The Effects of Teacher Inquiry in the Bilingual Language Arts Classroom

By Rocío Dresser

In the United States in the last few years, a considerable amount of attention has been given to literacy programs as a way to close the academic gap between English-only (EO) students and ELLs. According to the National Center for Education Statistic's 2001 report, 38.6% of all high school dropouts are Latino students. This group of students is disproportionally represented among students who drop out of school. California has the largest numbers of ELLs, and 85% of these students are Spanish speakers. In 2004, 47% of ELLs passed the California English Language Development Test (CELDT); however, only 10% of these students passed the English Language Arts section of the California Standards Test (Gándara, Maxwell-Jolly, & Driscoll, 2005). These data reveal that ELLs are learning basic English skills but a large number of them are lacking the necessary academic language to succeed in school.

Rocío Dresser is an assistant professor in the Elementary Education Department of the College of Education at San José State University, San José, California.

One way teachers can help close the academic gap between EOs and ELLs is by making the curriculum accessible to all students. It has been noted that teachers, specifically in the upper grades, focus on teaching content mastery without paying close attention to the teaching of academic language (Cummins, 2000; Jong & Harper, 2005). Language arts teachers, on the other hand, tend to focus on

teaching basic language skills like spelling, grammar and phonics without attention to content. However, English language learners (ELLs) will only be able to master the curriculum and the language used to convey concepts taught in the content areas if language and content are taught hand-in-hand (August & Hakuta, 1997; Peregoy & Boyle, 2005).

Teacher education programs around the country have been dealing with issues of academic inequity for some time. Many programs address these issues by requiring coursework and/or inquiry-based projects (Poetter, 1997). The goal of these programs is to assist novice teachers in becoming better prepared to meet the needs of our diverse student population. There are no recipes for effective teacher education programs. Classroom inquiry, however, has been identified as a useful approach that assists teacher candidates to develop skills to address student needs. Classroom inquiry provides teacher candidates with the opportunity to inform their practice in an authentic learning environment (Guidry & Sowa, 2005; Ulanoff, Quiocho, Roche, & Yaegle, 2000). Inquiry promotes reflection among teachers, assisting them in making sense of their own experiences, questions, and problems "that emerge and emanate from classroom events" (Pappas & Barrow, 2001, p.4). Inquiry encourages teachers to take a closer look at their students and to unveil students' strengths and needs. Through inquiry, teacher candidates reflect on what works and what does not work and to use this information to build a platform on which to promote student learning.

Sugishita's (2005) Classroom Inquiry Cycle (CIC) provides teacher candidates with an effective step-by-step inquiry based reflective model. The CIC assists teacher candidates to become reflective practitioners who continually use student work to assess their practice and make necessary changes to effectively meet the needs of their students. The first step of the CIC, the planning phase, is "getting to know the students." During this time, teacher candidates do a thorough assessment of their students' academic, linguistic and social needs. They are asked to select a group of children who are experiencing academic difficulties as their target students. Later, they collect base-line data on these students and plan for possible intervention. The second step is the pre-conference phase. During this phase, teacher candidates write a draft of a CIC lesson using ideas from the theoretical and research-based readings. Candidates share this draft with the group and give a rationale for selecting the interventions used in their lessons. In a collegial discussion, the group advises each teacher candidate on how to best revise the lesson to ensure that it meets the needs of the students.

During the implementation and evidence collection or third phase, teacher candidates teach the CIC lesson, videotape the lesson and collect student samples to assess the effectiveness of their instruction. After the CIC lesson is taught, the university supervisor and teacher candidate meet for the post-conferencing and analysis or fourth phase. During this session, based on the data collected, the teacher candidate and supervisor assess the effectiveness of the lesson and make a plan for next

steps. In the last phase, reflection and sharing, teacher candidates share their CIC lesson and orally summarize the main points of their written commentary for the group. In this commentary, teacher candidates reflect on their experiences through the CIC process, growth as teachers, and the impact of the lesson on student learning.

