A SURVEY OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS' LANGUAGE IDEOLOGIES AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF BILITERACY

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by

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my husband, Robert and my parents. Robert, without your encouragement, insightful feedback, impeccable editing skills, and unconditional support, I would not have overcome the many obstacles inherent to this process. Your wisdom and generosity allowed me to navigate through the complexities of writing and finding my voice in my second language and dealing with the demands of changing positions. Your kindness extended to facilitate a cumbersome legal immigration process and balancing our professional, school, and family life. Ours is a great partnership, and I could not have asked for a better classmate/spouse during these years of being a doctoral student.

Dad, you always told us that the only legacy we would have from you was education and traveling. The former instilled in me a passion for academia that became my determination to pursue this career. Travelling opened my eyes to other cultures and nurtured my love for different languages and viewpoints. Without knowing it, your decisions assisted me with me becoming biliterate and multilingual. Un millón de gracias. Mami, te llevo conmigo siempre.

ABSTRACT

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Some U.S. educators hold language ideologies that favor the English language over other languages, while, at the same time, equating fluency in other languages as problematic. This ideology potentially affects how teachers instruct in both monolingual and bilingual classrooms in U.S. schools. This study addressed language ideologies among select teachers in south-central Texas. Examining teacher ideologies might enlighten school and district administrators on how to improve their efforts to offer effective bilingual and multilingual education options in their schools.

The purpose of this study was to explore elementary teachers' language ideologies and perceptions of biliteracy and their understanding of the types of supports needed to develop student biliteracy in the classroom. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected by administering a version of the *Beliefs About Language Survey* (Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2011) and five semi-structured interviews. Using a mixed-methods approach, I explored the perceptions of explored the language ideologies of 172 Grade 3 teachers at one of the Educational Service Centers in Texas.

The results of this study revealed the prevalence of four different language ideologies. The four ideologies were: (a) Americans Should Value Multilingualism; (b) Using English Language Ensures Success in the United States; (c) Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict; and (d) Language Use is Situational. The results suggested that most of the participants agreed with the ideological statement Americans Should Value Multilingualism, and somewhat disagreed to Using English Language

Ensures Success in the United States. However, when studying teachers' responses to interview questions, my analysis revealed that the enacted practices were more aligned with subtractive bilingual viewpoints. The results of this study add to research regarding teachers' ideologies in elementary classrooms and explore perceived structures of support needed to foster biliteracy development.

KEY WORDS: Biliteracy, Language ideologies, Teachers' perceptions, English learners

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way. Dr. Hickman, as our Deputy Superintendent, always checked on my progress and even helped me with leveraging access to other school districts. These two leaders instilled in our department a sense of family that permeates throughout every Instructional Specialist and Executive Director. Everyone who knew about my studies was always very supportive and encouraging, thank you to all.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Language is more than a means to exchange ideas and knowledge among people; "it is the most salient way we have of establishing and advertising our social identities" (Lippi-Green, 2012, p. 3). According to Gee (2015), each identity individuals assume brings its "*Discourse"* as the context in which the group expects this specific identity to speak and interact with other members of the group (p. 4). Discourses include the ideas of what should be accepted by a group, including specific language use that creates a form of ideology. Therefore, "language is inextricably bound up with ideology and cannot be analyzed or understood apart from it" (Gee, 2015, p. 5). De Korne (2012) asserted that language ideologies impact one's perceptions of what language should be, how it should be used and by whom, and consequently, how it can be learned. Furthermore, language ideologies can have significant effects at a macro level, as with international policies, and at a micro level, such as in personal interactions. These effects also include what it means to be bilingual and who is considered to be bilingual in a society.

Teachers have their own ideologies about language and language learning that can affect how they teach and interact with students. Moreover, in school settings language often is considered "a means and an end" (De Korne, 2012, p. 479). This dichotomous nature of language in schools is manifested in the different modalities of languages people use when studying and in the formality with which language is perceived as an object of learning. This duality in the function of language in schools also highlights the relevant role that language plays at the center of teaching and learning (Bunch, 2013). In

monolingual or bilingual education settings, language ideologies can impact and be impacted by the social value of a particular language. These effects might include a change in the perceived status of that language and even in a change in the classroom participation practices (De Korne, 2012). Researchers like Fielding (2016) posited that teachers' perceptions are important because classrooms are the main places where students negotiate their identities as bilingual persons. The purpose of this study was to explore elementary teachers' language ideologies and perceptions of biliteracy and their understanding of the types of support teachers need to develop student biliteracy in the classroom.

Several scholars have emphasized the value of knowing more than one language in today's globally interconnected world (e.g., Anghel, Cabrales, & Carro, 2016; Christoffels, de Haan, Steenbergen, van den Wildenberg, & Colzato, 2015; Pop & Sim, 2013). Other researchers have identified the benefits of increased executive function for bilingual students, as well as academic and linguistic gains (Proctor & Silverman, 2011). Nevertheless, the numerous potential advantages of bilingual education can only be achieved when all stakeholders have a shared understanding of (a) what language ideologies stakeholders hold, (b) what biliteracy is, and (c) what structures should be in place to promote and support biliteracy development in public-school settings. An exploration of how better to achieve a greater understanding of language ideologies and biliteracy among U.S. educators was at the center of this study.

Statement of the Problem

Bunch (2013) and Vygotsky (1986) among other scholars underscored the role that language has in teaching and learning. As mentioned earlier, some scholars have

stressed that language is not only to be learned but also the way to learn. Under the accountability era established in the United States by the No Child Left Behind Act (Cummins, 2009), a new series of academic standards that seek to promote students' engagement in producing language and literacy beyond the basic skills has become common practice (Bunch, 2013). These new standards combined with the growing projections of second generation of students from Hispanic backgrounds enrolled in the U.S. public schools lead to projections that English Learners will be expected to demonstrate higher levels of literacy in English, while still trying to sustain their linguistic and cultural roots as they develop biliteracy (Abdi, 2011). However, teachers have agency in the way they implement curricula and language policies (Henderson & Palmer, 2015; Johnson, 2010; Palmer, 2011). Moreover, teachers have a duty to "balance the pressures of accountability with what they believe to be best for their students'" (Palmer & Snodgrass Rangel, 2011, p. 619). Thanks to the multifaceted nature of the teaching profession, researchers working on teachers' agency highlighted the important role that teachers' perceptions and beliefs have in their practices (Henderson & Palmer, 2015; Palmer, 2011).

When Freeman and Freeman (2001) inquired as to what influences the way teachers teach, they discovered students themselves had an essential impact on teachers' practices. Teachers respond and react to their students' needs based on reflections about successful teaching practices, as well as teacher's personal views of students and, consequently, of learning (Freeman & Freeman, 2001). Teachers are the main models and provide the main venues for students to interact with language (Fielding & Harbon, 2013), and therefore "model the identity of the language community" (Fielding, 2016, p.

156). Furthermore, teachers' perceptions about learning influences language use and expectations of interactions in the classroom (De Korne, 2012; Freeman & Freeman, 2001).

In the United States some language ideologies highlight the value of the English language, while equating fluency in other languages as problematic. These perceptions, according to Gallo, Link, Allard, Wortham, and Mortimer (2014), along with who bilingual students are, their skills, and their role as members of the school community, influence their academic trajectories, including assigning the responsibility to schools and to teachers for *correcting* students' bilingualism. Bilingualism becomes an issue to be resolved rather than a valued characteristic. Because teacher practices are consistent with their beliefs about language, learning, and teaching (Freeman & Freeman, 2001), it is imperative that school leaders and teachers acquire a better understanding of teachers' language ideologies and their perceived supports needed to foster biliteracy development in the classroom.

Purpose of the Study

Hattie (2012) concluded one of the greatest indicators of excellence in education is that "teachers are the most powerful influence in learning" (p. 22). As stated previously, teachers' perceptions and beliefs have a crucial role in their enacted instructional practices (Henderson & Palmer, 2015; Palmer, 2011). Furthermore, teachers' ideologies affect their decision-making process when it comes to negotiate and implement language policy in their classrooms (Henderson & Palmer, 2015). Thus, the purpose of this descriptive study was to explore elementary teachers' language ideologies and perceptions of biliteracy and their understanding of the types of support needed to

develop student biliteracy in the classroom. More specifically, using a mixed methods approach, I explored the language ideologies and perceptions of Grade 3 teachers working in some of the 48 districts served by a select educational service center in southeast Texas, with regards to how to foster biliteracy development. Quantitative data consisted of participants' elicited language ideologies and demographic information, and qualitative data comprised of responses to a follow up semi-structured interview with five survey respondents.

Research Questions

Teachers implement practices aligned with their beliefs (Freeman & Freeman, 2001). With the goal to expand conversations regarding elementary teachers' language ideologies and perceptions about the supports needed to promote biliteracy in the classroom, I addressed in this study the following research questions: (a) What are select Texas elementary teachers' language ideologies?; and (b) What are select Texas elementary teachers' perceptions of biliteracy and what is needed to promote biliteracy development?

Significance of the Study

Although several researchers support the idea that bilingualism has a positive effect on the intellectual development of children (Fitts & Weisman, 2010; Hamayan, Genesee, & Cloud, 2013; Proctor & Silverman, 2011), bilingual education in the United States has been politically influenced. As a result of the political impact, programs that support English Learners are shaped by the ideologies that underlie federal and state policy. These policies may reflect additive or subtractive views of bilingualism depending on the model of bilingual education adopted (Lambert, 1975). Additionally,

accountability policies can have negative consequences on the biliteracy development of English Learners. Among the adverse effects reported are the limited language support provided as students advance in reading in their second language (Soto Huerta, 2010), as well as a greater emphasis on state testing preparation with a resulting neglect of considerations regarding the bilingual development of students (Palmer & Snodgrass Rangel, 2011).

However, the vital element in policy implementation is what happens when practitioners must make sense of the policy as part of their daily work (Palmer & Snodgrass Rangel, 2011). Moreover, as reported by Fitzsimmons-Doolan, Palmer, and Henderson (2015) and Johnson (2010), a growing number of researchers looked at the role of teachers' language ideologies and their implementation of language policies. Educators enact and adapt policy mandates through the instructional practices. For example, under the restrictive nature of No Child Left Behind Act on bilingual education that focused on English proficiency, educators interpreted and appropriated policy by opening spaces for bilingual instruction and development in their classrooms (Johnson, 2010).

Furthermore, teachers' approaches to new policy messages are "with the best interest of their particular students at heart" (Palmer & Snodgrass Rangel, 2011, p. 637). Teachers of bilingual students find ways to incorporate instructional practices they know will promote students' growth, even when those practices are not aligned with what local guidelines are in terms of testing preparation and narrowing of the curriculum. The significance of this study consists in adding to the body of research regarding teachers' language ideologies, as well as exploring perceived structures of support needed to foster

biliteracy development. Because teacher practices are consistent with their beliefs about language, learning, and teaching (Freeman & Freeman, 2001), it is imperative that school leaders and teachers acquire a better understanding of teachers' language ideologies and their perceived supports needed to foster biliteracy development in the classroom.

Conceptual Framework

This study was based on a social and cultural approach to language and literacy that pertains to the New Literacy Studies (Gee, 2015). More specifically, I used the concept of *cultural models* or *figured worlds*. Gee (2015) conceptualized cultural models as the simplified frameworks people use to understand the world around them. Moreover, Gee used the term figured worlds coined by Holland, Lachicotte, Skinner, and Cain (1998) as the "images, pictures, or storylines, something like simulations in the head of what is *typical* in the world of our experience" (p. 114) that are constantly changing. However, it is important to note that these frameworks, although mental in essence, also manifest in the real world and are shared by people.

Part of teachers' cultural models are their beliefs, which are framed by their language ideologies (de Jong, 2013; Karathanos, 2009). Those ideologies are influenced by teachers' notions of language as an asset or as an issue, or additive and subtractive views of bilingualism (Lambert, 1975). Discussions about the personal importance placed on biliteracy are often contextualized in practice by language planning and policy (Ricento & Hornberger, 1996). Consequently, teachers' actual area of influence depends on their agency (Palmer & Martínez, 2016).

Cultural models and figured worlds have "deep implications for teaching language and literacy to people new to a culture and to non-mainstream students who

wish to master the *standard*, *dominant* cultural models in the society" (Gee, 2015, p. 126). Because language is embedded in the figured worlds that organize the meanings of words, language learning requires understanding the cultural models of the target language. Thus, teachers of bilingual students have an important role in bridging the often times conflicted figured worlds between students' home cultural models and those of the mainstream culture (Gee, 2015).

Definition of Terms

For this study, it is important to define the concept of *biliteracy*. This construct is inherently related to literacy. The most recent research has expanded literacy's definition from only reading and writing skills to include being able to participate in social interactions around the written word (Cross, 2011; Proctor & Silverman, 2011). Consequently, *biliteracy* is the ability to access reading and writing skills to participate in conversations about the written word in social interactions in two or more languages (Hornberger, 1989). For this study, biliteracy and bilingualism were considered only in instructional settings where the two languages present were English and Spanish.

Because the focus of this study was the perceptions that select Texas Grade 3 teachers have about language and biliteracy development, another term needing clarification is English Learner. The Texas Administrative Code defines *English Learner* as "[A] student who is in the process of acquiring English and has another language as the primary language" (Texas Administrative Code, 2018, §89.1203(7)). The National Academy of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine (2017) defines EL in a more comprehensive way:

> The term English Learner, when used with respect to an individual, means an individual—(A) who is aged 3 through 21; (B) who is enrolled or preparing to enroll in an elementary school or secondary school; (C)(i) who was not born in the United States or whose native language is a language other than English; (ii)(I) who is a Native American or Alaska Native, or a native resident of the outlying areas; and (II) who comes from an environment where a language other than English has had a significant impact on the individual's level of English language proficiency; or (iii) who is migratory, whose native language is a language other than English, and who comes from an environment where a language other than English is dominant; and (D) whose difficulties in speaking, reading, writing, or understanding the English language may be sufficient to deny the individual—(i) the ability to meet the challenging State academic standards; (ii) the ability to successfully achieve in classrooms where the language of instruction is English; or (iii) the opportunity to participate fully in society. (p. 17)

This definition broadens the concept of English Learner to include the diversity and complexity of the construct of English Learner.

For the context of this study, another concept that deserves clarification is that of Education Service Centers (ESCs). The state of Texas created these entities to serve as consultants and provide staff development and technical assistance to local schools and school districts. Texas is divided into 20 different areas or regions (Region 4 Education Service Center, 2017).

Delimitations

The purposive sample of this study was limited to certified teachers who at the time of the study were working in core subject classrooms at the elementary level. Additionally, only Grade 3 teachers working in the Region 4 area constructed the sample frame. Other stakeholders involved in the decision-making process regarding instruction for English Learners were not included in the scope of this study.

Limitations

In addition to the threats to trustworthiness, other limitations in the design were related to the nature of the instrument. Low response rates were a limitation of having a questionnaire delivered electronically. Another limitation was the lack of thoroughness of participant responses to the interview questions. Additionally, although I used sponsors (i.e., Bilingual Directors) to provide access and an extra layer of confidentiality to participants, the sponsors' willingness to participate and assist in the distribution of surveys was in most cases a significant limitation. Moreover, even though I attempted to communicate with the sponsors in multiple opportunities to address this limitation, in the majority of the participating school districts, the access to Grade 3 teachers' electronic addresses were obtained by open record requests. This approach meant no mediation was possible between me as the researcher and the participants to assist with increasing response rates. However, because the sampling included participants representing 33.3% of the school districts served by the Region 4 Educational Service Center in the metropolitan area of Houston, the study results can benefit from what Stake (1997) called a naturalistic generalization.

Assumptions

The primary underlying assumption in this study was the effect that teachers' beliefs and ideologies have on their instructional practices. However, a vast body of research supports this correlation (Bunch, 2013; Coady, Harper, & de Jong, 2011; De Korne, 2012; Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2014; Freeman & Freeman, 2001). Another critical assumption when using a questionnaire is that participants will be honest and sincere in their responses. To address this issue, I ensured participants' anonymity and confidentiality throughout the process of data collection. Additionally, I completed a pilot with the final version of the instrument to determine the effectiveness of the questions in prompting accurate responses.

Organization of the Study

The organization of this report is as follows. Chapter I introduces the problem of the study, its importance, and its purpose. Chapter II provides a synthesis of prior research relevant to the development and support of biliteracy. Chapter III contains the design of the study, including the researcher's theoretical framework, the selection of potential participants, the evolution of the data collection instrument, and the issues with legitimation for the study. Chapter IV includes a general description of the demographic features of participants and the types of bilingual programs offered in teachers' schools. Also included are the findings from the factor analysis, the descriptive statistics from the analysis of questionnaire responses used to determine participants' language ideologies, and the categories that emerged as a result of two cylces of coding for the qualitative data collected with the follow-up interviews. Finally, Chapter V offers a discussion of the findings, recommendations, and implications for practice and future research.

Summary

I have included in this chapter background information to frame the problem this study addressed. I reviewed a theoretical framework of figured worlds or cultural models rooted in the New Literacy Studies that support my approach to the exploration of teachers' language ideologies and perceptions about biliteracy. I also described the purpose and the importance of this research. Finally, I included a description of the limitations, delimiations, and basic assumptions of the study, along with a brief definition of terms used throughout this research.

CHAPTER II

Review of Literature

Much of what we do with language is creating and enacting different types of people depending on the circumstances and the person with whom we interact (Gee, 2015). Consequently, teachers' own behaviors and language use reflect their way of being in the world and are part of their social identities. It is in the space between social identities and personal ways of being that education and many other human interactions take place. Moreover, it is in this space that I organized this literature review (see Figure 2.1) to assist me in the exploration of elementary teachers' constructs of biliteracy and its importance, which will be at the center of this study.

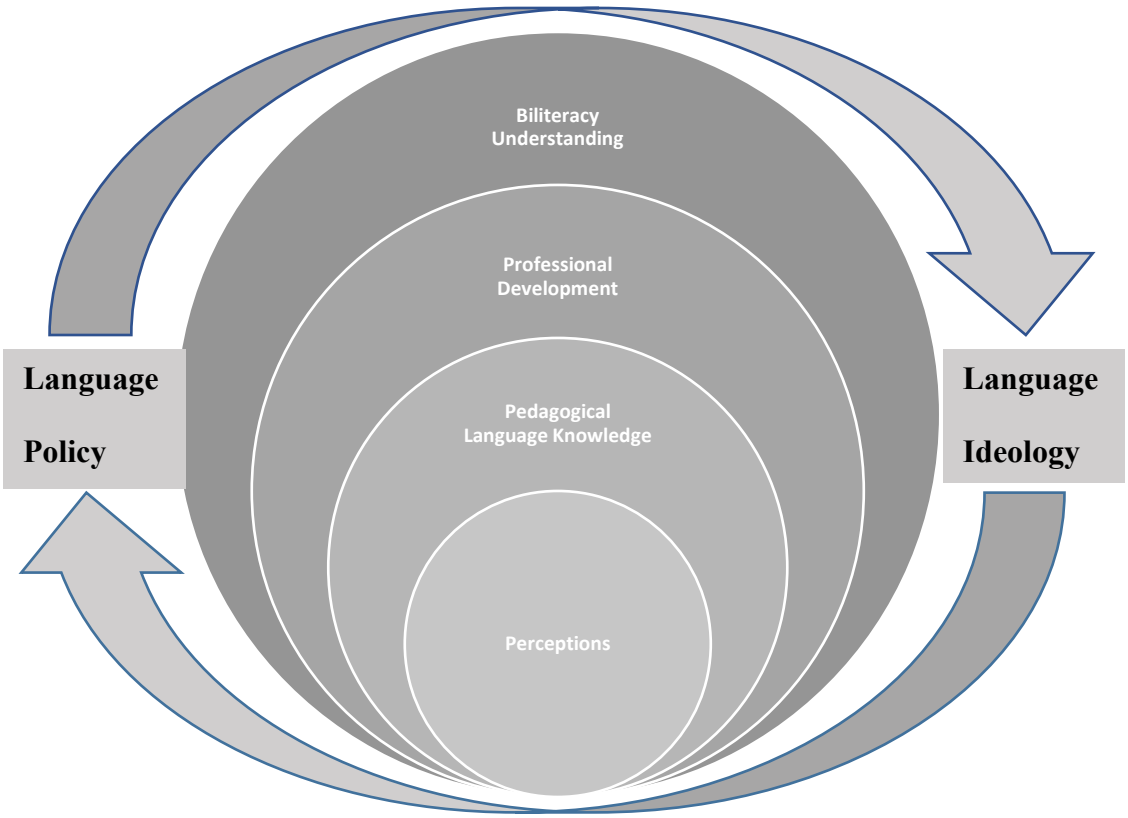

Figure 1. Literature review components affecting teachers' perceptions about biliteracy. Author created.

At the center of the figure and under the effect of language ideologies and language practices are the teacher's perceptions—the focus of this study. However, those perceptions are not only informed by the peripheral elements. Teachers' actions are affected by their pedagogical language knowledge and their professional development. This literature review starts with the surrounding elements of Figure 1 and continues inward to consider some of the teachers' sources of experience, knowledge, and their practices. The literature review will conclude with pedagogical content knowledge because the purpose of this study elaborated on the most inner portion of the figure, which is the teachers' perceptions.

Language Ideologies

Woolard (1998) defined language ideologies as "representations, whether explicit or implicit, that construe the intersection of language and human beings in a social world" (p. 3). Moreover, Woolard pointed out that language ideologies go beyond language and include the connections that language has with identity, aesthetics, and morality, highlighting not only the ideas of language use but also the notion of socialization and schooling. The issue of ideologies in the school is what I address in this section of the literature review. I divided the researchers into those who studied (a) teachers' language ideologies, (b) students' language ideologies, and (c) both students' and teachers' language ideologies. Additionally, I included a couple of instances in which researchers studied emerging language ideologies in other contexts.

Teachers' language ideologies. Fielding (2016) was one of the researchers who explored teachers' perceptions of their relationships with co-teachers and pedagogies and the effects of their perceptions on students' identification with language. As part of a

larger study on identity development of bilingual students in a French-English bilingual program in Australia, Fielding (2016) conducted a series of classroom observations over a six-month period, as well as individual semi-structured interviews with four teachers. Among the findings reported, Fielding highlighted the importance of having similar pedagogical beliefs between partner teachers and the importance of classroom interaction to develop students' bilingual identities.

Teachers in Fielding's (2016) study reported that when they incorporated tasks and activities that included students' experiences with languages within a collaborative format, positive bilingual identity negotiations took place. According to Fielding, when teachers used this pedagogical approach, they demonstrated their investment in developing students' confidence in their bilingual skills. This investment was accompanied with an attitude that Fielding called *teacher as a learner,* which showed students how a teacher valued the language even when she did not speak it herself. The teacher as a learner empowered students to use their language skills in a meaningful way. Fielding concluded that the development of students' bilingual identity is a complex process that involves the school context, the relationships with peers and teachers, and their self-concepts about the languages in their lives. By exploring teachers' perceptions, Fielding identified how teachers facilitated socio-cultural connections and interactions and how teachers were invested in their students' bilingual identities while assisting students to develop a sense of belonging.

With the purpose of exploring the way bilingual teachers' discourses reflect or counteract the prevailing ideologies in transitional bilingual programs in Texas, Palmer (2011) conducted open-ended ethnographic interviews with 16 third- through fifth-grade

bilingual teachers at six schools. Additionally, Palmer completed classroom observations and interviews with two primary grade bilingual teachers. Palmer reported tension between the 16 bilingual teachers' expressed and enacted beliefs about language when talking about their students' transition to English instruction.

Furthermore, Palmer (2011) categorized three main features in teachers' discourses: likening proficiency in English with intelligence, associating the terms *ready* with English and *need* with Spanish, and suggesting students need to move on to English. These themes and their associated ideology of subtractive bilingualism affected teachers' decisions regarding literacy classroom instruction. Palmer also noted how teachers would engage in conversations about the importance of transitioning into English, leaving Spanish behind, while at the same time expressing their support and value of being bilingual.

Beliefs About Language Survey. I used the Beliefs About Language Survey (Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2011), an instrument grounded in theory and originally developed to explore the language ideologies embraced by a large sample of voters in Arizona. The survey was the result of a systematic literature review covering 10 years (1998 to 2008). Fitzsimmons-Doolan (2011) used the literature review to create a typology of ideological constructs related to education and language ideologies. The result of the literature reviewed was a survey with 62 items on a 6-point Likert scale with no neutral position. Fitzsimmons-Doolan piloted the instrument with 33 Arizona teachers. After applying statistical criteria (i.e., Cronbach's α coefficients) and qualitative criteria (i.e., participants' comments) to reduce the number of ideological propositions, the final version of the survey contains 31 items.

The Beliefs About Language survey was first used to explore language ideologies of 218 voters in Arizona (Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2011). The researcher reported eight different language ideologies. The prevalent ideology was named "monolingualism versus multilingualism" (p. 306). Later, Fitzsimmons-Doolan et al. (2015) identified eight language ideologies (see Chapter III) utilizing the same instrument when studying language ideologies of 323 educators and school administrators in Texas adopting a district-mandated dual language program in their school district. The researchers highlighted the need for more professional development about language development to promote alignment within the additive language ideologies embraced by dual-language programs.

Students' language ideologies. Dworin (2011) conducted a qualitative study with semi-structured interviews with five students who graduated from a Spanish-English dual language program after 13 years of participation. Dworin's main purpose was to identify the language and literacy practices of the former bilingual students, including the development of their cultural identities and the influence of language ideologies on their social networks. Dworin reported three main themes. First, all participants self-reported as being bilingual, using Spanish on a daily basis and being biliterate, although most of the former students did not read or write in Spanish regularly. Second, participants' social histories and identities influenced the value former students assigned to know Spanish. Finally, for native Spanish speaker students, the benefits of participating in a dual language program appeared to be fewer than for students whose first language was English.

Dworin (2011) identified two prominent ideologies that influenced participants' use of Spanish in their social networks. The first ideology was related to the view of Spanish as a functional language in which Spanish is used for specific types of communications with others like college language classmates. Dworin described the second ideology as cultural affinity. Under this view, participants reported seeking to include diverse Spanish speakers in their social networks.

An additional critical comment in Dworin's (2011) report is the observation that few Spanish speakers are participating in dual language programs beyond the elementary years. This observation is a critical issue Dworin signaled as a future topic for study. The author concluded that the dual language program of the study appears to achieve its goals of biliteracy and bilingualism. However, Dworin also underscored the role that emerging language ideologies of former bilingual students should be looked in combination with other social and cultural dynamics to understand more thoroughly the effects of K-12 dual language programs.

Granados (2017) explored the language and literacy ideologies of former dual language students in their adulthood, with the purpose of informing how language and biliteracy practices are embedded and valued in social contexts years after finishing school. The 52 participants in Granados' research attended a dual language immersion program during their elementary years. For the study, Granados used online discussion boards and two focus groups, in addition to inviting three different participants to more in-depth interviews about their lives and language and literacy practices as graduates. The three participants were selected based on their backgrounds; one of them came from

a bilingual/bicultural household, one participant came from an English-speaking home, and the third person had a Hispanic origin.

Granados (2017) reported 76.9% of the participants believed their bilingualism and biliteracy were at the same level or higher than when they were elementary students; 17.3% expressed having some language skills loss, and 5.8% believed they were less biliterate but more bilingual now than in elementary school. Additionally, regardless of the opportunities to use Spanish in their lives, participants expressed that English had a prevalence in their daily lives. Regarding schooling after graduation, Granados (2017) suggested that participating in the dual language program worked "as an equalizer for postsecondary education" (p. 233). Granados reported that 100% of participating Black students, 88% of participating Hispanic students, and 83% of participating White students obtained an associate's degree or higher. A final finding in Granados' (2017) study was that graduate dual language students "confirmed increased sensitivity to issues of diversity and a greater appreciation for people of diverse cultures and backgrounds" (p. 232).

Students' and teachers' language ideologies. Among the researchers whose focus was on students' and teachers' language ideologies, De Korne (2012) conducted a mixed methods case study to analyze a multilingual and multidisciplinary project in a high school in Luxembourg. De Korne's purpose was to assess students' and facilitators' perceptions about the strengths and weaknesses of this type of project. Despite the predominant multilingual educational setting in Luxembourg where education is offered in three languages (i.e., Luxembourgish, French, and German), De Korne (2012) concluded that students had "linguistic competencies that are not captured by the

traditional ‘three monolinguals' model" (p. 494). These linguistic skills were helpful in the completion of a practical, multidisciplinary, and multilingual project, and highlighted the need to offer adequate support in different languages and content areas involved in the project. Among the essential skills demonstrated by both students and facilitators, De Korne pointed to synthesizing across languages and extensive communicative language use. Although the project improved English competence in pupils, students participating reported that the level of improvement in their language skills was similar to that measured by other types of assessments.

Another international researcher whose focus was on teachers’ and students’ ideologies was Abdi (2011). In her ethnographic study conducted in Canada, Abdi sought to assess how their teachers and classmates identified 21 Spanish heritage speakers of the same Spanish class according to their prior knowledge of Spanish, cultural affiliations, age, social groupings, and oral and written fluency. Additionally, Abdi assessed how the Spanish heritage speakers identified themselves. After six months of collecting data through questionnaires, classroom observations, and interviews, Abdi (2011) reported finding a shared ideology among the teacher and students. This ideology equated oral proficiency with Spanish speaking Hispanic background. With the prevalence of this belief, some students were viewed as non-Hispanic because of their reluctance to participate in oral discussions in class despite their ethnicity and the fact that they were Spanish heritage speakers. Abdi indicated the importance of considering the role that peers’ perceptions exert on teen-aged students, mainly when speaking in another language.

In the United States, Gallo et al. (2014) completed a six-year comparative ethnographic study in an area with a brief history of Mexican immigration. The purpose of Gallo et al.'s study was to determine the language ideologies of students and teachers in two different school settings, an elementary school, and a high school. Gallo et al. identified four types of ideologies: (a) ideologies of English-only schooling, prevalent in the high school setting; (b) ideologies of students' bilingualism, the language ideology embraced by students; (c) ideologies of students' *teachability*; and (c) ideologies of learning English.

Gallo et al. (2014) underscored that teachers who embraced the ideology of English-only schooling associated English as a commodity that students either brought to school or not. This ideology excluded students' additional language resources and discontinued students' previous efforts in improving their English proficiency. This ideology was more evident in teachers at the high school level where students' lack of English proficiency was perceived as a problem. This position contrasted with teachers' ideology at the elementary campus where they perceived students as progressing in their English acquisition. However, this ideology also reflected a tendency to discount Spanish proficiency as an asset, resulting in English-medium schooling at the elementary level.

Regarding the ideology of students' bilingualism, Gallo et al. (2014) noted that elementary students identified English as the language to be used at school and Spanish as the language to be used at home. Nevertheless, bilingual elementary students discussed academic assignments, which were written and assessed in English, in Spanish among themselves moving fluidly between both languages. Teachers in the elementary

campus viewed students of Mexican descent as “bilinguals-in-the-making” (Gallo, Link, Allard, Wortham, & Mortimer, 2014, p. 132), underscoring the importance of Spanish. However, the use of the two languages by elementary students was not seen as a positive practice by their teachers.

For high school students, the use of English among Spanish speakers was perceived negatively as a sign of arrogance. This perception aligned, according to Gallo et al. (2014) to another ideology high school students held. In this type of ideology, Spanish became a marker of solidarity. Gallo et al. concluded this ideology was the result of students' perception that their language and identities were not valued at the high school campus. Gallo et al. observed that mainstream teachers' perception of students' English proficiency was an all or nothing endeavor and resulted in no interactions with bilingual students due to a perceived insurmountable language barrier. The researchers characterized this behavior as proper of an ideology in which language was a proxy of student's capability to receive instruction.

The fourth ideology reported by Gallo et al. (2014) was related to learning English. In the case of the elementary teachers in the study, the students' use of simplified speech and first language resources was unremarkable, and teachers expressed a belief that their students were making progress in their English acquisition. However, this belief was not the case for high school teachers who described the bilingual parents' and student's efforts to communicate in English as "Tarzan English" (Gallo et al., 2014, p. 135). This phrase was used by some participants during the interview to refer to the exaggerated mimic and expressions like *Me no speak English* at the beginning of the school year. Bilingual students were aware of this ideology and some of them adopted a

persona with an exaggerated limited English language proficiency to react to the teacher's ideology.

Henderson and Palmer (2015) drew on ethnographic studies to explore the verbal interactions between teachers and students in the two classrooms of a two-way dual language third-grade program in Texas. The purpose of the study was to determine the arbitrating conditions of language use in the classrooms, as teachers implemented a top-down mandated dual-language program for the first time. Henderson and Palmer identified the program model itself, the pressure of standardized testing, the teachers' ideologies, and the students' agency as the central mediators of the language practices in the classrooms.

Furthermore, the interaction of these mediators manifested differently in each classroom and implied a misalignment between expressed and enacted ideologies (Henderson & Palmer, 2015). For instance, the Spanish teacher voiced her opposition to code-switching practices regardless of her practices. This enacted ideology, according to Henderson and Palmer (2015), sent a stronger message than the verbal repudiation of code-switching and resulted in her students utilizing code-switching in the Spanish classroom. In contrast, the English teacher enacted an English-only ideology that impacted students' language practices and included interaction with the teacher.

