature analysis | 102 | 48 | 47% | 54 | 53% |

Table 19.3 demonstrates that five instructional strategies were highly used: teaching affixes, determining meaning before reading, systematically teaching selected vocabulary, using discussion to share cultural and personal experiences, and using non-linguistic representations. The five strategies fall into interval 66%- 98% and clustered around 82% as an average midpoint. In addition, two strategies were moderately used: semantic feature analysis and bilingual pairs. They existed in the interval (33%- 65%) and gathered around an average midpoint 49%, as shown in the following graphs.

*Table 19.3*
*Levels of Usage Percentage of Strategies of Providing Comprehensible Input for Teaching Vocabulary Across Curriculum*

| Level of Usage Percentage | Class Interval | Strategies ' Number | Class Limits | Class Boundaries | Mid Points |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Low level | (1%-32 %) | 0 | (1%-32 %) | .5 % to < 32.5 % | 16.5 % |
| Moderate Level | (33%-65%) | 4,7, | (33%- 65%) | 32.5 % < 65.5 % | 49 % |
| High Level | (66%-98% ) | 1,2,3,5,6 | (66%-98% ) | 65.5 % < 98.5 % | 82 % |

Therefore, the frequently and infrequently usage of these seven strategies to provide comprehensible input to teach vocabulary was divided into two main levels, either moderate level or high level. As shown in Graph Two, five strategies were highly used. There were two strategies that were moderately used.




Graph Two Levels of Usage Percentage

**Question 2 Providing Meta-cognitive Strategies**

To identify the most used strategies for providing meta-cognitive strategies to narrow the gap between school literacy practices and home practices, two steps were followed. First, the frequencies trend of the responses was analyzed as shown in Table 20.1. In the second step, the first two choices of the item-Likert scale, 'always' and 'sometimes', were clustered together under one group, entitled frequently used strategies. Also, the second two choices of the item-Likert scale, 'rarely' and 'never', were grouped together to refer to the infrequently used strategies. Then, the percentages of using these strategies in both groups were calculated as presented in Table 20.2. Finally, the frequently used strategies were classified under three levels of usage percentage around an average midpoint: low level of usage, moderate level of usage, and high level of usage as displayed in Table 20.3, Table 20.4, and Table 20.5. Reliability for the internal consistency estimated with Cronbach's alpha was good ($\alpha = .858$). The third question asked the teachers thirteen statements about how often they implemented thirteen instructional strategies to provide cognitive strategies to match school literacy practices to home practices. This question was to answer the research question 3.a. What meta-cognitive strategies do content teachers use most to match school literacy practices to home practices?

Table 20.1 in the next page shows teachers' responses to the implementation of meta-cognitive strategies in their teaching routines. The construct involved thirteen meta-cognitive strategies and these strategies were classified into three categories: strategies to enhance thinking about organizing and planning for learning, strategies to develop deeper understanding, and using mnemonics as strategies to facilitate recalling.

Table 20.1
*Meta- cognitive Strategies for Learning (N=156 )*

| Statement | Always | Sometimes | Rarely | Never | Total reported responses | No Response | Mean | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 17 | 19 | 31 | 16 | 33 | 99 | 57 | 2.64 | 1.138 |
| 18 | 22 | 31 | 18 | 28 | 99 | 57 | 2.53 | 1.128 |
| 19 | 34 | 50 | 5 | 10 | 99 | 57 | 1.91 | 1.015 |
| 20 | 32 | 39 | 14 | 14 | 99 | 57 | 2.10 | 1.015 |
| 21 | 31 | 54 | 8 | 6 | 99 | 57 | 1.89 | .794 |
| 22 | 33 | 56 | 8 | 2 | 99 | 57 | 1.79 | .674 |
| 23 | 68 | 28 | 1 | 2 | 99 | 57 | 1.36 | .614 |
| 24 | 30 | 42 | 17 | 10 | 99 | 57 | 2.07 | .940 |
| 25 | 47 | 42 | 6 | 4 | 99 | 57 | 1.67 | .769 |
| 26 | 53 | 38 | 3 | 3 | 97 | 59 | 1.55 | .707 |
| 27 | 31 | 47 | 11 | 8 | 97 | 59 | 1.96 | .877 |
| 28 | 41 | 48 | 7 | 3 | 99 | 57 | 1.72 | .729 |
| 29 | 25 | 45 | 16 | 12 | 98 | 58 | 2.15 | .945 |

17. I use a homework notebook to write down all assignments (Reiss, 2008, p, 44-46).
18. I ask students to keep a calendar to write down long-term assignments
19. I ask students to divide long-term assignments into shorter tasks
20. I ask students to set deadlines for task completion before the due date
21. I help students to determine the most appropriate and efficient strategies to learn specific content
22. I help students plan how to study for tests
23. I help students make specific connections between new and old learning
24. I encourage students to make specific connections between English and their native languages
25. I ask students to highlight important information while reading
26. I encourage students to divide information into smaller units
27. I encourage students to use flash cards to test themselves
28. I encourage students to create visual representation to organize information and aid retention
29. I use poems, acronyms, and silly sentences as a recalling technique

**Category 1**. Category 1 included six strategies to enhance thinking about organizing and planning for learning: using a homework notebook, dividing long-term assignments into shorter tasks, setting deadlines for task completion before the due date, determining the most efficient strategies to learn specific content, and planning how to study for tests. Teachers' responses showed two trends.

First, there was a consistency among teachers' responses to frequently use four strategies to build up meta-cognitive strategies among students in order to enhance thinking about organizing and planning for learning as shown in statements 19, 20, and 21 and 22. In statement 19, 34 teachers reported that they 'always' and 50 teachers reported that they 'sometimes' asked students to divide long-term assignments into shorter segments and tasks. On the other hand, 18 teachers reported 'rarely' and 28 teachers 'never' 'used this strategy dividing long-term assignments into shorter segments and tasks in their teaching. Also, this tendency was clear in statement 20 where 32 teachers reported that they 'always' and 39 teachers reported that they 'sometimes' asked students to set deadlines for completion before the due date. On the other hand, 14 teachers reported that they 'rarely' and 14 teachers 'never' asked students to set deadlines for tasks in their teaching. Similarly, teachers' responses to statement 21 showed consensus among teachers for using the metcognitive strategy: helping students to determine the most appropriate and efficient strategies to learn specific content. There were 31 teachers that reported 'always' and 54 teachers reported that they 'sometimes' helped students to use efficient strategies to learn content. On the other hand, eight teachers reported that 'rarely' and six teachers 'never' used helping students to determine the most appropriate and efficient strategies to learn specific content in their teaching. Finally, teachers' responses to statement 22 showed a consistency of responses towards the frequent use of helping students to plan how to learn how to study for tests.

On the other hand, statement 17 and 18 showed a clear polarization of the type described by Hogg, Turner, & Davidson, (1990). For example, teachers' responses to statement 17 were divided between two choices. In the first group, 50 teachers either 'always' or 'sometimes' used a homework notebook to write down all assignments as a meta-cognitive strategy to help

students organize and think about their learning. At the same time, there were 49 teachers who responded that they either ‘rarely’ or ‘never’ used it as a strategy. Likewise, responses to statement 18 showed equal division between two choices: frequently used strategy and infrequently used strategy. There were 53 teachers that stated they either ‘always’ or ‘sometimes’ kept a calendar to remind students about long-term assignments, while there were 46 teachers that stated that they ‘rarely’ or ‘never’ used it in their teaching.

**Category 2**. This part consisted of six strategies to develop deeper understanding: (1) making specific connections between new and old learning, (2) making specific connections between English and their native languages, (3) highlighting important information while reading, (4) dividing information into smaller units, (5) using flash cards to test themselves, and (6) creating visual representations to organize information and aid retention. Teachers’ responses in statements 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, and 28 showed one trend. The majority of responses showed a frequent usage of all these strategies to help students foster deeper understanding.

In statement 23, 68 teachers reported that they ‘always’ and 28 teachers reported ‘sometimes’ helping students to make connections between new and old learning. On the other hand, one teacher ‘rarely’ used it and three teachers ‘never’ used it in their teaching. In the same way, in statement 24, 30 teachers reported ‘always’ and 42 teachers reported that they ‘sometimes’ help make connections between English and the student’s native language. On the other hand, 17 teachers ‘rarely’ used it and 10 teachers ‘never’ used it in their teaching. Also, in statement 25, 47 teachers reported ‘always’ and 42 teachers reported they ‘sometimes’ asked students to highlight important information while reading. On the other hand, six teachers ‘rarely’ used it and four teachers never used it in their teaching. Similarly, in statement 26 there were 53 teachers who reported ‘always’ and 38 teachers reported that they ‘sometimes’ asked

students to divide a large body of information into smaller units. On the other hand, three teachers ‘rarely’ used dividing a large body of information into smaller units and three teachers ‘never’ used it in their teaching. Another example, in statement 27, 31 teachers reported ‘always’ and 47 teachers reported ‘sometimes’ encouraging students to use flash cards to test themselves. On the other hand, 11 teachers ‘rarely’ did and eight teachers ‘never’ did in their teaching. Finally, in statement 28, 41 teachers reported ‘always’ and 48 teachers ‘sometimes’ encouraging students to create visual associations such as using graphic organizer and timelines to aid in retention. On the other hand, seven teachers ‘rarely’ used graphic organizer and timelines to aid in retention and three teachers ‘never’ used it in their teaching.