Readers familiar with action research may recognize similarities in methodology with the CIC. Both methods: (a) focus on real school situations, (b) employ spiral cycles (e.g., assessment, implementation of interventions, reflection, followed by more assessment, implementation of additional interventions, further reflection, and so on), and (c) use a participatory approach, involving a group of stakeholders who study issues of mutual interest together. The CIC, however, was specifically designed to enhance the learning experience of teacher candidates enrolled in field practicum courses. Its goal is to provide teacher candidates with first hand experience with classroom inquiry. The CIC has specific forms (data sheets) and steps that must be completed in order to ensure success. It is a five-phase process that involves planning, pre-conference, implementation and evidence collection, post-conference and analysis, and reflection and sharing. This is an elaboration of the traditional three-phase coaching cycle offered by Costa and Kallick (1999). (See figure 1.)

In search of ways to close the gap between ELLs and their peers, two research questions were posed: What are the effects of classroom inquiry in preparing teacher candidates to teach ELLs? What are the implications of classroom inquiry on academic language development and learning among ELLs?

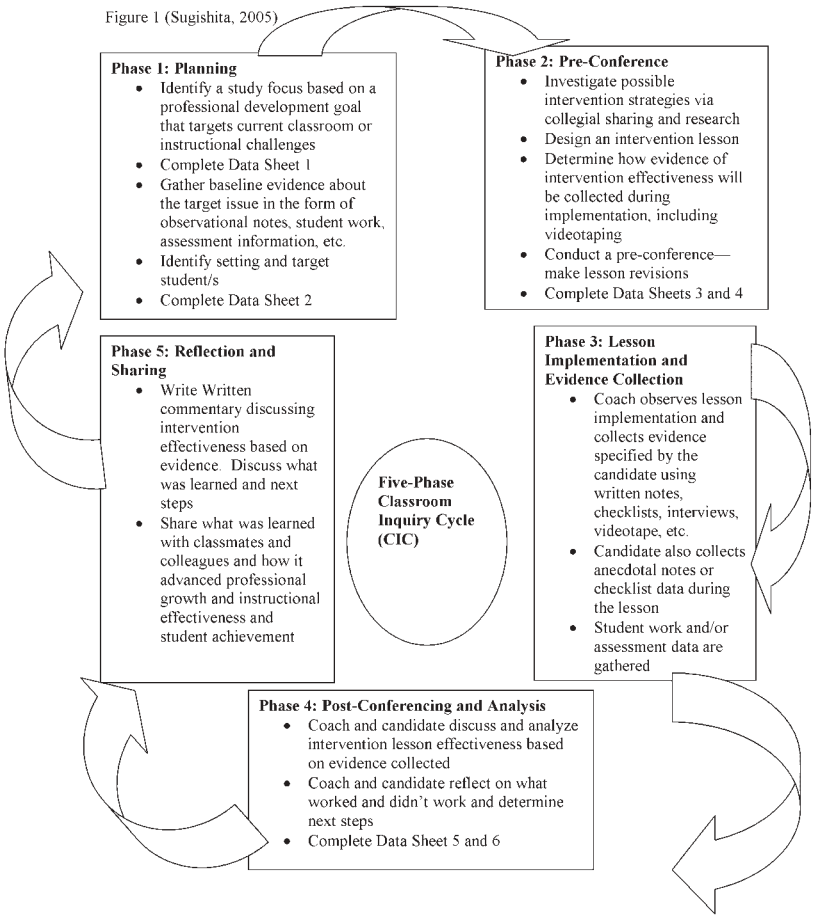
The Study

This project was designed to instruct teacher candidates on how to use classroom inquiry in order to examine and pursue questions, issues and concerns about their teaching practices and their students' acquisition of academic literacy. In addition, it was intended to assist teacher candidates in documenting the impact of their instruction. A year-long study was conducted during the Fall 2003 and Spring 2004 semesters. Nine bilingual teacher candidates enrolled in the second semester of their field practicum coursework at an urban state university participated in this study. Four teacher candidates participated during the Fall 2003 semester, and five during the Spring 2004 semester.