The disconnect between expressed and embodied ideologies during the first year of implementation of the dual language model led Henderson and Palmer (2015) to conclude that teachers had a role as language policy makers. Students responded to this role by positioning themselves as monolingual or bilingual depending on the interlocutor and the classroom in which they were assigned. Additionally, students' agency meant

they found ways to manipulate the rules and identified manners to use both languages in a more fluid way than expected by the nature of the model adopted.

With the goal of exploring how students were placed either in a one-way or a two-way dual language program in an elementary campus and how the placement influenced teachers' discourses about students when they entered third grade, Palmer and Henderson (2016) conducted a study observing 17 teacher planning meetings. Using discourse analysis and interactional sociolinguistics, Palmer and Henderson concluded that initial placement decisions appeared to have a significant effect on the ways by which their teachers and principal positioned third-grade students. During planning conversations, teachers identified students who participated in the one-way dual program as lower and weaker than their counterparts participating in the two-way dual program.

Additionally, Palmer and Henderson (2016) reported that most of the resulting perceptions regarding students' abilities were based on students' performance in district benchmark practice tests and the standardized state test. This situation highlighted the anxiety created by the state testing practices on teachers. Palmer and Henderson concluded that the fact that the two-way dual language program was implemented as a strand between the school and that the adoption of the plan was completed as a top-down mandate with no possibility to opt out, were the two main factors in the resulting tracking of the students. An important limitation reported by Palmer and Henderson was the lack of classroom observations that would allow seeing the connection between teachers' discourses and their instructional practices.

Language Policy

Johnson (2012) completed a critical discourse analysis of four key U.S. federal mandates. Johnson's purpose was to explore how language management (specific efforts to influence practices) tried to intervene with particular policy mandates and the ideologies implied in those policies. Johnson started with the Bilingual Education Act of 1968 and compared the ideologies of the policy mandates with the languages approaches of the European Union.

Johnson (2012) concluded that the rhetorical position of the Bilingual Education Act of 1968 recognized and promoted bilingualism and multiculturalism as a national interest, albeit with limited application. The findings that led to policy contained support for bilingualism, underscoring the importance of multilingual communication skills in a more interconnected world. However, Johnson noted that the actual implementation of bilingual education meant for students with different linguistic backgrounds the path to acquisition of English fluency.

The next policy that Johnson (2012) analyzed was the No Child Left Behind of 2002. Johnson mentioned how this policy contained no reference to bilingual education but instead made explicit emphasis on rapid acquisition of English. Johnson highlighted how by not mentioning bilingual/multilingual education as its focus, this policy enforced a language management approach rooted in a language ideology favorable to English.

One of the initiatives that emerged after the attacks of September 2001 was the National Language Policy Summit in 2005. According to Johnson (2012), this summit highlighted the need for fluency in Chinese language programs to graduate students with cultural competency. In 2006, then President Bush proposed the National Security

Language Initiative, whose primary goal was to increase the number of Americans who could communicate in Arabic, Chinese, Farsi, Hindi, Russian, and other critical need languages. Johnson posited that this initiative prioritized foreign languages spoken in areas that represented a threat to the United States. Such an approach reflected a limited view of the role of language in broadening cultural understanding and contrasted with the lack of mention of languages different than English in the legislation related to education that accompanied the several reauthorizations of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

By the time that Johnson (2012) conducted his study, the current Every Student Success Act (ESSA) was in a proposal stage. However, Johnson pointed out that although the proposal included possible grants for states that promoted dual language programs, transitional bilingual education, newcomers' programs, and sheltered instruction in English, the underlying ideology in this federal mandate was that of language as a problem. The doctrine was that as a nation, educators in the United States needed to find solutions for students who did not speak English.

This positioning of bilingualism contrasted with the mission statement for language on the European Commission website that promotes multilingualism and multiculturalism as language management. Johnson (2012) posited that the underlying ideology in the European Union is that multilingualism is the path to success at every level, whereas in the United States the thinking is the opposite, positioning languages different from English as not necessary with except for national security issues. This rhetoric, Johnson added, perpetuated the disconnect between public education policies and the needs of the governmental and private institutions. This situation contrasted with

the European Union ideology of multilingualism and multiculturalism as the standard and its consequent language management implemented through language education policy.

Nero (2014) conducted a critical ethnographic study to explore the challenges of developing and implementing language education policy in Jamaica, in the context of three different schools. Nero reported the complexity of the situation where the majority of the society utilizes a vernacular form of English, and standard English is the official language and the medium of instruction. After nine months of classroom observations, interviews with teachers, and collecting curriculum documents, Nero reported three main findings.

The first finding was that despite teachers' initial unawareness of the language policy they reached a consensus regarding the principle stated in the document about the bilingualism of Jamaica and the need to emphasize standard English as the language of schooling. Additionally, Nero (2014) concluded after his observations that one of the reasons for teachers' different opinions regarding standard English and the Jamaican Creole had roots in the level and quality of language training that teachers received. This inadequate training translated into inconsistencies in practices and outcomes in standard English language development for students.

Finally, Nero (2014) reported that teachers' perceptions about students' language skills were connected to socioeconomic status, oral language development, and type of school. These perceptions influenced the teaching practices of participants. Nero noted that although teachers emphasized in their responses to interviews their commitment to using standard English in the classroom, in practice they switched from standard English to Jamaican English. According to Nero, teachers utilized Jamaican English when

dealing with the affective domain in the school, and teachers utilized standard English when dealing with the learning domain of language structure.

In his conclusion, Nero (2014) stated that "teachers' attitudes and practices created implicit policies in the three schools" (p. 238). The rules about language use in the classroom had their origin in a teacher's ambivalence towards the two languages, Jamaican English and standard English. Furthermore, Nero observed how teachers promulgated a standard English- only policy in the classroom, while they switched to Jamaican English to connect with their students. Another critical factor in the language education policy studied by Nero is the role of high-stakes testing. The national test became the de facto language education policy that drove the public discourse in education in Jamaica. Teachers in this study used their agency and practices to minimize students' use of Jamaican English in the classroom and, at the same time, to help students increase their use of standard English. However, these teachers' agency implied using and restricting their use of Jamaican English.

A Multifaceted Understanding of Biliteracy

Expanding the notion of what constitutes biliteracy, Cross (2011) studied teachers' understanding of literacy instruction for students who were in their earlier stages of English as a Second Language (ESL). Refer to Table 1 for a description of program options for bilingual students. The participants in Cross' study were three educators with more than 10 years of experience working as ESL teachers in different school settings in Australia.

Table 1

Instructional Program Options for Bilingual Students

Program	Description	Grade Span
English-Only	Instruction in English for all subject areas without linguistic support.	K-12
English as a Second Language (ESL)	A pullout class for English Language development. All subject areas are taught in English	K-12
Bilingual Late Transition	Instruction initially provided mainly in the first language. English instruction is gradually introduced in the content areas with linguistic support.	K-3 or K-4
Bilingual Maintenance	Instruction is provided in the students' first language, with and ESL instructional block.	K-5
Dual Language One Way	Minority language students receive 50% of their instruction in their first language and 50% in English with linguistic support.	K-12
Dual Language Two Way	Minority language students and English-speaking students are in the same classroom. Together they receive 50% of their instruction in the minority language and 50% of their instruction in English. All students receive linguistic support.	K-12

Cross (2011) conducted a series of stimulated-recall procedures with each participant after videotaping two of their lessons. Three themes about what literacy instruction for ESL students should consider arose from the reflections. First, ESL students need an understanding of the language involved in everyday practices in the mainstream classroom. This theme was called *literacy for learning*. Second, ESL students need to acquire the oral language that enables them to participate in discussions about texts, which Cross called *language for literacy*. Finally, ESL students need to

develop the language skills to articulate higher-order thinking. This theme was called *language as literacy*. The researcher concluded these themes urged revisiting the predominant approach of literacy instruction in English, especially when considering literacy instruction to be broader than just the set of skills required to encode and decode texts.

Measuring the trajectory of biliteracy. A salient theme in the literature regarding biliteracy development is how to measure it and what factors need to be included in the measurement. Two main foci were identified in this literature review: (a) the focus on English development and (b) the focus on biliteracy development.

Focus on English literacy development. Researchers like Proctor and Silverman (2011) and Soto Huerta (2010) emphasized how biliteracy manifests in levels of attainment in English literacy. Soto Huerta (2010) studied the factors predicting success when reading in the second language for 45 students in fourth grade during the spring of 2008. Soto Huerta conducted hierarchical multiple regression equations to determine the effect of five independent variables on the success in reading in a second language as measured by the percentile rank of the Reading Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS). The five independent variables were years in U.S. schools, English proficiency levels, and the scores of three different Informal Reading Inventories (IRI). The participants received literacy instruction in English but learned to read in Spanish first. All participated in a bilingual program at some point, and at the time of the study were enrolled in six different schools from two separate districts in south-central Texas.

The researcher converted the TAKS scaled scores into percentile ranks to make comparisons between the English and the Spanish versions. All students were scored

with IRI on three expository passages at the fourth-grade level, two in English and one in Spanish. Soto Huerta (2010) and a team of four certified bilingual teachers scored the recordings of the IRIs on oral performance, comprehension with three implicit questions per passage, and retelling. Participants were allowed to use either English or Spanish to answer the comprehension questions and to complete the retelling part of the IRIs. The scores for all three components were combined for each IRI.

Soto Huerta (2010) determined the 34 participants who passed the TAKS Reading also had the highest mean scores in all IRIs. Of these 34 participants, 15 were classified as limited English speakers, and 19 were identified as fluent English speakers. Regardless of English proficiency or performance on TAKS Reading, the researcher noted that all 45 participants were challenged when reading expository passages in both English and Spanish. Soto Huerta suggested two possible explanations for this finding: (a) the lack of practice in academic reading in Spanish due to English literacy instruction, and (b) the lack of differentiated English literacy instruction to accommodate for the language proficiency of the participants. Soto Huerta suggested a need to study the influence of the type of bilingual or dual language program participation (see Table 1) on the success in reading in a second language for bilingual students.

For a second phase of the study Soto Huerta (2012), working with the same group of participants, conducted interviews and guided reading activities to which the bilingual students could respond in English or Spanish. For this part of the study, the researcher administered IRI with an expository passage written in English at a fourth-grade level. Participants were asked two explicit and three implicit comprehension questions about the passage. Then the researcher recorded individual guided reading activities in which

students were prompted to use their linguistic and cultural knowledge to support their understanding of the passage. These recordings were complemented with field notes.

The author noted the interpretation of unfamiliar vocabulary, the monitoring of comprehension, and the use of the two languages to obtain comprehension as the three themes that emerged from these guided reading activities. The main finding was that despite the problematic readability level of the passage for all the participants, the more successful readers displayed the more significant use of comprehension strategies drawn from the two language resources of English and Spanish (Soto Huerta, 2012). The author suggested the results of the assessments highlighted the need to integrate both students' languages systematically into the literacy instruction in Grade 4, primarily when working with texts written in English.

As part of a study on literacy development in Spanish-English bilingual and English monolingual students, Proctor and Silverman (2011) studied the potential association between the biliteracy of 118 bilingual students and their performance in their English awareness at the semantic, syntactic, and morphological levels. Participants in this study were students attending grades 2 to 4 in English-only schools during the 2009-2010 school year, with 43 of them identified as biliterate in English and Spanish. The researchers administered a series of assessments: two in English, one in October and the other in May; one in Spanish in January; and a yes or no survey on whether the students read in Spanish outside the school. The evaluation tools assessed expressive language vocabulary, decoding, reading skills, and awareness of morphology, syntaxis, and semantics in English. Among the findings were that biliterate students outperformed the

rest of the participants in the literacy measures of each language, even though all participants exhibited commensurate levels of English proficiency.

However, after further scrutiny, Proctor and Silverman (2011) concluded that English decoding skills predicted more closely students' performance on the different awareness indicators. Based on these results, the authors questioned if biliterate students partly applied their limited Spanish literacy skills on the English assessments, or if literate students in English applied some of their English decoding skills to the Spanish assessments. Either way, Proctor and Silverman suggested the need to establish different ways to measure bilingual students' performances in both languages with a unique tool that combined the results in one measure.

Focus on biliteracy development. Researchers in this category studied the effects of emerging literacy skills in two languages on the students' overall biliteracy attainment. Reyes (2006) explored the biliteracy development in young children of Mexican-American origin in Tucson, Arizona. The purpose of the study was to analyze the factors that influence four-year-old students' literacy development in both English and Spanish. This study took place during the first year of a three-year longitudinal study. Reyes collected data through observations of interactions at home and in the classroom, as well as informal conversations with the children and their parents. Participants, who were enrolled in a preschool, included two girls who were exposed to Spanish at home, and a boy who was exposed to a bilingual environment at home, but who grew up speaking mostly in English. The preschool classroom in which the participants were enrolled constituted an early transitional bilingual setting. Students in this classroom received most of the Spanish support during the fall semester of the school year, and then the

instruction moved to predominantly English during the spring semester. This change was in preparation for kindergarten in the same school, which was English-only.

Among the findings was the central role that social interactions between adults and young children play in the development of literacy in both languages for bilingual students. Additionally, Reyes (2006) posited that the learning at this age is bidirectional in the sense that their parents and peers influence children at the same time that the interaction with the young children influences the experiences of peers and parents. The author concluded that bilingual children used the linguistic tools available to them in their two languages as they made sense of their biliteracy knowledge. Reyes (2006) also suggested the need for further exploration of the effects of community and family experiences on the biliteracy development of students.

Other researchers have studied the influence of family members in the process of developing biliteracy in young students. Durán (2016) utilized ethnographic methods and qualitative analysis to conduct a one-year study with 21 students in a first grade English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom in a suburban area in Texas. All 21students in the class spoke Spanish at home, and their literacy instruction had been primarily in English. The researcher analyzed six focal students in the classroom who had different initial literacy experiences regarding language. Based on a unit of study in which students wrote for authentic purposes and authentic readers through the use of family message journals, Durán conducted conversations with the participants regarding their journal entries. Among the notable findings was that participants were able to adapt the language of their communication depending on the reader's linguistic preferences. Participants also composed messages in both English and Spanish despite not having

received formal instruction in Spanish. The researcher highlighted the importance of providing bilingual students with opportunities to talk about writing for authentic purposes and audiences to assist students with becoming strategic users of the language.

A different approach to measuring biliteracy development was highlighted by Proctor, August, Carlo, and Barr (2010). The researchers examined the relationship between English and Spanish reading, the rate of Spanish reading progress over time, and how socioeconomic status affected Spanish literacy development in 101 bilingual Latino and Latina students. Participants were enrolled in schools from the U.S. cities of El Paso, Boston, and Chicago. The students participated in one of three programs: Spanish-only, or maintenance program, English-Only, and bilingual (See Table 1). Transition into English instruction for the 34 students enrolled in a bilingual program occurred after the students achieved second-grade level proficiency in Spanish reading.

Proctor et al. (2010) conducted the study over a 4-year period and data were collected through a reading comprehension test, using the Woodcock Language Proficiency Battery-Revised. The Spanish reading data were collected at the end of second and fourth grade and at the beginning of third grade. Two additional unique data points were collected at the end of fifth grade, an English reading comprehension test, and a Spanish oral vocabulary test. Additionally, a questionnaire regarding socioeconomic status and language use was completed by parents of students' in fifth grade.

Proctor et al. (2010) posited the standard scores for reading comprehension in Spanish compared to the norm decreased over time for students who received bilingual and Spanish-only instruction. For students instructed in English-only, although the

Spanish reading performance grew over time, it showed this group of students was nonliterate in Spanish with more than two standard deviations below the norm. The researchers determined that for students who received Spanish and bilingual instruction, Spanish and English reading comprehension had a significant correlation.

Furthermore, the authors determined a nonsignificant adverse effect of socioeconomic status on Spanish reading comprehension. Based on the findings, the authors stressed the importance of formal Spanish instruction for bilingual students if they are to receive the long-term economic advantages of biliteracy and bilingualism. The authors also suggested that schools and society "must assume new cultural norms and practices if outcomes are to improve for Latino and Latina children" (Proctor, August, Carlo, & Barr, 2010, p. 91).

A body of research called the Literacy Squared project aligns with the view of biliteracy development rather than transition into English. The Literacy Squared project is rooted in a *holistic biliteracy* framework (Escamilla et al., 2014). This framework proposes to "understand students' abilities in both Spanish and English as a whole instead of viewing each language as a separate entity" (Sparrow, Butvilofsky, Escamilla, Hopewell, & Tolento, 2014, p. 26).

Among the research completed under this framework, Sparrow, Butvilofsky, Escamilla, Hopewell, and Tolento (2014) conducted a longitudinal study to analyze the relationship between reading and writing skills in English and Spanish for kindergarten to fifth-grade bilingual students participating in the Literacy Squared project in Salem, Oregon. The researchers studied 718 students across grade levels for three years. The students from 13 different schools in the same district were divided into four cohort

groups who started with Literacy Squared in the 2009-2010 school year, and "completed reading and writing data sets within each year" (Sparrow et al., 2014, p. 31). The authors collected yearly data from the informal reading assessments administered in both languages and from the scoring of writing responses to prompts in English and Spanish using the Literacy Squared rubric. Additionally, the researchers collected data from the Oregon State Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (OAKS) for Grade 3 through Grade 5 students.

Students in all cohorts demonstrated growth in reading and writing in both English and Spanish over the three years. Although mean scores for writing were higher in Spanish than in English, students showed greater gains in their English writing skills than in their Spanish ones. The authors concluded that "paired literacy instruction was not interfering with students' development in either language" (Sparrow et al., 2014, p. 35). Moreover, the authors underscored that students who received literacy instruction in both languages for the longest time had higher English scores than those with limited exposure.

Changing teachers' understanding of biliteracy. If bilingual instruction embraces the broader concept of bilingualism and biliteracy and the alternatives to assess it (Hornberger, 1989), bilingual teachers need to expand their understanding of how instructional and assessment practices will support bilingual students in their biliteracy trajectory. Soltero-González, Escamilla, and Hopewell (2012) studied the types of bilingual strategies that teachers noted in English and Spanish written samples. This study was part of a five-year longitudinal study with the Literacy Squared project. The

researchers analyzed the observations recorded by 36 bilingual teachers on a writing rubric developed by the Literacy Squared project.

The pool of written samples consisted of 108 pairs. Each pair had an English sample and a Spanish sample composed by the same student two weeks apart. The students were in first to fifth grade and received literacy instruction in both languages as part of the Literacy Squared project. The 36 bilingual teachers were randomly selected; 18 were English-dominant and 18 Spanish-dominant. All of the teachers had been trained in the use of the Literacy Squared writing rubric, which specified seven different bilingual strategies.

Soltero-González et al. (2012) used mixed methods to analyze the data collected and compared it with their observations of the written samples. Two of the main findings were when compared to researchers' observations, teachers under-identified syntactic and phonetic transfers between the first and the second language. Also, teachers' language background did not affect their perceptions of bilingual strategy use.

Furthermore, Soltero-González et al. (2012) noted that teachers ignored most of the bilingual strategies used at the sentence level, and observed that Spanish-dominant teachers appeared to have a better understanding of the nature of phonetics transfer than what the English-dominant teachers had. The authors stressed the need for further professional development to assist bilingual teachers in changing their perceptions about language transfer and its influence in the bilingual students' biliteracy trajectory. This kind of professional development would also support changes in the instruction and assessment of bilingual students' writing. These changes in instruction would enable

bilingual students to use the writing competencies in one language to develop the second language.

As part of the Literacy Squared longitudinal research study, Butvilofsky and Sparrow (2012) focused on identifying the problems faced by professional development providers when training teachers in the use of a rubric developed to assess bilingual students' writing skills in both English and Spanish. For this purpose, the authors studied 111 bilingual teachers, 87 of whom were part of the Literacy Squared program training on the quantitative component of the rubric. This training took place in the Spring of 2010 in two different locations, Colorado and Oregon. The data were compiled from the application of the rubric to pre- and post-training writing samples in English and Spanish, teacher questionnaires for demographic information, teacher reflection forms on the analysis of written samples, and researchers' field notes.

Among the important findings of Butvilosky and Sparrow (2012) were that some of the rating standards needed clarification and the raters' expectations fluctuated depending on their previous exposure to alternative rubrics for writing. Additionally, Butvilofsky and Sparrow noted teachers were applying English writing pattern standards to rate the Spanish writing samples, despite the difference in English and Spanish rhetoric. The authors recognized the importance of providing opportunities for teachers to assess what bilingual students can compose in both languages, as well as to develop instruments to assist them in the process.

Teachers Development

Another component in the construction of teachers' perceptions is their preparation, both during pre-service and in-service training. Several researchers

(Aquino-Sterling, 2016; Coady et al, 2011; Franco-Fuenmayor, Padrón, & Waxman, 2015; Lucero, 2015) have focused on teacher development in these diverse settings. A summary of their studies follows.

With the purpose of elucidating the effectiveness of a teacher preparation program in Florida, Coady, Harper, and de Jong (2011) completed a mixed methods study with 85 graduated teachers working with English Learners. For this purpose, Coady et al. (2011) applied a two-part survey. The first part of the instrument elicited demographic information and years of experience of the participants. The second part consisted of a series of statements designed to address five different domains related to knowledge and skills necessary to instruct English Learners effectively. These five domains were as follows: (a) social and cultural dimensions; (b) content instruction; (c) language and literacy development; (d) curriculum and classroom organization; and (e) assessment.

Coady et al. (2011) classified their main findings into teachers' preparedness, effectiveness, and the role of teachers' characteristics. The researchers reported teachers felt more prepared in the domain of curriculum and classroom organization; participants also reported feeling more effective in that area in addition to content instruction. Participants expressed feeling less prepared and effective in tapping on students' first language to facilitate instruction. However, graduates also reported feeling unprepared to establish partnerships with English Learners' family members, and less effective when addressing the linguistic demands their content had on English Learners. Another important finding of the study is that the teachers' characteristics associated with the most significant differences in self-reported answers were years of experience, graduation years, worksetting Title I status, and teacher proficiency in a language other than English.

Coady et al. (2011) posited that because of the reported high levels of efficacy and preparedness when working with English Learners in this particular teacher preparation program, the promising nature of an "infused model of preservice preparation in which explicit, ESOL-focused courses and field experiences are combined with additional coursework" (p. 236) was apparent.

With a focus on identifying the areas of professional development offered to teachers, and whether these areas differed for teachers of English Learners, Franco-Fuenmayor, Padrón, and Waxman (2015) completed a study with 21 elementary schools in the south-central part of the United States. The study included 225 bilingual and ESL teachers grades PreK to fifth grade, in a school district that offered Bilingual Maintenance, Dual Language One Way and Two Way, and ESL programs. Participants completed a survey to address their knowledge regarding instructional practices for English Learners, bilingual programs research, research-based instructional strategies, and second-language development. Additionally, two open-ended questions allowed participants to comment on personal experiences with professional development geared to support their program.

Based on participants' self-report, Franco-Fuenmayor et al. (2015) concluded that most of the professional development teachers received were focused on research-based instructional strategies and practices. However, these practices were not specific to address the academic and linguistic needs of English Learners. Although bilingual or ESL teachers demonstrated higher knowledge on research about language development, the qualitative data suggested teachers of English Learners were "not receiving adequate

PD to support the language programs in which they teach" (Franco-Fuenmayor et al., 2015, p. 347).

Lucero (2015) conducted classroom observations, semi-structured interviews, and document collections during a school year to explore the different manners first-grade dual language teachers draw on three types of resources to support the academic language development of English-Spanish bilingual students. Lucero reported three main findings. First, teachers had different kinds of access to personal and environmental resources. This different access sometimes meant that some teachers could not use some of the resources, and sometimes it meant that when provided with access to the same resource, its utilization by the teacher changed, and affected their instructional practices regarding academic vocabulary development in students' second language. Second, the three teachers who participated in the study interactively used multiple resources. Finally, Lucero identified some tensions between district-level and campus-level resources available to the teachers, what Lucero named environmental resources.

Lucero's (2015) findings highlighted the need for further research on pre-service training and on assessing the knowledge base needed by teachers of bilingual students. Additionally, Lucero determined that participants access and utilize the personal, environmental, and conventional resources available to them differently after receiving the same professional development session. This differential access, according to Lucero, had its roots in the assumption that all teachers had the same personal base knowledge. Lucero suggested that professional development needed to complement the beliefs, the knowledge, and the experiences teachers have if the training will have a positive effect on the instruction of bilingual students. The third finding in the study, the

tension between district-level and campus-level supports, prompted Lucero to underscore the need for providing consistent support for dual language teachers and programs.

Aquino-Sterling (2016) described an activity designed for developing and assessing pedagogical Spanish competencies in a bilingual teacher education course. Aquino-Sterling (2016) defined pedagogical Spanish competencies as "the language and literacy competencies bilingual teachers require for the effective work of teaching in Spanish across the curriculum in K–12 bilingual schools" (p. 51). These competencies include the content-area knowledge in Spanish and the communicative skills with students and other stakeholders in the community, what Aquino-Sterling (2016) called the *academic-pedagogical* and the *professional* discourse performances, respectively.

A total of 45 students participated in the course and completed the task designed by Aquino-Sterling (2016). Nevertheless, the report included only two exemplars, and Aquino-Sterling reported that 60% of participants were unable to organize the instructional task or to employ the appropriate key vocabulary and language functions as expected. However, Aquino-Sterling stated that students recognized being more aware of their language proficiency after the project and the course. Furthermore, Aquino-Sterling suggested the need for more research-based approaches for developing competencies in Spanish for specific purposes with pre-service teachers.

Pedagogical Knowledge

In his efforts to change the definition of teacher practices away from English Learners and toward the use of language for academic purposes, Galguera (2011) coined the term *pedagogical language knowledge*. This construct allowed Galguera to advocate for preparing teachers to connect pedagogy with language learning experiences. Bunch

(2013) expanded the explanation of pedagogical language knowledge to include “the language-related knowledge base necessary for mainstream teachers to create the instructional conditions necessary for ELs [English Leaners] to succeed” (p. 304). Furthermore, Bunch argued this type of knowledge need to be different from specific content knowledge about language development that bilingual and second language teachers have and from the pedagogical content knowledge mainstream teachers have in their subject area.

One of the studies addressing pedagogical language knowledge was conducted by Aalto and Tarnanen (2015) in Finland. In their research, Aalto and Tarnanen analyzed responses of 211 student teachers to a set of two texts written by a 14- year old student of migrant background. The purpose of this analysis was to determine student teachers' abilities to evaluate the pupil's second language proficiency skills to address the linguistic demands of their discipline, and thus the student teachers' pedagogical language knowledge.

Aalto and Tarnanen (2015) collected two types of data. First, student teachers provided an independent open-ended verbal assessment of the student's writing performance. Then participants completed a Likert scale evaluation of the texts concerning the samples' accuracy and grammatical complexity, comprehensibility, coherence, and lexical variation.

Among the findings, Aalto and Tarnanen (2015) reported that despite the reasonably consistent results on the Likert assessment, most future language teachers tended to consider the student's writing more holistically and accurately than future teachers of other subjects different than language. However, in the open-ended verbal

evaluations existed more variation with a significant emphasis on accuracy and comprehensibility than on coherence and vocabulary. After clustering participants' verbal responses, Aalto and Tarnanen determined all student teachers analyze the written samples at the word level, specifically with regards to spelling, punctuation, and inflection although many lacked the language to describe in details the writing skills, resulting in more non-specific grammar references.

Aalto and Tarnanen (2015) suggested student teachers' pedagogical language knowledge reflected the surrounding traditional ideology of language. Under this ideology, the conception of language is that of a series of "small, conventionalized units" (Aalto &Tarnanen, 2015, p. 411). However, future teachers' pedagogical language knowledge could be improved by increasing their abilities to identify second language learners' skills and proficiency in the academic language. By bringing this awareness, student teachers will be able to build on their prior skills in disciplinary teaching and compensate for their lack of learning experiences as language learners themselves.

There is an untapped resource in the linguistically diverse composition of the student body in U.S. public school systems. If leaders and policymakers do not stop viewing students with diverse linguistic backgrounds from a deficit perspective and start seeing biliteracy as an advantage, the promise of a more participative role in the global market will not come to fruition. An important starting point to move teaching practices toward being more inclusive of biliteracy is to address and inform teachers' perceptions.

This literature review reveals three main points to guide that process of change. First, there is a need to expand the concept of literacy and biliteracy to include not only reading and writing skills but also the ability of students to verbalize what they know and

to be strategic users of language (Cross, 2011; Durán, 2016; Proctor et al., 2010). This expansion implies that attention must be paid to the instruction and assessment of oral language and written expression in both languages (Soltero-González, Escamilla, and Hopewell, 2012). Second, there is a need to reaffirm the positive effects of literacy instruction in more than one language. Researchers have shown that bilingual students draw from the linguistic resources available to them (Proctor et al., 2010; Reyes, 2006; Soto Huerta, 2012). Moreover, there is evidence that receiving literacy instruction in two languages does not interfere with the development of either the first or the second language, but instead is synergistic (Proctor et al., 2010). Communicating this message will inform and affect language ideologies and, ultimately, language policies that govern public education. Finally, there is a need for teacher training and the development of assessment tools that consider the simultaneous acquisition of two different languages and how that development manifest differently from that which is normed under monolingual circumstances (Butvilofsky & Sparrow, 2012; Proctor & Silverman, 2011; Soltero-González et al., 2012). Further research needs to be completed in this area to support teachers and leaders in better understanding how to facilitate a successful trajectory towards biliteracy.

Summary

This chapter contains a synthesis of the extant literature related to the development of biliteracy. In the process of addressing the pertinent information, I began the search for literature connected to the construct of biliteracy. As I progressed in the research process, I realized there were two main elements that provided context to the definition of biliteracy, language ideologies and language policy. Furthermore, as I was

reading, I realized these factors influenced each other. Simultaneously, the work of scholars focused on biliteracy led me to explore inner layers of influence over teachers' belief systems and actions, which I condensed under the professional development and pedagogical language knowledge fields of research. This was the process involved in creating the model illustrated in Figure 1 that opened this chapter and determined the organization of this chapter.

CHAPTER III

Method

The purpose of this study was to explore elementary teachers' language ideologies and perceptions of biliteracy and their understanding of the types of support teachers need to develop student biliteracy in the classroom. In conducting this study, I utilized a psychometrically-tested quantitative survey instrument called the *Beliefs About Language Survey* (Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2011) to explore Grade 3 teachers' language ideologies in select school districts in south central Texas. I also added demographic questions in a separate section on the questionnaire to obtain background information about the participating teachers. To elicit further in-depth information from the select teacher respondents, I conducted five follow-up interviews. These interviews constituted the source for qualitative data for this study. This chapter is divided in the following sections: (a) research questions, (b) research design, (c) researcher's biographical position, (d) role of researcher, (e) participant selection, (f) instrumentation, (g) data collection, (h) data analysis, and (i) legitimation.

Research Questions

With the goal of expanding academic literature on elementary teachers' language ideologies and their perceived supports needed to promote biliteracy in the classroom, I addressed in this study the following research questions: (a) What are select Texas elementary teachers' language ideologies? and (b) What are select Texas elementary teachers' perceptions of biliteracy and what is needed to promote biliteracy development?

Research Design

This study was nonexperimental survey research utilizing a questionnaire to collect data (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). Moreover, this study constituted descriptive research because the purpose was to describe the existing situation regarding teachers' beliefs about the importance of biliteracy development at elementary school campuses and teachers' understandings of the types of support needed to develop students' biliteracy in the classroom. Because the data were collected over a relatively brief period of time, this research is considered a cross-sectional, descriptive study.

By selecting an existing quantitative instrument with modified demographic items and by adding follow-up interviews to capture teachers' perceptions about supports needed, I approached this research through the lens of mixed methods. The analysis of the quantitative data led to connections about teachers' language ideologies and their perceived supports to facilitate biliteracy development. Additionally, the qualitative data analysis allowed me to see teachers' understandings of biliteracy and ascertain their perceptions about the supports needed to foster biliteracy in the classrooms. By combining two types of data, I obtained a more comprehensive picture of the existing situation of the issue addressed by the research questions (Creswell, 2014).

Researcher's Biographical Position

In their introductory chapter of The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research, Denzin and Lincoln (2011) explained how the intricacies of the qualitative research process involving the "theory, method, and analysis" (p. 11) rests with the researcher and his or her biography. Like every other human, the development of my life has influenced the experiences with which I approached this study. This section of the chapter functions

as an overview of the aspects that inform what Denzin and Lincoln called my *interpretive community*.

I was born in Colombia, more precisely in the capital city of Bogotá, a city of more than 6 million inhabitants. By all measures, we were a middle-class family and although neither of my parents finished high school, my siblings and I received private education from elementary to university. My educational journey in Colombia included earning a Bachelor of Science in civil engineering from the Universidad de los Andes.

I completed the entirety of my education in Colombia in Spanish, and therefore I did speak and was literate in the majority language. However, since a very young age, I was intrigued by the power that languages have in helping name the world around us. This interest prompted me to seek opportunities to study French since I was in Grade 3. Even though my elementary and secondary school was not bilingual, I received English as a foreign language instruction two times a week as part of the national mandate from Grade K to Grade 9. For the last two years of secondary education, I received French as a foreign language.

Throughout my school years I perceived all languages as equally valid, and I still do. I have never found one language as being the more prestigious. I have always admired how effortlessly bilingual people were able to navigate and bring into conversations their different languages. Later, when I was studying to become a bilingual teacher, I learned the name for that admired practice, *codeswitching*, and to my surprise I learned this practice was considered an inappropriate use of language. After more than a decade of participating in bilingual and dual education professional learning

opportunities, I am glad to see the field valuing this practice as a marker of the use of our complete linguistic repertoires and not as a shortcoming of bilingual people.