**Category** 3. This involved one statement about using mnemonics as recalling tools. The majority of responses showed a frequent usage of mnemonics such as using poems, acronyms, and silly sentences to help students recall information. In the last statement 29, 25 teachers reported ‘always’ and 45 teachers reported that they ‘sometimes’ used poems, acronyms, silly sentences and word patterns as a recalling technique. On the other hand, 16 teachers ‘rarely’ and 12 teachers ‘never’ did in their teaching.

Generally, teachers’ responses displayed in Table 20.1 were reclassified in the following Table 20.2 to present the percentage usage for all strategies. The first two choices of the item-Likert scale, ‘always’ and ‘sometimes’ were clustered together under one group, entitled frequently used strategies. Also, the second two choices of the item-Likert scale, ‘rarely’ and ‘never’, were grouped together to refer to the infrequently used strategies. Then, the frequently used strategies were presented under three levels of usage percentage: low level of usage, moderate level, and high level as shown in Table 20.3, Table 20.4, and Table 20.5 below.

Table 20.2
*Presents the Percentage Usage of the Three Types of the Metcognitive Strategies*

| Metcognitive Strategies | | Unused | | Used | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | N | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| **Strategies of Enhance Thinking about Organizing and Planning for Learning** | | | | | |
| Using a homework notebook | 99 | 49 | 49% | 50 | 51% |
| Keeping a calendar to write | 99 | 46 | 46% | 53 | 54% |
| Divide long-term assignments into shorter tasks | 99 | 15 | 15% | 84 | 85% |
| Getting deadlines for task completion before the due | 99 | 28 | 28% | 71 | 72% |
| Determining the most efficient strategies to learn specific content | 99 | 14 | 14% | 85 | 86% |
| Planning how to study for tests | 99 | 10 | 10% | 89 | 90% |
| **Strategies of Develop Deeper Understanding** | | | | | |
| Making specific connections between new and old learning | 99 | 3 | 3% | 96 | 97% |
| Making specific connections between English and their native languages | 99 | 27 | 27% | 72 | 73% |
| Highlighting important information while reading | 99 | 10 | 10% | 89 | 90% |
| Dividing information into smaller units | 97 | 6 | 6% | 91 | 94% |
| Using flash cards to test themselves | 97 | 19 | 20% | 78 | 80% |
| Creating visual representation to organize information and aid retention | 99 | 10 | 10% | 89 | 90% |
| **Strategies of Facilitating Recalling** | | | | | |
| Using poems, acronyms, and silly sentences as a recalling technique | 98 | 28 | 29% | 70 | 71% |

Table 20.3, Table 20.4, and Table 20.5 show the usage of the three categories of metacognitive instructional strategies as the following:

*Table 20.3*
*Levels of Usage Percentage of Strategies of Enhancing Thinking about Organizing and Planning for Learning*

| Level of Usage Percentage | Class Interval | Strategies' Number | Class Limits | Class Boundaries | Mid Points |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Low level | (1%-32 %) | 0 | (1%-32 %) | .5 % to < 32.5 % | 16.5 % |
| Moderate Level | (33%- 65%) | 17, 18 | (33%- 65%) | 32.5 % < 65.5 % | 49 % |
| High Level | (66%-98% ) | 19, 20,21,22 | (66%-98% ) | 65.6 % < 98.5 % | 82 % |

*Table 20.4*
*Levels of Usage Percentage of Strategies of Developing Deeper Understanding*

| Level of Usage Percentage | Class Interval | Strategies' Number | Class Limits | Class Boundaries | Mid Points |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Low | (1%-32 %) | 0 | (1%-32 %) | .5 % to < 32.5 % | 16.5 % |
| Moderate | (33%- 65%) | 0 | (33%- 65%) | 32.5 % < 65.5 % | 49 % |
| High | (66%-98% ) | 23,24,25,26,27,28 | (66%-98% ) | 65.7 % < 98.5 % | 82 % |

*Table 20.5*
*Levels of Usage Percentage of Strategies of Facilitating Recalling*

| Level of Usage Percentage | Class Interval | Strategies' Number | Class Limits | Class Boundaries | Mid Points |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Low level | (1%-32 %) | 0 | (1%-32 %) | .5 % to < 32.5 % | 16.5 % |
| Moderate Level | (33%- 65%) | 0 | (33%- 65%) | 32.5 % < 65.5 % | 49 % |
| High Level | (66%-98% ) | 29 | (66%-98% ) | 65.8 % < 98.5 % | 82 % |

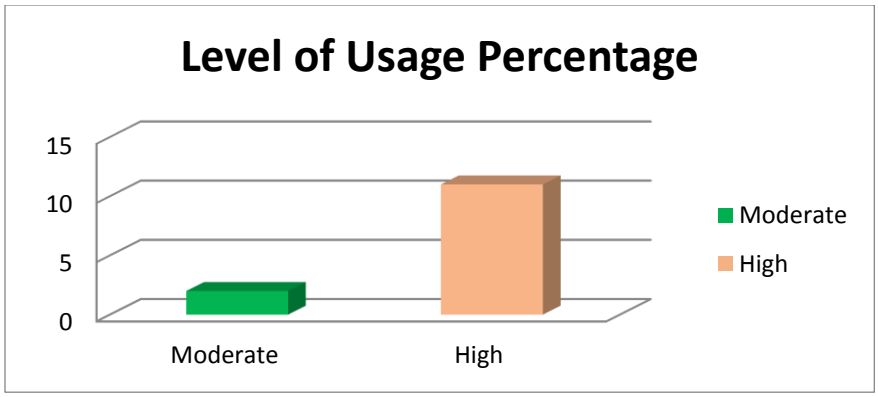
Teachers' responses to the first category displayed in Table 22.3 showed two things: First, a high level of percentage usage regarding the following four strategies (19, 20, 21, and 22) to enhance thinking about organization and planning for student learning: 19 divide long-term assignments into shorter tasks, 20 setting deadlines for task completion before the due date, 21 determining the most efficient strategies to learn specific content, and 22 planning how to study

for tests. The four strategies fall in the interval (66%- 98%) and are clustered around 82% at midpoint. Secondly, two strategies (17 and 18) were moderately used: 17 using homework notebooks to write down all assignments and 18 keeping a calendar to write down long-term assignments. They existed in the interval (33%- 65%) and gathered at midpoint of 49%, as shown in the following graphs.

Teachers' responses to the second category presented in Table 22.4 showed a high percentage of using all six strategies (23, 24, 25, 26, 27,and 28) to develop deeper understanding: 23 to make specific connections between new and old learning, 24 to make specific connections between English and their native languages, 25 to highlight important information while reading, 26 dividing information into smaller units, 27 to use flash cards to test themselves, 28 to create visual representations to organize information and aid retention. These six strategies fall in the interval (66%- 98%) and clustered around 82% at midpoint.

Finally, teachers' responses to the third category in Table 20.5 showed a high percentage of poems, acronyms, and silly sentences as a technique to facilitate recalling. Strategy (29) showed a consensus among teachers of highly using mnemonic in their teaching. The consensus' percentage falls in the interval (66%- 98%) and is clustered around 82% at midpoint.

Therefore, the frequent and infrequent use of these thirteen to provide meta-cognitive strategies were divided into two main levels, either moderate level or high level. As shown in Graph Three below, eleven strategies were highly used and two strategies were moderately used.




Graph Three Levels of Usage Percentage

**Question 3. Lowering the Affective Filter**

To identify the most-used strategies that teachers implemented for lowering the affective filter in order to provide an encouraging learning environment, two steps were followed. First the frequencies of the responses were analyzed, as shown in Table 21.1. In the second step, the first two choices of the item-Likert scale 'always' and 'sometimes' were clustered together under one group entitled frequently used strategies. Also, the second two choices of the item-Likert scale 'rarely' and 'never' were grouped together to refer to infrequently used strategies. Then the percentages of using these strategies in both groups were calculated, as presented in Table 21.2. Finally, the frequently used strategies were classified under three levels of usage percentage around an average midpoint: low level of usage, moderate level of usage, and high level of usage, as displayed in Table 21.3. Reliability for the internal consistency estimated with Cronbach's alpha was good ($\alpha = .862$). The fourth research question asked the teachers eight statements about how often they implemented eight instructional strategies for lowering the affective filter: What strategies do content teachers implement most for lowering the affective filter to provide an encouraging learning environment?

Table 21.1 below shows teachers' responses to the implementation of eight strategies for lowering affective filter to provide an encouraging learning environment. Teachers' responses are displayed in table 21.1 and showed a high tendency toward either 'always' or 'sometimes' using all eight strategies mentioned in statements 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36 and 37.