The nine participating teacher candidates were placed in K-8 Spanish-bilingual classrooms in seven different urban schools in Northern California. Two teacher candidates taught kindergarten, three 3rd grade, one a 2nd /3rd grade combination, one 4th grade, one 5th grade and one 8th grade. The schools had a very diverse student population ranging from 54% to 89% students of color and were located in middle low-income neighborhoods. Students receiving reduced or free lunch ranged from 49% to 61%. To protect the privacy of the participants, pseudonyms were used.

The supervisor observed teacher candidates teach lessons every other week for

Figure 1 (Sugishita, 2005)



eleven weeks. Immediately after each lesson, the teacher candidate and supervisor met to assess the lesson and plan for future instruction. The teacher candidate was first asked to reflect on the lesson and to quickly review students' work. The teacher candidate and supervisor looked at things that worked and things that did not work and discussed ways in which to improve instruction.

During the semester-long course, the teacher candidates and supervisor met twice each month for seminars that lasted two and a half hours. During the first meetings they discussed at length issues related to students' reading ability, content learning, English language development and motivation. It was the intent to first create a safe environment where teacher candidates felt comfortable expressing their personal beliefs and concerns.

The CIC planning phase took place six weeks into the semester. During this

session teacher candidates and supervisor continued their conversations on teaching academic language to ELLs and other related issues. Teacher candidates were introduced to the CIC and were asked to select three to five target students who were experiencing academic difficulties specifically related to academic language development. They were asked to complete and share with the class Data Sheets I and II which asked them to provide information regarding (a) goals for instruction, (b) the political and demographic school context, (c) types of base-line data they planned to collect on students, (d) rationale for selection of target students, (e) data collection instruments, (f) suggestions for examining theoretical readings, and (g) effective teaching interventions.

The CIC pre-conference phase took place after the eleventh week, two weeks prior to the implementation of the CIC lesson. The CIC lesson was the culminating lesson and was one of the last lessons taught in the semester. After conferring with their mentor teachers, the teacher candidates brought drafts of their CIC lessons to share with their peers and supervisor. They explained how their CIC lessons connected to previous and follow-up lessons. They shared the notes from their Data Sheets III and IV which asked them to provide information regarding (a) the instructional objectives and rationale for selecting them, (b) strategies selected and reason for selecting them, (c) evidence collection, and (d) areas they felt needed improvement. In response to their presentations and through a collegial discussion, the group provided each candidate with suggestions on how to best modify the CIC lesson. Each teacher candidate recorded the comments provided by the group and later revised her or his CIC lesson.

During the implementation and evidence-collection phase, the supervisor went to the teacher candidates' classrooms and observed them teach their CIC lesson. The supervisor took extensive notes on the efficacy of their instruction, students' reaction to the lesson, and other issues teacher candidates had previously asked her to observe, all related to academic language. The teacher candidates collected student samples and other data that assisted them in evaluating how well they had met the objectives. The lessons were videotaped and the videotapes were later analyzed.

The CIC post-conference and analysis phase took place immediately after the implementation of the CIC lesson. The supervisor met with each teacher candidate individually, and together they assessed the effectiveness of the lesson based on the analysis of student samples, videotaped lessons and other evidence collected. The teacher candidates were asked to complete Data Sheet V and to write a short paragraph on the effectiveness of the lesson, objectives, and strategies. In this paragraph they discussed how well they felt they met their professional goals based on the student work and the CIC process in general. Additionally, they were asked to reflect on what they would do differently and to write ideas about what would be their next steps. At the next seminar teacher candidates shared the information recorded on Data Sheet VI, which included findings, interpretation of the findings, theoretical rationale, conclusions, limitations, and next steps.

The CIC reflection and sharing phase took place during the last four weeks of the semester. Teacher candidates utilized this time to review the data previously analyzed and to write a five-page commentary on the CIC. At the last session they brought samples of student work, data collection tools, and other materials they had found to be helpful during the CIC lesson. They shared ways in which they found the suggestions made by their peers, mentor teacher or supervisor helpful.