Different circumstances brought me to live in Houston in 2004, including starting a new career in education. I completed an alternative certification while teaching fourth-grade bilingual classes in the public-school system. As part of my self-discovery process, the first two years as a bilingual teacher made me realize I needed more preparation to address the linguistic and academic needs of my students. To meet this need, I pursued a master's in curriculum and instruction in bilingual education at the University of Houston. I devoted many of my studies during my graduate classes to dual language programs and was hired as a fourth-grade dual language teacher and later as an instructional coach and dual language program manager at the school where I was working. I also had the opportunity to be an adjunct professor of ESL in a community college. After three years working as an instructional coach, I became the district's instructional specialist for Dual Language Grade K to Grade 8 and bilingual/ ESL support for upper elementary. This dissertation will help me conclude a doctoral program in educational leadership at the Sam Houston State University.

A common thread that emerges in all my professional and personal experiences is my interest in multilingualism and biliteracy. I have received the professional, economic, and social benefits of being biliterate, and I am committed to sharing the knowledge and spread the importance that biliteracy brings to all students. I am aware of how my history and experiences constitute my cultural models (Gee, 2015) and as such, my biography permeates my research process (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Thus, by sharing the experiences, I started to frame the way I perceive others. In the following section, I

address my role as a researcher and later in the chapter I report additional techniques I used to bracket my biases.

Role of Researcher

Roles in qualitative research refer to the position a researcher assumes in their relationship with the people whom they study (Chatman, 1984). As a researcher, I hold an ontological approach in which reality can be seen from different points of view. This approach also recognizes understandings as co-constructed through one's use of language. These are tenets of the social constructionist approach (Berger & Luckmann, 1967). Furthermore, social constructionism centers on people's creation of their own identities, people's interpretations of their experiences, people's formation and replication of social interactions, and people's shared understandings of life experiences (Schwandt, 2007). Thus, the appropriateness of this research paradigm facilitates the goal of exploring teachers' perception about the importance of biliteracy and the supports needed to foster its development.

The research paradigm employed in a research study influenced the strategy and the construction and interpretation of the meaning of reality (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). I as the researcher in this study held a social constructionist research paradigm. Social constructionist theorists contend that one's perceptions and understandings shape social actions (Berger & Luckmann, 1967). When one person's understanding shapes another person's understanding, a jointly constructed understanding emerges. Understandings are not developed separately within a person; they are developed through the person's experiences and interactions with other people. Therefore, each person has a unique reality.

Papert (1990) further asserts that individual development is influenced by cultural context, with constructs defined by the needs of the individual developed through the activities of a particular social group. Because I as the researcher in this study sought the perceptions of teachers about the importance of biliteracy and the supports needed to develop it, using a social constructionist paradigm was a natural choice. Having semi-structured follow-up interviews as part of the data collection process regarding teachers constructs of biliteracy and their perceived necessary supports to foster biliteracy development created the opportunity for the exploration of a more in-depth understanding through the lens of another (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014).

An essential element when conducting research is to ensure that the researchers assume a non-judgmental stance toward the participants to gain useful information (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). To accomplish this stance, researchers take on *emic* and *etic* perspectives. The emic perspective is assumed when the researcher considers questions and issues that are relevant to the participants of the study. The etic perspective refers to the objectivity of the researcher and scrutinizes issues that are outside of the participant's realm. In this study, I assumed both an emic and an etic perspective.

My bilingualism and the nature of my work as a curriculum designer and provider of professional development for bilingual and dual language teachers constituted my emic viewpoint or “insider’s perspective” (Johnson & Christensen, 2014, p. 661). Simultaneously, as the researcher reviewing the extant literature on biliteracy and collecting quantitative data with a validated instrument, I assumed an etic standpoint. Onwuegbuzie (2012) identified this combined viewpoint as representing an *emtic*

research perspective. To improve my reflexivity, I utilized a reflective journal throughout the different stages of the study (Onwuegbuzie, Leech, & Collins, 2010).

Participant Selection

At the center of this study were elementary teachers' language ideologies and their constructs of biliteracy and its importance. To address better this issue, I chose a combination of probability and purposive sampling. Moreover, the purposive sampling also incorporated a criterion-based selection (Creswell, 2014; Johnson & Christensen, 2014) for the completion of an attitudinal questionnaire. Criteria required for participation in the study included being a certified teacher and being responsible for core subject instruction (i.e., language arts, mathematics, social studies or science) in a third-grade setting. The purposive and probability sampling is a typical sampling scheme for concurrent mixed methods research, utilized when the participants answer a questionnaire that contains both closed- and open-ended questions simultaneously (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). However, I as the researcher felt confident this sampling technique would apply for a study where participants were asked to complete the questionnaire and were offered the possibility to participate in a semi-structured follow-up interview.

The state of Texas created Education Service Centers (ESCs) to serve as consultants and provide staff development and technical assistance to local schools and school districts. For this purpose, the state is divided into 20 different areas (Region 4 Education Service Center, 2017). For this study, I focused on the ESC at Region 4 which expands across seven counties, serves the metropolitan area of Houston, and includes 48 school districts and 37 different charter schools. According to the Texas Education Agency (TEA) (2018a), during the 2017-2018 school year, over 1.2 million students were

enrolled in Region 4, with 22.3% of them identified as English Learners, which was 3.50 percentage points higher than Texas. Table 2 contains information on student enrollment for Region 4 ESC during the 2017-2018 school year, and Table 3 provides the demographic and other student information of Region 4. The tables also include the state enrollment and ethnic composition.

Table 2

Region 4 Enrollment 2017-2018

Total Students	Region 4		State	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
Early Childhood Education	3,651	0.30	14,684	0.30
Pre-Kindergarten	51,447	4.30	231,297	4.30
Kindergarten	82,394	6.80	371,145	6.90
Grade 1	88,238	7.30	388,362	7.20
Grade 2	90,154	7.50	394,137	7.30
Grade 3	94,050	7.80	409,763	7.60
Grade 4	92,949	7.70	413,654	7.70
Grade 5	92,896	7.70	414,218	7.70
Grade 6	89,818	7.40	402,451	7.50
Grade 7	89,293	7.40	402,350	7.50
Grade 8	88,812	7.30	398,479	7.40
Grade 9	97,846	8.10	432,724	8.00
Grade 10	88,153	7.30	396,968	7.40
Grade 11	82,348	6.80	371,606	6.90
Grade 12	77,159	6.40	343,174	6.40

Table 3

Region 4 Demographic Information 2017-2018

Total Students	Region 4		State	
	Count	Percent	Count	Percent
Ethnic Distribution				
African American	224,820	18.60	679,472	12.60
Hispanic	612,604	50.70	2,821,189	52.40
White	256,021	21.20	1,498,643	27.80
American Indian	5,474	0.50	20,521	0.40
Asian	85,187	7.00	235,095	4.40
Pacific Islander	1,491	0.10	8,008	0.10
Two or More Races	23,611	2.00	122,084	2.30
Economically Disadvantaged	700,756	58.00	3,164,349	58.80
English Language Learners (ELL)	269,690	22.30	1,014,830	18.80
At-Risk	666,181	55.10	2,736,547	50.80

Additionally, I defined the boundaries of my unit of study by limiting the population target to the Grade 3 teachers in Region 4. I made this decision because during third grade, students take the standardized state assessment for the first time, as mandated by the Every Student Success Act (ESSA) enacted on December 10, 2015. This accountability requirement usually focuses on language proficiency and academic success assessed in English (Lindholm-Leary, 2016).

The federal accountability pressure also has been a determining factor in the biliteracy path of students, particularly in Texas, because teachers and administrators decide in which language students will be testing, as reported by Palmer and Henderson (2016) and Palmer and Snodgrass Rangel (2011). Furthermore, the National Academy of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine (2017) established a *birth to eight* focus in its statement of the task to "address the continuum of young English language learners (ELLs) and dual language learners (DLs)" (p. 18). The goal of this focus was to study the foundational elements of language development, progress, starting of schooling, and practices for the early success of English Learners/dual language students. The upper limit of this focus, 8 years old, corresponds to most students' age when entering Grade 3. Finally, because of the limitations in time and resources needed (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014) to address the more than 75,000 teachers working in Region 4 during the 2017-2018 school year (Region 4 Education Service Center, 2018), the unit of study for this research only included Grade 3 teachers.

In the absence of statistics on the number of teachers per grade in Region 4 and to quantify the target population, I used data from Texas Education Agency (2018b) to estimate the number of Grade 3 teachers in the education service center. The region had

a total enrollment of 1,209,208 students, 94,050, or 7.80% of the total enrollment in third grade. Furthermore, the average third-grade class size for Region 4 was 19.8 students per class; this figure implies that approximately 4,750 teachers were third-grade homeroom teachers, who were responsible for teaching core subject areas. Referring to Johnson and Christensen (2014), a target population of 4,750 will require a sample of approximately 355 respondents. However, because of the lower response rates associated with online survey research (Archer, 2008; Cook, Heath, & Thompson, 2000; Monroe & Adams, 2012; Nulty, 2008), a total of 172 teachers out of the 258 who accessed the questionnaire completed it. Part of this response rate might be attributed to the lack of support from the gatekeepers in the school districts invited to participate.

Instrumentation

The instrument for quantitative data collection consisted of demographic questions and the Beliefs About Language survey. Fitzsimmons-Doolan (2011) developed this survey, and because it has been used to identify language ideologies among groups of teachers, voters, and administrators in several studies conducted in Arizona and Texas, it has established score validity and reliability with previous samples. The instrument consists of 31 questions presented on a 6-point Likert scale from *strongly disagree (6)* to *agree strongly (1)*. The demographic portion of the questionnaire contained 11 questions regarding ethnicity, gender, years of experience, type of bilingual or dual language program, and second language proficiency as applicable. Additional data were qualitative in nature and collected through the completion of five follow-up semi-structured interviews asking participants to share their definition of biliteracy and

the kinds of supports they believed were necessary to aid them in the process of developing biliteracy in their schools.

Quantitative instrument development. I used the Beliefs About Language Survey (Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2011), an instrument grounded in theory and originally developed to explore the language ideologies embraced by a large sample of voters in Arizona. The survey was the result of a systematic literature review over a period of 10 years, between 1998 and 2008. Fitzsimmons-Doolan (2011) used the literature review to create a typology of ideological constructs related to education and language ideologies. The result of the literature reviewed was a survey with 62 items in a 6-point Likert scale with no neutral position that Fitzsimmons-Doolan piloted with 33 Arizona teachers. After applying statistical criteria (i.e., Cronbach's α coefficients) and qualitative criteria (i.e., participants' comments) to reduce the number of ideological propositions, the final version of the survey contains 31 items. Table 4 contains the final ideological prepositions and their source as compiled initially by Fitzsimmons-Doolan.

Table 4

Quantitative Questionnaire Items and Related Sources for the Beliefs About Language Survey

Liker Language Ideology Component	Literature Review Studies
1. "The use of more than one language creates social problems." 2. "The use of more than one language makes social mobility difficult." 3. "The use of more than one language makes social unity difficult."	King (2000), Miller (2006), Miyhon (2007), Paugh (2001), Pomerantz (2002), Bridges (2004), Saito (2005), Valdez (2006), Volk and Angelova (2007)

(continued)

Liker Language Ideology Component	Literature Review Studies
4. "The use of language is a human right." 5. "Schools must teach native languages of students." 6. "Speakers have the right to choose the language that they will use in any situation."	Miyhon (2007), Pomerantz (2002), Bridges (2004), Valdez (2006), Volk and Angelova (2007)
7. "A person's linguistic abilities are assets." 8. "In the US, the use of more than one language should be promoted." 9. "In the US, the use of multiple languages is an economic asset."	Pomerantz (2002), Bridges (2004), Valdez (2006), Volk and Angelova (2007)
10. "In the US, the use of native languages other than English is helpful for sharing tradition." 11. "Native languages are beautiful."	Asato (2007), Doran (2001), El-Laithy (2002), King (2000), Leeman and Martinez (2007), Miller (2006), Miyhon (2007), Valdez (2006), Vogel (2007)
12. "In the US, English is more normal than other languages." 13. "In the US, public communication should occur in English."	El-Laithy (2002), Kells (2002), Miller (2006), Miyhon (2007), Mott-Smith (2006), Saito (2005), Shannon (1999), Valdez (2006), Volk and Angelova (2007)
14. "In the US, using English is important for gaining material wealth." 15. "In the US, using English is important for social gains."	El-Laithy (2002), Miller (2006), Paugh (2001), Pomerantz (2002), Warriner (2003)
16. "The success of a nation depends on the use of a national language." 17. "Language represents national identity." 18. "In the US, knowing English helps a person to be American."	Freidman (2006), Haslett (2001), Paugh (2001), Bridges (2004)

(continued)

Liker Language Ideology Component	Literature Review Studies
19. "The standard of model form of a language is the most appropriate form for school." 20. "Using one language to complete a task is better than using two languages."	Asato (2007), Friedman (2006), Godley, Carpenter, and Werner (2007), Leeman and Martinez (2007), Mott-Smith (2006), Razfar (2003, 2005), Saito (2005), Vogel (2007)
21. "Practicing a language is necessary for learning a language." 22. "One should be patient with people learning a second language."	Haslett (2201), Olivio (2003)
23. "One can know a person's intelligence from how he uses a language." 24. "It takes more intelligence to write well than to speak well."	Kells (2002)
25. "Languages with more speakers are stronger than languages with fewer speakers"	King (2000)
26. "Languages stay the same over time." 27. "A language has one standard form." 28. "Languages are ruled based."	Asato (2007), Gerente (2003), Godley, Carpenter, and Werner (2007), Needham (2003), Pomerantz (2002), Razfar (2003, 2005), Warriner (2003)
29. "Having educational certification in a language makes a person a speaker of that language."	Pomerantz (2002)
30. "The purpose of learning a language is to meet people who speak that language."	Warriner (2003)
31. "Different forms of language are appropriate for different contexts."	Gerente (2003), Godley, Carpenter, and Wener (2007), Razfar (2003), Vogel (2007)

Note. From "Language Ideology Dimensions of Politically Active Voters in Arizona: An Exploratory Study," by S. Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2011, Language Awareness*, 20, pp. 300-301. Copyright 2018 by Taylor & Francis. Reprinted with permission.*

Quantitative instrument validation. The Beliefs About Language Survey was used to capture quantitative data; its score validity refers to the appropriateness of the interpretation of the results that the application of the survey yields (Johnson &

Christensen, 2014). The survey in its final version was first used to explore language ideologies of 218 voters in Arizona (Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2011). As part of the data analysis in the study, Fitzsimmons-Doolan (2011) completed an initial principal factor analysis using principal axis factoring. The identified potential factor solutions were analyzed by completing a varimax rotation, a process that tries to maximize the dispersion, yielding more useful clusters of factors, according to Field (2009). Furthermore, the internal consistency of the determined factors, as measured by Cronbach's alpha, indicated acceptable levels. The coefficients factors varied from .943 for the first factor to .544 for the sixth one.

The same instrument was utilized later with 703 voters, 51 language managers, and 527 teachers in Arizona as part of a more extensive study (Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2014). Addtionally, Fitzsimmons-Doolan et al. (2015) used the same instrument in a study with 323 educators in Texas. These multiple uses of the quantitative part of the proposed instrument and the factor analyses provide evidence of score validity based on the internal structure of the instrument. Furthermore, because the survey was developed based on a systematic literature review, one might say the items in the questionnaire adequately represent the constructs they assess as determined by experts. This type of expert support constitutes evidence of content validity (Johnson & Christensen, 2014).

Qualitative interview protocol. Because interviews allow researchers to access people's attitudes and subjective experience that are otherwise inaccessible (Peräkylä & Ruusuvuori, 2011), five semi-structured interviews were utilized to collect data on participants' constructions of biliteracy, its importance, and the perceived supports needed to foster biliteracy in the classroom. I as the researcher created 10 open-ended

questions based on the interests of the study. I shared the protocol with my dissertation committee, and after receiving feedback, the questions were edited for the final version of the instrument. To facilitate the creation of rapport and elicit participants' background, five additional questions were introduced to the protocol (See Appendix A for the complete interview protocol, including possible clarification questions).

I approached the interview process in this study as a way to capture the description of key aspects of teachers when thinking about biliteracy practices, as explained by Brinkmann and Kvale (2015). According to these researchers' types of interview questions, I used *introductory*, *probing*, *specifying*, *direct*, and *indirect* kinds of questions. Introductory questions allow for rich descriptions of the experience and as such Interview Questions 1, 2 and 5 encouraged participants to share their knowledge of biliteracy and to what degree their practices foster biliteracy in their classrooms or schools. Interview Questions 3, 7 and 9 exemplify specifying questions because they elicited more accurate descriptions from the participants (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). Direct questions like Interview Questions 4 and 8 were more focused on specific professional development examples. Interview Question 6 can be considered an indirect question because it prompted participants to provide statements that conveyed their perspective in terms of instructional changes that were deemed necessary to improve biliteracy instruction. Finally, Interview Question 10, by eliciting participants to share additional information relevant to the topic, was an example of a probing question.

When considering the nature of the questions under the conceptualization established by Spradley (1979) for ethnographic interviews, Interview Question 1, Question 5, and Question 10 could be regarded as being *descriptive questions,* more

specifically*, typical grand tour questions.* As such, these two questions encouraged participants to elaborate on their understanding of biliteracy and other general factors they wanted to share with the researcher for the benefit of the study. Interview Questions 2, 3, and 9 could be considered *specific grand tour questions* because they prompted participants to provide information regarding their definition of biliteracy, its perceived value, and the additional supports needed to promote instruction that facilitates biliteracy in the classroom. The remaining five questions, Interview Questions 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 asked participants to think about instances of professional development, instructional changes, resources, and supports needed, respectively, and these five questions were *example questions* (Spradley, 1979).

Data Collection

Before submitting the research proposal to the university institutional review board (IRB) (See Appendix B), I conducted a pilot for the final demographic questionnaire with a group of instructional coaches from one large school district in the same region. I selected this group of educators to pilot the questionnaire because they did not have an assigned classroom at the time of the study and were not eligible to be part of the purposive sample of this study. However, their experience working with bilingual students and being former bilingual teachers informed the relevance and accuracy of the demographic items in the questionnaire and provided face validity for that part of the instrument. Feedback collected from the pilot provided information that no revisions were necessary for the final version of the questionnaire.

Quantitative data collection. Quantitative data for this study were collected via an internet survey. Fowler (2014) and Monroe and Adams (2012) identified the low cost

of data collection and speed of returns among the advantages related to this type of survey. Some of the disadvantages of internet surveys identified by these researchers include the need for a comprehensive list of potential respondents' emails and challenges in obtaining participant cooperation, often resulting in lower response rates. To address these particular shortcomings, I initially requested the collaboration of bilingual directors in the 48 school districts served by the Region 4.

The role of the bilingual directors was to serve as the intermediaries, or *sponsors* (Fowler, 2014) in the data collection process by communicating the purpose of the study to stakeholders at the district level, by encouraging teacher participation in the study, and by sharing the electronic link to the Qualtrics questionnaire. The intention behind involving the Region 4 bilingual directors was to add an extra layer of confidentiality in the responses and to increase the possible number of respondents beyond the 355 desired.

However, one of the first obstacles in the data collection process was determining the contact information of the sponsors. Out of the 48 school districts that constitute the education service center, I established contact with 40 bilingual directors. The first round of emails with the districts resulted in three of the sponsors communicating the unwillingness of their districts to take part in the research, and three other sponsors communicating their district's requirement of completion of a local IRB process.

A month after the first contact with school districts I received a minimal response from the sponsors, so I attended a regional meeting with several bilingual directors. During the meeting, I briefly presented the purpose of the study and the requirements from the districts willing to participate. This meeting was accompanied by an email. In

this occasion, five more sponsors expressed their interest in being part of the research, with three of them requesting a local IRB completion process.

The responses to participation varied from district to district. Several of the district contacts asked me to share the survey link with the sponsor. Once I completed their IRBs, a few districts indicated the need to seek principals' approval to distribute the survey link with their teachers. Some responses included a list of the email addresses of Grade 3 teachers in the district. To increase the participation in this study, I followed the suggestions delineated by Dillman, Smyth, and Christian (2014). I sent multiple emails to sponsors and potential participants informing them of the purpose of the study and sharing the link to the Qualtrics form with the questionnaire. Once I had access to either the principals' or the teachers' electronic addresses, I sent three different emails within two weeks. The first email contained the invitation to participate in the study; the following emails reiterated the invitation to complete the questionnaire. I sent the reminder emails after two and three weeks from the first contact.

After four months from the initial first contact at the region level, 30 districts had not responded to my invitation to participate in the study, and one of the districts requiring IRB completion had not made a decision to either approve or disapprove the request. I decided then to submit public information requests to districts with more than 10 elementary schools. The response to the public information requests took between three days to a couple of weeks, depending on the districts' paperwork to fulfill such request. After close to 5 months, I reached out directly to 167 elementary principals' and 1,425 teachers' electronic addresses in 16 school districts or 33.3% of the districts that make up the Region 4. Table 5 contains the enrollment and percentage of English

Learners per school district included in this study during the 2017-2018 school year (Texas Education Agency, 2018b).

Table 5

Participating Districts (n=16) Enrollment During 2017-2018

District	Students	English Learners	
	Count	Count	Percent
District A	213,528	67,347	31.50
District B	77,331	13,118	17.00
District C	54,520	15,640	28.70
District D	42,008	29,748	70.80
District E	36,079	8,640	23.90
District F	34,975	11,785	33.70
District G	32,051	4,153	13.00
District H	22,565	7,130	31.60
District I	21,559	1,888	8.80
District J	15,884	1,624	10.20
District K	12,904	1,528	11.80
District L	10,898	1,486	13.60
District M	7,555	655	8.70
District N	7,002	1,168	16.70
District O	2,412	990	41.00
District P	1,593	445	27.90

The demographic part of the instrument screened the respondents to ensure they were certified and serving as teachers in mathematics, language arts, science, or social studies third-grade classrooms on an elementary campus. This screening process resulted in 196 teachers being eligible out of the 258 people who opened the survey link, and a total of 172 Grade 3 teachers who completed the survey. Fowler (2014) asserted that "there is no agreed-on standard for a minimum response rate" (p. 44). However, several researchers have studied response rates for web-based surveys and determined they vary at around 40%. The lowest average response rate reported by experts was 33% (Nulty, 2008), and the highest was 39.6% (Cook et al., 2000), or less than 40% (Archer, 2008). In general, Monroe and Adams (2012) determined that response rates for web-based surveys were about 11% lower than that for paper or phone surveys. Table 6 contains some demographic information of the participants.

Table 6

*Initial Responders' General Demographic Information (*n *= 196)*

Demographic Descriptor	*n*	Percent
	Genre*	
Female	154	90.06
Male	15	8.77
	Certified Teacher	
Yes	242	97.98
No	5	2.02

(continued)

Demographic Descriptor	*n*	Percent
Years of Experience		
1 year	13	5.42
2 years	12	5.00
3 years	14	5.83
4 years	14	5.83
5 years	24	10.00
6 or more years	163	67.92
Consider herself or himself bilingual or multilingual		
Yes	94	48.21
No	101	51.79
Working in a school that offers bilingual program		
Yes	156	79.59
No	40	20.41

*Note. *This question was answered only by those who completed the questionnaire*

Qualitative data collection. To collect the qualitative portion of the study, I included a question in the electronic questionnaire asking participants for their willingness to respond to a follow-up interview. Out of the 172 teachers who completed the survey, 57 expressed their interest in participating in the interview process. I sent three emails to each interested teacher explaining the format of the interview and asking for their input on the most convenient times and dates to conduct the interview. I

received responses from only five participants, and I scheduled the interviews in the order of the responses. After determining a date and time for the interview, I sent an electronic copy of the consent form for this part of the process (See Appendix C).

All five interviews were conducted via electronic videoconference; therefore, each participant decided on their location. I conducted each interview from my home office and each lasted on average 32 minutes. I completed the first four interviews between February 9 and February 25, 2019, and the fifth interview took place on April 15, 2019. I video recorded every interview via Zoom and utilized Rev.com for transcription services. After each interview was transcribed, I downloaded the transcription into a word processing file, and then deleted the files from the service's website. Finally, I stored all video, audio, and transcription files in a password-protected computer for purposes of data security and participant confidentiality.

Before starting each interview, I thanked teachers for their participation and reminded them of the goals of the study. Next, I asked participants if they had reviewed the consent form and if they had any questions. None of the participants had questions or objections to the interview consent form or to being video recorded. No risk of harm was identified. Additionally, I explained that I was going to take some notes while we were engaged in our conversation. These notes assisted me in the process of *coauthoring* the interview (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015) as they prompted me to ask follow-up questions beyond the interview protocol. I used the notes later as part of the field notes of the study, which allowed me to build the analytic memos (Saldaña, 2016) I utilized during the data analysis.

As I mentioned before, the interview protocol included five initial questions to elicit information about the participants' background. I intentionally framed the interviews as conversations, which allowed me to establish a stronger rapport with the five participants. These characteristics are the defining elements of a *romantic* conception of qualitative interviews, as conceptualized by Roulston (2010). Under this type of interview, I assumed an active role, and thus, I asked additional clarification follow-up questions such as "How would that [instructional change] look in your classroom, ideally?"

The following sections briefly introduce the educational and work experience of each of the five interviewed participants. All five names, Ana, Beatriz, Clara, Dora, and Ellen are pseudonyms to protect the confidentiality of the participants. Ana, Beatriz, and Clara worked in the same school district as I did, but each one of them represented a different elementary school. Dora and Ellen came from two different school districts. A summary of the interview participants' background constitutes Table 7.

Table 7

Participant's General Background Information

Participant*	Undergraduate Studies	Graduate Studies	Additional Certifications	Years of Experience	Current Teaching Assignment
Ana	Education	NA	Bilingual	8	Mathematics and science, English instruction
Beatriz	Education	Master's in Curriculum and instruction	Bilingual	6	Reading, Spanish instruction

(continued)

Participant*	Undergraduate Studies	Graduate Studies	Additional Certifications	Years of Experience	Current Teaching Assignment
Clara	Information Systems Management	Masters in Instructional Technology	Bilingual	15	Self-contained, mostly Spanish instruction
					(continued)
Dora	Bilingual Education	Master's in leadership in Education	Bilingual	7	Spanish language arts
Ellen	Elementary Education	NA	Early Childhood and ESL	28	English Language Arts

*Note. *All participants' names are pseudonyms*

Ana. At the time of the interview, Ana, a Hispanic woman in her early 30s, had taught for eight years, five of those years in a Grade 3 bilingual classroom. However, not all her tenure in Grade 3 happened consecutively, and in the current year, Ana worked in Grade 3 after teaching writing for a couple of years in Grade 4. Ana mentioned how different her instructional settings had been, including all instruction in Spanish, half of the instruction in English and half in Spanish, and by the time of the interview, she was the mathematics and science bilingual teacher for a three-way split team, and most of her instruction was delivered in English.

As most of the participants, Ana enjoys teaching Grade 3 because of the students' age, and more specifically,

> I love the content, the SEs [student expectations]. The objectives. Because in fourth grade it's so hard because it's very abstract. And kids come with so many gaps, and it's hard to fill in those things. And in third grade, there is at least a lot of pictorials and models that they can grasp.

An interesting detail in Ana's background is the fact she did not receive bilingual instruction growing up, but her parents forced her to learn Spanish at age 11 by bringing home newspapers, books, and magazines, and by watching television in Spanish. Ana admitted she hated receiving all this exposure to Spanish at home; nevertheless, Ana sent her son to a bilingual classroom from Grade K to Grade 2, but this year her son was in Grade 3, and she and her husband decided to immerse her son in English both at home and at school. Consequently, her son was attending a mainstream classroom with no bilingual supports, and Ana and her husband were having her son read only in English at home and watching television in English.

Beatriz. At the time of our meeting, Beatriz was in her early 20s and was completing her sixth year of teaching. Like Ana, Beatriz had different instructional settings, and for the second year in a row, Beatriz was teaching Grade 3 reading in Spanish only. Before this experience, Beatriz had taught Grades 6, 4, and 5, in that order. For Beatriz, the most exciting aspect about teaching Grade 3 is the students' lack of experience with the state test, which she likened to "a fresh start for me to kind of show them my way of doing it and teaching them."

A self-identified English Learner, Beatriz shared that she was a migrant student who moved around the country with her parents. This background was, in Beatriz's mind, a deterrent of success she was able to overcome. Talking about her journey Beatriz stated, "You're not really supposed to make it out there, because you're always moving, and your parents are farm workers. That's something I'm really proud of that I was able to get a higher education regardless of my background."

Clara. Like the first two participants, Clara, a Hispanic woman in her mid-30s, worked as a bilingual teacher. However, unlike all the other four participants in the interview process, Clara did not have education as her first career; she had a bachelor's degree in information systems management. After five years of working with databases and computer programing, Clara decided to obtain her master's in educational technology and has been working as a teacher for 15 years.

For nine years of her career in education, Clara has taught Grade 3 bilingual students, with the other years teaching mainly Grade 4. Clara's favorite part of teaching Grade 3 is

> that they're not, as far as academically, they are not like, they don't know anything. They are kind of in a level where I feel like they are mature enough, and I don't really have to teach a lot of like, teach them how to read. I don't have to teach a lot of phonics and things like that because they already come in learning how to read, they already know how to read.

Something Clara shared with me was her conviction that in her second career as an educator she had found a natural niche and a more rewarding profession than the one she held in the corporate world. In Clara's words, "I know that I'm making a much bigger impact. Rather than just making money, I know that I'm helping people."

Dora. Dora, was finishing her seventh year of teaching and her fourth in bilingual Grade 3. Dora's initial experience as an educator was in pre-kindergarten, which she taught for 3 years. At the time of the interview, Dora had recently received her master's in administration and was mentally preparing herself to be a Grade K dual language teacher for the upcoming school year. The idea of the change really excited Dora as she

pointed out when finishing the interview: "I want to try the dual language program, [be]cause I always wanted to."

Regarding what Dora enjoyed the most about teaching Grade 3 students, she mentioned the level of growth her students go through after a year in this grade level. Furthermore, Dora stated,

> Yeah, yeah, all the growth that they make in one year. Especially they take these STAAR [stated-mandated exam] tests the way they come from second grade and exit third grade; it's a big change. It's a challenge. I like that it's a challenge.

Ellen. The fifth participant was also the only White woman in the group and the only participant who I interviewed who was not bilingual. Ellen was in her late 40s when I interviewed her and had been teaching for 28 years, mostly early childhood in a couple of states, and this was her second year teaching Grade 3 as an ESL language arts teacher. Dora's favorite part of being a Grade 3 teacher was the level of independence her students displayed and the fact that she was able to focus only on reading and writing instruction. Dora shared having obtained her ESL endorsement before moving back to Texas and also that in her school district, it was mandatory for all teachers to have this type of certification. Although Ellen did not have much background knowledge about the topic of this study, she did mention how vital multilingualism is. More specifically, Dora commented about biliteracy:

> I think that's a great idea. You hear of so many students from around the world that can speak two, three, four languages and then it's always disappointing to think in America we basically teach English, and that's about all we care about.

Data Analysis

The data collection process was mixed and composed of two instruments, one for the quantitative data collection, and one for the qualitative portion of the study. Additionally, because the questionnaire for the quantitative data collection consisted of two main parts, one for demographic information and one for the language survey, the analysis included at least three types of data processing techniques. For the analysis of the responses to the multiple-choice and Likert-scale sections of the questionnaire (See Appendix D), I completed descriptive statistics to obtain means, standard deviations, and counts of choices selected. To study within group variations, I used data from the demographic part and the descriptive statistics to complete the analysis of variance (ANOVA) and t-tests whenever applicable. For the data obtained with the interviews, I segmented the answers (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). Once I segmented the qualitative data and assigned codes to segments, I mapped categories that arose from the process (Saldaña, 2016). A more detail process for data analysis follows.

Quantitative data analysis. The data collected through the demographic portion of the instrument were mostly categorical, as the items asked for the type of program, years of experience, and language proficiency of the participants. On the other hand, the data collected through the Likert-scale portion of the instrument were continuous and discrete, as it only took specific values on the measurement scale utilized (Field, 2009; Johnson & Christensen, 2014). As mentioned, I completed descriptive statistics analyses for the data collected with these two parts of the instrument as a way to summarize the data (Field, 2009).

To respond to the first research question regarding teachers' language ideologies, I completed an exploratory factor analysis, precisely a maximum likelihood factor analysis procedure (Varimax) including the 31 Likert-scale items in the instrument. In conducting the Varimax factor rotation, Kaiser's (1958) eigenvalue-greater-than-one rule was employed to ascertain how many factors should be retained, along with the 5% of variance accounted for the rule (Kaiser, 1958). The factor structure coefficients were determined to be statistically significant and were retained if they had a correlation of at least .3 (Lambert & Durand, 1975).

I interpreted and named the retained factors using the language from the statements of the items that loaded above |.8| on them. Each renamed factor became a language ideology that emerged from the analysis of the teachers' responses. The responses that came from the demographic section of the questionnaire informed the selection of six different types of group membership or independent variables. The six groups were (a) years of experience teaching, (b) working in a school that offered a bilingual program, (c) type of bilingual program setting, (d) type of transitional bilingual program, (e) whether being bilingual or not, and (f) gender. I conducted either t-tests or analyses of variance (ANOVAs), as appropriate for each of the language ideologies determined through the factor analysis process and each independent variable. The use of these data analysis techniques indicated whether the differences in means (responses to language ideology propositions) among different groups were not due to experimental error (Field, 2009). I completed a total of 18 tests, six per language ideology or factor identified.