In teachers' responses to statement 30 about giving choices for ways of responding, 29 teachers stated they 'always' gave choices for ways of responding in their teaching and 59 teachers mentioned that they 'sometimes' used it as an approach for providing an encouraging environment. There were seven teachers who 'rarely' used it as a strategy and two teachers who never used it. Similarly, teachers' responses to statement 31 displayed a tendency towards a frequent usage of allowing students sufficient wait time to formulate answers. There were 68 teachers who declared that they 'always' used it as well as 25 teachers who mentioned they 'sometimes' used it. There was one teacher who 'rarely' used it and two teachers who 'never' used it in their teaching. Also, statement 32 was among the frequently reported strategies for lowering the affective filter, giving choices for students to present in small groups as well as to the whole class. There were 30 teachers who declared they 'always' used the strategy as well as 56 teachers who stated that they 'sometimes' used. There were six teachers who 'rarely' gave choices for students to present in small groups as well as to the whole class and six teachers who 'never' used gave choices for students to present in small groups as well as to the whole class in their teaching. Teachers' responses showed a trend in using games, skits, and brain teasers to reduce tension as a strategy to lower the affective filter as mentioned in statement 33. There were 23 teachers who declared they 'always' used games as well as 53 who teachers stated they 'sometimes' used games, skits, and brain teasers to reduce tension. There were fifteen teachers who 'rarely' did and seven teachers who 'never' used them in their teaching. Likewise, teachers'

consensus was clear in statement 34, focusing on pronouncing students' names correctly. There were 84 teachers who declared they 'always' did as well as twelve teachers who stated that they 'sometimes'. There were two teachers who 'never' focused on it in their teaching.

Again, statement 35 showed a trend towards a frequent usage of talking about cultures presented in the classroom as a strategy to provide an encouraging environment. There were 44 teachers who declared they 'always' used it as well as 41 teachers who stated that they 'sometimes' used it. There were eight teachers who 'rarely' used it and five teachers who 'never' used it in their teaching. Additionally, statement 36 de-emphasized 'correctness' in favor of developing writing comfort showed that teachers' responses were consistent with previous answers. There were 21 teachers who declared that they 'always' used de-emphasizing 'correctness' in favor of developing writing comfort as well as 50 teachers who stated that they 'sometimes' did. There were nineteen teachers who 'rarely' used de-emphasize 'correctness' in favor of developing writing comfort and eight teachers who 'never' did in their teaching.

Finally, statement 37 showed that the majority of teachers either 'always' or 'sometimes' asked students to work in pairs as well as small groups to clarify content, solve problems, and complete projects. There were 50 teachers who said 'always' and 42 teachers who mentioned 'sometimes' used this strategy to provide an encouraging environment. There were four teachers who 'rarely' asked students to work in pairs and small groups as well two teachers who 'never' did.

Generally, teachers' responses displayed in Table 21.1 were reclassified in the following Table 21.2 to present the percentage of usage for each strategy. The first two choices of the item-Likert scale 'always' and 'sometimes' were clustered together under one group entitled frequently used strategies. The second two choices of the item-Likert scale 'rarely' and 'never'

were grouped together to refer to the infrequently used strategies. Then, the strategies were presented under three levels of usage percentage: low level, moderate level, and high level, as shown in Tables 21.3

*Table 21.1*
*Strategies for Lowering the Affective Filter (N=156)*

| Statement | Always | Sometimes | Rarely | Never | Total Reported Response | Total No Response | Mean | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 30 | 29 | 59 | 7 | 2 | 97 | 59 | 1.81 | .651 |
| 31 | 68 | 25 | 1 | 2 | 96 | 60 | 1.34 | .613 |
| 32 | 30 | 56 | 6 | 6 | 98 | 58 | 1.88 | .777 |
| 33 | 23 | 53 | 15 | 7 | 98 | 58 | 2.06 | 8.23 |
| 34 | 84 | 12 | 0 | 2 | 98 | 58 | 1.18 | .525 |
| 35 | 44 | 41 | 8 | 5 | 98 | 58 | 1.73 | .819 |
| 36 | 21 | 50 | 19 | 8 | 98 | 58 | 2.14 | .849 |
| 37 | 50 | 42 | 4 | 2 | 98 | 58 | 1.57 | .674 |

30. I give students choices about ways of responding.
31. I allow sufficient wait time for students to formulate answers.
32. I provide choices for students to present in small groups as well as to the whole class.
33. I use games, skits, and brain teasers to reduce tension.
34. I focus on pronouncing students names correctly when I talk to or about them.
35. I talk about cultures presented in the classroom.
36. I de-emphasize “correctness” in favor of developing writing comfort.
37. I ask students to work in pairs as well as small groups to clarify content, solve problems, and complete projects.

*Table 21.2*
*Percentage of infrequently and Frequently used Strategies of Providing an Encouraging Learning Environment to Lower the Affective Filter*

| | | Unused | | Used | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strategies | N | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| Giving choices about ways of responding | 97 | 9 | 9% | 88 | 91% |
| Allowing sufficient wait time to formulate answers | 96 | 3 | 3% | 93 | 97% |
| Presenting in small groups as well as to the whole class | 98 | 12 | 12% | 86 | 88% |

*Table 21.2*
*Percentage of infrequently and Frequently used Strategies of Providing an Encouraging Learning Environment to Lower the Affective Filter(Cont.)*

| | | Unused | | Used | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Strategies | N | Frequency | Percentage | Frequency | Percentage |
| Using games, skits, and brain teasers to reduce tension. | 98 | 22 | 22% | 76 | 78% |
| Focusing on pronouncing students names correctly | 98 | 2 | 2% | 96 | 98% |
| Talking about cultures presented in the classroom | 98 | 13 | 13% | 85 | 87% |
| De-emphasizing "correctness" in favor of developing writing comfort | 98 | 27 | 28% | 71 | 72% |
| Asking students to work in pairs as well as small groups | 98 | 6 | 6% | 92 | 94% |

By looking at Table 21.3, all eight instructional strategies were highly used by teachers to provide an encouraging learning environment to lower the affective filter among students: (1) giving choices about ways of responding, (2) allowing sufficient wait time to formulate answers, (3) presenting in small groups as well as to the whole class, (4) using games, skits, and brain teasers to reduce tension, (5) focusing on pronouncing students names correctly, (6) talking about cultures presented in the classroom, (7) De-emphasizing "correctness" in favor of developing writing comfort, and (8) asking students to work in pairs as well as small groups. The eight strategies fall in the interval (66%- 98%) and clustered around 82% at midpoint.

Therefore, teachers' consensus on the frequent and infrequent usage of these eight strategies to provide an encouraging learning environment to lower the affective filter among students showed a high level of using these eight strategies in their teaching routine.

*Table 21.3*
*Levels of Usage Percentage of Strategies of Providing an Encouraging Learning Environment to Lower the Affective Filter*

| Level of Usage Percentage | Class Interval | Strategies' Number | Class Limits | Class Boundaries | Mid Points |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Low | (1%-32 %) | 0 | (1%-32 %) | .5 % to < 32.5 % | 16.5 % |
| Moderate | (33%- 65%) | 0 | (33%- 65%) | 32.5 % < 65.5 % | 49 % |
| High | (66%-98% ) | 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8 | (66%-98%) | 65.9 % < 98.5% | 82 % |

**Question4. Implementing Formative Assessment**

For measuring the percentage of use of the formative assessment techniques, a construct of four point item-Likert scales was used: 'daily', 'weekly', 'monthly', and 'never'. The first three choices referred to the three assessment routines: the used daily, weekly routine, and monthly routines. The fourth option 'never' was used as a boundary that showed the unused technique. Therefore, the frequencies and percentages of the responses showed in Table 22.1 were presented and discussed for knowledge of the type of assessment technique teachers used as regular daily, weekly, and monthly routines to assess the growth of academic literacy for ESL students in content areas. Reliability of internal consistency estimated with Cronbach's alpha was good ($\alpha = .812$). The fifth question asked the teachers nine statements about how often they implemented nine assessment techniques as 'daily', 'weekly', and 'monthly' routines to assess the growth of academic literacy for ESL students in content area. The question was what type of formative assessment do content teachers use as a regular routine to assess the growth of academic literacy for ESL students?

Teachers' responses to this question, displayed in Table 22.1 show the implementation of these nine assessment techniques on the daily routine, the weekly routine, and the monthly routine to assess the growth of academic literacy for ESL students.