Data Analysis

The data from this study were analyzed using Tesch's (1990) eight-step systematic process. First, all transcriptions of conferences, notes, teacher candidates' packages, which included written commentaries, lesson plans, lesson evaluations and data collection instruments, were carefully read. The main ideas that emerged from the reading, such as introducing concepts, learning, and assessment were recorded on the margin of each document. Second, while the teacher candidates' level of sophistication at data analysis ranged from somewhat explicit to very explicit, one candidate (Carol) had very clear examples on how students' work reflected the effectiveness of her teaching. For this reason, the researcher first reviewed Carol's package and took notes on the document. Third, this process continued until all of the data were reviewed and a list of topics had been made. Similar topics (e.g., assessment and observations) were clustered later. Some of the topics identified were language development and learning, effective practices, assessment, and reflection as a way to inform practice. Fourth, the topics were abbreviated as codes and were written next to the appropriate segments of the text. During this process new topics appeared and were recorded. Fifth, the number of topics was reduced by grouping them into themes. Sixth, the initial codes were revised based on the themes. Seventh, each theme was color-coded aligned with the CIC and responded to the research questions. Two main themes and six sub-themes that were identified will be discussed in the next section.

Results

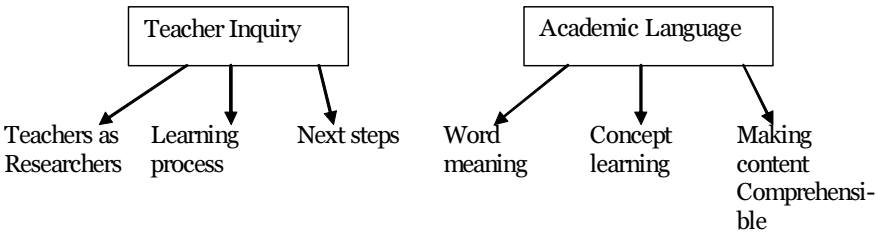
The two main themes that emerged from the data analysis were teacher inquiry and academic language learning. Under teacher inquiry three sub-themes appeared: teachers as researchers, learning process, and next steps. Under academic language three other themes emerged: word meaning, concept learning, and making content comprehensible (See Table 1). These main themes and sub-themes are introduced and discussed in the following sections.

Teacher Inquiry

Teacher Candidates as Researchers

One of my responsibilities as an assistant professor is to teach a research course.

Table 1.



Throughout the years novice teacher candidates have questioned the relevance of research and theory in teaching. Many of them are hired before they complete the credential program and stay in a survival mode for a year or two. They will perhaps learn how to survive the challenges of student teaching, but this does not mean they have learned to be reflective practitioners or even have "started down the right pathways towards these lifelong goals of thoughts and action" (Poetter, 1997, p.4). At the beginning of this project, the main goal of these participating candidates was to search for ideas on how to solve their most immediate classroom problems. It was evident that they did not make the connections between practice, theory and research. "I have learned a lot about research and theory but I need some strategies that help me today in my classroom" commented one teacher candidate.

As the semester progressed, their views on how to inform their practice changed. They found that classroom research was not only essential to becoming better teachers but that it was not as difficult as they had initially thought. One teacher candidate, Carol noted the following:

> Classroom research does not need to be time consuming nor cumbersome. I could instantly check for understanding and use the data collected to help my students. As a result of the CIC, I have become aware not only of the need to assess students' progress but also of the importance of using these data to improve my lessons. Classroom research has become a great tool that has allowed me to focus on my students' needs and on my own [needs]. It provides me with a quick view of what I need to do next. (written commentary, 2004)

The theoretical readings gave the group the opportunity to review many effective interventions. Just as action should not be disarticulated from theory, "theory should never be disconnected from practice" (Leistyna, Lavadenz, & Nelson, 2004, p. 10). We discussed how theory and research are the backbone of teaching because they keep us informed and help us find solutions to our problems. Carol wrote, "I learned that it is important to collect baseline data, utilize effective teaching practices, and collect data at the end to assess whether or not the intervention worked with the students. If the intervention did not work, then turn back to the literature and search for another intervention."