Qualitative data analysis. Additional qualitative data consisted of answers to follow-up interviews with five respondents. Each interview contained 10 open-ended questions eliciting teachers' perceptions about supports needed to develop biliteracy. I completed a constant comparison analysis for the data. Constant comparison analysis is a method of analyzing qualitative data created by Glaser (1965) and later incorporated and used by Glaser and Strauss (1967) for grounded theory. However, Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2008) contended that this data analysis technique could be applied to narrative or textual data. The goal of this analytical tool is to establish a group of themes derived from the data. According to Strauss and Corbin (1998), the constant comparison analysis process is a systematic approach to analyzing data that supports the researcher in the meaning-making process of data analysis.

There are three phases involved in conducting a constant comparison analysis: (a) open coding, (b) axial coding, and (c) selective coding. Because this research was designed as a descriptive study, I completed only open and axial coding. Therefore, I followed the two cycles coding proposed by Saldaña (2016) in response to the cyclical nature of the process. During open coding, the researcher partitions the data into smaller pieces and assigns a label, or *code*, that describes the parts. Once all data are coded, the analyst groups the codes into categories or themes; this is known as axial coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). More specifically, I followed Saldaña's (2016) suggestions of journaling my reactions to each interview right after it took place. Moreover, I decided to conduct the qualitative data analysis for the study manually.

First cycle coding. I took the following steps to complete the first cycle of coding. First, I holistically coded each interview transcript within 24 to 48 hours of

conducting each interview. As I coded each transcript, I created a codebook with a general definition and a representative example from the transcript. Then, as I progressed with the coding, I realized which codes repeated as they self-populated while I was working in Excel. Next, after having completed the process for all five interviews, I sorted the initial codes alphabetically and started noticing patterns and making connections. This process prompted me to create a table (see Appendix E) were I condensed codes in categories. At this point, I noticed the overabundance of descriptive codes and decided to change some of them to either *In Vivo* or *Process Coding* (Saldaña, 2016). Finally, I reassigned the new codes and found the significant statements from the different interviews to exemplify the codes, Appendix E contains the final organization of categories. This approach to qualitative data analysis is what Saldaña (2016) defined as *generic* and included (a) *attribute coding* for the background responses to the introductory part of the interview, (b) *structural coding* for the answers that aligned directly with research questions, and (c) *In Vivo coding*, whenever participants' words illustrated better the meaning of the data. To inform my process of category creation, I followed Saldaña's *eclectic coding* and *code mapping* processes.

Second cycle coding. Eclectic coding is a transition coding technique appropriate for beginner researchers working with interview transcripts, and therefore, advisable in this study. The primary purpose of eclectic coding is incorporating the analytic memoing reflections into the pre-coded data set, moving the researcher toward identifying categories (Saldaña, 2016). Additionally, code mapping is an iterative process during which the complete set of codes obtained from the first cycle are organized and

condensed again, “enhancing the credibility and trustworthiness” of the analysis (Saldaña, 2016, p. 218).

To complete the code mapping process, I went through three iterations. For the first iteration, I took all the final 93 codes and sorted them into 15 categories, including one for participants' background information. After a closer look at the different categories and codes, I realized some of them could be further nested and combined, modifying the contents of the initial 14 categories not including the one for the background. I also decided to change the order of the categories to match more closely to the research question (perceptions of biliteracy and what is needed to promote its development). This second iteration resulted in seven categories and five subcategories.

Finally, I typed the seven categories, their corresponding subcategories, and associated codes and cut them apart. I followed the *tabletop categories* process suggested by Saldaña (2016) in which I resorted the cards containing the categories by considering natural association and the intention behind the research question guiding the analysis. A total of three categories and three different subcategories resulted from this process.

For this study, I followed Constas’s (1992) framework to document the categorization process that the constant comparison analysis requires. This framework consists of answering questions to document who created the categories (i.e., *origination*), how those categories were justified (i.e., *verification*), and what was the origin of the names (i.e., *nomination*; Constas, 1992). The framework also addresses the question of when the three processes of origination, verification, and nomination took place, in what Constas (1992) called *temporal designations*. According to the

framework, the processes may happen before collecting the data (i.e., *a priori*), after collecting the data (i.e., *a posteriori*), or at different points during the study process (i.e., *iterative*).

To create, to verify, and to name all my categories for the constant comparison analysis of the data collected from the participants' responses, I collected all data, which implied that my temporal designation was *a posteriori*. For the origination of my constructions, I used my personal views as a researcher informed by the literature review, which places the origination of the categories employed in this study from the *investigative* perspective (Constas, 1992). For the verification of my categories, I took a *rational* approach and an *empirical* approach. Constas (1992) defines the rational approach as relying on "logic and reasoning" (p. 259), and at the same time conveying a "functional consistency" (p. 260). The rational approach was for me a natural consequence of having taken an empirical approach. Constas (1992) defined the empirical approach to verification as being attained "internally and without reference to other studies" (p. 260), but making sure that my categories were "exhaustive and mutually exclusive" at the same time (p. 260).

Finally, for the nomination part of the category creation process, I used some of the participants' words and phrases, like "English to survive" and "you're alone." I created some of the categories based on my abstractions of the phenomenon, like "metalinguistic connections" and "Spanish loss." Utilizing these two sources during the nomination of the categories represented a *participants* and *investigative* approach, according to Constas' (1992) model.

Qualitative Legitimation

Validity is an essential strength of qualitative research when determining that such research could be considered credible, and therefore trustworthy from the researcher, the participants, and the narrative (Creswell, 2014; Johnson & Christensen, 2014). As a bilingual person, a former bilingual teacher, and a bilingual instructional specialist, researcher bias is a pressing concern regarding the trustworthiness in this study. To address this concern, I used the strategy of reflexivity to be aware of and monitor any particular recording of information or any personal interpretations of data (Johnson & Christensen, 2014). Additionally, I bracketed my biases through the use of a journal.

At the center of this study was the interpretation of teachers' constructs of biliteracy. Therefore, a precise understanding of the participants' inner worlds was essential for the success of the study, and it was also the root of interpretative validity concerns. To address these concerns, I used the field notes in conjunction with peer debriefing, so any misunderstandings in interpretation could be clarified (Johnson & Christensen, 2014; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2010).

The debriefing interview was conducted by another researcher who interviewed me at my home 4 days after I completed and transcribed all five interviews for the study. The debriefing instrument consisted of three questions that I had pre-selected from Onwuegbuzie, Leech, and Collins's (2008) article and addressed my experiences with qualitative interviews and the impacts of the interview on me as a researcher. For the third question, I chose to address the *ontological authenticity* of the study. This authenticity criterion deals with the degree to which the constructions of the participants

in the study evolved (Guba & Lincoln, 1989); however, for this report, I focused on my growth as a researcher.

Guba and Lincoln (1989) determined four additional bias criteria in addition to ontological authenticity. These criteria are *fairness authenticity*, *educative authenticity*, *catalytic authenticity*, and *tactical authenticity*. Fairness authenticity deals with the researcher's capacity to honor the evaluation process. Educative authenticity is concerned with how the participants' appreciation for the constructs of others is improved. Catalytic authenticity reflects on the decisions or actions participants were prompted by the research. Finally, tactical authenticity is the level of empowerment of participants to act upon the knowledge that arose from the research (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). The three debriefing questions were (a) What experiences have you had that you believe impacted your decisions to conduct the interviews?; (b) What background variables of the participants influenced your perception of them?; and (c) What strategies have you used to monitor your own developing constructions and document the process of change from the beginning of the study until the end?

To address the issues of credibility of this descriptive research, I utilized the Qualitative Legitimation Model developed by Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007) as a guide. This model allowed me to address the most relevant threats to both the internal and external credibility and guided me in selecting the way that I attempted to mitigate those threats during the different stages of this study.

Internal credibility. Internal credibility deals with the consistency of inferences and understandings emerging from the study (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). The Qualitative Legitimation Model includes 14 different threats to internal credibility. As a

novice researcher, I identified six of those threats as the ones with the highest possibilities to impact the credibility of future conclusions. The definitions and the different strategies that I chose to utilize to mitigate the effects of those six threats are listed in Table 8.

Table 8

Threats to Internal Credibility and Proposed Strategies to Mitigate Them

Threat	Description of Threat*	Proposed Strategies
Ironic Legitimation	The assumption that a phenomenon has multiple realities.	Bracketing of espoused constructivism paradigm.
Descriptive Validity	The accuracy of the responses to the instrument.	Electronic recording and data collection.
Structural Corroboration	Lack of credibility in the interpretations due to missing triangulation.	Mixed-methods study approach, peer debriefing.
Observational Bias	There is an inadequate sampling of words during data collection or data analysis.	Open-ended questions, purposive sampling, Region 4 ESC grade 3 teachers.
Researcher Bias	The researcher has previous assumptions about the study.	Bracketing of biases, reflection journal, peer debriefing, analytic memos.
Reactivity	Changes in participants' attitudes because of their awareness of their involvement in a study.	Anonymity, use of sponsors and romantic approach to the interview process

*Information taken from Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007)

Among the six threats listed in Table 8, *descriptive validity*, *ironic legitimation, reactivity,* and *researcher bias* were the ones I addressed during the different stages of the study. The descriptive validity threat refers to the accuracy and adequacy of the report of the responses (Maxwell, 1992), and, as I mentioned before, the data collection process included measures to gather qualitative data in addition to the quantitative data.

This mixed methods approach permitted me to capture participants' opinions, ensuring the responses that were analyzed had the same wording as intended by respondents, mitigating the effects of this threat. The ironic legitimation refers to "the assumption that there are multiple realities of the same phenomenon" (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007, p. 235). As a constructivist researcher, I espouse the belief that individuals develop their meanings based on their experiences, and therefore, multiple interpretations of a phenomenon are likely and welcome. Throughout the study, I addressed the ironic legitimation threat by bracketing my worldview as a researcher and including my biographical positionality.

The reactivity threat refers to the participants' changes in attitudes because of their awareness of their participation in a study, which might affect the data collection process (Onwuegbuzie, 2003). I feel confident that for participants involved in the interview process, I mitigated the threat by sharing multiple electronic communications that allowed potential participants to decide on the conditions of their involvement in the event. Additionally, the built-in protocol to develop rapport and my approach to the interview process were intentional moves to ameliorate the sense of novelty.

Finally, researcher bias is a pervasive threat in qualitative research studies because the researcher is the person in charge of collecting and analyzing the data. Researcher bias happens when the researcher has previous assumptions towards the study that affect the integrity of the study (Onwuegbuzie, 2003). To address this threat, I kept a reflection journal throughout the study. I also completed analytic memos (Saldaña, 2016) after each interview and throughout the data analysis process. Throughout the different stages of the study, I kept a constant dialogue with another researcher who provided me

with feedback about my interpretations and understandings of the participants' responses and motivations. Although the conversations between my colleague and I were intentional, they were also unstructured. This form of peer debriefing enhanced my reflexivity by helping me identify my attitudes toward each of the participants in the study (Frels & Onwuegbuzie, 2012).

External credibility. External credibility deals with the generalizability of the findings of a study, which refers to how some of the conclusions could be extended to other contexts and populations (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). For this type of credibility threat, Onwuegbuzie (2003) lists 14 different threats. I identified six of these threats would need particular attention due to their potential impact on the generalizability of my findings. These six threats were *interpretive validity*, *catalytic validity*, *evaluative validity*, *population generalizability*, *reactivity*, and *researcher bias*. Each of these threats will be discussed in the following sections.

The interpretive validity threat deals with the degree to which my interpretation of the qualitative data matched participants' perspectives and the connotations of their words (Maxwell, 1992). I attempted to mitigate the interpretive validity threats using two different strategies: methodological triangulation and weighing the evidence (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). Methodological triangulation is one of the four types of triangulations proposed by Denzin (2009). By addressing the study from a mixed methods approach with two types of data collected and analyzed, I studied the phenomenon with multiple methods. Additionally, for the interview process, I obtained data first-hand and in an informal setting, which are the characteristics of high-quality

data according to Miles and Huberman (1994). Weighting the evidence by utilizing high-quality data (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007) assisted me with interpretative validity.

Catalytic validity, according to Lather (1986), deals with the level of empowerment and liberation of the participants in any qualitative research study. To address this credibility threat, I embraced my research paradigm. As a social constructionist, I see the construction of knowledge as the result of interactions with the participants of our research; that is why I used an introductory email to inform participants of my position as a researcher. By allowing participants to know my position as a researcher, I involved them in the process of co-constructing my understanding of their perceptions about the importance of biliteracy, prompting participants to engage in a reflection process, and thereby empowering them to understand better their role as members of the research community.

The evaluative validity threat deals with whether an evaluation framework could be applied to the study rather than a descriptive one (Maxwell, 1992). The nature of this study is descriptive, therefore from its conception, the goal of the research was to use thick, rich data to describe teachers' perceptions about the constructs of biliteracy and the supports they perceived they needed to promote it. Additionally, by taking other steps to ensure anonymity in responses throughout the process of this study with the use of sponsors, I mitigated this threat.

The population generalizability threat occurs mainly during the interpretation stage of the study and consists of attempting to generalize findings rather than using the data to attain insights into the situation (Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2003). By embracing my research paradigm as a social constructionist (Berger & Luckmann, 1967) and my

research design as a descriptive study, my purpose was to attain insights into Grade 3 teachers' perceptions in Region 4 and not draw general conclusions to other teacher population in the United States.

The last two threats to external credibility considered were reactivity and researcher bias. As explained before, these two types of threats were addressed by assuring confidentiality and by bracketing my biases utilizing analytic memos and a reflection journal as forms of reflexivity (Frels & Onwuegbuzie, 2012). Although the effects of these two types of threats were on the generalizability of the findings, as a social constructionist (Berger & Luckmann, 1967), obtaining generalizability was not the intent of the study. Instead, my goal was to obtain insights into the phenomenon at the center of the descriptive study.

Summary

In this chapter, I included an overview of the research methods I employed in this study, along with a rationale for the research design as a cross-sectional descriptive study. Also included is the selection process for potential participants, which involved probability and purposive sampling schemes. Finally, I reviewed the evolution of the data collection instrument, my theoretical framework as the researcher, the steps and processes involved in the selection of participants, and the study legitimation. In the next chapter, the findings of the study will be presented.

CHAPTER IV

Findings

The purpose of this study was to explore elementary teachers' language ideologies and perceptions of biliteracy and their understanding of the types of support teachers need to develop student biliteracy in the classroom. To this end, I designed a study using a mixed methods approach. I explored the language ideologies and perceptions concerning how to foster biliteracy development of 172 out of 196 Grade 3 teachers who accessed the online questionnaire. The resulting sample represented teachers working in 16 of the 48 districts served by the educational service center in southeast Texas. Quantitative data consisted of participants' elicited language ideologies and demographic information, and qualitative data were responses to a follow up semi-structured interview with five respondents.

I organized this chapter by research questions and nature of the data collected. I started by providing a general description of the demographic features of participants who accessed the online survey and the types of bilingual programs offered in teachers' schools. The first research question dealt with teachers' language ideologies. In responding to this question, I used the findings from the factor analysis and descriptive statistics from the analysis of questionnaire responses. Following the results for the first research question, the chapter concludes with the description of the findings for the second research question. To determine teachers' perceptions of biliteracy and the supports needed to foster biliteracy, I report the categories that emerged as a result of two cycles of coding for the qualitative data I collected with the follow-up interviews.

Research Questions

Freeman and Freeman (2011) suggested that teachers implement practices that are aligned with their beliefs. In order to expand conversations regarding elementary teachers' language ideologies and perceptions about the supports needed to promote biliteracy in the classroom, I addressed in this study the following research questions: (a) What are select Texas elementary teachers' language ideologies? and (b) What are select Texas elementary teachers' perceptions of biliteracy and what is needed to promote biliteracy development?

Demographic Data

In this study, I used an electronic questionnaire to elicit both demographic and ideological information from potential participants (n = 256). Because the questionnaire was designed with built-in filters to ensure only Grade 3 teachers in charge of core area subjects would complete it, the questions eliciting demographic information were in two different parts of the instrument. The first portion included every participant who agreed to take part in the study and were certified teachers (n = 242). The second part included demographic information of those participants who completed the questionnaire in its entirety (n = 172).

The demographic information collected through the first portion of the instrument included years of experience, whether the participant was a Grade 3 teacher or not, whether the participant's school offered any bilingual program, and if so, which types. Additionally, the questionnaire elicited whether the participants considered themselves bilingual or multilingual, and their levels of proficiency in the different language domains (i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing). For the second portion of the

demographic information, the instrument elicited information about gender and age of participants. Appendix D contains the electronic questionnaire. The following paragraphs contain descriptive statistics of the demographic information for the 172 Grade 3 teachers who completed the questionnaire.

Out of the 172 participants who completed the instrument, 91.12% identified as women (*n* = 154), and 15 identified as men. Three preferred not to answer the gender question. The age of the participants ranged from 21 to 69, with a single mode of 36 years old. Almost half of the participants (*n* = 85) did not consider themselves as bilingual or multilingual, whereas 50.58% (*n* = 87) did. In terms of years of experience, the largest group of educators (*n* = 117) have taught for more than six years, and the second largest group consisted of 15 educators who had five years of experience. See Table 9 for the frequencies and percentages of the different ranges of teaching experience.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics for Years of Experience

Completed Years of Experience	*n*	Percent
One	10	5.81
Two	8	4.65
Three	12	6.98
Four	10	5.81
Five	15	8.72

(continued)

Completed Years of Experience	*n*	Percent
Six or More	117	68.02

Regarding the schools where participants were working at the time of the study, 138 participants or 80.23% reported their schools offered a bilingual program and 34 worked in a school that did not offer such program. Most participants mentioned having a transitional bilingual program in their campuses, and of those, more than three fourths or 78.02% (*n* = 71) offered a late transition model of bilingual education. Figure 2 shows the distribution of bilingual programs that participants reported were offered at their schools.

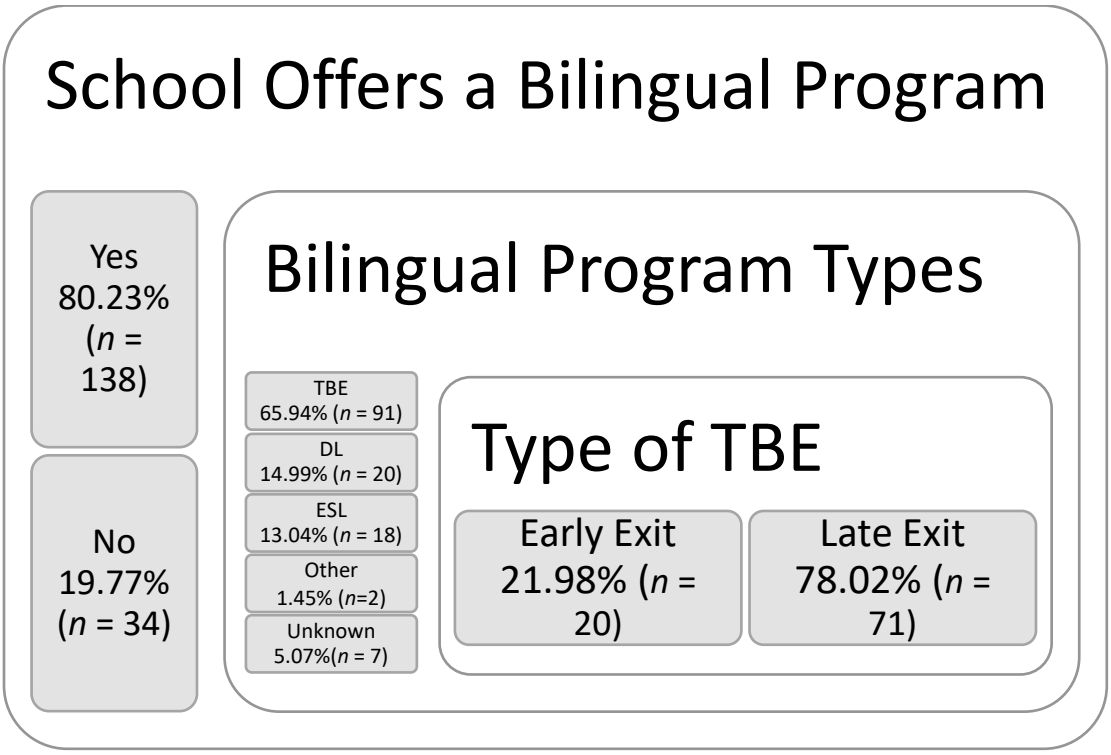

Figure 2. Distribution of bilingual programs at the schools of survey participants. TBE: Transitional Bilingual Program; DL: Dual Language; ESL: English as a Second Language. Author created.

Research Question 1: Teachers' Language Ideologies

To address Research Question 1, I conducted a factor analysis of the 172 participants' responses to the 31 Likert-scale items in the electronic questionnaire, precisely a maximum likelihood factor analysis procedure (Varimax). In conducting the Varimax factor rotation, Kaiser's (1958) eigenvalue-greater-than-one rule was employed to ascertain how many factors should be retained, along with the 5% of variance accounted for the rule (Kaiser, 1958). The factor structure coefficients were determined to be statistically significant and were retained if they had a correlation of at least .3 (Lambert & Durand, 1975). Additionally, for a factor to be considered, it had to have more than three items with positive loads. Four factors of the eight initial factors for the Teachers' Language Ideology survey were retained using these guidelines. The discarded factors included a total of nine items that were discarded from further analysis. Appendix F contains the statistical output for this process.

Thus, the factor analysis resulted in a set of four language ideologies that accounted for 41.12% of the variance among responses. The following are the language ideologies related to each factor and their respective explanation of the variance: (a) Americans Should Value Multilingualism (14.23%); (b) Using English Language Ensures Success in the United States (11.20%); (c) Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict (9.18%); and (d) Language Use is Situational (6.50%). As mentioned in Chapter III, the responses originated from the demographic section of the questionnaire and informed the selection of six different types of group membership. The six groups were (a) years of experience teaching, (b) working in a school that offered a bilingual program,

(c) type of bilingual program setting, (d) type of transitional bilingual program, (e) teacher being bilingual or not, and (f) gender.

To ascertain whether the differences in means (responses to language ideology propositions) among different groups were due to experimental error (Field, 2009), I conducted either *t*-tests or analyses of variance (ANOVAs), as appropriate for each of the language ideology factors and each independent variable. Independent samples *t*-tests are an appropriate inferential statistical procedure to calculate when the independent variable (i.e., working in a school that offered a bilingual program, being bilingual or not, and gender) is dichotomous, and the dependent variables (i.e., language ideology) are at the interval/ratio level of measurement. Similarly, ANOVA procedures are appropriate when the independent variables include more than two groups, such as years of experience and type of bilingual program offered (Slate & Rojas-LeBouef, 2011). An alpha of .05 was used for all significance tests.

Before conducting any inferential statistics with group memberships, I examined the extent to which these data were normally distributed. To determine the type of distribution, I assessed if at least half of the standardized skewness coefficients (i.e., the skewness value divided by its standard error) and the standardized kurtosis coefficients (i.e., the kurtosis value divided by its standard error), were within the limits of normality, +/- 3 (Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2002). Readers will find the specific skewness and kurtosis values calculated for the independent variables in each language ideology in Appendix G. The following sections present the findings for each language ideology identified.

Ideology 1: Americans Should Value Multilingualism. Of the remaining 22 Likert-scale items on the questionnaire, eight survey items were related to the validation and desirability of promoting multiple language use. These eight items had factor structure coefficients that met Lambert and Durand's (1975) threshold of .3 and loaded into this first factor. Readers are directed to Table 10 for the Americans Should Value Multilingualism items in order of their factor loadings. This factor had a Cronbach's coefficient alpha of .84, indicating the survey had strong internal reliability (Nunnally, 1978). Delineated in Table 11 are the descriptive statistics for the items that comprised the Americans Should Value Multilingualism ideology.

Table 10

Factor Loadings of Americans Should Value Multilingualism Ideology

Survey Item	Factor 1
"In the US, the use of more than one language should be promoted."	.83
"In the US, the use of native languages other than English is helpful for sharing tradition."	.80
"A person's linguistic abilities are assets."	.77
"Native languages are beautiful."	.76
"In the US, the use of multiple languages is an economic asset."	.72
"One should be patient with people learning a second language."	.54
"Speakers have the right to choose the language that they use in any situation."	.53
"The use of language is a human right."	.45

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics for Electronic Survey Responses for Ideology 1

Ideology 1 Questionnaire Items	*M*	*SD*
"The use of language is a human right."	1.60	1.08
"Speakers have the right to choose the language that they use in any situation."	2.62	1.33
"A person's linguistic abilities are assets."	1.41	0.76

(continued)

Ideology 1 Questionnaire Items	*M*	*SD*
"In the U.S., the use of more than one language should be promoted."	1.56	0.93
"In the U.S., the use of multiple languages is an economic asset."	1.56	0.87
"In the U.S., the use of native languages other than English is helpful for sharing tradition."	1.53	0.78
"Native languages are beautiful."	1.37	0.69
"One should be patient with people learning a second language."	1.31	0.64

Note. The number of participants who completed this survey was 172.

Because the Americans Should Value Multilingualism ideology combined eight-item questions, the minimum score for this ideology would be 8, indicating that participants strongly agree with the ideological statement. Accordingly, the maximum score would be 48, indicating strong disagreement with the ideology. The parametric independent samples *t*-tests revealed statistically significant differences only between teachers who identified themselves as bilingual or multilingual and those who did not, $t(167.10) = -3.13$, $p = .002$. This difference represented a near medium effect size (Cohen's *d*) of 0.48 (Cohen, 1988). Participants who identified as bilingual or multilingual espoused a statistically significantly higher level of agreement with the ideology statement, almost one fifth as high than did teachers who did not identify as bilingual or multilingual. Descriptive statistics for this analysis are delineated in Table 12.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics for Americans Should Value Multilingualism Ideology by Participant's Bilingual Status

Identified as Bilingual	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Yes	87	11.85	5.16
No	85	14.14	4.41

No other inferential statistical procedure yielded statistically significant differences between means by group membership. Effect sizes for the *t*-tests completed with bilingual program offering, type of transitional bilingual program, and gender were small. Analysis of variance conducted for years of experience and types of bilingual program resulted in effect sizes ranging from small to moderate, respectively. Table 13 contains the effect sizes for each of the membership variables analyses.

Table 13

Effect Sizes for Independent Variables with No Statistically Significant Differences for Ideology 1

Independent Variable	Statistical Technique	Effect Size
Years of Experience	ANOVA	Partial $\eta^2 = .03$ (small)
Bilingual Program Offering	*t*-test	Cohen's $d = .003$ (very small)
Types of Bilingual Program	ANOVA	Partial $\eta^2 = .06$ (moderate)

(continued)

Independent Variable	Statistical Technique	Effect Size
Type of Transitional Bilingual Program	*t*-test	Cohen's *d* = .18 (small)
Gender	*t*-test	Cohen's *d* = .41 (small)

Using English Language Ensures Success in America. The second ideology factor had a factor structure of six items that were related to the advantages of using English in America and that met Lambert and Durand's (1975) threshold of .3. These survey items were named *Using English Language Ensures Success in America*. Readers are directed to Table 14 for the electronic questionnaire items in order of their factor loadings. This ideology factor had a Cronbach's coefficient alpha of .84, indicating strong internal consistency (Nunnally, 1978). Presented in Table 15 are the descriptive statistics for the items that comprised the Using English Ensures Success in America ideology.

Table 14

Factor Loadings of Using English Ensures Success in America Ideology

Survey Item	Factor 2
"In the U.S., using English is important for social gains."	.87
"In the U.S., using English is important for material wealth."	.80
"The success of a nation depends on the use of a national language."	.76
"Language represents national identity."	.68

(continued)

Survey Item	Factor 2
"In the U.S., knowing English helps a person to be American."	.61
"The standard or model form of a language is the most appropriate form for school."	.51

Table 15

Descriptive Statistics for Electronic Survey Responses for Ideology 2

Ideology 2 Questionnaire Items	*M*	*SD*
"In the U.S., using English is important for material wealth."	3.19	1.36
"In the U.S., using English is important for social gains."	2.94	1.34
"The success of a nation depends on the use of a national language."	3.62	1.44
"Language represents national identity."	3.09	1.32
"In the U.S., knowing English helps a person to be American."	3.62	1.45
"The standard or model form of a language is the most appropriate form for school."	3.28	1.19

Note. The number of participants who completed this survey was 172.

Using English Language Ensures Success in the United States ideology combined six item questions, yielding a minimum score of 6 for this ideology, which would indicate participants strongly agree with the ideological statement, and a maximum score of 36, indicating strong disagreement with the ideology. The only inferential statistical technique that revealed statistically significant differences was the parametric independent samples *t*-tests between teachers who identified themselves as bilingual or

multilingual and those who did not, $t(165.04) = 2.09$, $p = .038$. This difference represented a small effect size (Cohen's *d*) of 0.32 (Cohen, 1988). In this case, participants who identified as bilingual or multilingual espoused a statistically significantly higher disagreement with the ideology statement, almost 10% as high, than did teachers who did not identify as bilingual or multilingual. Table 16 contains the descriptive statistics for this analysis.

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics for Using English Language Ensures Success in the United States Ideology by Participant's Bilingual Status

Identified as Bilingual	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Yes	87	20.69	5.49
No	85	18.79	6.39

As in the first ideology, no statistically significant differences in means were revealed for the other independent variables, when looking at the Using English Ensures Success in America ideology. Effect sizes for the *t*-tests completed with bilingual program offering and type of transitional bilingual program were very small and for gender the effect sizes were medium. Analysis of variance conducted for years of experience and types of bilingual program resulted in small effect sizes. Table 17 contains the effect sizes for each of the membership variables analyses.

Table 17

Effect Sizes for Independent Variables with No Statistically Significant Differences for Ideology 2

Independent Variable	Statistical Technique	Effect Size
Years of Experience	ANOVA	Partial $\eta^2 = .04$ (small)
Bilingual Program Offering	*t*-test	Cohen's $d = .07$ (very small)
Types of Bilingual Program	ANOVA	Partial $\eta^2 = .02$ (small)
Types of Transitional Bilingual Program	*t*-test	Cohen's $d = .01$ (very small)
Gender	*t*-test	Cohen's $d = .50$ (medium)

Ideology 3: Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict. The third ideology factor had a factor structure of three items that related to social disagreement and that met Lambert and Durand's (1975) threshold of .3. These survey items were named *Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict*. Readers are directed to Table 18 for the third ideology survey items in order of their factor loadings. The Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict ideology factor had a Cronbach's coefficient alpha of .93, indicating a very strong internal consistency (Nunnally, 1978). Revealed in Table 19 are the descriptive statistics for the items that comprised the Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict ideology factor.

Table 18

Factor Loadings of Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict

Survey Item	Factor 3
"The use of more than one language creates social problems."	.92
"The use of more than one language makes social mobility difficult."	.90
"The use of more than one language makes social unity difficult."	.86

Table 19

Descriptive Statistics for Electronic Survey Responses for Ideology 3

Ideology 3 Questionnaire Items	*M*	*SD*
"The use of more than one language creates social problems."	5.13	1.11
"The use of more than one language makes social mobility difficult."	5.17	1.05
"The use of more than one language makes social unity difficult."	4.98	1.08

Note. The number of participants who completed this survey was 172.

Regarding the extent to which differences were present in adherence to this ideology as a function of types of bilingual program offered (i.e., transitional bilingual, dual language, English as a Second Language, or unknown), the parametric ANOVA revealed a statistically significant difference, $F(4, 133) = 6.29$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .16$. The effect size for this statistically significant difference was large (Cohen, 1988). Scheffé post hoc procedures revealed that differences were present in agreement with the ideology only between participants who worked in schools with transitional bilingual

programs and those who worked in schools offering ESL (See Appendix H for post-hoc tests results).

Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict ideology contained three item questions, resulting in a minimum score of 3 for this ideology for participants expressing strong agreement with the ideological statement and a maximum score of 18, indicating strong disagreement with the ideology. As revealed in Table 20, mean scores for Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict were lowest for participants working at schools offering ESL followed by participants who did not know the type of program their school offered to serve bilingual students. Readers are directed to Table 20 for the descriptive statistics for Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict ideology by bilingual program offered at school.

Table 20

Descriptive Statistics for Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict Ideology by Type of Bilingual Program Offered

Type of Bilingual Program	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Transitional bilingual program	91	15.98	2.72
Dual language program	20	14.90	2.81
ESL program	18	12.56	4.26
Other.	2	18.00	0.00
I do not know	7	13.29	3.04

For types of transitional program offered, the parametric independent samples *t*-test revealed a statistically significant difference between participants who worked at a school with early transition and those who worked in schools that offered late transitional bilingual models, $t(77.59) = 2.07$, $p = .042$. This difference represented a small effect size (Cohen's *d*) of .41 (Cohen, 1988). Participants who were working in schools with early transition models expressed statistically significantly higher levels of agreement with the ideological statement. Table 21 contains the descriptive statistics for this analysis.