*Table 22.1*
*Techniques of Formative Assessment (N=156 )*

| State ment | Daily | Weekly | Monthly | Never | Total reported response | No Response | Mean | SD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 38 | 6<br>3.8 % | 29<br>18.6% | 42<br>26.9% | 21<br>13.5% | 98<br>62.8% | 58<br>37.2 % | 2.80 | .849 |
| 39 | 4<br>2.6% | 24<br>15.4% | 34<br>21.7% | 36<br>23.1% | 98<br>62.8% | 58<br>37.2% | 3.04 | .884 |
| 40 | 31<br>19.8% | 41<br>26.3% | 14<br>9.0% | 10<br>6.4% | 96<br>61.5% | 60<br>38.5 | 2.03 | .945 |
| 41 | 3<br>1.9% | 31<br>19.9% | 26<br>16.7% | 35<br>22.4% | 95<br>60.9% | 61<br>39.1% | 2.98 | .911 |
| 42 | 6<br>3.8% | 26<br>16.7% | 39<br>25.0% | 26<br>16.7% | 97<br>62.2% | 59<br>37.8% | 2.88 | .881 |
| 43 | 1<br>.6% | 2<br>1.3% | 7<br>4.5% | 87<br>55.8% | 97<br>62.2% | 59<br>37.8% | 3.86 | .478 |
| 44 | 3<br>1.9% | 27<br>17.3% | 52<br>33.3% | 14<br>9.0% | 96<br>61.5% | 60<br>38.5 % | 2.80 | .720 |
| 45 | 4<br>2.6% | 37<br>23.7% | 22<br>14.1% | 34<br>21.8% | 97<br>62.2% | 59<br>37.8% | 2.89 | .945 |
| 46 | 6<br>3.8% | 39<br>25.0% | 41<br>26.3% | 9<br>5.8% | 95<br>60.9% | 61<br>39.1% | 2.56 | .754 |

38. Multiple choice questions
39. Anecdotal records
40. Class discussion
41. Check list to assess ESL students' mastery of the essential vocabulary
42. Pre-test and post-test techniques
43. Blogs
44. Essay questions
45. Word problems
46. Performance assessment

**Daily assessment routine**. Teachers' responses mentioned on the daily routine for implementing these nine assessment techniques showed two observations. First, there was a relatively higher percentage of assessment technique usage mentioned in statement 40 on the 'daily basis'. There were 31 teachers (19.8%) who stated that they used class discussion as a daily assessment technique. Second, the Table showed a high tendency towards less implementation of the eight techniques mentioned in statements 38, 39, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, and

46 on a ‘daily basis’. The teachers’ consensus on using these eight strategies was less than (5%). In statement 38 using multiple choice questions to assess literacy growth, there were six teachers (3.8%). In statement 39 using anecdotal records, there were four teachers (2.6%). In statement 41 using a checklist to assess mastery of the essential vocabulary, there were three teachers (1.9 %). In statement 42 using a pre-test and post-test techniques, there were six teachers (3.8 %). In statement 43 using blogs as a technique, there was one teacher (.6%). In statement 44 using essay questions as an assessment technique, there were three teachers (1.9 %). In statement 45 using word problems as an assessment technique, there were four teachers (2.6 %). In statement 46 using performance assessment as an assessment technique, there were six teachers (3.8 %).

**Weekly assessment routine.** Teachers’ responses mentioned ‘on a ‘weekly’ routine for implementing these nine assessment techniques found these results: First, teachers’ responses showed a teachers’ consensus of less than (30 %) on using the assessment techniques mentioned in statements 40, 45, and 46 as a weekly routine. In statement 40 using class discussion as an assessment technique, there were 41 teachers (26.3%). In statement 45 using word problems as an assessment technique, there were 37 teachers (23.7%). In statement 46 using performance assessment as an assessment technique, there were 39 teachers (25%).

Second, teachers’ responses showed there was a consensus among teachers of less than (20 %) who used the assessment techniques mentioned in statements 38, 39, 41, 42, and 44 as a ‘weekly routine’. In statement 38 using multiple choice questions to assess literacy growth, there were 29 teachers (3.8%). In statement 39 using anecdotal records, there were 24 teachers (15.4 %). In statement 41using a checklist to assess mastery of the essential vocabulary, there were 31 teachers (19.8%). In statement 42 using a pre-test and post-test techniques, there were 26 teachers (16.7 %). In statement 44 using essay questions as an assessment technique, there

were 27 teachers (17.3%). Finally, teachers' responses showed there was a consensus among teachers of less than 10 % on using the assessment technique mentioned in statement 43 using blogs as a technique where there were two teachers (1.3 %) who stated that they used it.

**Monthly assessment routine.** Teachers' responses on a monthly routine implementation of these nine assessment techniques revealed these findings: First, using essay questions as an assessment technique mentioned in statement 44 was the only assessment technique that showed a relatively higher percentage of consensus among teachers on monthly basis. There were 52 teachers (33.3%) who stated that they used essay questions as an assessment technique on a monthly basis. Second, teachers' responses showed less than (30%) of using the assessment techniques mentioned in statements 38, 39, 42, and 46. In statement 38 using multiple choice questions to assess literacy growth, there were 42 teachers (26.9%). In statement 39 using anecdotal records, there were 34 teachers (21.7 %). In statement 42 using a pre-test and post-test assessments, there were 39 teachers (25.0 %). In statement 46 using performance assessment as an assessment technique, there were 41 teachers (26.3 %).

Third, teachers' responses showed that less than (20 %) of using statement 41 a checklist to assess mastery of the essential vocabulary, 26 teachers (16.7%). Finally, teachers' responses showed a teachers' consensus less than (10 %) on using the assessment techniques mentioned in statements 40, and 43. In statement 40 using class discussion as an assessment technique, there were 14 teachers (9.0%). In statement 43 using blogs as a technique, there were seven teachers (4.5%).

The implementation of these nine assessment techniques as a daily routine, a weekly routine, and a monthly routine to assess the growth of academic literacy for ESL students in content areas can be summarized around four observations. First, class discussions as an

assessment technique uncovered a relatively higher percentage of consensus on implementing it as compared to teachers' responses on the usage of the other eight strategies as 'daily routine' assessment. Second, among the nine strategies, class discussion, word problems, and performance assessment showed the highest use of implementing them as a 'weekly routine' assessment. Also, the analysis of using blogs as an assessment technique found that 87 teachers (55.8%) never used it. Third, using essay questions revealed a higher percentage among teachers on using them as a 'monthly routine' assessment.

**Question 5. Cooperation between Teachers and ESL Facilitators**

In the next section, teachers and ESL facilitators' cooperation information is introduced in table 23 through Table 26 to present the data analysis of three questions, (1) setting ESL objectives to provide literacy skills needed to achieve lesson objectives, (2) resources used for preparing lesson objectives, and (3)frequency of consulting ESL facilitators for writing lesson objectives.

The sixth research question asked teachers a yes-no question about setting ESL objectives to cover literacy skills needed to achieve lesson objective, do you set ESL objectives to provide literacy skills needed to achieve lesson objectives? Table 23 introduced participants' responses by setting ESL objectives to assure students have the literacy skills needed to achieve lesson objectives. There were 48 teachers (30.8 %) who reported did set ESL objectives to provide literacy skills when they teach, 50 teachers (32 %) answered no.

*Table 23*
*Setting Objectives for Cover Literacy Skills to Enable ESL Students to Achieve Content Objectives(N=156 )*

| Information | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| Yes | 48 | 30. 8% |
| No | 50 | 32. % |
| No response | 58 | 37.2 % |
| Total | 156 | 100 % |

The seventh research question asked the teachers about the resources they used to prepare their lesson objectives. This question was asked in order to learn about teachers and ESL facilitators' cooperation. This question addressed the following research question: Do content teachers cooperate with ESL facilitators to help them write their ESL objectives?

Table 24.1 and Table 24.2 introduced participants' responses. Table 24.1 shows that seven teachers (4.5 %) reported that they cooperated with ESL facilitators. There were 16 teachers (10.2 %) who reported that they used the internet. There were 24 teachers 15.4% who said that they depended on resources produced by school districts. There were 31 teachers (19.9 %) who reported that they got information from attending ESL professional development. There were 19 teachers (12.2 %) who chose 'other'.

*Table 24.1*
*Teachers' Cooperation with ESL Facilitators (N=156 )*

| Resources | Frequency | Percent |
|---|---|---|
| ESL facilitator | 7 | 4.5% |
| Internet | 16 | 10.2 % |
| Resources produced by school districts | 24 | 15.4 % |
| ESL professional development | 31 | 19.9 % |
| Other | 19 | 12.2 % |
| No response | 59 | 37.8 % |
| Total | 156 | 100 % |

Table 24.2 below presented teachers' responses about other resources they used than the one reported mentioned in the previous question. There were15 teachers out of 19 who chose the option 'other' specified what the other source was. Responses to this part showed that teachers depended on various resources when they prepared their lesson objective. First, two teachers stated that they did not have an ESL specialist, but they depended on other teachers, the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, and personal experience as a foreign language teacher. Second, three teachers used all the previous mentioned resources. Third, seven teachers mentioned other resources: ADE Standards, AP College Board, college education in ESL/English education, ELA and ELL Anchor and Focus Standards, ELL standards, text and Advanced Placement. Fourth, one teacher was an ESL learner before. Finally, one teacher mentioned 'none' and the answer did not specify any resources.