This is what Michael did after he realized that his target students were lacking

reading comprehension strategies. His class was asked to read a passage on the American Revolution and to answer questions on the reading. Instead of using their own words, his target students copied the text verbatim from the social studies book onto their worksheet. At this point, Michael realized that to help his students, first it was essential for him to know more about them. He needed to "collect baseline data and learn more about their experiences as second language learners." He found out that they were all recent immigrants from Mexico and although educated in Spanish, they were not yet proficient in English. Second, he had to become informed of best teaching practices on how to increase reading comprehension and learning. He learned that he needed to differentiate instruction to maximize each student's individual academic growth "by meeting each student where she or he is, and assisting in the learning process" (Hall, 2005, p.1). He later had the students read to him individually to assess their individual needs. Third, he realized that ongoing assessment is an essential part of teaching. Thus, he used a clipboard on which he had a roster of the class and the main objective of the lesson written on the top of the page. After each lesson, Michael walked around the classroom and quickly made a check mark next to the student's name who had met the objectives and a line next to the student's name who had not. Students who did not meet the objectives later worked with him in a small group format. Michael wrote, "what I learned from this process is that when I have an issue in the classroom, be it big or small, I can turn to the research and literature for ideas on how to best collect data, find interventions and use assessment."

The Learning Process

The teacher candidates noted that through the CIC process they learned about the value of collaboration and reflection. At our first sessions they were reluctant to share their concerns and to ask questions; however, this changed as the semester progressed. The first item on our agenda became sharing time. During this time the participants shared with the group issues regarding their personal as well as their professional lives. We learned through these discussions that two of the teacher candidates had health problems and four others were preoccupied searching for teaching positions. With regard to teaching, the participating candidates had questions about classroom management, differentiated instruction, student motivation and participation. Claudia wrote in her written commentary, "with the useful feedback from my peers and supervisor, I was able to narrow down the scope of my lesson and to focus on one teaching point in more depth. I believe that by doing this, the lesson was more effective because students were able to understand [what I said] and were able to meet the objectives."

Reflection was viewed as one of the most important aspects of teaching. Without exception, participating candidates attributed a large part of their success as teachers to the fact that they had become reflective educators. Marcela wrote in her written commentary:

> Once I chose my focus to improve on I began to do more self-reflection and ask more questions on the issue. How can I improve? I started to observe other teachers and see how they implemented strategies of their own, and started using them. I learned strategies for scaffolding and ways to introduce new vocabulary. As I went through this process and started implementing strategies, I realized that there is always room for improvement. No matter how good you may think a lesson is there is always room for improvement. This process of learning and improving will be an ongoing process for me because you can never stop learning or improving.

Next Steps

Although teacher candidates felt that their CIC lesson had been successful, they still found that there were two main areas for improvement: time management and best practices for ELLs. With regard to time management, they felt that transitions, changing from one activity to another, had not been well planned. Therefore, according to Claudia, there had been "a lot of wasted time." Eight out of the nine participating candidates felt "rushed" at the end of their lessons. They felt they had spent too much time introducing the new concepts, which left students with little time to complete the activity. In their reflection sections many of them commented that their lessons would have been even more effective had they given the students ample time to complete their assignments.

Based on student work and observation, these teacher candidates also concluded that under best practices for ELLs there were seven areas that needed improvement. Teachers needed to: (1) provide more examples, (2) include physical movement, (3) promote student leadership, (4) design clear expectations, (5) increase student participation, (6) maintain routines, and (7) use authentic assessment. Recommended strategies for addressing these concerns included:

> (a) Modeling as a scaffolding technique. Always demonstrate how to complete an assignment prior to asking the students to do it independently.
>
> (b) Designing activities that promote physical movement. Provide the opportunity for students to move around as a way to motivate students and promote oral language development.
>
> (c) Students participating in their own learning. Design activities that promote student leadership and responsibility.
>
> (d) Designing clear rubrics for assignments. Provide students with clear guidelines and expectations for each activity and assignment.
>
> (e) Promoting participation. Create a safe environment where students are willing to share ideas and participate in discussions.
>
> (f) Establishing routines. Establish routines for all grade levels as a way to familiarize ELLs with the language and the classroom activities.