Table 21

Descriptive Statistics for Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict Ideology by Participant's School Transitional Bilingual Program

Type of Transitional Bilingual Program	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Early	20	16.70	1.22
Late	71	15.77	2.99

Because the responses to the Using Multiple Languages Causes Social Conflict by participants' bilingual status were not normally distributed, a nonparametric (i.e., Mann-Whitney's U) independent samples *t*-test was completed for this analysis. The Mann-Whitney U test revealed a statistically significant difference between bilingual participants and those who were not, $U = 2015.0$, $p < .001$. The Cohen's *d* associated with this difference was 0.86. Utilizing Cohen's (1988) criteria, this finding represented a large effect size. Table 22 contains the descriptive statistics for this procedure.

Table 22

Descriptive Statistics for Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict Ideology by Participant's Bilingual Status

Identified as Bilingual	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Yes	87	16.38	2.37
No	85	14.16	3.22

No statistically significant differences in means were revealed for the other three independent variables when examining the Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict ideology. Effect sizes for the *t*-tests completed with bilingual programs and for gender were very small and small, respectively. Analysis of variance conducted for years of experience resulted in small effect size. Table 23 contains the effect sizes for each of the membership variables analyses.

Table 23

Effect Sizes for Independent Variables with No Statistically Significant Differences for Ideology 3

Independent Variable	Statistical Technique	Effect Size
Years of Experience	ANOVA	Partial $\eta^2 = .01$ (small)
Bilingual Program Offering	*t*-test	Cohen's $d = .03$ (very small)
Gender	*t*-test	Cohen's $d = .18$ (small

Ideology 4: Language Use is Situational. The fourth and last ideology had a factor structure of four items that related to variations in language form depending on the context of use that met Lambert and Durand's (1975) threshold of .3. These survey items were named *Language Use is Situational*. The survey items that constituted Language Use is Situational ideology in order of their factor loadings are listed in Table 24. This fourth ideology had a Cronbach's coefficient alpha of .56, indicating a close to acceptable level of internal consistency (Nunnally, 1978). Table 25 contains the descriptive statistics for the items that comprised the Language Use is Situational.

Table 24

Factor Loadings of Language Use is Situational Ideology

Survey Item	Factor 4
"Languages are ruled-based."	.85
"A language has a standard form."	.80
"Different forms of language are appropriate for different contexts."	.39
"Using one language to complete a task is better than using two languages."	.34

Table 25

Descriptive Statistics for Electronic Survey Responses for Ideology 4

Ideology 4 Questionnaire Items	*M*	*SD*
"Using one language to complete a task is better than using two languages."	4.05	1.32

(continued)

Ideology 4 Questionnaire Items	*M*	*SD*
"A language has a standard form."	3.05	1.22
"Languages are ruled-based."	2.63	1.10
"Different forms of language are appropriate for different contexts."	2.10	0.91

Note. The number of participants who completed this survey was 172.

Similar to the previous three ideologies, parametric independent samples *t*-test revealed a statistically significant difference between participants who identified as bilingual and those who did not, $t(159.56) = 2.06$, $p = .041$. This difference represented a small effect size (Cohen's *d*) of .31 (Cohen, 1988). Participants identified as bilingual expressed statistically significantly higher levels of disagreement with the ideological statement. The descriptive statistics for this independent variable are listed in Table 26.

Table 26

Descriptive Statistics for Language Use is Situational Ideology by Participant's Bilingual Status

Identified as Bilingual	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Yes	87	12.99	3.40
No	85	11.35	2.56

No statistically significant differences in means were revealed for the other five independent variables when studying the adherence to Language Use is Situational ideology. Effect sizes were very small for the *t*-tests completed for the type of

transitional bilingual program and gender of participants, and small for participants' bilingual program offering. Analysis of variance conducted for years of experience and types of bilingual program resulted in small effect sizes. The different statistical analyses and corresponding effect sizes for each of the membership variables analyses are listed in Table 27.

Table 27

Effect Sizes for Independent Variables with No Statistically Significant Differences for Ideology 4

Independent Variable	Statistical Technique	Effect Size
Years of Experience	ANOVA	Partial $\eta^2 = .02$ (small)
Bilingual Program Offering	*t*-test	Cohen's $d = .16$ (small)
Types of Bilingual Program	ANOVA	Partial $\eta^2 = .03$ (small)
Type of Transitional Bilingual Program	*t*-test	Cohen's $d = .04$ (very small)
Gender	*t*-test	Cohen's $d = .04$ (very small)

Research Question 2: Teachers' Constructs of Biliteracy

In order to address the second research question, what are select Texas elementary teachers' perceptions of biliteracy and what is needed to promote biliteracy development, I completed five follow-up interviews. Once I made the arrangements to meet participants' availability criteria, I shared with each of the participants the interview consent via email (See Appendix C). As I mentioned in Chapter III, all five interviews

were conducted via electronic videoconference; consequently, each participant decided on their location, while I conducted each interview from my home office.

The first four interviews took place between February 9 and February 25, 2019, and the fifth interview took place on April 15, 2019. I video recorded every interview and utilized a transcription service. After receiving each transcription, I downloaded it into a word processing file and then deleted the original file from the service's website. Finally, I stored all video, audio, and transcription files in a password-protected computer for purposes of data security and participant confidentiality.

I expressed my gratitude to the participants before starting their interviews and reminded them of the goals of the study, following the same script (see Appendix A). Next, I verified if participants had reviewed the consent form and if they had any questions. None of the participants had objections or questions for the interview or its format. No risk of harm was identified. Additionally, I shared that I needed to take some notes while we were engaged in our conversation. These notes assisted me in the interview process as they prompted me to ask follow-up questions beyond the interview protocol, in what was termed *coauthoring* the interview by Brinkmann and Kvale (2015). I also utilized the notes as part of the data to be analyzed and incorporated them into my analytic memos (Saldaña, 2016) I used during the data analysis.

To analyze the responses to the 10 open-ended questions for each interview, I conducted a constant comparison process (Glaser, 1965). Although constant comparison was developed for grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2008) contended that this data analysis technique could be applied to narrative or textual data. The purpose of this analytical tool is to determine a set of themes derived

from the data in a systematic approach that supports the researcher's meaning-making process (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Because I designed this research as a descriptive study, I completed only open and axial coding, the first two phases of three involved in conducting a constant comparison analysis. I decided to conduct the qualitative data analysis for this study manually and followed the two cycles coding proposed by Saldaña (2016) as well as journaled my reactions to each interview right after it took place.

I took the following steps to complete the first cycle of coding: I started by holistically coding each interview transcript within 24 to 48 hours of conducting each interview and created a codebook. As I continued coding, I realized which codes repeated as they self-populated while I was working in Excel. Next, I sorted the initial codes alphabetically and started noticing patterns and making connections. This process prompted me to create a table (see Appendix E) were I condensed codes in categories. At this point, I noticed the high number of descriptive codes and decided to change some of them to either *In Vivo* or *Process Coding* (Saldaña, 2016). Finally, I reassigned the new codes and recorded them along with exemplifying statements from the interviews into the codebook. In a generic approach to qualitative data analysis (Saldaña, 2016), I included (a) *attribute coding* for responses linked to the participant's background; (b) *structural coding* for answers connected directly with the research question; and (c) *In Vivo coding* for when participants' words illustrated better the meaning of the data. To assist me in the category creation process, I decided to follow Saldaña's *eclectic coding* and *code mapping* processes.

I chose to use eclectic coding because it is a transition coding technique appropriate for beginner researchers working with interview transcripts. The primary purpose of eclectic coding is incorporating the analytic memoing reflections into the pre-coded data set, facilitating the process of identifying categories (Saldaña, 2016). Code mapping, on the other hand, is an iterative process that allows one to organize and to condense the resulting codes from the first cycle improving the analysis (Saldaña, 2016).

I completed a total of three iterations to complete the code mapping process. During the first iteration, I sorted all the final 93 codes into 15 categories, including one for participants' background information. After a further examination of the resulting categories and codes, I nested and combined codes and categories, leading me to alter the contents of 14 of the original categories, excluding the background category. I also changed the order of the categories to align them more closely to the research question (i.e., perceptions of biliteracy and what is needed to promote its development), as well as included subcategories. This process resulted in seven categories with five subcategories.

Finally, after I typed the seven categories, their corresponding subcategories, and associated codes, I printed them and cut them apart, following Saldaña's (2016) tabletop categories process. This process involved resorting the category cards by natural association with the intention of the research question guiding the analysis. The final three categories with their different subcategories are the contents of Figure 3.

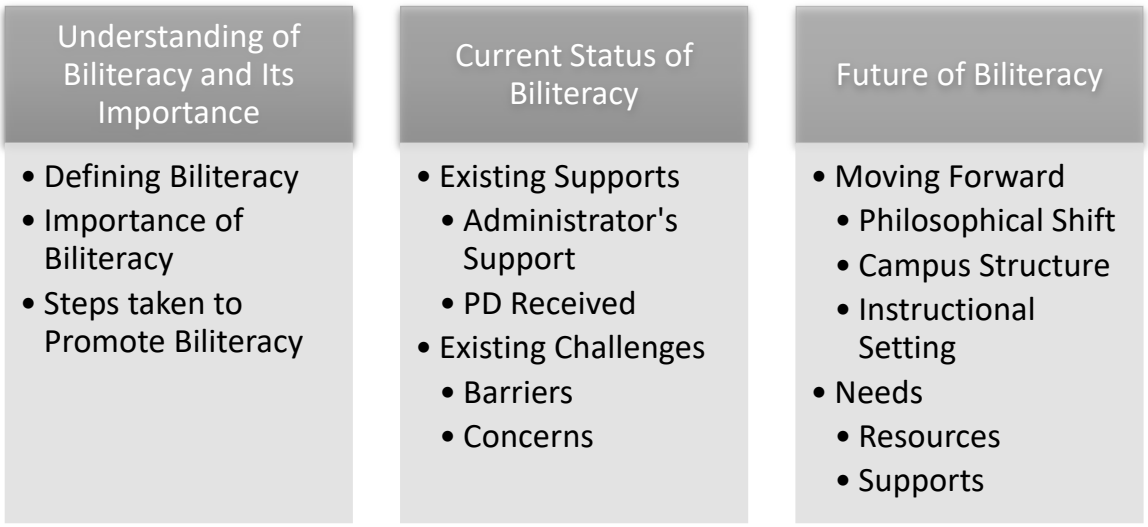

Figure 3. Emerging categories from the qualitative data analysis. Author created.

Category 1: Understanding of biliteracy and its importance. The first question after the building rapport asked participants to provide their definition of biliteracy. Although for three of the participants, Ana, Beatriz, and Dora, a clear definition of biliteracy included the ability to read and write in two languages, Beatriz qualified her definition by saying

> I know it's not easy. It might seem easy. Oh, you speak two languages, it's no big deal. But *it is a big deal*. Especially academically. It can get very, very difficult for you It's a lot of work to be able to write, speak, listen, and do all these things, read in English and Spanish. It's something that if you're not strong on [the] one you can't learn the other successfully.

In contrast, for Clara, biliteracy "kind of sounds a lot like knowing two languages, like bilingual." Then, she added "I don't know if that's the same as dual language, and I'm not sure if that's like bilingual", making evident her uncertainty about the meaning of

the concept. Ellen, on the other hand, admitted not being familiar with the term biliteracy. Because the rest of the interview had to do with biliteracy and ways to support it, I confirmed and expanded the concept of biliteracy used in this study with every participant to include the skills to participate in conversations about the written word in social interactions in two or more languages (Hornberger, 1989).

Subcategory: Importance of biliteracy. When prompted for the importance of biliteracy, all five participants agreed it was essential and expressed a wide range of reasons, including (a) defining who participants were, (b) making connections with people and languages, (c) securing advantages, and (d) allowing to bridge gaps. For Ana and Beatriz, biliteracy was deeply rooted in their personalities, especially considering that both of them went to schools with no bilingual education support. As Ana shared, "biliteracy is important to me because it builds the person that I am, and how I can relate to others in the world. I did not go through a bilingual program. I was in a regular program." Beatriz explained the importance of biliteracy this way,

> For me personally, it's important, because I'm from immigrant parents that only spoke one language at home and the schools where I was at, there was no bilingual education. It was [sic] they submerged you into the English, and you had to learn because there was no other option, but to learn. It's very, very important to me. The fact that you grow up in a household where it's only Spanish, and then you go to school where it's English. If you're able to grasp them both and be proficient in both, I think that's a gift.

Making connections with people and languages was the explanation that Clara had for the critical role biliteracy played in her upbringing. Talking about her perceptions, Clara mentioned,

> I have a connection with people. As far as me growing up, my mom didn't know English; my dad didn't know, my dad knew a little bit of English I've always been kind of the translator for them, growing up. And I always felt like me knowing the language; I was, you know, I'm able to make connections between people. Whether it's, they're trying to make, sell something, or whatever transaction or whatever, but for me knowing a second language has always been a way of just making more connections with people and communicating ideas.

Ana echoed this sentiment when she commented, "my biliteracy is important to me because it helps me relate to the struggles and the challenges that my students are going through. And also how they relate to their parents and how their parents are."

All five participants expressed multiple advantages that biliteracy brings. One of the advantages was increased opportunities in the labor market, especially with the growing communication demands, when one is able to communicate not only verbally but also via emails and other forms of written communication. Economic advantages accompany being biliterate, like economic bonuses or more job-related opportunities for people who are proficient in more than one language. Clara also referred to the communicative power of bilingual people when she said,

> I can travel to hundreds of countries, and I can communicate because I know Spanish. But then if another person doesn't know, they only know English, then

> they either have to get a translator or whatever. But [for] me, I feel like I have an advantage.

Finally, several participants made references to the academic advantages that being biliterate afford their students. Ellen expressed that "well if a student is a native speaker of another language it would be valuable for them to be able to read and write in their native language as well as in whatever other languages they're learning." Clara referred to the multiplying factor that bilingualism brings to vocabulary development thanks to the role of cognates and their support in reading comprehension. Both Dora and Clara made specific connections to the possibilities that developing biliteracy had in closing achievement gaps for bilingual students. In particular, Clara remembered some professional readings that reminded her of:

> studies that have been done in other countries, and we discussed the advantages. And it not only just saying it, but it's been proven in other countries that kids are able to learn two or three languages, and they're successful at it.

Subcategory: Steps taken to promote biliteracy. When asked about the role that their current schools play in supporting biliteracy, Beatriz and Clara mentioned how they had made intentional moves to facilitate English development with their bilingual students. In particular, Beatriz communicated,

> we do have a block to do ELD [English Language Development] time where that's the focus, helping them [the students] with their sight words, reading, writing, speaking, listening. Then, as a teacher, even in my class when it's teaching in Spanish, I still incorporate a lot of English with my students.

Clara saw herself as an advocate for biliteracy and reflected on her current practices by saying,

> As far as me, I'm always promoting it, promoting biliteracy with my students. I know that I'm a bilingual teacher, so I always introduce, I try to have like a preview in English, the vocabulary that we're doing in math, especially math. I always preview it in English so that they have the vocabulary in English as well, especially since next year they're going to have everything in English.

It was clear for Clara that her efforts to promote metalinguistic connections among her students were part of her facilitation of biliteracy. She mentioned how she,

> tried to make that connection between the English and the Spanish, make sure that they understand the concept, but then also throw in the vocabulary in English so that they know, 'Hey, if we are talking about perimeter in English, okay, how do we say it in English?' But in Spanish we say *perímetro*, but in English we say perimeter, so it's just making the connection.

Category 2: Current status of biliteracy. A wide variety of codes fell under this category. I compiled some of the codes associated with what participants perceived as existing supports in their schools and or school districts into the first subcategory. The second subcategory contains the codes that indicated some of the challenges that participants faced when trying to foster biliteracy development in their classrooms. The following subsections elaborate on these two specific subcategories.

Subcategory: Existing supports. When I asked participants whether they thought their schools were promoting biliteracy development, the responses varied greatly. It is worth noting that only Beatriz and Dora were explicit in indicating the role their

administrators played in providing a supportive environment for biliteracy development. For Ana, such support was more as an ideal than reality because for her "what we failed is just the execution of it."

Administrators' support. Dora shared that "we receive the support from the principal too, and I think they value biliteracy because if we need something, then they get it. They provide us with all the support we need for the kids." Beatriz reiterated how by establishing a clear focus on English Language Development as one of the goals for the school, administrators had put in place structures that supported biliteracy development.

Professional development received. In addition to the role of administrators, most participants mentioned their school districts' commitment to preparing teachers, and in particular bilingual teachers, as strong support for the development of biliteracy. For instance, Dora felt that in her school district,

> I think we're doing good. We're doing good. I mean the teachers are well prepared to help the kids become biliterate. The district provides all the support that bilingual teachers need, and I think we are prepared, we are well prepared by the district.

Whenever participants talked about professional development as a support for biliteracy, they clarified that most of the workshops they received were not explicitly geared toward biliteracy. Nevertheless, they felt the different training opportunities allowed them to engage in conversations regarding how to address the academic and linguistic needs of their bilingual students. Dora mentioned how during their regular bilingual Professional Learning Community meetings she felt the district was preparing

bilingual teachers for biliteracy, “because we train on how to teach kids [to] read and write in another language.” Furthermore for Dora, these meetings trained her on

> strategies that can help the kids develop writing and reading and all the speaking and listening. They just give us some strategies, like having students participate in class discussions, or incorporate more of writing on math, which is the subject that I teach, science. How to incorporate all the reading and writing on those subjects.

Subcategory: Existing challenges. Participants were transparent in sharing the challenges they felt were on the way to facilitate biliteracy development in their schools and classrooms. This transparency resulted in a richly populated set of codes under the subcategory of challenges. I divided the related codes into two main subcategories: (a) barriers and (b) concerns.

Barriers. Under this emerging subcategory, I included instances in which participants felt that administrators’ understanding of biliteracy, the existing campus structures, the program implementation, or even the nature of Spanish as a language constituted impediments in the trajectory of biliteracy for their students. When I asked participants if they felt their schools were promoting biliteracy, both Ana and Ellen were emphatic on their answers and said “no, we’re not promoting biliteracy” and “no, I don’t think so,” respectively. When I prompted them for elaboration on their responses, although their answers seemed initially different, in both cases, teachers' perceptions were that the focus for their schools was on developing English.

In the case of Ana's school, three main barriers emerged. First, her perception that their administrators did not have a clear understanding of the obstacles with which bilingual students and teachers must deal was reflected in her comments:

> I don't think we, we're not a strong campus in biliteracy because I don't think our administrators are empathetic about the language struggles that our bilingual kids go through. And us as teachers. That we go through in order to help these kids be successful.

For Ana, the lack of administrators' support was also evident in the inconsistency in implementation across campuses of the district-mandated transitional bilingual program for different grade levels. Ana explained, "It just depends on your campus. The campus where I'm currently at, we don't implement any of that Spanish. So, you know it's research-based, but we're not doing it. So, it's kind of null and void." Later, Ana added, "here is this, this Spanish continuum, and you kind of sit there and say, 'That's great!' But we're not doing that in our campus. We are shoving English down our kids' throats."

One area in which several teachers perceived a barrier for their professional growth was the perception of inequity between existing supports for mainstream teachers and those geared to bilingual ones. Although for most of the participants, the specialized professional development offered by their districts was valued, teachers also expressed that those opportunities were not enough when compared to the magnitude of their tasks. Clara communicated her idea of not having sufficient training opportunities as a bilingual teacher:

> I feel like there's not enough available for bilingual teachers, as far as that's focused just on bilingual. I mean we do have every nine weeks we have the

> bilingual focus in our district, but that's what, four times in a year. So, I feel like that's for me it's not enough.

The sentiment was not only limited to the training for bilingual educators. Ana shared how when attending content-specific workshops she felt, "it's English grammar that they support. And so, you know, that's great, and it's great for the regular teachers sitting across from you. But then I think we need like specific examples." This last statement revealed another area of perceived inequity between regular education teachers and bilingual ones, that of resources. Continuing with the example of a grammar workshop facilitated in English, Ana cited the following example of the difficulty associated with accessing appropriate resources for bilingual students:

> for example, something like irregular verbs. And she [English writing teacher] would say, 'Oh, I just teach it. I just like, show them examples', and that's great! And then I would think, 'Well, that's great for you.' But I would have to go home and do some background and see where can I find, I'd pull out textbooks and see, and here's a page where I can photocopy, of irregular common irregular verbs that my kids are going to see because they need this tool to bridge that gap.

Then Ana finished by saying, "you teach it, great because your kids have heard it for nine years. But I need to provide scaffolds and sometimes those scaffolds, you gotta [sic] go find them."

Finally, the fact that the grade-level teams were departmentalized (i.e., teachers only taught one or two subjects) resulted in Ana's feeling that "we don't know, we only know our kids in one dimension. We don't know them holistically." This reality made it

more difficult for Ana to address her students' linguistic and academic needs in supporting their biliteracy trajectory.

Concerns. This subcategory includes participants' contradictory preconceptions translated into obstacles in the process of biliteracy development. These preconceptions include the problems associated with being a bilingual student, the complexity of academic Spanish, the fear of losing Spanish, the need to use English as an incentive to promote students' success, and state testing pressures. Despite the subconscious nature of these ideas, they clearly illustrated the issues faced in the current state of biliteracy instruction in their classrooms and schools.

One of the emerging contradictory preconceptions consisted of identifying Spanish as a very complex academic language, and at the same time highlighting how unnecessary were the efforts in teaching Spanish grammar to students. Ana shared with me that each year,

> I tried to be a little bit more targeted about how rigorous the academic Spanish is. And so, being more aware of that and how I could, whenever speaking to my students, I could use different synonyms, different ways to say something. Asking it with different academic terms so that they because the more you're exposed to something, you know, the more familiar you are with it.

This comment contrasted with her reflection on teaching Grade 3 students, which illustrates the second preconception,

> they [the students] only need so much Spanish grammar that even like the second year it could be the introduction to a lot of the things they'll see in fourth grade, because Spanish is so phonetic, you know, you don't need to, to really teach like

> when you change plural verbs, or plural nouns, you know, the C to the X or whatever, those changes. The C to CX or CH. You know, those kinds of things.

Ana concluded her reflection by saying, "whenever I'm teaching that, kids, like nodding their head like *duh, this makes sense*, I speak it. I know it." However, one of Ana's criticism of the bilingual program on her campus was teachers' lack of appropriate Spanish to be the language model and support the literacy development of students. Ana mentioned how "as a parent, I'm thinking, 'I don't want you speaking to my child because you don't know how to speak correctly, you don't know how to conjugate verbs in Spanish.'"

Ana was not alone in perceiving the teaching Spanish to their bilingual students as inappropriate. Clara mentioned,

> For me, my frustration is, I'm teaching writing in Spanish, so I'm teaching everything in Spanish, the kids are writing in Spanish. They are writing their essays. I'm teaching them how, the rules, the diphthongs, and all the rules the *acentos* [accent marks] and all that. But then next year, now in fourth grade, everything is going to be in English. So, that's I'm like, I'm teaching them this in Spanish now, but they're not even going to use it.

This intense feeling of redundancy in teaching in Spanish sharply contrasted with another perception both Ana and Clara manifested: their fear of their students losing their Spanish. For Clara, this apprehension was rooted in the long-term consequences for her students as she mentioned,

> I don't want them to forget what they've been learning all these years, which some kids could forget. And that would be sad for them because, some kids, they need

> that reinforcement or else they will lose it, and that's what's scary. I don't want them to lose their Spanish.

In Ana's case, her apprehension originated on witnessing her own son's process. After being in a bilingual classroom with Spanish instruction from Grade K to Grade 2, Ana and her husband decided to take their student out of bilingual instruction into a mainstream classroom in Grade 3. Ana reported that "now in fourth grade, I've noticed a lot more language loss about Spanish."

Related to the previous set of preconceptions was the role that Spanish instruction plays in the bilingual programs at participants' schools. Emerging codes under this idea included *Spanish as a crutch* and *Spanish as support*. The latter concept emerged in most of the participants' comments related to the strengths that bilingual students have. Clara shared, when talking about how Spanish supports reading comprehension that,

> if there's an unfamiliar word, especially students when they're reading a passage, let's say they don't know a word in Spanish, or they don't know a word in English but then they know the root in Spanish, and they are cognates, so it helps them. It helps them find the meaning from what they know in Spanish.

Ana and Beatriz also mentioned how Spanish should be leveraged to support literacy and content development for bilingual students. Still, for the three participants who worked in a transitional bilingual school, Spanish sometimes became, according to participants' perceptions, an impediment in students' proficiency growth in English, resulting in less than ideal academic performance in both languages for bilingual students.

These perceptions revealed a deep alignment with the concept of sequential bilingualism that occurs when children start acquiring a second language when they are 3

or 4 years old (Baker & Wright, 2017). This concept excludes the simultaneous development of two languages from birth, or simultaneous bilingualism (Baker & Wright, 2017), which is more aligned to the current features of student demographics in the United States (Beeman & Urow, 2013; Escamilla et al., 2014). This belief system was evident in the following statement made by Clara when sharing students' interaction in her classroom, "that's what scares me [be]cause I want them to fully know and grasp the languages separately." Another comment from Ana also exemplifies the sequential literacy development:

> Some kids weren't being challenged, they weren't being exited, I'm sorry, not exited, but they weren't being taught in English because they were like, well they are beginners, or intermediate, let's keep them in Spanish. And some of those because, you know, just different conversation where we think, oh, they're going to be more successful on the STAAR Spanish test [Texas state exam]. But then they, those kids aren't successful in Spanish anyway. We didn't instruct them in English, and now they don't have tools to be successful in middle school.

This last statement brings up another critical barrier in the process of biliteracy development, the pressures that the state-mandated test poses on the decision-making process of student language of instruction in a transitional bilingual program, and teachers' perceptions about the role that English acquisition should play in motivating students toward academic success.

State-mandating testing, from academics to language proficiency measures and their resulting consequences on school administrators' decisions, was a common thread in four out of the five interviews. For Clara, the fact that her students were taking the State

of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR) test in Spanish implied time restrictions to spend on possible activities to promote English practice and growth for her students. In Beatriz's case, the pressure of working in a school struggling with showing acceptable results in the state test was part of her rationale for having difficulties in differentiating by language proficiency in her classroom. According to Ana, one of the leading causes for the lack of support for biliteracy development in her campus was the need for the school to "show yearly progress," which is one of the accountability expectations of the state of Texas.

Dora’s responses revealed she embraced the academic state-mandated test as a measure of the growth of her students because Grade 3 is the first time that students face such an exam. Moreover, although she did not mention the test by name, she explained how the difference in performance between Spanish and bilingual students and native English speakers was, in her mind, the reason why her district was moving to adopt a dual-language program. Additionally, Dora's focus on the English proficiency test, known as Texas Language Proficiency Assessment System (TELPAS), revealed her district had created a professional development support system to address students' expected growth in English proficiency.

Another emerging concern for the development of biliteracy related to transitional bilingual programs was the associations that both English and Spanish had in teachers' minds regarding supporting student performance. I already mentioned how participants perceived instruction in Spanish as both an essential support and a crutch. In contrast, for Ana, instruction in English was a type of reward, or as she stated, “if we teach them more English sooner the English is kind of an incentive to want to be successful." For Beatriz,

Clara, and Ellen, English was the ultimate goal, and therefore, they wanted to make every effort in guaranteeing students develop vocabulary and reading skills in English. This perception was best expressed by Ana when talking about her decision-making process for taking her son out of the bilingual program. She shared her decision was “because we live in the United States, and you can't escape the environment in which you live and that it's so English dominant.”

Category 3: Future of biliteracy. This last main category contains all the codes related to next steps teachers believed were necessary in order to support biliteracy development in their classrooms and schools. Two subcategories were under this category: (a) changes needed to move forward, and (b) the specific required supports and resources to foster biliteracy development. The following sections summarize the findings for these subcategories.

Subcategory: Moving forward. One of the interview questions specifically called for ideas on instructional changes to foster biliteracy development. I organized participants' answers with four themes ranging from changes at the macro-level to changes affecting teachers' practices. The four themes were (a) having a philosophical shift, (b) setting expectations, (c) modifying campus structures, and (d) incorporating instructional variations.

Having a philosophical shift. Although only one participant commented on this action as a requirement to move forward with biliteracy development in schools, this was probably the first factor that needs to take place in order to bring change. As Ellen eloquently stated, “I guess that once you have that philosophy change that you would want to honor their native language, I guess you would have dictionaries." Moreover, she

later concluded by saying, "I guess instead of always just trying to force the English language, you would try to incorporate more a bit their language." This change in mentality was implicit in the following categories.

Setting expectations. Participants agreed on the importance of shifting expectations for biliteracy development to take place in their schools. This shift, according to Ana, should begin with being realistic in terms of the time demands that developing literacy in two languages take. According to Ana, if the system would allow for some slowing down in the acceleration of English development, then teachers could have more clarity regarding whether the nature of students' struggles is academic or linguistic. The notion of respecting the time required for second language acquisition was also brought up by Clara in her responses when she reminded me that “I feel like they [bilingual students] have more time to pick up the language and to learn it. I think it takes what? Three, four, five years to fully learn a language, you know, depending on a student.”

Additionally, by making an apparent effort in remembering the need for time to assist second language acquisition, another expectation that emerged in my conversations with teachers was the need for alignment and consistency of program implementation. Probably this point was best summarized by Beatriz when she mentioned, "I think dedicate a little bit more time to it [biliteracy instruction], and then alignment from pre-K to fourth grade, making sure everybody is putting their part in helping the students grow in biliteracy." This point was so crucial for moving biliteracy development forward in Beatriz's mind, that when I prompted for any additional comments, she responded:

> You got the alignment part, right? How everybody should be aligned, because a lot of times I feel like they come up to third grade and things that I think that they should have taught them in second grade, they don't have it. I'm like, 'Okay. It would be ideal if we were all on the same page.' Like, this grade level was responsible for teaching this, and they actually taught it. Then when they come to us, they have that prior knowledge.

Modifying campus' structures. It was clear for participants to support expectations for biliteracy development, some of the barriers needed to be removed such as some of the internal structures currently in place in their schools. The most prominent structure that needed revision, according to Ana, was the departmentalization of grade-level teams. Collaboration for Ana was a vital factor in being able to address the linguistic and academic needs of bilingual students. She communicated:

> if we all taught the same subjects, like when I used to when we were self-contained, we just had much more richer [sic] conversations, [be]cause we would struggle with the same things, and that was better brainstorming about, 'Okay, so how are we going to spiral this specific TEKS [Texas standards]?' Let's bring out a text, and we would all take it together. And we, we would problem solve how, how we're going to make this more comprehensible for our students. And then, maybe we could trade off kids. If a teacher had a, a strength in one area and not in another. Like, the way we are departmentalized, those conversations aren't happening.

Later Ana highlighted the sense of camaraderie missing in her current team because of the structure when she explained,

> So, what would I change? I would like for us to be self-contained. Because bilingual teachers help each other out when you're going through the same struggles. I've seen it. I've done it. And our kids were better for it.

Schedules emerged as another structure that needed revision in participants' schools. For several teachers, the lack of a reinforced and dedicated time for English Language Development needed to change. Clara suggested the idea of dedicated time for students who were learning a second language as part of the daily schedule school-wide. This time would include specific activities focused on language development, both in and outside the classroom. Beatriz echoed this idea by saying, "It would be a block set aside. A block, different from reading and math."

Incorporating instructional variations. Participants also demonstrated their commitment to change by offering suggestions on some of the changes they were willing to embrace in their instructional settings to improve instruction for biliteracy development. Such suggestions included specific flow in instructional groupings to address the specific needs of their students, to creating venues in which students could process in both languages facilitating skill transfer from one language to the other. Clara was particular in how she envisioned that flow of different groupings:

> For example, we have the whole group, and then from there, we break off. Mostly into small groups and then the other I see a group of kids, and they're all like doing their own work station activities, so I feel at the beginning, I would probably have a station that's just dedicated to that. Where maybe, dedicating maybe 10- 15 minutes in whole group speaking English, and then bringing it

> again to the small group, not the whole time, but maybe 10- 15 minutes again in a small group and having a workstation that's just dedicated.

Beatriz continued with, "Like giving them questions in English in a workstation, and then talking about it in a small group, like having a set time for that and then refollow that schedule." According to Beatriz, this type of structure would assist in:

> starting each student from where they're at because they're all at different levels. There are students that speak very, very well English and there are students that struggle a lot. Same thing in the writing. That's a big thing that I've noticed with my students. If I could help differentiate that for them, that would have a huge impact. Instead of teaching them all the same thing.

A factor that both Clara and Beatriz incorporated in their proposals was the explicit consideration to both languages and to making cross-linguistic connections. This idea aligned with Dora's solution, which was implementing a dual language program. Dora explained:

> For me, that's the best program for biliteracy. Best program. Not only the Hispanic, the Spanish speaking kids, all the monolingual kids that's going to help. That's the thing that I was asking for, and now it's going to happen. So, I mean, I don't think there's nothing else that I can ask for.

It is worth noting that Dora's testimony is the only one that includes the possibilities of offering biliteracy to students who were native English speakers. This fact will reappear in the following sections in terms of supports Dora felt she needed.

Subcategory: Needs. Part of the second research question dealt with teachers' perceived needs to promote biliteracy development. Two main types of needs emerged

from the data collected through the five interviews: resources and supports. Participants' perceptions about the next steps in moving biliteracy forward in their classrooms and schools involved both themes.