*Table 24.2*
*Teachers' Cooperation with ESL Facilitators (N=156 )*

| Resources | Frequency |
|---|---|
| ACTFL, other teachers, we don't have ESL facilitator | 1 |
| ADE Standards | 1 |
| Advanced Placement | 1 |
| all of the above | 1 |
| All of the above except ESL Facilitator | 1 |
| AP College Board | 1 |
| In use all of these plus ancillary materials from textbook publishers, other ESL teacher lessons-so lessons reinforce each other | 1 |
| college education in ESL/English education | 1 |
| ELA and ELL Anchor and Focus Standards | 1 |

*Table 24.2*
*Teachers' Cooperation with ESL Facilitators (N=156 )(Cont.)*

| Resources | Frequency |
|---|---|
| ELL standards | 1 |
| we no longer have an ESL Facilitator, but two Instructional Facilitators with no ESL training. | 1 |
| I was an ESL learner once | 1 |
| None | 1 |
| Special education | 1 |
| Text | 1 |
| No Response | 141 |
| Total | 156 |

In a follow up research question teachers were asked about frequency of consulting ESL facilitators in their schools when they wanted to write their lesson objectives. Table 25 on the next page shows that there were 23 teachers (14.7%) who mentioned that they sometimes consulted the ESL facilitator for writing their lesson objectives. There were 48 teachers (30.8%) who stated that they rarely consulted the ESL facilitator for writing their lesson objectives; they only asked for advice when they had specific questions regarding students. There were 27 teachers 17.3% who said they never consulted ESL facilitators when they write their lesson objectives. Also, Table 25 shows that 75 teachers stated that they either 'rarely' or 'never' consulted ESL facilitators.

*Table 25*
*Consulting the ESL Facilitator for Writing your Lesson Objectives(N=156 )*

| How often | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|
| Sometimes | 23 | 14.7 % |
| Rarely when I have specific questions regarding students | 48 | 30.8 % |
| Never | 27 | 17.3 % |
| No response | 58 | 37.2 % |
| Total | 156 | 100 % |

The crosstabs in Table 26 indicate that from the 48 teachers who reported that they did integrate language objectives with content lesson objectives in the previous question in Table 23, only 18 teachers 'sometimes' consulted ESL facilitators, 22 teachers reported they 'rarely' did and only if they had a question regarding student achievement, and eight teachers said 'never.' In addition, Table 26 shows that among the 50 teachers who mentioned that they did not integrate language objectives with content lesson objectives, some of them stated cooperation with ESL facilators. Five teachers 'sometimes' consulted ESL facilitators, 26 teachers reported they 'rarely' did and only if they had a question regarding student achievement, and 19 teachers said 'never'.

*Table 26*
*Participant by Setting ESL Objectives and Frequency of ESL consultation*

| ESL Objectives | Frequency of ESL Consultation | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Sometimes | Rarely | Never | |
| Yes | 18 | 22 | 8 | 48 |
| No | 5 | 26 | 19 | 50 |
| Total response | 23 | 48 | 27 | 98 |

Another crosstabs analysis Table 27 showed that from the 48 teachers who reported that they rarely depended on ESL facilitators, 26 teachers were not endorsed while 22 teachers were endorsed. Also, from the 27 teachers who chose the last option 'never'16 teachers were not endorsed and 11 were.

*Table 27*
*Participant by ESL Endorsement and Frequency of ESL Consultation*

| ESL endorsement | Frequency of ESL Consultation | | | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Sometimes | Rarely | Never | |
| Yes | 6 | 22 | 11 | 39 |
| No | 17 | 26 | 16 | 59 |
| Total response | 23 | 48 | 27 | 98 |

## Summary

This chapter presents the results of analyses of teachers' responses concerning what themes of best practices are being adopted by teachers in real classrooms to teach reading skills to ESL students across curriculum. This chapter analyzed the teachers' self reported responses to the ESL Literacy Instruction Questionnaire. The questionnaire contained five themes: (1) providing comprehensible input, (2) teaching learning strategies of metacognition to bridge the gap between school literacy practices and home literacy practices, (3) lowering the affective filter, (4) implementing formative assessment, and (5) cooperation between teachers and ESL facilitators. The results were used to answer the research questions related to each theme.

For the first theme, providing comprehensible input, of the nine strategies mentioned, modeling and teaching academic language were the most-used strategies to provide comprehensible input to teach reading across curricula. Also, among the mentioned seven strategies to provide comprehensible input to teach vocabulary, five instructional strategies were highly used: teaching affixes, determining meaning before reading, systematically teaching

selected vocabulary, using discussion to share cultural and personal experiences, and using non-linguistic representations.

For the second theme, teaching learning strategies of metacognition to bridge the gap between school literacy practices and home literacy practices, there were three categories of the meta-cognitive strategies and teachers' responses showed the following. In the first category, among the six mentioned strategies for enhancing thinking about organization and planning for learning, there were four strategies that showed a high percentage of usage. They are dividing long-term assignments into shorter tasks, setting deadlines for task completion before the due date, determining the most efficient strategies to learn specific content, and planning how to study for tests. In the second category, all six strategies were highly used to develop deeper understanding. They are making specific connections between new and old learning, making specific connections between English and their native languages, highlighting important information while reading, dividing information into smaller units, using flash cards to test themselves, and creating visual representations to organize information and aid retention. In the last category, a large number of teachers showed a high use of mnemonic such as poems, acronyms, and silly sentences as a technique to facilitate recalling.

For the third theme, lowering the affective filter, all eight instructional strategies were used highly by teachers to provide an encouraging learning environment to lower the affective filter among students. They are giving choices about ways of responding, allowing sufficient wait time to formulate answers, presenting in small groups as well as to the whole class, using games, skits, and brain teasers to reduce tension; focusing on pronouncing students names correctly; talking about cultures presented in the classroom; and asking students to work in pairs as well as small groups.

For the fourth theme, implementing formative assessment, teachers' responses to the mentioned nine assessment techniques showed the following. As a daily routine assessment, class discussions showed a relatively higher percentage of implementation as compared to the usage of the other eight strategies. As a weekly routine assessment, class discussion, word problems, and performance assessment showed the highest percentage of implementation. As a monthly routine assessment, using essay questions showed the highest percentage of implementation.

For the last theme, cooperation between teachers and ESL facilitators, among the 48 teachers who mentioned that they integrate language objectives with content lesson objectives, the majority consulted ESL facilitators 'rarely' and only did if they had a question regarding student achievement.

# CHAPTER V

## DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMENDATIONS

This chapter discusses teachers' self- reported responses to the ESL Literacy Instruction Questionnaire in order to explore the application of the five themes mentioned in the ESL Literacy Instruction Questionnaire to learn more about the most used "best strategies" of reading instruction as a second language across curricula by teachers. This chapter is organized around five sections: discussion of the findings, conclusion, implications for practice, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research.

The research was guided by the following main research question and the seven sub-research questions:

What themes of best practices are being adopted and to what extent by teachers in real classrooms to teach reading skills to ESL students across curriculum?

1. Theme one Providing Comprehensible Input

1. a. What are the most used strategies that teachers utilize for providing comprehensible input to teach reading across curricula?

1.b. What are the most used strategies that teachers utilize for providing comprehensible input in teaching vocabulary across curricula?

2. Theme two Teaching Learning Strategies of Metacognition to Bridge the Gap Between School Literacy Practices and Home Literacy Practices

2.a. What meta-cognitive strategies do teachers use most to match school literacy practices to home practices?

3. Theme three Lowering the Affective Filter

3.a. What strategies do teachers implement most for lowering the affective filter to provide an encouraging learning environment?

4. Theme four Implementing Formative Assessment

4.a. What type of formative assessments do teachers use as a regular routine to assess the ESL students' academic literacy growth?

5. Theme five Cooperation between Teachers and ESL Facilitators

5.a. Do area teachers set objectives to cover literacy skills needed to enable ESL students to achieve curriculum objectives?

5.b. Do teachers cooperate with ESL facilitators to help them write their ESL objectives?

## Discussion of the Findings

### Providing Comprehensible Input (Theme One)

Teachers were aware of the importance of providing comprehensible input to ESL students to develop reading and writing skills, and expand content-specific vocabulary to help students develop their disciplinary literacy skills which is necessary in understanding specific demanding tasks. However, not all the strategies mentioned in the ESL Literacy Instruction Questionnaire were applied as regular classroom routines with the same consistency. The following are main findings.

Data from the first 1a sub-research question showed that as a regular routine of providing comprehensible input to teach reading skills across curriculum, teachers 82 % used modeling and teaching academic language through describing the processes that writers use. This indicates that teachers depended on teacher-centered activities when they tried to scaffold instruction to develop students' reading and writing skills. Also, teachers moderately (49%) used student-centered activities such as sharing journals, interactive read aloud, peer editing, paired writing

with more capable peers, using native language resources, and using library staff in teaching as scaffolding strategies. Finally, teachers used retelling trips at a low level (16.5%) which may indicate that students were rarely involved in extra curricula activities to engage students in hands on learning environment. Duke, Pearson, Strachan, and Billman (2011) stress that teachers need to adopt Pearson and Gallagher's (1983) concept of Gradual Release of Responsibility when they want to set up a regular instructional routine to help students develop reading skills through using various instructional strategies that shift task responsibilities in three stages. The first stage starts from teachers' responsibility through direct instruction such as modeling and guided practice. In the second stage, a shared responsibility seeks the aim of increasing students' responsibility and decreasing teachers' responsibility through interactive and peer activities. In the last stage, students become totally independent in using the strategy or the task.