(g) Developing authentic assessment. Assess students by designing tests that directly relate to the topics being addressed in class. Assessment needs to be ongoing and must serve as a way to inform instruction.

Academic Language

Word Meaning

All the teacher candidates integrated language arts with another content area for the CIC lesson to promote academic language development. The objectives of their lessons varied based on the grade level of their students. All the participants except for Tina, who was an 8th grade language arts Spanish teacher, taught their CIC lessons in English. Some of the main goals of the CIC lessons were to promote vocabulary development, reading comprehension skills, reading and writing in the content areas, and study skills.

Tina's objective for her CIC lesson was to teach synonyms to 8th grade students. Her intent was to prepare students for a follow-up lesson on how to "write summaries using different words." The group advised her at the pre-conference discussion to teach vocabulary within the context of some selections read in class. Tina pre-assessed her class and noticed that out of 24 students only six knew what synonyms were. Students knew none of the first 28 synonyms she read to the class. As a result, she planned a scavenger hunt for the CIC lesson using vocabulary found in a passage on the Civil War. Each student received a card with a word and was asked to find the classmate who had the corresponding synonym. The two corresponding cards were later taped on the board one next to the other. The class then reviewed the list of words and discussed the meaning of synonyms. At the end of the session, students were asked to complete a worksheet and to find the synonyms of a new list of vocabulary words from the same selection. Tina found that 87% of her students had 88-94 % correct responses. Four out of her five target students had over 90% correct responses. One of Tina's students wrote, "*antes de la lección no sabía lo que eran sinónimos, ahora ya aprendí. Me gustó la lección porque aprendí muchas palabras nuevas*." ("Before the lesson I did not know what a synonym was now I learned. I liked the lesson because I learned many new words.")

Concept Learning

Students in the lower grades were asked to participate in oral discussion and to complete some type of written or drawing assignment. Additionally, while keeping "the cognitive demand challenging, students' were provided with multiple ways to respond to text using non-verbal, one-word, or extended responses" (Jong & Harper, 2005, p. 104). For example, Rita taught kindergarten students about the butterfly cycle by first teaching them a song. Following the song she then had them predict and ask questions about the butterfly cycle. Later, the class watched a PowerPoint presentation that showed the transition from egg to caterpillar, to

chrysalis and to butterfly. At the end, the children were asked to cut out the different figures of the butterfly cycle and to glue them onto a worksheet in the correct order. All of her students glued the figures in the correct order. Rita attributed the success of this lesson to the fact that she had used many colorful visuals and real chrysalises that students were anxiously waiting to see turn into butterflies. She also felt that this visual meaning-making activity provided young students with the opportunity to understand a complex concept such as this one.

Making Content Comprehensible

The teacher candidates felt that an area of concern was making subject matter comprehensible for students who are not yet proficient in English. Thus, different theories were reviewed including Krashen's (1992) theory on comprehensible input. He argues, "more comprehensible input results in more language acquisition" (Kashen, 1992, p.5). We also looked at ways in which teachers can promote comprehension and learning through sheltered instruction. The main goal of sheltered instruction is to promote language as well as subject matter learning by building on students' prior knowledge, using concrete materials, providing direct experiences, promoting cooperative learning, and teaching strategies that assist students with oral and written language (Chamot & O'Malley, 1986). Based on our conversations the participating candidates designed activities using PowerPoint presentations, overhead transparencies, Venn diagrams, graphic organizers and manipulatives. These activities are examples of effective scaffolds because they help students understand language and concepts that would otherwise be very difficult for ELLs to comprehend.