Resources. Although participants were very appreciative of the multiple resources offered by their school districts and administrators to facilitate bilingual instruction, three main types of resources that would require some strengthening were comprehensive libraries, updated technology, and accessible resources. The idea of comprehensive libraries included having bilingual books, that is books with text in both languages and at the students' reading levels; high-interest books at various reading levels in both the native language and in English; and bilingual and picture dictionaries in languages other than English but less common than Spanish.

Beatriz, Clara, and Ellen all mentioned needing more up-to-date technology. However, for Beatriz, the reason behind her request was the changes in the language assessment platform in Texas as it is now an online test for listening and speaking. Consequently, having more modern technology would be a way to increase practice with applications in classrooms with which students are familiar. Technological needs for Ellen represented ways to allow students whose language is different from English to learn how to pronounce and understand essential vocabulary words. For Clara, technology is already available in her school, but she felt that because of the obstacles created by schedules, the use of technology was not adequate in her classroom.

Last, the category of accessible resources equated for Beatriz that instructional coaches and other members of the leadership team should be aware of the different resources available and knowledgeable on how to use them effectively. For Clara, the

notion of accessibility translated into interactive word walls in both languages for students to take ownership of their learning.

Supports. Answers to the specific question of supports participants felt they needed to continue their efforts in promoting biliteracy in their classrooms varied in categories from campus culture to types of professional development needed. Campus culture supports included the campus structure changes mentioned in previous sections. However, Ana asked for autonomy in response to the campus structure when she replied:

> I just think if we would have more freedom in things like, well, this last 15 minutes we're going to go and look at those ELPS [English Language Proficiency Standards used by TELPAS], [and] mini-lessons that are there. Or else we lose it in transition. We lose it in, things like, it's class picture day, and the three classes go at different times. So, you're waiting for this homeroom to come back or we gotta [sic] trade kids, those things that happen a lot. Those kinds of things aren't being done because of the way our campus is structured.

Regarding the role of administrators, most participants affirmed the need for administrators to continue with the support they were providing. For example, the participants wanted administrators to guarantee teachers could attend the specialized training regularly and to provide the opportunity to share their learning with others. Ana reiterated her plea for administrators to not rush the process of second language acquisition. Clara shared she needed her administrators to assume the role of motivators for children:

> Giving incentives to the kids, motivating them maybe on the morning announcements. I know, to me, I shouldn't have to give you an incentive to do

> what you're supposed to do, but for some kids that works. They need some motivation of some sort. A lot of them, they don't see the value of me getting into iStation. They don't see it yet because they're kids. But maybe giving them something like a prize, or at the end of the day, they could do something fun.

For administrators, the role of cheerleaders also implied being providers of incentives and extending to parents, because, as Clara shared,

> the parents need to be informed too, [be]cause a lot of them don't really, I don't want to say they don't value education, but they don't know the value of the software. And saying, 'Hey, you know this software can really help your kids learn your math facts or whatever concept.' Also, giving information and giving meetings to the parents, and motivating the parents too to kind of support the kids at home.

An additional salient theme for Dora and Ellen was the need to receive one-on-one supports. In Dora's case, the need for personalized supports stemmed from the changes in the instructional model, from a transitional bilingual into a one-way dual language. Dora stated, "Somebody that is there to help me, and to walk me through the program, so that's the kind of support I'm going to need." For Ellen, this individualized support took the form of more trained personnel that could assist her with the existing co-teaching model. Having that additional trained adult in the classroom would mean having more opportunities for Ellen to attend to her students' needs and "do a lot of small group work with them, modified instruction as well as modified assessments."

Professional development. The five participants who completed the interviews mentioned different instances of professional development needs to foster biliteracy. One

concrete suggestion came from Beatriz when she mentioned how powerful it was when the consultants came to her class for a week and modeled all the strategies for second language acquisition in her former district. Beatriz concluded:

> I think that's like the biggest one I can think of because a lot of teachers are visual learners and I hear when I go to some trainings, 'Oh. It sounds so beautiful, but how do we do it?' I think just that modeling or even just going to modeling for you would be good too. Not necessarily taking a class and bringing a lot of people to the classroom, but just the teacher that needs help, going, and modeling to that person. That would help.

This sentiment was echoed by Dora, who asked for opportunities to go and visit other teachers implementing dual language instruction as a way for her to learn how to address the needs of her students, especially her Spanish learners. Dora expressed her concerns related to teaching Spanish:

> I mean, I know it will be a little hard to how to teach those kids. I don't have experience. I'm used to teaching my, the Hispanic kids, the kids that only speak Spanish. Teach Spanish to the ones that only speak English, that's going to be a challenge, I don't know what kind of support there is, I mean, what kind of resources they have for that? I'm going to need something to teach them how to write and read, and speak, and listening [to]all that in Spanish. Because I know how to do it in English, but I don't know in Spanish.

Clara made a call for more specialized training that focused on biliteracy as a way to balance the inequity she felt existed between workshop offerings offered to mainstream teachers versus the ones offered to bilingual teachers. Clara felt that:

> there's not enough available [training] for bilingual teachers, as far as that's focused just on bilingual. I mean we do have every nine weeks, we have the bilingual focus in our district, but that's what, four times in a year. So, I feel like, for me, it's not enough. I think we need to do maybe have more opportunities after school, or maybe during the summertime [be]cause I haven't even heard of anything that's for bilingual in the summertime. It's always for regular teachers.

The specialization in training for Dora was on strengthening her knowledge of Spanish grammar and how to teach Spanish to Spanish learners. When I asked if she perceived a difference in Spanish instruction between English speakers and Spanish speakers, Dora responded:

> No, not necessary, because I know when I have to use visuals and the same things that I use for the bilingual kids, in the bilingual class. It's going to be the same, it's just the, maybe the reading and writing, the grammar. It's going to be the part.

Dora continued explaining how she felt she did not need pedagogy, but content knowledge when she added, "Not techniques, not how to teach. Because I mean, we use it, we use those strategies on the bilingual class, like visuals, graphic organizers, and gestures, but it's the academic part that I need." Writing instruction also was an area of need for Ellen, who asked for more training on how to shelter writing instruction for English learners. Ellen shared some of the things she has learned, but also explained how she felt she needed more exposure to working with sentence stems and "how to draw visual cues for students."

Summary

This study involved a mixed-methods approach with quantitative and qualitative data collected and analyzed simultaneously. The primary data collection tool was an electronic questionnaire for which I completed descriptive statistics, factor analysis, and inferential statistics techniques. In terms of demographic features of the 172 Grade 3 teachers who completed the survey, the vast majority were women. Almost half of the sample or 49.42% identified themselves as not being bilingual teachers, and a little over four-fifths of respondents or 80.23% worked in a school that offered a type of bilingual program. The most common type of bilingual program offered at the schools where participants worked was the late transitional program, representing 78.02%.

I identified four main language ideologies in this study using factor analysis. The four ideologies were: (a) Americans Should Value Multilingualism; (b) Using English Language Ensures Success in the United States; (c) Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict; and (d) Language Use is Situational. These four factors accounted for 41.12% of the variance in the 31 Likert-scale items of the instrument. I studied differences in responses for each of the ideologies by group membership status. I created six different categories and three of them were demographic: (a) years of experience teaching, (b) participants bilingual status, and (c) gender. The other three dealt with the type of school in which teachers worked: (d) whether it offered a bilingual program or not, (e) type of bilingual program offered, and (f) type of transitional bilingual program.

For the first ideology, *Americans Should Value Multilingualism*, the only differences in means that had a statistically significant difference was between teachers

who were bilingual or multilingual and those who were not. Bilingual teachers agreed with the ideology at higher levels than did those who were monolingual educators in the sample. The same group membership demonstrated having statistically significant differences in terms of the average alignment to the second ideology identified, that is *Using English Language Ensures Success in the United States*. However, in this case, the bilingual teachers expressed higher levels of disagreement to this ideology than monolingual participants did.

When studying differences in responses by group membership to the ideological statement, *Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict*, statistically different responses were noted among participants who worked in a school offering ESL programs and those who worked in a school with transitional bilingual programs. The former group somewhat disagreed with the statement, whereas those who worked in schools with transitional bilingual programs disagreed with the ideology. Additionally, among teachers working in schools with transitional bilingual programs, those involved in a school with early exit expressed a higher level of disagreement with this ideological statement than those working in a late transitional bilingual school. Finally, monolingual educators expressed less disagreement with the third ideological statement than did bilingual teachers.

Last, for the ideology called *Language Use is Situational*, the only statistically significant difference in mean scores was between bilingual and monolingual respondents. In this case, bilingual teachers expressed higher levels of disagreement than did those who were monolingual. I also listed the effect sizes of all the statistical analysis, even when I found no significant statistical differences among the responses of

different groups. In most cases, the effect sizes for statistically significant differences were small to moderate.

I used two cycles of coding following Saldaña's (2016) framework for qualitative analysis to determine the three emerging categories from the data collected with five individual semi-structured interviews. Three categories emerged as follows: (a) the understanding and importance of biliteracy, (b) the current status of biliteracy, and (c) the future of biliteracy. More than 96 different codes were condensed into these three categories with several subcategories. For the first category, a construct of biliteracy, its importance, and the steps teachers had taken to promote it were the three subcategories identified.

The current status of biliteracy included subcategories related to existing supports. Those supports included administrator supports and professional development. Teachers also identified several subcategories as current challenges to biliteracy development, and those were classified as barriers such a campus structure, disparity in program implementation, and complexities of Spanish as a language. The second subcategory related to challenges was concerns, which encompassed teachers' perceptions, conscious or not, that further delayed implementation of instruction conducive to biliteracy attainment. The subcategory *concerns* included several categories. The coded categories were (a) the stigma with being a bilingual student, (b) the complexities of academic Spanish, (c) the fear of students losing their Spanish, (d) the perceived need to use English as an incentive for students, and (e) the pressures that state-mandated testing put on teachers and schools.

The third main category was the future of biliteracy. The changes needed to move forward as well as the required supports and resources to foster biliteracy development made up this category. Some of the subcategories with this category were a shift in philosophy, the setting of new expectations, and the modification of campus structures and instructional settings. Finally, teachers' suggestions of necessary types of professional development, resources, and supports comprised a subcategory called *needs*. In the following chapter, I will discuss the findings in general, and in the context of previous studies. Additionally, recommendations for practice and future research will be included.

CHAPTER V

Discussion, Recommendations, and Implications

This mixed-methods study explored the language ideologies of 172 Grade 3 teachers at one of the Educational Service Centers in Texas. The results of this study revealed the prevalence of four different language ideologies. The four ideologies were: (a) Americans Should Value Multilingualism; (b) Using English Language Ensures Success in the United States; (c) Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict; and (d) Language Use is Situational. Furthermore, I analyzed the differences in mean scores for each of the identified language ideologies among six different types of groups. I created the following six groups based on participants' demographic information: (a) years of experience teaching, (b) working in a school that offered a bilingual program, (c) type of bilingual program setting, (d) type of transitional bilingual program, (e) whether being a bilingual person or not, and (f) gender.

Additionally, follow-up interviews with five of the respondents provided qualitative data. After two cycles of coding, the analysis in this study yielded several categories about teachers' understanding of biliteracy, about the importance of biliteracy, and about teachers' perceived steps taken to promote biliteracy. A second category that emerged was teachers' ideas about the status of biliteracy development in their schools, including existing supports in place and the challenges faced. Finally, participants' perceived needs to foster biliteracy constituted the category I titled the *future of biliteracy*.

In this chapter, I offer a discussion of the findings, recommendations, and implications for practice and future research. More specifically, Chapter V contains (a)

discussion of the findings, (b) connections to the reviewed literature, (c) implications for practice and for future research, and (d) conclusions.

Discussion of the Findings

Findings in this study confirm those reported by researchers in other studies who utilized the Beliefs About Language Likert-scale instrument as part of their data collection. However, in this study, I found four main language ideologies to be significant in explaining 41.12% in the variance of the 172 responses, whereas the three previous studies reported seven (Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2011), five (Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2014), and eight (Fitzsimmons-Doolan, Palmer, & Henderson, 2015) languages ideologies that explained 57%, 53%, and 46% of the variance in their responses, respectively. The identified ideologies were (a) Americans Should Value Multilingualism; (b) Using English Language Ensures Success in the United States; (c) Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict, and (d) Language Use is Situational. In following sections, I will expand on meanings attached to each of the identified ideologies. I will also make connections to instances in which responses or comments from teachers who completed the follow-up interviews demonstrated an embracing of some of these ideologies.

Ideology 1: Americans Should Value Multilingualism. This ideology was constructed from the responses associated with eight survey items that were related to the validation and desirability to promote the use of multiple languages. This language ideology was similar to what Fitzsimmons-Doolan (2014) named *Pro-multilingualism* following her study of Arizona voters, language managers, and teachers. Americans Should Value Multilingualism also aligned to the ideology Fitzsimmons-Doolan et al.

(2015) called *Languages other than English as an endowment* when studying teachers' language ideologies in Texas.

When reviewing the descriptive statistics of the items included in the Americans Should Value Multilingualism ideology, most participants embraced this ideology. Two of the ideological statements that had the same mean average score (M = 1.56) communicated that using more than one language should be promoted (SD = 0.93) and considered an economic asset in this country (SD = 0.87). Most teachers agreed with those assertions. Additionally, the two statements with the lowest and highest scores highlighted support for this ideology. The item with the lowest score was *One should be patient with people learning a second language* (M = 1.31, SD = 0.64). The statement with the highest score was *Speakers have the right to use the language that they want in any situation* (M = 2.62, SD = 1.33). Teachers in this study demonstrated having an understanding of the challenges that learning another language brings, and simultaneously agreed with validating the use of different languages in different situations as a personal choice.

Differences in the mean scores with the first language ideology were only statistically significant among the groups of teachers who identified as bilingual and those who did not. However, both groups approached a score of 16 (i.e., *Agree*) for the first language ideology. The group of bilingual teachers had a mean of 11.85, which was closer to *Strongly Agree*, versus a mean of 14.14 for the group of monolingual teachers. When analyzing the responses of the teachers I interviewed, all five of them would agree with this ideology perhaps because of the central role that biliteracy had in their lives. An example of such agreement was Ana's affirmation, "with things that are going to

come up in the future, the more languages you acquire, the more you can relate to other people, seek help." Clara also expressed her agreement with the idea that multilingualism should be promoted because "I feel like I have an advantage towards someone that only knows one language."

Ideology 3: Using English Language Ensures Success in the United States. The six items that constituted this ideology expressed how being able to communicate in English in the United States allowed speakers to benefit economically and socially. Moreover, speaking English can play a role in creating a sense of national identity. Although this ideology (i.e., Using English Language Ensures Success in the United States) seemed contrary to the first ideology (i.e., Americans Should Value Multilingualism), this comparison also echoed what previous researchers have determined, namely that ideologies are complex and go in both directions, sometimes simultaneously (Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2011, 2014; Fitzsimmons-Doolan et al., 2015)

The three ideological statements that had the lowest and the highest scores revealed that participants tended to *Somewhat Disagree* with the language ideology. The item indicating the highest agreement with this ideology was *In the U.S., using English is important for social gains* (M = 2.94, SD = 1.34). In contrast, the two statements with the highest scores in the scale (M = 3.62, SD = 1.44) indicated participants *Somewhat Disagreed* with the assertions that *The success of a nation depends on the use of a national language* and *In the U.S., knowing English helps a person to be American* (SD = 1.45).

Once again, the only statistically significant difference in the scores was between the group of educators who identified as bilingual and those who did not. In general, the

172 teachers who completed the questionnaire individually scored 3 (*Somewhat Agree*) or 4, (*Somewhat Disagree*), resulting in bilingual teachers having on average a score of 20.69 and monolingual teachers an average score of 18.79. The belief that proficiency in English was an essential part of being successful in the U.S. was also revealed in some of Ana's responses to the follow-up interview. Although Ana suggested that administrators should not rush the second language acquisition process, she also identified a connection between being proficient in English and academic success. Explicitly she stated, "and so then it's like, well if we teach them [bilingual students] more English sooner, the English is kind of an incentive to want to be successful."

Ideology 3: Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict. Other researchers have framed this ideology as *multiple languages as a problem* (Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2011; Fitzsimmons-Doolan et al., 2015). However, findings in this study implied that speaking more than one language caused issues for the social fabric of the community. Looking at the ideological statements with extreme scores, 172 participants on average tended to mark *Disagree* in their responses. The two extreme statements were, *The use of more than one language makes social unity difficult* ($M = 5.17$, $SD = 1.05$), and *The use of more than one language makes social mobility difficult* ($M = 4.98$, $SD = 1.08$), indicating participants' disagreement with the ideology.

This third ideology was the only language ideology that yielded statistically significant differences in scores for each of three different types of groups. The differences in group mean scores are nested from the more general category to the individual level. The ANOVA analysis yielded statistically significant differences in responses by *type of bilingual program* offered at participants' schools. Furthermore,

Scheffe post hoc procedures clarified that the difference was statistically significant only between teachers who worked in a school that offered a transitional bilingual program and those who worked in a school offering ESL programs. The average scores for these two groups were between *Disagree* and *Somewhat Disagree*, with the higher disagreement expressed by teachers who worked in a school with transitional bilingual programs.

Interestingly, statistically significant differences between the scores of participants working in schools that offered late-exit transitional programs and those working in schools that offered early-exit transitional programs were also evident. In both groups, the level of disagreement with the ideology was higher among teachers working in a school with early-exit transition programs. Teachers in early-exit programs expressed, on average, closer alignment with the *Strongly Disagree* stance than did educators working in schools with late-exit programs. Participants working in late-exit programs, on average, aligned closely with the *Disagree* position for this ideology.

As with previously discussed language ideologies, differences in bilingual teachers' and monolingual teachers' mean scores were also statistically significant for the Speaking Multiple Languages Creates Social Conflict ideology. However, for both groups of teachers, their average scores approached the equivalent for *Disagree*. Instances confirming the misalignment of this language ideology were not identified by looking through the interview transcripts. On the contrary, teachers expressed how being able to speak more than one language allowed them and their students to bridge communication gaps with people from different backgrounds. Such types of comments highlighted the positive social effect that multilingualism had in the minds of

participants. As Clara stated when speaking of her bilingualism, "I have a connection with people," and later she shared with me,

> I always felt like me knowing the language, and I was able to make connections between people. Whether it's, they're trying to make, sell something, or whatever transaction or whatever, but for me knowing a second language has always been a way of just making more connections with people and communicating ideas.

Ideology 4: Language Use is Situational. The final language ideology identified in this study included statements that related to both the standard forms of languages and the recognition of different registers within languages. This language ideology matched two previously identified language ideologies (i.e., *language as a decontextualized, formal system*, and *language as a valuable, complex skill*) (Fitzsimmons-Doolan, 2011; Fitzsimmons-Doolan et al., 2015). The Language Use is Situational ideology had the largest difference between average scores for the two extreme ideological statements. The average scores varied from 2.10 to 4.05, which were equivalent to the difference between *Agree* and *Somewhat Disagree*.

The variation in extreme scores matched the opposite ends of the ideology. The statement with the lowest score was participants' beliefs that different registers should be used in different situations. Alternatively, the assertion with the highest score, *using one language when completing a task was better than using more than one language*, indicated participants' disagreement with translanguaging. Translanguaging is the validation of emergent bilinguals' use of their entire linguistic repertoire during their interactions (Baker & Wright, 2017; García & Kleifgen, 2018).

This fourth language ideology also revealed statistically significant differences between the means of bilingual and monolingual teachers. Although both groups' average scores were close to the equivalent of *Somewhat Agree*, bilingual teachers had a higher average than did monolingual teachers. This difference illustrated that monolingual teachers agreed more closely with the ideology. The presence of this language ideology was exemplified by Clara when she mentioned,

> And you know of course we are not gonna [sic] mix both languages, but if we separate the times, but a lot of the times the kids do. They think the concept, and sometimes they want to answer you in two languages. They start, they don't know how to say it in English, or they don't know how to say it in Spanish, and they'll tell me in English.

She continued, "And that's what scares me because I want them to fully know and grasp the language separately." Clara's assertion reflected the ingrained framework of sequential bilingualism (Escamilla et al., 2014) and language separation prevalent in many of the bilingual and dual-language teachers across programs in elementary schools (Beeman & Urow, 2013). Finally, Clara expressed tension with the ideology when she concluded, "But sometimes our minds, in our own minds, I'm thinking of my own mind, and I'm thinking in Spanish and then sometimes I think in English in my brain. That's the beauty of knowing two languages."

Teachers' constructs of biliteracy. The second research question of this study was what are select Texas elementary teachers' perceptions of biliteracy and what is needed to promote biliteracy development? Three emerging categories resulted from the qualitative analysis of responses to five follow-up interviews. The first category was

teachers' understanding of biliteracy and the importance of biliteracy. The second category was the teachers' ideas about the status of biliteracy development in their schools. A third category was the future of biliteracy, including participants' perceived needs to foster biliteracy.

The resulting categories highlighted the complexities in the process of fostering biliteracy development because teachers enacted practices within the confines of their schools' structures. These complexities were also noted in previous research with the same instrument and constituted what Fitzsimmons-Doolan et al. (2015) and Palmer (2011) called *ideological tensions*. The contradicting nature of some of the stances in language ideologies was also highlighted by Fitzsimmons-Doolan (2014), who suggested that seemingly contradictory ideologies are "not necessarily two sides of the same coin" (p. 45).

Category 1: Understanding of biliteracy and the importance of biliteracy. Three out of five participants had a clear concept of what biliteracy implies. These three teachers were able to define biliteracy as the ability to read and write in two languages. However, Clara did not have a clear concept of biliteracy. Furthermore, she expressed confusion regarding the differences between biliteracy and bilingualism and between biliteracy and dual-language instruction. Ellen, the only interviewed participant who was not bilingual, was very honest and shared, "I'm not familiar with the term biliteracy, sounds like something I need to learn more about." As I mentioned before, I shared with participants the adopted biliteracy definition for this study to frame the conversations with each one of the teachers.

The findings of this study regarding the importance of biliteracy were aligned with previous research on the benefits of bilingualism. Among those findings, participants recognized the economic, cultural, and academic advantages of being biliterate, echoing what researchers like Anghel, Cabrales, and Carro. (2016), Christoffels, de Haan, Steenbergen, van den Wildenberger, and Colzato (2015), Pop and Sim (2013), Proctor and Silverman (2011), and others have highlighted. The four bilingual participants, Ana, Beatriz, Clara, and Dora, stressed the connection that being biliterate had in defining who they were. This personal connection and the recognition of the benefits of being biliterate might be linked to the first ideology that emerged from the whole group of teachers surveyed in this study: *Americans Should Value Multilingualism*.

Furthermore, the subcategory *steps taken to promote biliteracy* indicated teachers' intentional facilitating of students' English language development. These moves were mostly in response to the expectations of the transitional bilingual program frameworks in place in the schools. One exception to this trend was Clara's case. Despite not having a clear concept of biliteracy, Clara was the only teacher mentioning intentional efforts in establishing metalinguistic connections for her students. Clara's efforts aimed to connect both languages, English and Spanish, and to expand her pupils' academic vocabulary. It is worth noting that in all cases, interview transcripts indicated a prevalent push for facilitating English acquisition. This pressure might constitute the enactment of the second ideology identified, which equated success in the United States with English language use, regardless that questionnaire results indicated that most participants expressed *Somewhat Disagree* with the associated ideological statements.

Category 2: Current status of biliteracy. When prompted to reflect on the current reality of biliteracy development in participants' schools and classrooms, teachers identified several systems in place that support and hinder such development. Among the existing supports, it was clear that for all participants except for Ellen, their districts and campus administrators were willing and in some cases committed to developing biliteracy. Such commitments ranged from having a focus on English Language Development for the whole campus (i.e., Beatriz) to responding to teachers' requests for support to enhance instruction for bilingual students, as was Dora's perception.

The supports that emerged through the interviews involved the ones provided by campus administrators and extended to those offered at the district level. Ana, Beatriz, Clara, and Dora all mentioned how through focused professional development geared to bilingual teachers, they felt the commitment their districts had for serving emergent bilingual students. During such meetings, the emphasis was on how to support improvements in English language proficiency. For Dora, these opportunities were synonymous with second language acquisition strategies, and she concluded that teachers in her district were highly prepared to facilitate instruction for biliteracy. Ana was very vocal in praising her school district specialists for regularly offering workshops on Spanish language arts and vocabulary development.

In contrast, Ana and Clara also shared their perceptions about how unnecessary it was for their practice and their students to learn or study Spanish language arts beyond the early years of literacy instruction. This finding illustrates the tension that exists between embraced and enacted ideologies and is an example of what I called *concerns*, as participants were not necessarily aware of how this type of belief constituted a challenge

to promoting biliteracy. Most of the concerns that emerged in the interviews dealt with teachers' apparent opposing stances to biliteracy. For example, one tension expressed was the fear of students losing their Spanish, recognizing how complex academic Spanish is, but at the same time equating proficiency in Spanish as a hindering factor in students' growth in English language proficiency. These ideological tensions are worth further and focused research.

Teachers in this study were open to identify barriers to biliteracy development in their schools. All participants but Dora expressed or suggested how their administrators did not understand the challenges involved in developing a second language. This lack of understanding was evident in participants comments about how administrators have set up departmentalized grade-level teams, and by doing so, teachers felt their opportunities to share their concerns and learn about the challenges their students had were extremely limited. Ana and Beatriz, who worked in the same school district, also highlighted how inconsistent the implementation of the late transitional bilingual programs was across their school district and even within the school.

The area of professional development emerged as a support, a barrier, and a concern when I analyzed participants' responses. I already discussed the gratitude expressed by several participants in the learning opportunities offered by their districts. Nevertheless, participants also commented on the perceived unfairness of workshop offerings to address their particular professional needs as bilingual teachers. Clara shared, “As far as just the English teachers, they have more resources. They always have more of everything. So, I feel like we are getting there but we are not there yet as far as the quality of trainings go.”

This complaint contrasted to the vagueness in responses to the question regarding particular professional development received to address biliteracy. The five participants could not remember titles or types of specific workshops focused on biliteracy that they had received, and therefore several participants mentioned how when a training was addressing biliteracy it was not applicable to their practices. The only exception to this finding was Dora who recognized how training instances focused on second language development should transfer for her upcoming practice as a dual language teacher when working with students learning Spanish. For the other three bilingual teachers, training opportunities on Spanish language arts or English Language Development were perceived as a means to support instructional practices to transition students to English. Once again, these perceptions underscored the prevalence of a subtractive approach to bilingual instruction, where the ultimate goal is to acquire proficiency in English and not develop the first language concurrently.

Category 3: Future of biliteracy. Although Ellen was the only participant who explicitly stated the need for a shift in philosophy as the starting point to promote biliteracy, this notion was central to the results listed in this category. Educational leaders and stakeholders need to support a different perception of the role of other languages different than English in the society at large before instructional changes take a hold in schools and classrooms. Nevertheless, participants in this study suggested structural and practical changes are needed to continue their commitment to facilitate biliteracy development in their campuses.

One of the structural changes requested by some of the teachers involved programmatic consistency across and within campuses in the same school district. This

request included the need for administrators to have a better understanding of the challenges and time requirements involved in developing a second language and establishing more precise and more realistic expectations to accommodate for such challenges in terms of curriculum demands, schedules, and collaboration within grade-level teams. Ana and Clara specifically questioned the effectiveness of adopting a departmentalized approach to teaching where students in elementary schools receive core subject instruction from different teachers. The main reason for questioning this instructional practice was the belief that self-contained classroom teachers knew their students better and could better address students' linguistic, academic, and emotional needs.

However, participants in this study also recognized personal changes needed to foster a more supportive environment for biliteracy development. Among the instructional changes proposed, working on differentiation by linguistic needs was one of the recurrent comments among teachers. However, most of the instructional and structural changes were aligned to meet the goal of English development for bilingual students. As I mentioned in the concerns for biliteracy section, little interest was placed on Spanish literacy continuous development.

I included in the category of *future of biliteracy* the perceived needs of participants. The teachers felt grateful for the resources and support in place. However, participants also expressed the need for additional grade-level books in Spanish that addressed the interests of the students and up-to-date technology that would allow students and teachers to expand their repertoire of instructional tools and opportunities for practice. Although instructional coaches were a resource mentioned only by Beatriz,

it is necessary to equip more personnel to support language learners so that a philosophical shift might take place. Participants shared their perception that administrators needed more training on the processes of second language acquisition. By understanding the demands of acquiring other languages, administrators could be better advocates for structural changes, such as those in schedules and grade-level teams' configurations.

Connections to the Reviewed Literature

As mentioned in Chapter II, I organized the literature review for this study following an inward progression starting with the peripheral elements of Figure 1, that is language policy and language ideologies, and continuing with considerations to some of the teachers' sources of experience, knowledge, and their practices. At the center of the figure and this study were teachers' perceptions. The following sections will center around connections between participants of this study and other research studies.

Connections to language policies and language ideologies. Palmer (2011) reported *tension* between participants expressed and enacted beliefs in her study. Although I did not have a code for tension, it was a repeated concept in my field notes due to the somehow contradicting messages among participants' responses. Teachers expressed concerns about how their students, and in Ana's case, her son, would be able to demonstrate academic success in English. Therefore, English was a marker of achievement, an idea expressed in the second ideology of this study, and this connection was not explicitly expressed for Spanish. Furthermore, Palmer identified teachers' linking English to being ready whereas Spanish was connected as a means of support.

In this study, teachers also seemed to embrace the subtractive approach to bilingualism (Lambert, 1975; Palmer, 2011). This adherence was evident when they communicated the need to prepare students to leave behind their Spanish language development once students successfully transitioned. This enacted ideology is deeply rooted in the principles of policy application that the Bilingual Act of 1968 brought and the push for English acquisition (Johnson, 2012). The prevalence of English as the language of importance for academic life was reinforced by the passing of No Child Left Behind in 2002, which has been in place for most of the teachers' professional careers in this study. This emphasis on English development continues to be apparent in the wording of the revised Texas guidelines for interpreting the law that rules transitional bilingual education in the state. According to this code, "The goal of early-exit transitional bilingual education is for program participants to use their primary language as a resource while acquiring full proficiency in English" (Texas Administrative Code, 2018, §89.1210(c)(1)); and "the goal of late-exit transitional bilingual education is for program participants to use their primary language as a resource while acquiring full proficiency in English" (§89.1210(c)(2)).

One way these policies have affected the instruction is the state-mandated testing policies. Although the topic of the mandatory test did not come up during the interviews, four of the five participants mentioned the State of Texas Assessments of Academic Readiness (STAAR) as part of their background information. As Nero (2014) pointed out, these assessments become the de facto language education policy in the schools.

The first language ideology that emerged in this study was Americans Should Value Multilingualism, and most of the participants agreed with this ideology. These

results aligned with those reported by the elementary teachers in the Gallo et al. (2014) study, specifically in terms of teachers' willingness to offer support to students working on their English language acquisition and indirectly discounting Spanish fluency as an asset. Another point of convergence was the negative connotation of using more than one language in the classroom.

The negative connotation of the use of more than one language might have been the result of teachers' perceptions of biliteracy and the role of Spanish. This result aligned with Dworin's (2011) ideology of using Spanish as a functional language (e.g., work, travel) and consequently might limit teachers' view for their students. Such a limited view of Spanish language reinforces previous findings by Proctor et al. (2010) regarding the importance of the sustained formal instruction in the Spanish language for students to receive the long-term benefits of bilingualism. However, teachers in this study did not make any comment related to Dworin's second language ideology of cultural affinity. In this study, no mention of specific uses of both languages and intentional inclusion of diverse Spanish speakers emerged during my conversations with participants.

Connections to teachers' understanding of biliteracy. As mentioned in the section where I discussed the findings on teachers' understanding of biliteracy, participants' responses indicated a general understanding that the term implied the processing of texts in two languages. However, when reviewing the data collected about instructional practices, it was also evident for bilingual participants that the importance of being biliterate had strong connections to define who they were as people, which aligned with Woolard's (1998) implications of the role of language ideologies. Additionally, as I

have previously noted, participants in this study seemed concerned about their students' English proficiency development. These results echoed what Proctor and Silverman (2011) and Soto Huerta (2010, 2012) reported as one of the focus areas for measuring biliteracy development in the past. These results also aligned with the prevalent subtractive view of bilingualism embraced by transitional bilingual and English as Second Language programs.

Connections to professional development. One important point that emerged during the analysis of the supports in place and needed was professional development. In this study, most of the professional development mentioned by participants had to do with supporting English language development in the classroom. Participants identified those workshops as supportive of biliteracy, as previous researchers have reported (Franco-Fuenmayor et al., 2015). One exception was Ana who mentioned how the only types of professional development that focused on learning both languages did not apply to her because she did not work in a dual language campus. Ana's perception underscored the need to implement changes in professional development to expand teachers' repertoire of strategies if changes in practice should occur (Aquino-Sterling, 2016; Coady et al., 2011; Franco-Fuenmayor, et al., 2015; Lucero, 2015).

This study also highlighted the need for developing pedagogical language knowledge (Aalto & Tarnanen, 2015; Bunch, 2013; Galguera, 2011). This point was evident by Dora's wonderings on how to develop Spanish literacy proficiency in her Spanish learner students. As a future dual language teacher, Dora's concern related to how to transfer her knowledge of second language acquisition from English to Spanish as the target language. This concern was the cause of my notes regarding the contrast in

approach to Spanish language arts instruction, from Ana, Clara, and in part Beatriz, as they believed this instruction was not needed. Although the original research about the need to develop pedagogical language knowledge identified mainstream teachers as the ones lacking this knowledge, based on the results of this study, I believe pedagogical language knowledge is necessary for all teachers, especially for classroom teachers to promote stable paths toward biliteracy. This type of additional professional development confirms Hornberger's (1989) call for attention to the teaching of literacy in second language as part of the framework for biliteracy.