The second sub-research question showed that as a regular routine of providing comprehensible input to teach vocabulary across curriculum, teachers used five strategies regularly (82%); (1) teaching affixes, (2) determining meaning before reading, (3) systematically teaching selected vocabulary, (4) using discussion to share cultural and personal experiences, and (5) using non-linguistic representations. Also, two strategies were moderately used (49%) using semantic feature analysis and using bilingual pairs. This indicates that teachers are aware of the importance of varying their regular routines. As suggested in the best practices instructional strategies literature (Graves, August, & Mancilla-Martinez, 2013; Herrera, Perez, & Escamilla, 2010; Vacca, Vacca, & Mraz, 2011; Yopp, Yopp, & Bishop 2009) for developing ESL students' reading comprehension skills, teaching vocabulary should be seen as an instructional tool kit containing various strategies to help students learn vocabulary by connecting it to their experience which helps students to internalize meaning. Teachers should use all these strategies

to serve five different objectives. These are reducing cognitive burden caused by sophisticated vocabulary needed for understanding new content, introducing lessons and discover misconceptions, to teach word learning strategies, building word consciousness, and teaching critical corpus (Fisher & Frey, 2008; Graves, August, & Mancilla-Martinez, 2013; Herrera, Perez, & Escamilla, 2010; Vacca, Vacca, & Mraz, 2011; Yopp, Yopp, & Bishop 2009).

**Teaching Learning Strategies of Metacognition (Theme Two)**

Data from the third sub-research question showed that teachers used the following three different categories of learning strategies as a regular routine to help students learn content and approach tasks: thinking about organizing and planning for learning, developing deeper understanding, and facilitating recalling.

Teachers' responses to the first category showed that teachers highly (82%) used four strategies to help students think about organizing their study time, as well as planning for how to study specific contents (1) dividing long-term assignments into shorter tasks, (2) setting deadlines for task completion before the due date, (3) determining the most efficient strategies to learn specific content, and (4) planning how to study for tests. Also, teachers moderately (49%) used a homework notebook to write down all assignments and some asked students to keep a calendar for long-term assignments. This suggests that teachers are aware of the importance of guiding and informing students on how to adopt successful study skills that help students manage study time effectively, and balance between study time and other responsibilities. Also, responses to the second type found that teachers highly (82%) used all the six strategies to help students develop a deeper understanding of content and to aid students with strategies that help them enhance learning, internalize knowledge , and assess their mastering content: (1) making specific connections between new and old learning, (2) making specific connections between

English and their native languages, (3) highlighting important information while reading, (4) dividing information into smaller units, (5) using flash cards to test themselves, and (6) creating visual representation to organize information. Finally, teachers' responses to the last type showed that teachers very often (82%) used songs, poems, acronyms, and silly sentences to help students recall knowledge. Therefore, teachers reported systematic implication of metacognitive strategies that guide students in acquiring successful learning skills that help students to plan study content, organize work on assignments, and assess mastering and recalling studied materials to be sure they are prepared for tests in ways recommended by (Reiss, 2008).

**Lowering the Affective Filter (Theme Three)**

Teachers' responses to the fourth sub-research question showed that teachers are aware of the importance of lower affective filter among students to foster an encouraging environment that takes sociocultural aspect, cognitive aspect, and cooperative learning aspect into account to motivate ESL students to participate in classroom discussions and group tasks (Brock, Salas, Lapp, & Townsend, 2009; Meltzer& Hamann, 2005). For example, these teachers (1) focus on pronouncing students names correctly, and (2) talk about cultures presented in the classroom to highlight the sociocultural aspect. Also, teachers used techniques that reduce the cognitive challenges that ESL students experience when they want to think about tasks and formulate responses; thus they (3) give students choices about ways of responding, (4) allow sufficient wait time for students to formulate answers, (5) de-emphasize "correctness" in favor of developing writing comfort, (6) provide choices for students to present in small groups as well as to the whole class, and (7) use games, skits, and brain teasers. In addition, (8) teachers used cooperative learning where they ask students to work in pairs as well as small groups to clarify content, solve problems, and complete projects. They frequently (82%) used all eight strategies mentioned in

the questionnaire as an instructional routine to help ESL students reduce and overcome the linguistic and non-linguistic challenges that ESL students face.

**Implementing Formative Assessment (Theme Four)**

Teachers' responses to the fifth sub-research question showed that teachers' implementation of the nine assessment techniques as daily routine, weekly routine, and monthly routine to assess the growth of academic literacy for ESL students in content area can be summarized around four findings. First, class discussions as an assessment technique showed a relatively higher percentage (19.8%) implemented it as compared to teachers' responses on the usage of the other eight strategies as daily routine assessment.

Second, among the nine strategies, class discussion (26.3 %), word problems (23%), and performance assessment (25%) showed the highest rate of implementing them as a weekly routine assessment. Third, blogs as an assessment technique showed that the majority of teachers never used them as a daily, weekly, or monthly routine. Fourth, using essay questions showed a higher percentage of teachers (33.3 %) used them as a monthly routine assessment. This indicates that although the majority of teachers are aware of the importance of using formative assessment to track students' progress during learning, they still do not integrate online communication with students as a type of formative assessment. Some of the advantages of using online communication as an assessment technique is that it provides an encouraging environment that helps 'invisible students' (Dow, 2013) to participate in the classroom discussion. Also, teachers can document students' progress without any extra effort because teachers can understand students' background, misconceptions, and level of students' writing before students reach the stage of the summative assessment. In addition, online communication provides a chance for students to build metacognition as a stage of building background through

evaluating their own knowledge by recalling the whole classroom discussion (Ebeling-Witte, Frank, & Lester, 2007; Fredrick, 2013; Herrell& Jordan, 2008; Leu, Kinzer, Coiro, and Cammack, 2004; and Dow, 2013).

**Cooperation between Teachers and ESL Facilitators (Theme Five)**

Teachers' responses to the sixth and seventh sub-research questions fell into four different categories. The first category was teachers who were aware of literature about integrating language objectives with content objectives. These teachers consulted ESL facilitators from time to time for identifying language objectives. The second category was teachers who were semi-aligned with literature because they integrated both language and content objectives part, but they either rarely or never consulted ESL facilitators. They mostly depended on their own teaching repertoire, colleagues or varied online and school resources. The reason for this lack of cooperation between teachers and ESL specialist could be that the number of ESL facilitators in the school district is not enough to serve all the teachers who could use them. So that busy teachers cannot find or don't value the importance of cooperation with ESL specialist enough to work them into a workday already stretched too far.

The third category was teachers who were not aware of literature suggesting the need to integrate language objectives with content objectives part. However, some did have some sort of cooperation with ESL facilitators. Even though those teachers did not set language objectives, the crosstabs showed that they had cooperation with ESL facilitators on certain occasions. They either were not aware of the importance of integrating language with content objectives for ESL students or they did not know how to identify language objectives that address the most challenging linguistic components of lessons such as essential vocabulary, phrases, and structures. Still data indicate that they cooperated with ESL specialists in those situations when

they wanted information on student achievement. Those moments may be opportunities for ESL specialists to suggest other ways that they might be of helpful.

The last category was teachers who were not in any way integrating language objectives with content objectives or cooperating with ESL specialists. This lack of alignment could be interpreted in several ways. First, teachers do not know the research or are not totally convinced or saw it as irrelevant busy work. The second possibility was that teachers had a few ESL students who were being taught in sheltered ESL classes. As stated by Grossman & Stodolsky (1995), cooperation between ESL facilitators and classroom teachers is highly recommended to decrease the negative practices teachers might develop when relaying solely on their own intuitiveness to establish priorities of what to include as language objectives to serve subject-specific contexts.

## Conclusion

Teaching English literacy is challenging in mainstream public schools. It requires teachers to accommodate instruction as well as assessment to enable diverse students to develop their linguistic skills and acquire the academic knowledge to be successful in school (Herrell, & Jorden, 2008; Meltzer, & Hamann, 2005; National Center on Accessing the General Curriculum, n.d). Many interventions have been introduced, suggesting best practices to be implemented in schools, but limited research has reflected on the regular of the implementation of these best practices by teachers in everyday classrooms. Therefore, this study addresses the gap between theory and practice by describing which best practices are being adopted in real classrooms in order to know what is practical and can be applied in daily classroom instructional strategies. This study represents an initial exploration of five themes highly recommended in the scholarly literature and described as ESL best practices for teaching ESL students (Brock, Lapp, Salas,&

Townsend, 2009; Herrera, Perez, & Escamilla, 2010; Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2010; Meltzer,& Hamann, 2005). This previous research has enabled the researcher to initially explore what type of ESL instructional strategies were practiced by teachers in two secondary schools and to know whether 'real teachers' practices' were aligned with literature. Based on these participants' self-responses to the five themes in the Literacy Instruction Questionnaire, the findings position teachers in relation to the literature in these ways. Teachers implemented four themes often in their teaching routines. However, not all the mentioned ESL strategies under each theme were frequently used. Also, the fifth theme, teacher and ESL facilitator cooperation, rarely occurred and happened only for specific questions regarding student achievement. This indicates that teachers depended in large part on their knowledge of second language acquisition when they wanted to differentiate instruction to deal with diversity in classrooms. This may lead some teachers to do what Daniel, Martin-Beltrán, Peercy, & Silverman (2015) describe as 'over-scaffolding'. Teachers might highly focus on teacher-centered activities when they want to scaffold instruction which limit "students' productive and substantive engagement" during the learning process (Daniel, etal , 2015, p. 1).