Teacher candidates in the upper grades taught students how to extract meaning and learn from expository texts by taking notes or "responding to the author." In this activity students write notes on the margin responding to the reading. They write comments, questions, and any thoughts they have about the reading. Students are told to have a conversation with the author and to make comments on the reading. Students read selections found in their social studies or sciences books. In Sara's class students were asked to write a summary using their notes as reference. She found that 90-92% of her class, including the target students completed the assignment correctly.

Claudia and Maria taught summarization as a way to increase students' comprehension and learning. Their lessons were very similar. They both used a strategy in which they color-coded sentences in order to help students differentiate between the main idea and the supporting details. For example, Claudia had her class read a selection from their social studies book. Students were asked to highlight the main idea in yellow and the supporting details in blue. The class was asked to share ideas on what they thought were the main idea and the supporting details. The students' responses were recorded on the board. Claudia modeled how to write a summary and the sample summary was left on the board for students to use as a reference. Students were later asked to work in groups and to write their own summaries using a new reading selection. These two teacher candidates

found that over 90% of their students were able to complete their assignment successfully.

Concluding Thoughts

This study clearly demonstrates that classroom inquiry had a positive effect on teacher candidates as well as on students. Prospective teachers learned to appreciate and to view themselves as teacher-researchers who through reflection and dialogue assessed their own practice. This reflexive awareness, this looking back at their own practice, requires that teacher candidates look for effective ways to teach language and literacy to ELLs (Kincheloe, 2004). Inquiry changed the way teacher candidates thought about their own instruction (Harste, 2001). Classroom inquiry made teacher candidates more positive about teaching in general because they viewed problematic situations as challenges that could be resolved through careful examination and proper interventions.

The results related to the academic language theme clearly show how ELLs benefited from this process. ELLs learned language and content through oral, written and reading activities. Teacher candidates prepared lessons that had clear objectives and prepared activities that challenged the students. They differentiated the instruction by using strategies like displaying visuals, grouping variability, providing one-on-one instruction, and assessment as a teaching tool. Children learned metacognitive strategies such as monitoring their own reading comprehension and learning. They understood the importance of making predictions and summarizing as a way to increase comprehension (Duke, 2004). Reading, writing and oral language development were strong components of all lessons. Students were taught strategies that helped them respond to expository texts. For example, they learned that social studies text often times is written in chronological order. Students were encouraged to participate in whole-class and group discussions. A large majority of the students were able to complete their assignment correctly, and they expressed positive comments about language and learning.

In sum, using the CIC, teachers conduct classroom inquiry that serves as a tool to better understand and serve the linguistic and academic needs of ELLs. The CIC provides teachers with the opportunity to become reflective practitioners who assess their own teaching practices as a way to inform their instruction. Student work is used to measure the effectiveness of the instruction and to plan for follow-up lessons. Most important of all, the CIC equips teachers with the necessary knowledge and skills to assist students in learning the academic curriculum and the new knowledge concurrently. This will prevent ELLs from experiencing knowledge gaps that, in the long run, can severely hinder their academic progress.

Implications for Teacher Education

It is essential that we redefine the role and the goals of pre-service teacher

education programs. Traditionally, university mentors have been viewed as experts who transfer information to novice teachers (Price & Chen, 2003). The CIC, by contrast, provides the opportunity for teacher candidates and supervisors to share the power through collaboration and reflection. All teacher education programs would benefit from the CIC model because it allows for collegial discussions in which classroom issues of concern are carefully examined. The group, not just the supervisor, makes recommendations as to how to address the issues discussed. Most important of all, teacher candidates learn through the CIC that effective teaching does not occur in a vacuum. It requires that teachers interact with one another and build a community of inquiry.

One of the main goals for teacher education programs should be to prepare teacher candidates to be reflective practitioners who assess their own teaching practices as a way to improve their instruction. The CIC assists teacher candidates in becoming teacher researchers who investigate ways to address the needs of all students. University supervisors and teacher candidates do not need to be bilingual in order to understand the needs of bilingual students. They just need to become informed about theory and research regarding best practices for English learners. They also need to be aware that students' culture, language, and experiences have a direct impact on how children learn. Additionally, effective educators know that classroom research should be ongoing and cyclical. Every lesson should have an assessment component, and from this assessment the teacher should evaluate how well she or he has met the objectives. If a problem occurs, the teacher needs to search for the appropriate interventions and apply them at a later date. After the implementation of the new interventions, data must be collected again to ensure that the problem has been addressed. If the problem remains or another one appears, the cycle starts all over again. The bottom line is that the main goal of teaching is for students to succeed in school. For learning to occur teachers must view learning as an going process of implementation and evaluation; therefore, classroom research should be a never ending inquiry cycle.

References

August, D., & Hakuta, K. (1997). *Improving schooling for language-minority children: A research Agenda*. Washington, DC: National Academic Press.

Alvermann D. E., & Phelps, S. F. (1994). *Content reading and literacy*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Chamot, A., & O'Malley, J.M. (1987). The cognitive academic language learning approach: a bridge to the mainstream. *TESOL Quarterly, 21*, 227-249.

Cummins, J. (2000). Academic language learning, transformative pedagogy, and information technology: Towards a critical balance. *TESOL Quarterly, 34*(3), 537-548.

Duke, N. (2004). The case for informational text. *Reading Research Quarterly, 61*(6), 40-44.

Gándara, P., Maxwell-Jolly, J., & Driscoll, A. (2005). Listening to teachers of English language learners: A survey of California teachers' challenges, experiences, and professional development needs. *Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning*, Retrieved Tuesday, June 20, 2006 from the ERIC database.

Guidry, L. & Sowa, P. (2005). Preparing for multicultural schools: Teacher candidates dialogue online with teachers from Egypt, Japan, Ghana, and the U.S. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 32*(1), 61-75.

Hall, T. (2005). Differentiated instruction: Effective classroom practices. Retrieved February 22, 2005, from http://www.cast.org/ncac/index.cfm

Harste, J. (2001). What education as inquiry is and isn't. In S. Boran & B. Comber (Eds.), *Critiquing whole language and classroom inquiry* (1-17). Urbana, I:: National Council of Teachers of English.

Jong, E.J. & Harper, C.A. (2005). Preparing mainstream teacher for English-language learners: Is being a good teacher good enough? *Teacher Education Quarterly, 32*(2), 111-124.

Kincheloe, J.L. (2004). The knowledges of teacher education: Developing a critical complex epistemology. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 31*(1), 49-66.

Krashen, S. (1992). *Fundamentals of language education*. Torrance, CA: Laredo Publishing.

Krashen, S. (2000). What does it take to acquire language? *ESL Magazine, 3*(3), p22-23.

Leistyna, P., Lavadenz, M., & Nelson, T. (2004). Critical pedagogy: Revitalizing and democratizing teacher education. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 31*(1), 3-16.

National Center for Education Statistics (2001). *Dropout rate in the United States: 2000*, NCES 2002-114. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Pappas, C. & Barro Zecker, L. (2001). Creating collaborative relations of power in literacy teaching-learning. In C. Pappas & L. Barro Zecker (Eds.), *Teacher inquiry in literacy* (pp.1-13). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Peregoy S.F., & Boyle, O. F. (2005). *Reading writing and learning in ESL*. San Francisco: Pearson.

Poetter, T. (1997). Getting started on inquiry. In T. S. Poetter, J. Pierson, C. Caivano, S. Stanley, S. Hughes, & H.D. Anderson (Eds.), *Voices of inquiry in teacher education* (pp.3-23). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Price, M., & Chen H. (2003). Promises and challenges: Exploring a collaborative telementoring programme in a preservice education programme. *Mentoring and Tutoring, 11*(1), 105-117.

Sugishita, J. (2005). The classroom inquiry cycle: A pre-service candidate practices the skills of "highly qualified" teachers. *NABE News, 28*(6), 11-14.

Tesch, R. (1990). *Qualitative research: Analysis types and software tools*. New York: Falmer.

Ulanoff, S.H., Quiocho, A., Roche, J., & Yaegle, M. (2000). A classroom inquiry into elementary students' notions about reading. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 27*(1), 59-68.