Implications for Practice and Future Research

In her seminal work for understanding biliteracy, Hornberger (1989) provided a framework with three intersecting continua, "the micro-macro continuum, the oral-literate continuum, and the monolingual-bilingual continuum" (p. 276). The results of this study prompted me to think on the implications at the district level when dealing with program design, administrators' involvement, and professional development opportunities to facilitate a better understanding of how to promote biliteracy. By addressing these three areas, I believe the context of this study might add to the baseline knowledge of all three continua to which Hornberger referred.

Implications for program design. Bilingual education in the United States and Texas has been heavily influenced by subtractive views of bilingualism (Lambert, 1975). The deficit point of view of bilingualism has resulted in state-sanctioned programs for which the goal is English proficiency development (Johnson, 2010). This approach to bilingual education was apparent in this study participants' responses. Because conversations about biliteracy are tied to conversations of both literacy and bilingualism

(Hornberger, 1989), it is essential to address school districts' commitment to the development of biliteracy.

There are several reasons why district leaders should consider implementing dual-language programs. First, results from this study indicated that most of the 172 teachers who took part in this study in the Region 4 area agreed with the ideology Americans Should Value Multilingualism. Second, researchers (e.g., Baker & Wright, 2017; Collier & Thomas, 2009; Freeman & Freeman, 2001; García & Kleifgen, 2018; Hornberger, 1989; Proctor et al., 2010) have established that to obtain the most benefits of bilingualism, the first language needs to be developed continuously—a practice mainly supported by effective dual-language programs.

Dual language programs have the potential then to address the linguistic needs of an increasing diverse student population attending public schools (Baker & Wright, 2017; de Jong, 2013; Fitzsimmons-Doolan et al., 2015; García & Kleifgen, 2018; D. Johnson, 2010; F. Johnson, 2012; National Academy of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2017) and the needs of emergent bilingual students who have been exposed to both English and their home language since birth (Baker & Wright, 2017; Beeman & Urow, 2013; Collier & Thomas, 2009; Escamilla et al., 2014; García & Kleifgen, 2018). Finally, in Texas, Chapter 89, which is the state guidelines of the law that governs bilingual education, indicates a commitment to incentivize the implementation and improvement of dual-language programs in the state.

Implications for administrators. As leaders at the district level engage in exploring how to implement better programs that foster biliteracy development, building administrators can address more immediate needs that emerged from this study to

improve the bilingual programs currently in place. One of the identified needed supports was grade-level organization schemes. Ana and Beatriz called for reconsiderations on having departmentalized grade-level teams, as this type of instructional setting, in their view, makes it difficult for bilingual teachers to address their students' affective, linguistic, and cognitive needs, as required by the Chapter 89, Subchapter BB, §89.1210.(b)(1)(2)(3). Moreover, if administrators feel the need to establish this kind of arrangement due to enrollment numbers and other limitations, it is imperative to ensure there is built-in time for collaboration among grade-level team members. Collaboration times should allow for all teachers to have conversations about students and to explore interventions whenever they are needed.

Finally, some of the teachers involved in this study communicated their perceived need to ensure consistency in program implementation across and within campuses. This differential in access to resources for teachers of bilingual students was also a result reported by Lucero (2015). The resulting tension between what supports are available at the district versus the campus level was what Lucero called environmental resources. Administrators might address this need by allowing and facilitating the participation of other faculty and support members, such as instructional coaches and themselves, in the specialized training opportunities provided.

Implications for professional development providers. Based on the participants' suggestions for additional supports, professional development providers might need to consider ways to enhance teachers' pedagogical language knowledge (Bunch, 2013; Galguera, 2011). In doing so, educators will be able to address the needs of language learners and facilitate students' language use for both content processing and

manipulation. The idea is to equip teachers with knowledge that goes beyond the word level (Aalto & Tarnanen, 2015). Workshops should also include how to expand teachers' language knowledge of Spanish to address the needs of students as they develop more complex levels of literacy as a result of participating in dual-language programs beyond elementary grade levels.

The subtractive view of bilingualism, evident in some of participants' responses and discussed as a concern for biliteracy development in my results discussion section, might be addressed by providing more training on the type of holistic biliteracy framework espoused by Beeman and Urow (2013), Escamilla et al. (2014), and Sparrow et al. (2014). This type of professional development would facilitate the transition towards a more open discussion at the district, campus, and classroom levels about the implementation of dual-language programs. Another benefit of this approach for professional growth is the realignment with the promises of multilingualism for all. The absence of comments about language development for both English and Spanish and the focus on using Spanish exclusively as a tool to develop English underscored the need for the realignment.

Additionally, the idea of not needing to teach language arts in Spanish when speaking of biliteracy made me think about the need to educate teachers in exploring the three themes associated with literacy that Cross (2011) mentioned in his study with English as a Second Language students. Biliteracy teachers need to understand how to equip their students with the language involved in everyday practices, the oral language needed to participate in discussions about texts, and the language skills to express students' higher-order thinking. Cross called these three foci literacy for learning,

language for literacy, and language as literacy, respectively. This learning needs to extend to both languages included in the biliteracy model adopted.

According to my results, most language ideologies differed for bilingual teachers and those who were not bilingual teachers. These results highlighted the need of professional development supports for teachers to realize their role and invest in the bilingual identity development of their students by becoming "teachers as learners" (Fielding, 2016, p. 164). By embracing this role, teachers will be equipped with the tools to provide opportunities for students to utilize their linguistic repertoire in a meaningful and engaging way, and "to establish a classroom setting where there was empowerment and freedom to be bilingual" (Fielding, 2016, p. 166).

Finally, the explicit request that Dora made regarding professional development in the area of literacy instruction in Spanish for the future Spanish learners in her classroom has implications for universities and other institutions offering pre-service training for teachers. Dora's concerns are what Aquino-Sterling (2016) described as the Spanish pedagogical competencies. Such competencies included those teachers need to instruct in Spanish across the curriculum. Particular attention toward the development of these competencies is necessary if more effective English-Spanish dual-language programs are to be implemented in the state.

Implications for future research. As I mentioned towards the end of Chapter II, teachers, school leaders, and district leaders need to expand their notions of what literacy, and consequently, biliteracy mean. The expanded concepts should include not only reading and writing skills but also the role that oral language has for language learners in

verbalizing their academic work and the strategic decisions they make to complete school tasks (Cross, 2011; Durán, 2016; Proctor et al., 2010).

This expansion of our understanding implies that we need to pay attention to the instruction and assessment of oral language and written expression in both languages (Soltero-González et al., 2012). Future research needs to continue the work that Butvilofsky and Sparrow (2012) started and determine clear ways for teachers to assess students writing samples in both languages. Such research would address the concerns expressed by some teachers in this study regarding the unnecessary nature of instruction in Spanish language arts. Additionally, research in the area of effective professional development for biliteracy would address the need that novice dual-language teachers might have regarding how to support literacy development in Spanish for those students for whom Spanish is their second language.

Second, the results of this study highlighted the prevalent belief in the process of sequential bilingualism (Baker & Wright, 2017). Such results suggest there is a lack of understanding of what Escamilla et al. (2014) called "trajectories toward biliteracy" (p. 2). If school leaders are going to embrace structures that foster biliteracy development in their buildings, future research needs to continue to determine best practices for instruction and assessment that takes into consideration the simultaneous acquisition of two different languages. This research would also allow determining how simultaneous biliteracy development manifests differently from that which is currently normed under monolingual circumstances (Butvilofsky & Sparrow, 2012; Proctor & Silverman, 2011; Soltero-González et al., 2012).

Furthermore, with the changes in incentives coming from the Texas state legislature (Texas Administrative Code, 2018, §89.1229), it is logical to presume that more school districts will be interested in promoting dual-language program implementation. Additional research needs to complement the type of issues mentioned in previous paragraphs with the exploration of the professional development needs of teachers and the roles that teachers' practices have as language policy in the classroom continues to evolve (Henderson & Palmer, 2015). This type of professional development will be particularly relevant with the embracing of translanguaging (Baker & Wright, 2017; García, 2009) or the calls in dual-language research for strategic use of the two languages versus the strict separation of them (Beeman & Urow, 2013). As suggested by the findings by Palmer and Henderson (2016), it is also necessary to continue the inquiry about teachers' perceptions of their students' academic abilities depending on the model of the dual-language program selected.

Finally, future research should expand to address other stakeholders' perceptions, including those of administrators, parents, community members, and students. The interactions among these different members and the school community have a significant impact on the perceptions of the society at large (Dworin, 2011; Fielding, 2016; Granados, 2017; Reyes, 2006). After all, as Hornberger (1989) recognized, biliteracy context are often presented within an imbalanced power relation of the languages. Without a clear picture of what everyone perceives as acceptable expressions of bilingualism, little can be done to achieve the idea of investing in its development in the United States.

Conclusions

I began this study by recognizing the interconnection between language and ideologies (Gee, 2015) and how ideologies impact people's perceptions of what language should be and who should use it (De Korne, 2012). Such perceptions also exert influence in the way society defines who is considered bilingual or not. Furthermore, I focused on elementary teachers' language ideologies because of the role that teachers play in designing spaces where students can negotiate their bilingual identities (Fielding, 2016).

The results of this study suggested that most of the participants agreed with the ideological statement Americans Should Value Multilingualism, and somewhat disagreed to Using English Language Ensures Success in the United States. However, when studying teachers' responses to interview questions, my analysis revealed that the enacted practices were more aligned with subtractive bilingual viewpoints. Such a viewpoint includes practices such as emphasizing a strict separation of the languages and viewing Spanish language, which is students' first language in this study, as a mere tool to acquire English proficiency and ultimately as the language students should outgrow. These findings were in sharp contradiction to the manifested value of biliteracy that all participants shared with me, including the feeling of reenacting their childhood schooling experience.

The apparent contradiction between believed ideologies and enacted ones echoed what other researchers have already expressed (Fitzsimmons-Doolan et al., 2015; Palmer, 2011). I would conclude that according to my results, teachers saw Spanish as a cultural need but not an educational priority. Their responses and shared anecdotes underscored how much participants valued the experience of being bilingual in Spanish and English.

However, because of the existent structures and pressures in their jobs, bilingual teachers did not see the value in developing the Spanish language as an academic pursuit.

The numerous potential advantages of receiving bilingual education can only be achieved when all stakeholders have a shared understanding of (a) what language ideologies stakeholders hold, (b) what biliteracy is, and (c) what structures should be in place to promote and support biliteracy development in public-school settings. The purpose of this study was to explore these three points. The next step would be to address the general misconceptions associated to biliteracy under the historical construction of bilingual education as framed by the laws that have ruled its implementation in the United States (Johnson, 2012).

In conclusion, I firmly believe that if we are to change ideologies, we need to start changing our figured worlds. There are many advantages of growing up bilingual already reported (Anghel et al., 2016; Christoffels et al., 2015; Collier & Thomas, 2009; Pop & Sim, 2013; Proctor & Silverman, 2011) to ignore this opportunity to all children. If bilingualism is seen as a natural state of being for all students in the United States, then it is my hope that language ideologies will change towards a more inclusive way to perceive other languages. This perception of multilingualism, as the European Commission sees it, is the path to success (Johnson, 2012). Investing one's energies as researchers and practitioners on biliteracy development could be the starting point to bring that change.

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APPENDIX A

Interview Protocol

Thank you for your willingness to participate in this important research study on teachers' perceptions of and experiences with supporting biliteracy development in the classroom. I am conducting this research as part of a doctoral degree in educational leadership at Sam Houston State University.

The purpose of this case study is to explore the perceptions of select elementary teachers regarding biliteracy in their classrooms. The findings from our interview will be analyzed holistically with those of other teacher participants to identify themes that will inform teachers' needs to best support bilingual students.

Before we begin, our interview may take up to one hour to complete. Does that work for you?

Tell me a little about your educational background?

Tell me about your work experiences?

How long have you been teaching 3rd grade?

What is your favorite part of teaching third-graders?

What else you would like to share about your educational or teaching background?

Questions:

1. What do you know about biliteracy?
2. How would you define biliteracy? [Clarification: what do you think biliteracy means? / How is biliteracy different from bilingualism?]
3. How important is biliteracy for you, and why?
4. What types of professional development focused on bilingualism and biliteracy have you received?
5. Would you say that you or your school are promoting biliteracy among your students? If so, how are you/your school promoting biliteracy? / Why not?
6. If you were able to implement biliteracy instruction in your school, what instructional changes do you think would be needed to foster biliteracy in a/your classroom or the school? [Clarification: How would instruction for biliteracy look in your classroom?]
7. What kind of resources and or materials would you need to implement these instructional changes?
8. What types of supports would you say are necessary in your school to implement instruction for biliteracy? [Clarification: How can leadership assist to facilitate biliteracy instruction implementation?]
9. What kind of additional professional development opportunities would you like to receive to support you and other teachers in your building to foster biliteracy instruction?
10. Is there anything else of relevance you would like to add regarding biliteracy instruction?

APPENDIX B

IRB Approval to Conduct Research

Date: Nov 13, 2018 9:05 AM CST

TO: Rolando Merchan
Rebecca Bustamante
FROM: SHSU IRB
PROJECT TITLE: A Survey of Elementary Teachers' Language Ideologies and Their Perceptions of Biliteracy
PROTOCOL #: IRB-2018-114
SUBMISSION TYPE: Initial
ACTION: Approved
DECISION DATE: November 12, 2018
EXPIRATION DATE: November 12, 2019
EXPEDITED REVIEW CATEGORY: 6. Collection of data from voice, video, digital, or image recordings made for research purposes.
7. Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

Greetings,

The above-referenced submission has been reviewed by the IRB and it has been Approved. This decision expires on November 12, 2019. This approval is based on an appropriate risk/benefit ratio and a project design wherein the risks have been minimized. All research must be conducted in accordance with this approved submission.

Since Cayuse IRB does not currently possess the ability to provide a "stamp of approval" on any recruitment or consent documentation, it is the strong recommendation of this office to please include the following approval language in the footer of those recruitment and consent documents: IRB-2018-114/November 12, 2018/November 12, 2019.

Please remember that informed consent is a process beginning with a description of the project and insurance of participant understanding followed by a signed consent form. Informed consent must continue throughout the project via a dialogue between the researcher and research participant. Federal regulations require each participant receive a copy of the signed consent document.

Modifications: Please note that any revision to previously approved materials must be approved by this committee prior to initiation. Please submit a Modification Submission through Cayuse IRB for this procedure.

Incidents: All UNANTICIPATED PROBLEMS involving risks to subjects or others and SERIOUS and UNEXPECTED adverse events must be reported promptly to this office. Please submit an Incident Submission through Cayuse IRB for this procedure. All Department of Health and Human Services and sponsor reporting requirements should also be followed.

Renewals: Based on the risks, this project requires renewal reviews by this committee on an annual basis. Please submit a Renewal Submission through Cayuse IRB for this procedure. Your documentation for renewal must be received with sufficient time for review and updated approval before the expiration date of November 12, 2019.

Closures: When you have completed the project, a Closure Submission must be submitted through Cayuse IRB in order to close the project file.

Please note that all research records should be retained for a minimum of three years after the completion of the project.

If you have any questions, please contact the Sharla Miles at 936-294-4875 or irb@shsu.edu. Please include your protocol number in all correspondence with this committee.

Sincerely,

Donna Desforges
IRB Chair, PHSC

APPENDIX C

Electronic Consent Form - Questionnaire

Sam Houston State University
Consent for Participation in Research
A Survey of Elementary Teachers' Language Ideologies
and Their Perceptions of Biliteracy

Why am I being asked?

You are being asked to be a participant in a research study about teachers' language ideologies and perceptions of biliteracy conducted by Rolando A. Merchán, Department of Educational Leadership at Sam Houston State University, under the supervision of Dr. Rebecca Bustamante and *insert names of any other cooperating institutions*. You have been asked to participate in the research because you work as an elementary teacher in the Region 4 area and may be eligible to participate. We ask that you read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the research.

Your participation in this research is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which the subject is otherwise entitled, and the subject may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which the subject is otherwise entitled.

Why is this research being done?

Examining teacher ideologies might enlighten school and district administrators on how to improve their efforts to offer effective bilingual and multilingual education options in their schools and might inform professional development practices to raise teachers' knowledge and skills in supporting biliteracy in the classroom

What is the purpose of this research?

The purpose of this research is to explore Texas elementary teachers' language ideologies and conceptions about biliteracy.

What procedures are involved?

If you agree to be in this research, we would ask you to do the following things:

- Click on the button below to acknowledge that your participation in the study is voluntary
- Complete the survey that will follow. Please note that this survey will be best displayed on a laptop or desktop computer. Some features may be less compatible for use on a mobile device.

If you agree to the consent form, you agree to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire will take less than one hour to be completed.

Approximately 400 teachers may be involved in this research at Sam Houston State University.

What are the potential risks and discomforts?

There are no potential risks or discomforts for the participants.

Are there benefits to taking part in the research?

The benefit of this research is to gain greater insight regarding Texas elementary teachers' language ideologies and conceptions about biliteracy. There are no direct benefits to the participants.

What other options are there?

The survey will be the main source of data considered for this research. Additional data to be included will be four interviews among the participants who express their willingness to be interviewed. There are no other options available.

What about privacy and confidentiality?

The only people who will know that you are a research participant are members of the research team. No information about you, or provided by you during the research will be disclosed to others without your written permission, except:

- if necessary, to protect your rights or welfare (for example, if you are injured and need emergency care or when the SHSU Protection of Human Subjects monitors the research or consent process); or
- if required by law.

When the results of the research are published or discussed in conferences, no information will be included that would reveal your identity. If photographs, videos, or audiotape recordings of you will be used for educational purposes, your identity will be protected or disguised.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law.

Your survey responses will be kept confidential to the extent of the technology being used. Qualtrics collects IP addresses for respondents to surveys they host; however, the ability to connect your survey responses to your IP address has been disabled for this survey. That means that I will not be able to identify your responses. Please be assured, even if you express your interest in participating in the follow up interview, the only information I will have is your preferred form of contact. There will be no link between you and your survey responses. You should, however, keep in mind that answers to specific questions may make you more easily identifiable. The security and privacy policy for Qualtrics can be viewed at https://www.qualtrics.com/privacy-statement/ and https://www.qualtrics.com/security-statement/

The questionnaire will never ask for identifying information and your responses will be randomly assigned an alias by Qualtrics. Only the researcher will have access to the responses. Individual responses to the interview questionnaires will be destroyed after 3 years, following analyses of the data.

Personal identities of the participants will be concealed. All personal information, research data, and related records will be stored on the researcher's computer and backed up on his external hard drive to prevent access by unauthorized personnel.

What if I am injured as a result of my participation?

In the event of injury related to this research study, you should contact your physician or the University Health Center. However, you or your third-party payer, if any, will be responsible for payment of this treatment. There is no compensation and/or payment for medical treatment from Sam Houston State University for any injury you have from participating in this research, except as may by required of the University by law. If you feel you have been injured, you may contact the researcher, Rolando A. Merchán at [redacted].

What are the costs for participating in this research?

There are no additional research costs for which the participant will be responsible.

Will I be reimbursed for any of my expenses or paid for my participation in this research?

Participants who complete the survey and are willing to provide their contact information will be entered in raffle of an Amazon gift card worth $100.oo. Participants will not be reimbursed for any expenses incurred during his/her participation in this research.

Can I withdraw or be removed from the study?

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you do not want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

Who should I contact if I have questions?

The researcher conducting this study is Rolando A. Merchán. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you may contact the researchers at: Phone: [redacted], or contact the researcher's faculty advisor, Dr. Rebecca Bustamante at: Phone: [redacted].

What are my rights as a research subject?

If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form, or you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, you may call the Office of Research and Sponsored Programs – Sharla Miles at [redacted] or e-mail ORSP at [redacted].

You may choose not to participate or to stop your participation in this research at any time. Your decision whether or not to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which the subject is otherwise entitled, and the subject may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which the subject is otherwise entitled.

You will not be offered or receive any special consideration if you participate in this research.

Agreement to Participate

I have read (*or someone has read to me)* the above information. I have been given an opportunity to ask questions and my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this research.

Consent: I have read and understand the above information, and I willingly consent to participate in this study. I understand that if I should have any questions about my rights as a research subject, I can contact Rolando A. Merchán at [redacted] or by email at [redacted].

By clicking the button below, you acknowledge that your participation in the study is voluntary, you are 18 years of age, and that you are aware that you may choose to terminate your participation in the study at any time and for any reason.

○ I consent, begin the study.
○ I do not consent, I do not wish to participate.

Interview Consent My name is Rolando A. Merchán, and I am a doctoral student of the Educational Leadership Department at Sam Houston State University. I would like to take this opportunity to invite you to participate in a research study of teachers' language ideologies and perceptions of biliteracy. I am conducting this research under the direction of Dr. Rebecca Bustamante. I hope that data from this research will provide insights into the types of supports for teachers interested in developing biliteracy in their classrooms. You have been asked to participate in the research because you work as an elementary teacher, completed a survey, expressed your willingness to be interviewed, and may be eligible to participate.

The research is relatively straightforward, and we do not expect the research to pose any risk to any of the volunteer participants. If you consent to participate in this research, you will be asked to check the consent form and be available for an interview. Any data obtained from you will only be used for the purpose of determining recurrent themes about elementary teachers' perceptions of biliteracy. Under no circumstances will you or any other participant who participated in this research be identified. In addition, your data will remain confidential. This research will require about one hour of your time. Participants will not be pair or otherwise compensated for their participation in this project. The interviews will be video recorded for transcription purposes. The participants have the right to review the tapes. Only the researcher will have access to the tapes. All recording will be password protected and encrypted. After three years, all recordings will be destroyed.

Your participation in this research is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled, and you may discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you are interested, the results of this study will be available at the conclusion of the project.

If you have any questions about this research, please feel free to contact me, Rolando A. Merchán. If you have questions or concerns about your rights as participant, please contact Sharla Miles, Office of Research and Sponsored Programs, using her contact information below.

Rolando A. Merchán Educational Leadership Sam Houston State University Huntsville, TX 77341 Phone: [redacted] E-mail: [redacted]	Rebecca Bustamante Educational Leadership Sam Houston State University Huntsville, TX 77341 Phone: [redacted] E-mail: [redacted]	Sharla Miles Office of Research and Sponsored Programs Sam Houston State University Huntsville, TX 77341 Phone: [redacted] E-mail: [redacted]

☐ I understand the above and consent to participate

☐ I do not wish to participate in the current study

Audio Recording Release Consent

As part of this project, an audio recording will be made of you during your participation in this research project for transcription purposes only. This is completely voluntary. In any use of the audio recording, your name will not be identified. The participants have the right to review the tapes. Only the researcher will have access to the tapes. All recording will be password protected and encrypted. After three years, all recordings will be destroyed. You may request to stop the recording at any time or to erase any portion of the recording.

APPENDIX D

Language Ideologies Questionnaire

We are interested in your opinion about languages.

For the following four questions, please select the option that best describes your current role.
**Required*

1. **Are you a certified teacher? ***
   Mark only one answer.
   □ Yes
   □ No *Skip to "Not a Certified Teacher"*

2. **At the end of this school year you will have completed ____ ***
   Mark only one answer.
   □ one year of teaching
   □ two years of teaching
   □ three years of teaching
   □ four years of teaching
   □ five years of teaching
   □ six or more years of teaching

3. **Are you currently a Third-Grade homeroom teacher? ***
   Mark only one answer.
   □ Yes
   □ No *Skip to "Not a Third Grade Teacher"*

4. **You are currently teaching _____ ***
   Check all that apply.
   □ Grade 3 Language Arts
   □ Grade 3 Reading
   □ Grade 3 Mathematics
   □ Grade 3 Science
   □ Grade 3 Social Studies

Type of Program

For the next question, please consider the current school in which you are working.

5. **Does your school have a bilingual program? ***
   Mark only one answer.
   □ Yes
   □ No *Skip to "Language Repertoire"*

Program Type
You mentioned your school offers a type of bilingual program. Please answer the following question based on what you know about the program.

6. **Which option best describes the type of bilingual program your school offers? ***
   Mark only one answer.
   □ Transitional bilingual program *Skip to "Transitional Bilingual Program"*
   □ Dual language program *Skip to "Dual Language Program"*
   □ ESL program *Skip to "Language Repertoire"*
   □ Other: _____ *Skip to "Language Repertoire"*
   □ I do not know *Skip to "Language Repertoire"*

Transitional Bilingual Program
You mentioned your school offers a transitional bilingual program. Based on your knowledge, please respond the following question.

7. **In which grade do bilingual students first receive instruction primarily in English? ***
   Mark only one answer.
   □ First or Second grade *Skip to "Language Repertoire"*
   □ Third grade or above. *Skip to "Language Repertoire"*

Dual Language Program
You mentioned your school offers a dual language (DL) program. Based on your knowledge, please respond the following question.

8. **How would you describe your school's DL program? ***
   Check all that apply.
   □ One way
   □ Two way
   □ 80/20
   □ 90/10
   □ 50/50
   □ I do not know the type of DL program

Language Repertoire
For the following questions, please think about your personal experience.

9. **Do you consider yourself a bilingual or multilingual person? ***
   Mark only one answer.
   □ Yes
   □ No *Skip to "Beliefs About Language Survey"*

10. Which languages do you speak?
Check all that apply

□ Arabic *Skip to "Fluency Levels in English"*
□ English *Skip to "Fluency Levels in English"*
□ Farsi *Skip to "Fluency Levels in English"*
□ French *Skip to "Fluency Levels in English"*
□ German *Skip to "Fluency Levels in English"*
□ Mandarin *Skip to "Fluency Levels in English"*
□ Spanish
□ Vietnamese *Skip to "Fluency Levels in English"*
□ Other _____ *Skip to "Fluency Levels in English"*

Fluency Levels in Spanish
You mentioned you are fluent in Spanish.

11. For the following questions please rate your fluency level in each language domain in Spanish. Poor (1) meaning having a minimum knowledge, understanding, or production of the language. Excellent (4) meaning having a native-like knowledge, understanding, or production of the language. *
Mark only one per row.

	Poor (1)	Fair (2)	Good (3)	Excellent (4)
Listening in Spanish	□	□	□	□
Speaking in Spanish	□	□	□	□
Reading in Spanish	□	□	□	□
Writing in Spanish	□	□	□	□

Fluency Levels in English
You mentioned you are fluent in English.

12. For the following questions please rate your fluency level in each language domain in English. Poor (1) meaning having a minimum knowledge, understanding, or production of the language. Excellent (4) meaning having a native-like knowledge, understanding, or production of the language. *
Mark only one per row.

	Poor (1)	Fair (2)	Good (3)	Excellent (4)
Listening in English	□	□	□	□
Speaking in English	□	□	□	□
Reading in English	□	□	□	□

Writing in English	☐	☐	☐	☐

Beliefs About Language Survey

For the following questions, please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with each item using the following scale: (1) Strongly Agree, (2) Agree, (3) Somewhat Agree, (4) Somewhat Disagree, (5) Disagree, or (6) Strongly Disagree. *

Mark only one per row.

	Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat Agree (3)	Somewhat Disagree (4)	Disagree (3)	Strongly Disagree (4)
13. "The use of more than one language creates social problems."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. "The use of more than one language makes social mobility difficult."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. "The use of more than one language makes social unity difficult."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. "The use of language is a human right."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. "Schools must teach native languages of students."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. "Speakers have the right to choose the language that they use in any situation."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

For the following questions, please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with each item using the following scale: (1) Strongly Agree, (2) Agree, (3) Somewhat Agree, (4) Somewhat Disagree, (5) Disagree, or (6) Strongly Disagree. *

Mark only one per row.

	Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat Agree (3)	Somewhat Disagree (4)	Disagree (3)	Strongly Disagree (4)
19. "A person's linguistic abilities are assets."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. "In the US, the use of more than one language should be promoted."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. "In the US, the use of multiple languages is an economic asset."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. "In the US, the use of native languages other than English is helpful for sharing tradition."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. "Native languages are beautiful."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. "In the US, English is more normal than other languages."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. "In the US, public communications should occur in English."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

For the following questions, please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with each item using the following scale: (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Somewhat Disagree, (4) Somewhat Agree, (5) Agree, or (6) Strongly Agree. *
Mark only one per row.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree (3)	Strongly Agree

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)		(4)
26. "In the US, using English is important for gaining material wealth."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. "In the US, using English is important for social gains."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28. "The success of a nation depends on the use of a national language."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29. "Language represents national identity."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
30. "In the US, knowing English helps a person to be American."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31. "The standard of model form of a language is the most appropriate form for school."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

For the following questions, please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with each item using the following scale: (1) Strongly Agree, (2) Agree, (3) Somewhat Agree, (4) Somewhat Disagree, (5) Disagree, or (6) Strongly Disagree. *
Mark only one per row.

	Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat Agree (3)	Somewhat Disagree (4)	Disagree (3)	Strongly Disagree (4)
32. "Using one language to complete a task	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

is better than using two languages."						
33. "Practicing a language is necessary for learning a language."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
34. "One should be patient with people learning a second language."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
35. "One can know a person's intelligence from how he uses a language."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
36. "It takes more intelligence to write well than to speak well."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
37. "Languages with more speakers are stronger than languages with fewer speakers."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

For the following questions, please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with each item using the following scale: (1) Strongly Agree, (2) Agree, (3) Somewhat Agree, (4) Somewhat Disagree, (5) Disagree, or (6) Strongly Disagree. *
Mark only one per row.

	Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat Agree (3)	Somewhat Disagree (4)	Disagree (3)	Strongly Disagree (4)
38. "Languages stay the same over time."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
39. "A language has a standard form."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

40. "Languages are ruled based."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
41. "Having educational certification in a language makes a person a speaker of that language."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
42. "The purpose of learning a language is to meet people who speak that language."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
43. "Different forms of language are appropriate for different contexts."	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

The following questions are for classification purposes only.

44. Do you identify as *
Mark only one answer.
□ Female
□ Male
□ Other
□ Prefer not to answer

45. What is your age?
_____

46. Would you be interested in participating in an interview at your convenience to talk more about language? *
Mark only one answer.
□ Yes
□ No *Skip to "Questionnaire Completed"*

47. Thank you for your interest. Please provide a valid email address to contact you (This information will not be shared with anybody)
_____
Go to "Questionnaire Completed"

Not a Certified Teacher
This study focuses on certified teachers only. Thank you for time and interest in participating in the study.
Stop filling out this form.

Not a Third Grade Teacher
This study focuses on certified teachers who teach in a Grade 3 classroom only. Thank you for time and interest in participating in the study.
Stop filling out this form.

Questionnaire Completed
Your input is greatly appreciated. Thank you for completing our questionnaire!