## Implications for Practice

For teachers' real practices to be fully aligned with the literature of best practices, teachers need to practice a regular routine that includes. First, teachers making 'strategic' scaffolding choices (Vázquez, López,, Segador, & Mohedano 2014) in classroom management that balance the implementation of: teacher-lead activities, student-centered activities, and extra-classroom activities (Brock, Lapp, Salas, & Townsend, 2009; Brown, 1987; Cummins, 1984; Herrera, Perez,& Escamilla, 2010; Krashen, 1982; Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2010; Meltzer, & Hamann, 2005; Reiss, 2008). Second, teachers cooperating with ESL facilitators in identifying

language objectives and choosing language activities that serve learning content objectives (Carrier, 2005; Davison, 2006; De Jong & Barko-Alva, 2015; Grossman & Stodolsky, 1995). However, the majority of teachers' responses showed that this cooperation was not always practiced as routine when they wanted to integrate language objectives and content objectives. Therefore, if teachers cannot consult with ESL specialists under real working conditions regularly because there are few ESL ESL specialists then it may be necessary for school districts to increase the number of ESL facilitators in their districts. Also, schools need to structure time for regular meetings for specific content area teachers with ESL facilitators to share ideas on how to support research-based differentiation for ELLs. Districts may need to offer webinar for teachers who cannot participate during school hours. Finally, teachers should encouraged to use online communication as part of formative assessment techniques to keep track of students' progress to reduce workload and help teachers learn about students' language and writing needs before students reach the summative assessment (Ebeling, Frank, & Lester, 2007; McDowell, 2013; Herrell& Jordan, 2008; Leu, Kinzer, Coiro, and Cammack, 2004; and Dow, 2013).

## Limitations of the Study

The study has the following limitations. First, the study focused only on one school district which has only two high schools. Therefore, the study cannot be generalized to other contexts or districts. Second, the aim of the study was to explore how teachers in real classrooms respond to current research findings in ESL best practices. Since there was little previous research that used self-reported instruments for data collection that meet the goals of this current study, the researcher constructed the used self-reported instrument which contained ESL teaching strategies assumed to be best practices to serve teachers across curricula. Not all strategies or "best practices" could be addressed. Third, the ESL Literacy Instruction

Questionnaire collected a self-reported response from teachers and the data collected about teachers' instructional strategies is assumed to be their true instructional strategies and practices in the classrooms. Fourth, as it is mentioned that people may interpret adverbs of frequency differently (Cummins and Gullone, 2000), in this study, 'always' and 'sometimes' were used as scales to refer to the repeatedly used strategies reported by teachers. Similarly, 'rarely' was used as a boundary that separates the frequently used strategies from the infrequently used strategies that were reported by teachers. This scale was used because the researcher assumed that this scale is informative and less confusing for teachers. The distinction in reporting 'always' or 'sometimes' actions is not the same as reporting 'rare' actions.

Despite these limitations, the ESL Literacy Instruction Questionnaire provided insights into how some teachers in real classrooms respond to current research findings regarding the implementation of ESL best practices. The findings showed that teachers were aware of the main themes of ESL instructional best practices, and the participants often depended on their personnel experience to implement these broad themes in their real classroom practices. Therefore, this study adds to the literature on best practices concludes that content teachers need to collaborate regularly with ESL facilitators to incorporate their knowledge of best practices in the class effectively and to avoid "over-scaffolding" (Daniel, Martin-Beltrán, Peercy, & Silverman, 2015, p.1) to balance the implementation of three aspects: teacher-led activities, student-centered activities, and extra-classroom activities.

## Recommendations for Future Research

The findings of this study suggest the following further research. First, the findings reveal that teachers have an awareness of the need to adopt ESL basic instructional strategies to differentiate instruction to better serve diversity in today's classroom. However, teachers'

responses to the ESL questionnaire showed that although they applied the mentioned strategies under each theme with different consistency, a great number of teachers indicated that they set objectives that cover literacy skills to enable ESL students to achieve content objectives while they rarely consulting ESL facilitators. Therefore, this study suggests future study addresses the challenges of consulting ESL facilitators as a regular routine.

Another study could explore the difference between social studies teachers and science teachers in cooperating with ESL facilitators. Finally, research is needed to improve the ESL Literacy Instruction Questionnaire to serve individual content areas and to suggest ways of qualitative investigations such as in depth interview and extended observations. There is also a need to replicate the study in other U.S. of international settings.

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## Appendix A

Informed Consent for the ESL Coordinator

**Dear ESL Coordinator in** [redacted]

I am Anisa A Ben Idris, a doctoral student seeking my PhD degree in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at University of Arkansas. I am conducting a study to investigate the instructional strategies that are implemented by content teachers in teaching ESL secondary students reading skills across curriculum. The study will focus on Springdale school district as it has the largest population of ESL students in Northwest Arkansas, and the national assessment data shows an increased literacy growth among English language learners. Therefore, I am seeking a permission to start my study in Springdale secondary schools.

**Research title: Strategies of Reading as a Second Language Instruction Across Curriculum in Secondary Grades**

The purpose of this quantitative study is to investigate how reading skills are taught across curriculum to non-native speakers in secondary classrooms. The aim of this research is to examine strategies of teaching reading skills across curriculum as a second language in (grades 10-12). The researcher as an international educator wants to understand how teaching reading skills in secondary public schools in the U.S. has its own challenges which required certain ESL instructional strategies to handle linguistic diversity in classrooms. Teachers need ESL instructional strategies with content knowledge to prepare their lesson plans effectively and differentiate instruction to suit both native students and ESL students' needs and help them achieve standards. The study will utilize a survey to collect quantitative data. In the survey, no names will be solicited. The participating schools and teachers will be given a number and their names will not be used. No reference will be made to their identity when reporting the findings. All information collection will be kept confidential to the extent allowed by law and University policy. Participating in this study is voluntarily. There are no risks to participate in this study and participants may quit anytime.

If you have questions or concerns about this study, you may contact Anisa or Dr. Lincoln at (479) 575, 8729 or by e-mail at flincoln@uark.edu and abenidri@uark.edu **.**For questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant, please contact Ro Windwalker, the University's IRB Coordinator, at (479) 575-2208 or by e-mail at irb@uark.edu.

Thank you for taking the time to assist me in this research.

**Sincerely Yours,**

**Anisa Ben Idris**

## Appendix B

Informed Consent

**Dear Teachers:**

I am a graduate student seeking my PhD degree in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at University of Arkansas. The attached survey is a study to investigate the instructional strategies that are implemented by content teachers in teaching ESL secondary students reading skills across curriculum. The study will focus on Springdale school district as it has the largest population of ESL students in Northwest Arkansas and the national assessment data shows an increased literacy growth among English language learners

In addition, I am particularly desirous of obtaining your responses because your experience and comments as secondary teachers will contribute to the study. Your responses will help new teachers and pre-service teachers learn from real experiences on how to implement ESL instructional strategies in mainstream classrooms.

The survey should take no more than 25 minutes to complete. No names will be solicited. All information collection will be kept confidential to the extent allowed by law and University policy. Completion and returning of this survey will indicate voluntary consent to participate in this study. There are no risks to participate in this study and you may quit anytime.

If you have questions or concerns about this study, you may contact Anisa or Dr. Lincoln at (479) 575, 8729 or by e-mail at flincoln@uark.edu and abenidri@uark.edu

For questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant, please contact Ro Windwalker, the University's IRB Coordinator, at (479) 575-2208 or by e-mail at irb@uark.edu.

Thank you for taking the time to assist me in this research.

**Sincerely Yours,**

**Anisa Ben Idris**

# Appendix C

IRB Approval

UNIVERSITY OF ARKANSAS

*Office of Research Compliance*
*Institutional Review Board*

May 5, 2014

MEMORANDUM

| | |
|---|---|
| TO: | Anisa Ben Idris<br>Felicia Lincoln |
| FROM: | Ro Windwalker<br>IRB Coordinator |
| RE: | PROJECT MODIFICATION |
| IRB Protocol #: | 14-04-673 |
| Protocol Title: | *Strategies of Reading as a Second Language Instruction across Curriculum in Secondary Grades* |
| Review Type: | ☒ EXEMPT ☐ EXPEDITED ☐ FULL IRB |
| Approved Project Period: | Start Date: 05/05/2014 Expiration Date: 04/15/2015 |

Your request to modify the referenced protocol has been approved by the IRB. **This protocol is currently approved for 400 total participants.** If you wish to make any further modifications in the approved protocol, including enrolling more than this number, you must seek approval *prior to* implementing those changes. All modifications should be requested in writing (email is acceptable) and must provide sufficient detail to assess the impact of the change.

Please note that this approval does not extend the Approved Project Period. Should you wish to extend your project beyond the current expiration date, you must submit a request for continuation using the UAF IRB form "Continuing Review for IRB Approved Projects." The request should be sent to the IRB Coordinator, 210 Administration.

For protocols requiring FULL IRB review, please submit your request at least one month prior to the current expiration date. (High-risk protocols may require even more time for approval.) For protocols requiring an EXPEDITED or EXEMPT review, submit your request at least two weeks prior to the current expiration date. Failure to obtain approval for a continuation *on or prior to* the currently approved expiration date will result in termination of the protocol and you will be required to submit a new protocol to the IRB before continuing the project. Data collected past the protocol expiration date may need to be eliminated from the dataset should you wish to publish. Only data collected under a currently approved protocol can be certified by the IRB for any purpose.

If you have questions or need any assistance from the IRB, please contact me at 210 Administration Building, 5-2208, or irb@uark.edu.

210 Administration Building • 1 University of Arkansas • Fayetteville, AR 72701
Voice (479) 575-2208 • Fax (479) 575-3846 • Email irb@uark.edu

Appendix D
ESL Literacy Instruction Questionnaire



**Appendix D**

ESL Literacy Instruction Questionnaire

**Part One: Comprehensible Input**

How often do you use the following strategies when you teach reading and writing to ESL students in mainstream classrooms?

| Always | Sometimes | Rarely | Never |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| **Strategies of Providing Comprehensible Input for Reading and Writing** | **Always** | **Sometimes** | **Rarely** | **Never** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I model specific skills to the whole class, in small groups, and one on one (Lems, Miller, and Soro, 2010, P.203). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2. I teach academic language to describe the processes writers use (p.202) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3. I ask students to share journals in small groups (p.202). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4. I do interactive read aloud of nonfiction and discussing author's style (p.202) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5. I train students to do regular peer editing, using written rubrics (p.202). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6. I use retelling fieldtrips, holidays and creating a class book with illustrations (p.201). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. I do paired writing with more capable peer (p. 201) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. I support native language writing and reading resources (p.201) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9. I involve library staff and aids in teaching research writing and referencing skills (p.203). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Source adapted from
: Lems, K., Miller, L. D., & Soro, T. M. (2010). *Teaching reading to English language learners: Insights from linguistics*. New York: Guilford Press.

How often do you use the following strategies when you teach vocabulary to ESL students in mainstream classrooms?

| Always | Sometimes | Rarely | Never |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| **Strategies of Providing Comprehensible Input in Teaching Vocabulary** | **Always** | **Sometimes** | **Rarely** | **Never** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10. I use reader-based instruction showing prefixes, roots, and suffixes to explain meaning (Herrera, Perez, Escamilla (2010, pp.104) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11. I engage students in determining vocabulary meaning before the reading through meaningful discussion (p.105) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. I use direct instruction which focuses on systematically teaching selected vocabulary (p.106). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13. I use bilingual pairs to clarify vocabulary in a language both students understand (p.127). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. I engage ESL students in discussions to share personal and cultural experiences that support vocabulary comprehension (p.127). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. I use nonlinguistic representations such as maps, T-charts, and Venn Diagrams before and during the lesson to introduce targeted academic vocabulary (p.127) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 16. I use semantic feature analysis (Lems, Miller, and Soro, 2010, P.178). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Sources: Herrera, S. G., Perez, D. R., & Escamilla, K. (2010). *Teaching reading to English language learners: Differentiated literacies*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Lems, K., Miller, L. & Soro, T. M. (2010). *Teaching reading to English language learners: Insights from linguistics*. New York: Guilford Press.

**Part Two: Teaching Learning Strategy**

How often do you use the following strategies when you teach ESL students in mainstream classrooms?

| Always | Sometimes | Rarely | Never |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| Meta- cognitive Strategies for Learning | Always | Sometimes | Rarely | Never |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 17. I use a homework notebook to write down all assignments (Reiss, 2008, p, 44). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 18. I ask students to keep a calendar to write down long-term assignments (p, 44). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 19. I ask students to divide long-term assignments into shorter tasks (p, 44). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 20. I ask students to set deadlines for task completion before the due date (p, 44). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 21. I help students to determine the most appropriate and efficient strategies to learn specific content (p, 44). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 22. I help students plan how to study for tests (p, 44). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 23. I help students make specific connections between new and old learning (p, 45). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 24. I encourage students to make specific connections between English and their native languages (p, 45). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 25. I ask students to highlight important information while reading (p, 45). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 26. I encourage students to divide information into smaller units (p, 45). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 27. I encourage students to use flash cards to test themselves (p, 45). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 28. I encourage students to create visual representation to organize information and aid retention (p, 45). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 29. I use poems, acronyms, and silly sentences as a recalling technique (p, 45-46). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Source: Reiss, J. (2008). *102 content strategies for English language learners: Teaching for academic success in grades 3-12*. Prentice Hall.,

**Part Three: Learning Environment and Affective Filter**

How often do you use the following strategies when you teach ESL students in mainstream classrooms?

| Always | Sometimes | Rarely | Never |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| | | | |

| **Learning Environment and Affective filter** | **Always** | **Sometimes** | **Rarely** | **Never** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 30. I give students choices about ways of responding (Lems, Miller, and Soro, 2010, P.18). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 31. I allow sufficient wait time for students to formulate answers (P.18). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 32. I provide choices for students to present in small groups as well as to the whole class (P.18). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 33. I use games, skits, and brain teasers to reduce tension (P.18). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 34. I focus on pronouncing students names correctly when I talk to or about them (P.42). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 35. I talk about cultures presented in the classroom (P.18). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 36. I de-emphasize "correctness" in favor of developing writing comfort (P.201). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 37. I ask students to work in pairs as well as small groups to clarify content, solve problems, and complete projects (Reiss, 2008, p, 48). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Source: adapted from

Lems, K., Miller, L. & Soro, T. M. (2010). *Teaching reading to English language learners: Insights from linguistics*. New York: Guilford Press, (pp. 18, 42,201).

Reiss, J. (2008). *102 content strategies for English language learners: Teaching for academic success in grades 3-12*. Prentice Hall., (4 46).

**Part Four: Formative Assessment Techniques**

How often do you use the following assessment techniques to assess the growth of academic literacy for ESL students in your content area?

| Daily | Weekly | Monthly | Never |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

| Assessment Techniques | Daily | Weekly | Monthly | Never |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 38. I use multiple choice questions to assess ESL students' literacy progress. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 39. I use anecdotal records to assess ESL students' literacy progress. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 40. I use class discussion to assess ESL students' literacy progress. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 41. I use check list to assess ESL students' mastery of the essential vocabulary. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 42. I use pre-test and post-test techniques to assess ESL students' literacy progress. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 43. I use blogs to assess ESL students' literacy progress. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 44. I use essay questions to assess ESL students' literacy progress. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 45. I use word problems to assess ESL students' literacy progress. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 46. I use performance assessment to assess ESL students' literacy progress. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Sources: adapted from

Herrell, A. L., & Jordan, M. (2008). Fifty strategies for teaching English language learners. New York. *NY: Merrill.*

Meltzer, J., & Hamann, E. (2005). Meeting the literacy development needs of adolescent English language learners through content-area learning-part: two: Focus on classroom teaching and learning strategies. *Faculty Publications: Department of Teaching, Learning and Teache Education. Paper 53.* http://digitalcommons.unl.edu/teachlearnfacpub/53

**Part Five: Cooperation between Content Teachers and ESL facilitators**

Q47. Do you set ESL objectives to cover literacy skills needed to achieve lesson objectives?

a. Yes
b. No

Q48. What resources do you use to prepare your lesson objectives?

a. ESL facilitator
b. Internet
c. Resources produced by school districts
d. ESL professional development
e. Other _____

Q49. How often do you consult the ESL facilitator in your school when you want to write your lesson objectives?

a. Always
b. Sometimes
c. Rarely, when I have specific questions regarding students achievement
d. Never

**Part Six: Demographic Information**

Q50. What is your gender?

a. Female
b. Male

Q51. What is your age?

a. 25 or under
b. 26-40
c. 41-55
d. 56 or older

Q52. What other languages do you speak or understand beside English?

a. Arabic
b. German
c. Spanish
d. Non
e. Other _____

Q53. Do you have an ESL endorsement?

a. Yes
b. No

Q54. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

a. College
b. Bachelor degree
c. Master's degree or equivalent
d. Doctoral degree
e. Other _____

Q55. How long have you been teaching?

a. Less than 3 years
b. 4- 6 years
c. 7-9 years
d. More than 10 years

Q56. How would you classify yourself?

a. Hispanic
b. Asian American
c. Arab descent
d. African American
e. Native American
f. White
g. Other ---------- ( specify)

Q57. What grades do you teach?

a. 9 grade
b. 10 grade
c. 11 grade
d. 12 grade

Q58. Have you taken a course or courses in teaching reading in content areas?

a. Yes
b. No

Q59. If yes, please describe?

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Q60. What content areas do you teach?

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**Thank you for your assistance**