APPENDIX E

Qualitative Analytical Tools

Categories	Descriptions	Codes

Background	Attribute coding for participants' educational and professional history	• TEACHING EXPERIENCE
		• EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND
		• GRADE 3 EXPERIENCE
		• INFLUENCERS
		  ○ EMPATHY
		  ○ DICHOTOMY OF LANGUAGES SCHOOL-HOME
		• LINGUISTIC SETTING
		• PERSONAL BILINGUAL EXPERIENCE
		• REASONS FOR ENJOYING 3RD GRADE

Inequality	References to differences between mainstream (English) and bilingual teachers in resources, opportunities, etc.	• "NO THERE YET" ○ NOT ENOUGH QUALITY • DIFFERENTIAL EXISTING SUPPORTS

Defining Biliteracy	Structural code addressing teachers' concept of biliteracy	• READING/WRITING IN TWO LANGUAGES
		  ○ BILINGUAL BEING DIFFERENT FROM BILITERATE
		• KNOWING TWO LANGUAGES
		  ○ BILINGUAL BEING THE SAME AS BILITERATE
		• DUAL=BILITERACY

(continued)

Categories	Descriptions	Codes

Importance of Biliteracy	Structural code addressing teachers' perception of the importance of biliteracy	• "ECONOMIC GROWTH"
		  ○ JOB OPPORTUNITIES
		  ○ PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION DEMANDS
		• SUCCESSFUL BILINGUAL STUDENTS
		• IDENTIFICATION
		• CONFIRMED ADVANTAGE
		• CROSSLINGUISTIC TRANSFER
		  ○ BROADER VOCABULARY/ BETTER COMMUNICATION
		• CONNECTIONS BUILDING
		• SUPPORT AS A PARENT FOR LANGUAGES

Resources Needed	Structural code addressing teachers' perception of the additional resources to support instructional changes promoting biliteracy	• JUST RIGHT BOOKS (BOTH LANGUAGES) • NO NEED • ACCESSIBLE TO TEACHERS

(continued)

Categories	Descriptions	Codes
Supports Needed from Administrators	Structural code addressing teachers' perceptions of needed administrative (building and district level) supports to foster biliteracy. Highly connected to PD needs	• INCENTIVES FOR STUDENTS • INFORMING PARENTS • STUDENTS TAKING RESPONSIBILITY • UNDERSTANDING OF TIME NEEDED • AWARENESS OF USEFULNESS OF BILINGUAL STRATEGIES • CONTINUE WITH SUPPORTS

Existing Supports	Structural code addressing the system in place that support biliteracy efforts	• DISTRICT BILINGUAL SUPPORT
		  ○ DISTRICT PROVIDED RESOURCES
		• DISTRICT SPANISH SUPPORT
		• EXCLUSIVE TRAINING FOR BILINGUAL TEACHERS
		  ○ BILINGUAL PLC
		  ○ STRATEGIES
		  ○ TELPAS TRAINING
		• TRAINED ON HOW TO READ/WRITE IN ANOTHER LANGUAGE (ENGLISH)

Professional Development Received	Structural code addressing PD geared to support biliteracy teachers remember receiving	• IMPROVEMENT OF ACADEMIC ENGLISH • COLLEGE COURSES • GLAD TRAINING • READING ARTICLES • CAN'T REMEMBER NAME

(continued)

Categories	Descriptions	Codes

Professional Development Needs	Structural code addressing teachers' perceptions of lack of professional development	• TRAINING ON VOCABULARY AND INFERENCING
		• TRAINING ON BILITERACY
		  ○ MORE TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES
		• "SEE IT IN ACTION"
		  ○ OBSERVATIONS
		• ONE-ON-ONE SUPPORT
		• HOW TO TEACH SPANISH TO ENGLISH SPEAKING KIDS
		• HOW TO TEACH LITERACY IN SPANISH

Bilingual as a Problem	Any derogatory comment for being bilingual	• BILINGUAL AS A PROBLEM ○ "ENGLISH TO SURVIVE" • SEQUENTIAL BILIGUALISM

(continued)

Categories	Descriptions	Codes

Barriers	Structural code addressing obstacles in implementation or embracing of biliteracy	• TIME CONSTRAINTS
		• FOCUS ON SUBJECT MATTER
		• ACCESS TO TECHNOLOGY
		• PROGRAMING INCONSISTENCIES/ IMPLEMENTATION
		• LANGUAGE CHALLENGES
		  ○ TEACHER CHALLENGES
		• POOR MODELS OF SPANISH
		• STAAR SUCCESS
		  ○ STATE/FEDERAL ACCOUNTABILITY
		• UNUSEFUL PD
		• UNNECESSARY SPANISH GRAMMAR
		• LACK OF ADMIN CONCERN
		• LIMITED KNOWLEDGE OF YOUR STUDENTS
		• "YOU'RE ALONE"

Threats to Biliteracy	Structural code of current practices that jeopardize biliteracy development	• DL IS NOT FOR EVERYONE • MAKING TIME • ADMINISTRATORS' DECISIONS • SPANISH AS SUPPORT • ENGLISH AS A CHALLENGE • "WE'RE NOT DOING IT"

(continued)

Categories	Descriptions	Codes

Steps Taken to Promote Biliteracy	Structural code addressing alternatives in place shared by participants	• ENSURE COMPREHENSION OF CONTENT
		• METALINGUISTIC CONNECTIONS
		  ○ PREVIEWING IN ENGLISH
		  ○ SHOWING WHAT STUDENTS KNOW IN TWO LANGUAGES
		• ACADEMIC VOCABULARY DEVELOPMENT
		• DUAL LANGUAGE
		• FLUID INSTRUCTIONAL SETTING
		• INTERACTIVE WORDWALLS
		• MORE INSTRUCTION IN ENGLISH
		• NOT ONLY SERVING HISPANIC STUDENTS
		• SMALLER CLASSES
		• COGNATES USE
		• NEEDS TO IMPROVE

Concerns About Biliteracy	Additional issues not addressed by the questions	• SPANISH LOSS • SUSTAINABILITY OF BILINGUAL PROGRAM • CHANGES IN TELPAS ○ STUDENTS ENGLISH PROFICIENCY • TESTING RESULTS/ STAAR • UNFAIR COMPARISON • ACADEMIC SPANISH

(continued)

•

Categories	Descriptions	Codes
Teacher's Role	The way participants expressed their perception of their role	• PREPARE KIDS FOR NEXT GRADE LEVEL

Brainstorming Categories for Recoding Holistic Codes Note.

Code Mapping

First Iteration- Categorization of 93 Initial Codes

Category 0: Background
Related codes:

BEATING THE ODDS
BEING A LEARNER
EMPATHY
EXPERIENCE
EXPERIENCE IN 3RD GRADE
INSTRUCTIONAL SETTING
LIKING 3RD GRADERS
MOTIVATION
STATE TEST

Category 1: Barriers
Related codes:

ADMINISTRATORS DON'T REALLY CONSIDER THE LANGUAGE
"HOW RIGOROUS THE ACADEMIC SPANISH IS"
"THEY STRUGGLE WITH ALL THE VOCABULARY"
"WE'RE NOT DOING IT"
ADMINISTRATORS MAKING DECISIONS
CAMPUS STRUCTURE
HAVING A POOR MODEL OF SPANISH
INCONSISTENCIES IN IMPLEMENTATION
KNOWING YOUR KIDS IN ONE DIMENSION
LACKING COLLABORATION
NO NEED TO TEACH SPANISH LANGUAGE ARTS
PRESSURE OF STATE TEST
PRIORITY
SEQUENTIAL BILINGUALISM
STATE EXAM INFLUENCING DECISIONS
STUDENTS HAVING SPECIFIC LANGUAGE CHALLENGES
TEACHERS HELPING OVERCOMING CHALLENGES
ACCOUNTABILITY

Category 2: Bilingual as a problem

Related codes:

"ENGLISH TO SURVIVE"
BILINGUAL SEEN AS A PROBLEM
SEQUENTIAL BILINGUALISM
USING ENGLISH TO MOTIVATE STUDENTS

Category 3: Concerns for biliteracy
Related codes:

"DON'T WANT THEM TO LOSE THEIR SPANISH"
"JUST FOCUSING ON DUAL"
"OUR STUDENTS NEED BILINGUAL PROGRAM"
ADVANTAGE
GRASP LANGUAGE SEPARATELY
STATE EXAM INFLUENCING DECISIONS

Category 4: Defining biliteracy
Related codes:

ACQUISITION OF READING AND WRITING IN TWO LANGUAGES
"LIKE BILINGUAL"
"NUANCES TO CONSIDER"
"SAME AS DUAL?"
DIFFERENT FROM BILINGUAL

Category 5: Existing supports
Related codes:

"PROVIDING TRAININGS THAT ARE ONLY FOR BILINGUAL TEACHERS"
ADMINISTRATORS VALUE BILITERACY
DISTRICT PROVIDES RESOURCES
DISTRICT SUPPORTS BILINGUAL TEACHERS
WITHIN SELF

Category 6: Importance of biliteracy
Related codes:

"ALLOWS TO BRIDGE GAPS"
"IT BUILDS THE PERSON THAT I AM"
"IS A BIG DEAL"
MAKING CONNECTIONS BETWEEN LANGUAGES
MAKING CONNECTIONS WITH PEOPLE
SECURES ADVANTAGES

Category 7: Inequity
Related codes:

"I FEEL LIKE ITS VERY UNFAIR"
MAINSTREAM TEACHERS HAVE MORE RESOURCES

Category 8: Moving forward

Related codes:

"BEING MORE REALISTIC"
"EVERYBODY SHOULD BE ALIGNED"
BALANCING PRIORITIES
CAMPUS STRUCTURE
COLLABORATION
CONSISTENCY
DEL BEST PROGRAM FOR BILITERACY
ELD TIME AS A SEPARATE TIME
HAVING A FLUID INSTRUCTIONAL SETTING
HAVING AN INTERACTIVE WORDWALL
HELPING BOTH LANGUAGES
IDK
MEETING STUDENTS WHERE THEY ARE
MORE ENGLISH NEEDED SOONER
TRANSFERING BETWEEN LANGUAGES

Category 9: Professional development needs

Related codes:

"SEE IT IN ACTION"
ADDRESSING NON-SPANISH SPEAKERS' NEEDS
HOW TO TEACH LITERACY IN SPANISH
MORE TRAININGS FOR BILITERACY
NEEDS IN PEDAGOGY

Category 10: Professional development received

Related codes:

CAN'T REMEMBER NAME
IMPROVING ACADEMIC ENGLISH
NOT APPLICABLE
PARTICIPATING IN BILINGUAL PLC
STRATEGIES TAUGHT
TYPES OF PD RECEIVED

Category 11: Resources needed

Related codes:

HAVING COMPREHENSIVE LIBRARIES
UPDATED TECHNOLOGY
"ACCESSIBLE"

Category 12: Steps taken to promote biliteracy

Related codes:

DEVELOPING ACADEMIC VOCABULARY
HAVING COMPREHENSIVE LIBRARIES
PUSHING FOR BILITERACY
TRANSFERING BETWEEN LANGUAGES

Category 13: Supports needed
Related codes:
ADMINISTRATORS AS MOTIVATORS
CAMPUS STRUCTURE
CONTINUE WITH ADMINISTRATION SUPPORT
DON'T RUSH THE PROCESS
HAVING COMPREHENSIVE LIBRARIES
NEEDING AUTONOMY
NEEDING ONE-ON-ONE SUPPORT
NOT KNOWING WHAT KINDS OF SUPPORTS ARE NEEDED
REQUIRING LOTS OF RESOURCES

Category 14: Threats to biliteracy
Related codes:
CAMPUS STRUCTURE
DL IS NOT THE ANSWER
NOTICING LANGUAGE LOSS FOR SPANISH
TIME IS LIMITED
USING SPANISH AS A CRUTCH

Second Iteration- Recategorization of the 14 Initial Categories

After a closer look at the different categories and codes, I realized some of them could be further nested and combined, modifying the contents of the initial 14 categories. I also decided to change the order of the categories to match more closely to the research question (perceptions of biliteracy and what is needed to promote its development). The following is a list of the new categories and their codes (and sub codes)

Category 1: Defining biliteracy
Related codes:
ACQUISITION OF READING AND WRITING IN TWO LANGUAGES
IN REFERENCE TO BILINGUAL (SIMILAR TO OR DIFFERENT FROM)
"NUANCES TO CONSIDER"
"SAME AS DUAL?"

Category 2: Importance of biliteracy
Related codes:
"IS A BIG DEAL", "IT BUILDS THE PERSON THAT I AM"
SECURES ADVANTAGES
IT HELPS MAKING CONNECTIONS
BETWEEN LANGUAGES

WITH PEOPLE
"ALLOWS TO BRIDGE GAPS"

Category 3: Steps taken to promote biliteracy
Related codes:
PUSHING FOR BILITERACY
DEVELOPING ACADEMIC VOCABULARY
TRANSFERING BETWEEN LANGUAGES
HAVING COMPREHENSIVE LIBRARIES

Category 4: Existing supports
Related codes:
DISTRICT SUPPORTS BILINGUAL TEACHERS
DISTRICT PROVIDES RESOURCES
ADMINISTRATORS VALUE BILITERACY
WITHIN SELF
Subcategory: Professional development received
Related codes:
TYPES OF PD RECEIVED
"PROVIDING TRAININGS THAT ARE ONLY FOR BILINGUAL TEACHERS"
PARTICIPATING IN BILINGUAL PLC
CAN'T REMEMBER NAME
IMPROVING ACADEMIC ENGLISH
NOT APPLICABLE
STRATEGIES TAUGHT

Category 5: Existing challenges
Subcategory: Barriers
Related codes:
ADMINISTRATORS
DON'T REALLY CONSIDER THE LANGUAGE
MAKING DECISIONS
CAMPUS STRUCTURE
LACKING COLLABORATION
KNOWING YOUR KIDS IN ONE DIMENSION
"HOW RIGOROUS THE ACADEMIC SPANISH IS" vs NO NEED TO TEACH SPANISH LANGUAGE ARTS
"THEY STRUGGLE WITH ALL THE VOCABULARY"
HAVING A POOR MODEL OF SPANISH
PRESSURE OF STATE TEST
STATE EXAM INFLUENCING DECISIONS
ACCOUNTABILITY
PRIORITY
INCONSISTENCIES IN IMPLEMENTATION
"WE'RE NOT DOING IT"

LANGUAGE CHALLENGES
STUDENTS HAVING SPECIFIC LANGUAGE CHALLENGES
TEACHERS HELPING OVERCOMING CHALLENGES
Subcategory: Inequity
Related codes:
"I FEEL LIKE ITS VERY UNFAIR"
MAINSTREAM TEACHERS HAVE MORE RESOURCES
Subcategory: Concerns for biliteracy
Related codes:
SEQUENTIAL BILINGUALISM
"DON'T WANT THEM TO LOSE THEIR SPANISH"
GRASP LANGUAGE SEPARATELY
BILINGUAL SEEN AS A PROBLEM
USING ENGLISH TO MOTIVATE STUDENTS
DUAL LANGUAGE VS TRANSITIONAL BILINGUAL
"JUST FOCUSING ON DUAL"
"OUR STUDENTS NEED BILINGUAL PROGRAM"
USING SPANISH AS A CRUTCH
DL IS NOT THE ANSWER
NOTICING LANGUAGE LOSS FOR SPANISH
TIME IS LIMITED

Category 6: Moving forward
Related codes:
CAMPUS STRUCTURE
COLLABORATION
CONSISTENCY
"EVERYBODY SHOULD BE ALIGNED"
"BEING MORE REALISTIC"
BALANCING PRIORITIES
DL BEST PROGRAM FOR BILITERACY
MORE ENGLISH NEEDED SOONER
ELD TIME AS A SEPARATE TIME
HAVING A FLUID INSTRUCTIONAL SETTING
HAVING AN INTERACTIVE WORDWALL
HELPING BOTH LANGUAGES
TRANSFERING BETWEEN LANGUAGES
MEETING STUDENTS WHERE THEY ARE
IDK

Category 7: Needs
Subcategory: Supports
Related codes:
ADMINISTRATORS
AS MOTIVATORS
CONTINUE WITH ADMINISTRATION SUPPORT

CAMPUS STRUCTURE
NEEDING AUTONOMY
NEEDING ONE-ON-ONE SUPPORT
DON'T RUSH THE PROCESS
MORE TRAININGS FOR BILITERACY
NEEDS IN PEDAGOGY
"SEE IT IN ACTION"
ADDRESSING NON-SPANISH SPEAKERS' NEEDS
HOW TO TEACH LITERACY IN SPANISH

Subcategory: Resources
Related codes:
UPDATED TECHNOLOGY
"ACCESSIBLE"
HAVING COMPREHENSIVE LIBRARIES
REQUIRING LOTS OF RESOURCES
NOT KNOWING WHAT KINDS OF SUPPORTS ARE NEEDED

Third Iteration- Recategorization of the 14 Initial Categories

After using the previous categories and following Saldaña's (2016) suggestion of tabletop categories (p. 230), a new iteration of code mapping resulted with some subcategories and some sub codes. Such iteration follows.

Category 1: Understandings of Biliteracy and its Importance
Subcategories:
Defining biliteracy
Importance of biliteracy
Steps taken to promote biliteracy

Category 2: The Current State of Affairs of Biliteracy
Subcategories:
Existing supports
Professional development received
Existing challenges
Barriers
Concerns

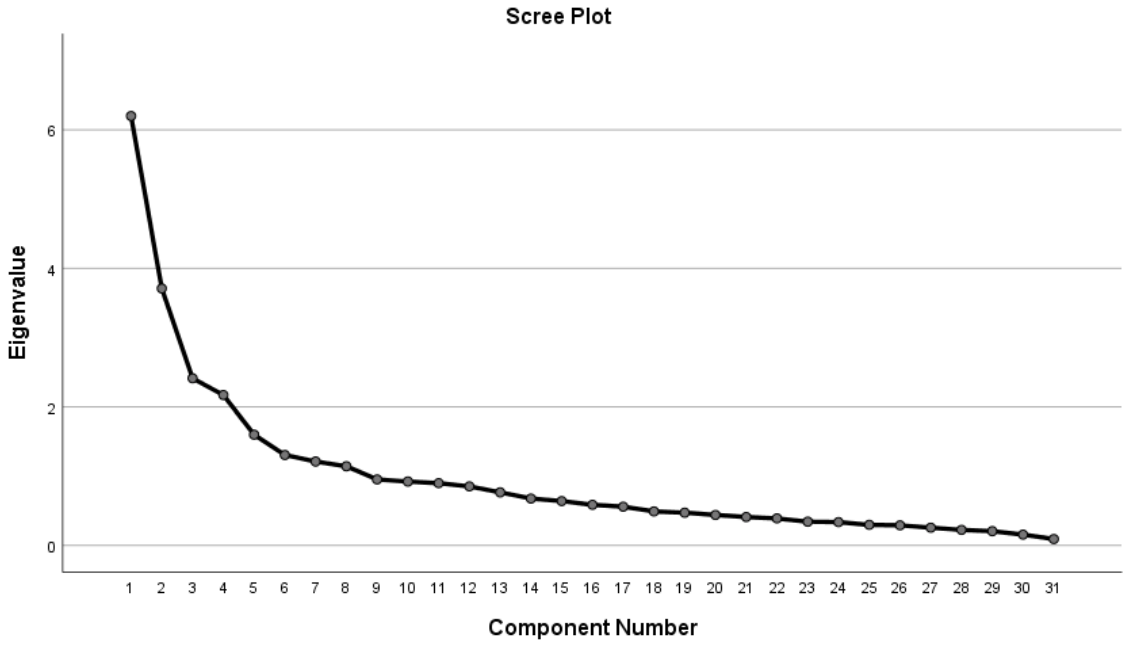
<u>Category 3: What is Needed to Move Forward</u>

Subcategories

- Moving forward
- Needs
  - Supports
  - Resources

APPENDIX F

Factor Analysis Statistical Output



Scree Plot. The line is essentially flat after the eighth factor indicating the possibility of up to eight factors.

Total Variance Explained (Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings).

Component	Total	% Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.41	14.23	14.23
2	3.47	11.20	25.43
3	2.85	9.18	34.62
4	2.02	6.50	41.12
5	1.94	6.26	47.37
6	1.88	6.07	53.44
7	1.60	5.16	58.59
8	1.59	5.12	63.71

Note. Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis

All eight eigen values are greater than one (Kaiser, 1958) and account for at least 5% of the variance. Further analysis must be completed to study the acceptable minimum value for pattern/structure coefficients of .3 (Lambert & Durand, 1975). See the Rotated Component Matrix.

Rotated component matrix.

Item	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
"The use of more than one language creates social problems."	-.15	.11	.92	.09	-.06	.04	.05	-.01
"The use of more than one language makes social mobility difficult."	-.18	.06	.90	.09	-.07	.08	.06	.09
"The use of more than one language makes social unity difficult."	-.07	.10	.86	.11	-.03	.10	.10	.10
"The use of language is a human right."	.45	.05	-.34	.08	-.25	-.11	.13	-.11
"Schools must teach native languages of students."	.40	-.14	-.11	-.07	.06	-.52	.06	.33
"Speakers have the right to choose the language that they use in any situation."	.53	-.10	-.15	-.23	.20	-.35	-.01	.37
"A person's linguistic abilities are assets."	.77	.02	-.02	.01	-.04	.11	.01	-.18
"In the US, the use of more than one language should be promoted."	.83	-.16	-.01	-.04	.02	.02	-.13	-.03
"In the US the use of multiple languages is an economic asset."	.72	-.02	-.01	-.03	.03	-.08	-.14	-.09
"In the US, the use of native languages other than English is helpful for sharing tradition."	.80	-.13	-.03	.01	.01	-.15	-.06	-.01
"Native languages are beautiful."	.76	-.03	-.18	.09	-.19	-.09	.04	.00

(continued)

Item	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
"In the US, English is more normal than other languages."	.02	-.00	.11	-.06	.23	.75	-.11	.14
"In the US, public communications should occur in English."	-.04	.37	.07	.14	.08	.58	.31	-.05
"In the US, using English is important for material wealth."	.06	.80	.04	-.05	.11	-.03	-.05	-.16
"In the US, using English is important for social gains."	.02	.87	.04	.03	.05	.06	-.10	-.15
"The success of a nation depends on the use of a national language."	-.14	.76	.17	.06	.13	.09	.17	.09
"Language represents national identity."	-.14	.68	-.07	.13	-.07	-.04	.12	.19
"In the US, knowing English helps a person to be American."	-.15	.61	.12	.16	-.13	.37	-.05	.23
"The standard or model form of a language is the most appropriate form for school."	-.08	.51	.15	.28	-.04	.29	.05	.29
"Using one language to complete a task is better than using two languages."	-.22	.26	.05	.34	.08	.31	-.11	.26
"Practice language is necessary for learning a language."	.32	-.02	-.01	.22	-.47	.21	.39	.01
"One should be patient with people learning a second language."	.54	.01	-.18	.16	-.47	.15	.16	.10
"One can know a person's intelligence from how he uses a language."	-.07	.14	-.16	.14	.72	.144	.17	.11

(continued)

Item	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
"It takes more intelligence to write well than to speak well."	-.02	-.06	-.07	.12	.69	.11	.14	.08
"Languages with more speakers are stronger than languages with fewer speakers."	-.01	.16	.08	.05	.42	.13	.18	.38
"Languages stay the same over time."	-.13	.03	.18	.18	.16	.01	.16	.67
"A language has a standard form."	-.03	.15	.15	.80	.10	.13	.02	.19
"Languages are ruled based"	.10	.11	.10	.85	.09	-.05	.05	-.06
"Having educational certification in a language makes a person a speaker of that language."	-.05	-.01	.03	-.02	.14	.10	.65	.30
"The purpose of learning a language is to meet people who speak that language."	.11	.09	.16	.05	.18	-.18	.74	-.09
"Different forms of language are appropriate for different contexts."	.35	-.13	-.08	.39	-.13	-.01	.28	-.43

Note. Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis; Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization – rotation converged in 10 iterations.

Only the first four factors contain three or more statements with factor loading of at least .34 and were retained for the further analysis. I interpreted and named the retained factors using the language from the statements of the items that loaded above |.7| on them. Each renamed factor became a language ideology that emerged from the analysis of the teachers' responses.

Internal consistency analysis.

Case processing summary

Cases	*N*	%
Valid	172	66.70
Excluded*	86	33.30

*Note. *Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure*

Reliability statistics Factor 1

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	*N* of Items
.83	.86	8

Item total statistics Factor 1

Item	Scale *M* if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
16. "The use of language is a human right."	11.38	18.90	.45	.27	.83
18. "Speakers have the right to choose the language that they use in any situation."	10.36	17.76	.43	.25	.85
19. "A person's linguistic abilities are assets."	11.58	19.52	.63	.50	.81

(continued)

Item	Scale *M* if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
20. "In the US, the use of more than one language should be promoted."	11.42	17.75	.72	.59	.79
21. "In the US, the use of multiple languages is an economic asset."	11.42	18.99	.59	.41	.81
22. "In the US, the use of native languages other than English is helpful in sharing tradition."	11.45	18.82	.72	.55	.79
23. "Native languages are beautiful."	11.61	19.48	.72	.56	.80
34. "One should be patient with people learning a second language."	11.67	21.02	.49	.32	.82

The factor has a high level of internal reliability as indicated by the Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient. No item needs to be deleted because of internal reliability and variance. All items are consistently contributing to the measure of this ideology.

Reliability statistics Factor 2

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	*N* of Items
.84	.84	6

Item total statistics Factor 2

Item	Scale *M* if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
26. "In the US, using English is important for material wealth."	16.56	26.15	.59	.59	.82
27. "In the US, using English is important for social gains."	16.81	24.87	.71	.66	.79
28. "The success of a nation depends on the use of a national language."	16.13	24.40	.68	.47	.80
29. "Language represents national identity."	16.66	26.82	.55	.33	.82
30. "In the US, knowing English helps a person to be American."	16.13	25.13	.61	.46	.81
31. "The standard or model form of a language is the most appropriate form for school."	16.47	28.05	.53	.38	.83

The factor has a high level of internal reliability as indicated by the Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient. No item needs to be deleted because of internal reliability and variance. All items are consistently contributing to the measure of this ideology.

Reliability statistics Factor 3

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	*N* of Items
.93	.93	3

Item total statistics Factor 3

Item	Scale *M* if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
13. "The use of more than one language creates social problems."	10.15	4.05	.87	.79	.88
14. "The use of more than one language makes social mobility difficult."	10.12	4.22	.89	.81	.87
15. "The use of more than one language makes social unity difficult."	10.30	4.38	.80	.64	.94

The factor has a high level of internal reliability as indicated by the Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient. No item needs to be deleted because of internal reliability and variance. All items are consistently contributing to the measure of this ideology.

Reliability statistics Factor 4

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	*N* of Items
.56	.55	4

Item total statistics Factor 4

Item	Scale *M* if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
32. "Using one language to complete a task is better than using two languages."	7.78	5.87	.23	.12	.60
39. "A language has a standard form."	8.78	4.86	.54	.41	.29
40. "Languages are rule based."	9.20	5.33	.54	.41	.32
43. "Different forms of language are appropriate for different contexts."	9.73	7.87	.11	.08	.63

The factor has a moderately high level of internal reliability as indicated by the Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient. No item needs to be deleted because of internal reliability and variance. All items are contributing to the measure of this ideology.

APPENDIX G

Standardized Skewness and Kurtosis Values

The following tables contain the standardized skewness and kurtosis coefficients for each of the six independent variables analyzed for each language ideology. The independent variables were (a) years of experience teaching, (b) working in a school that offered a bilingual program, (c) type of bilingual program setting, (d) type of transitional bilingual program, (e) whether being bilingual or not, and (f) gender.

Ideology 1: Americans Should Value Multilingualism.

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for years of experience

Years of Experience	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
1	0.99	-0.96
2	1.83	1.01
3	0.39	-1.30
4	2.09	1.03
5	2.99	3.25
6 or more	13.97	43.09

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for whether the school is offering a bilingual program

School Offered a Bilingual Program	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Yes	12.98	1.57
No	34.73	-0.49

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for type of bilingual program

Type of Bilingual Program	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Transitional Bilingual	15.35	49.48
Dual Language	2.67	0.60
English as a Second Language	0.34	-1.28
Unknown	1.22	-0.16

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for type of transitional bilingual program

Transitional Bilingual Program	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Early Exit	0.99	-1.02
Late Exit	12.68	36.66

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for whether being bilingual or not

Being Bilingual	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Yes	16.57	53.73
No	2.02	-1.06

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for gender

Gender	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Female	12.86	34.52
Male	1.81	0.16

Ideology 2: Using English Language Ensures Success in the United States.

Standardized Skewness and Kurtosis Values for Years of Experience

Years of Experience	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
1	0.26	-1.06
2	0.65	0.21
3	-1.20	-0.63
4	-1.94	2.03
5	0.12	0.27
6 or more	2.32	-0.64

Standardized Skewness and Kurtosis Values for Working in a School that Offered a Bilingual Program

School Offered a Bilingual Program	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Yes	1.49	-0.45
No	0.72	0.58

Standardized Skewness and Kurtosis Values for Type of Bilingual Program Setting

Type of Bilingual Program	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Transitional Bilingual	1.28	-0.02
Dual Language	-0.70	0.18
English as a Second Language	1.98	0.01
Unknown	1.06	-0.59

Standardized Skewness and Kurtosis Values for Type of Transitional Bilingual Program

Transitional Bilingual Program	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Early Exit	1.40	-0.55
Late Exit	0.88	0.20

Standardized Skewness and Kurtosis Values for Whether Being Bilingual or Not

Being Bilingual	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Yes	1.60	0.23
No	1.39	-0.38

Standardized Skewness and Kurtosis Values for Gender

Gender	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Female	1.63	-0.05
Male	0.62	-0.53

Ideology 3: Speaking Multiple Languages Causes Social Conflict.

Standardized skewness and kurtosis coefficients for years of experience

Years of Experience	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
1	-0.73	-1.19
2	-1.33	0.22
3	-0.78	-0.75

(continued)

Years of Experience	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
4	-3.07	3.83
5	-2.81	3.27
6 or more	-6.60	5.48

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for working in a school that offered a bilingual program

School Offered a Bilingual Program	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Yes	-6.66	4.07
No	-1.77	-0.06

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for type of bilingual program setting

Type of Bilingual Program	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Transitional Bilingual	-7.02	6.67
Dual Language	-1.79	0.13
English as a Second Language	-0.97	0.02
Unknown	-0.42	1.03

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for type of transitional bilingual program

Transitional Bilingual Program	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Early Exit	-1.02	-0.55
Late Exit	-5.46	3.85

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for whether being bilingual or not

Being Bilingual	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Yes	-8.05	10.33
No	-3.76	1.90

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for gender

Gender	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Female	-7.04	4.56
Male	-0.89	-0.97

Ideology 4: Language Use is Situational.

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for years of experience

Years of Experience	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
1	1.01	0.47
2	0.36	-0.80
3	-1.83	1.33

(continued)

Years of Experience	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
4	1.50	0.14
5	0.81	-0.57
6 or more	2.14	3.56

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for working in a school that offered a bilingual program

School Offered a Bilingual Program	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Yes	2.33	2.95
No	1.23	0.43

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for type of bilingual program setting

Type of Bilingual Program	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Transitional Bilingual	1.70	2.81
Dual Language	-0.74	-0.76
English as a Second Language	1.42	-0.71
Unknown	2.87	3.49

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for type of transitional bilingual program

Transitional Bilingual Program	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Early Exit	-0.44	0.39
Late Exit	1.96	2.91

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for whether being bilingual or not

Being Bilingual	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Yes	1.39	2.03
No	1.70	0.95

Standardized skewness and kurtosis values for gender

Gender	Standardized Skewness Coefficient	Standardized Kurtosis Coefficient
Female	3.18	3.55
Male	-1.28	0.74

APPENDIX H

Scheffe Post-Hoc Tests – Ideology 3 and Type of Bilingual Program

Multiple Comparisons

Program		*M* Difference			Confidence Interval 95%	
I	*J*	(*I*−*J*)	Standard Error	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Transitional Bilingual	Dual Language	1.08	0.74	.709	-1.22	3.38
	ESL	3.42*	0.77	.001	1.02	5.82
	Unknown	2.69	1.17	.264	-0.96	6.34
Dual Language	Transitional Bilingual	-1.08	0.74	.709	-3.38	1.22
	ESL	2.34	0.97	.216	-0.68	5.37
	Unknown	1.61	1.31	.822	-2.47	5.70
ESL	Transitional Bilingual	-3.42*	0.77	.001	-5.82	-1.02
	Dual Language	-2.34	0.97	.216	-5.37	0.68
	Unknown	-0.73	1.33	.990	-4.88	3.42
Unknown	Transitional Bilingual	-2.69	1.17	.264	-6.34	2.47
	Dual Language	-1.61	1.31	.822	-5.70	4.88
	ESL	0.73	1.33	.990	-3.42	2.75

*Note. Based on observe means; the error term is M2 (Error)=8.88, *the Mean difference is significant at .05 level. Dependent Variable Factor 3*

APPENDIX I

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VITA

Rolando A. Merchán

Academic Degrees

Master of Education, University of Houston, Curriculum and Instruction
Minor in Bilingual Education

Bachelor of Science, Universidad de Los Andes, Civil Engineering

Professional Licensure and Certifications

Texas Standard Generalist (Grades EC-4)
Texas Bilingual Education Supplemental -Spanish (Grades EC-4)
Texas Principal Standard Certification
Texas Teacher Evaluation and Support System Certified Appraiser, 2016-2017

Publications

Peer-Reviewed Publications

Merchán, R. A., & Slate, J.R (2017). Difference in the English proficiency levels of Texas Grade 3 English Language Learners as a function of bilingual program. *Annals of Language and Literature, I* (1), 42-50.

Other Publications

Merchán, R. A. (2012). Reflections form a first-year mathematics Peer Facilitator. *Texas Mathematics Teacher*, *LIX* (2), 33.

Presentations

National Presentations

Merchán, R. A. (2018, November). *A Survey of Elementary Teachers' Language Ideologies and their Perceptions of Biliteracy*. Paper presented at the Jackson Scholar Network Research Seminar Session during the annual University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA), Houston, TX.

Merchán, R. A. (2018, November). *Differences in Reading Performance by Bilingual Program Type for Grade 3 Hispanic English Language Learners.* Paper presented at the Graduate Student Summit during the annual University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA), Houston, TX.

Merchán, R. A. (2018, November). *Through a Glass Darkly: Reflections on Language Ideologies.* Ignite! Session presented at the Graduate Student Summit during the annual University Council for Educational Administration (UCEA), Houston, TX.

Regional Presentations

Merchán, R. A., (2019, February). *A Survey of Elementary Teachers' Language Ideologies and their Perceptions of Biliteracy.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southwest Educational Research Association (SERA), New Orleans, LA.

Merchán, R. A., Lazar, K. L., Michaels-Johnson, R. R., & Ustinoff-Brumbelow, R. (2018, February). *Exploring the Impact of 1:1 Technology Initiatives: A Case Study.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southwest Educational Research Association (SERA), New Orleans, LA.

Professional Experiences

2019- current	Pasadena Independent School District Bilingual/ ESL/ Dual Language/ Migrant Coordinator
2013- 2019	Instructional Specialist for Dual Language K-8 and Bilingual/ESL 4-6
2007-2013	Pasadena Independent School District, Laura E. Bush Elementary Dual Language program manager, 2011-2013
2011-2011	Houston Community College -Main Campus Adjunct Professor English as a Second Language
2004-2007	Pasadena Independent School District, South Houston Elementary Fourth Grade Bilingual teacher

Academic Awards

Barbara Jackson Scholar, 2017-2019

Professional and Academic Association Memberships

Houston Area Association of Bilingual Educators (HAAB)
Texas Association of Bilingual Education (TABE)
National Association of Bilingual Educators (NABE)
American Educational Research Association (AERA)
National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE)
International Literacy Association (ILA)
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD)