Teacher Candidates and Latina/o English Learners at Fenton Elementary School: The Role of Early Clinical Experiences in Urban Teacher Education

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Abstract

This study investigates how early clinical experiences impact teacher candidates’ learning and experiences with Latina/o English learners in a field-based program housed in a multilingual, urban elementary school. We draw on multiple-case study design and use discourse analysis to explore cases of three candidates. Findings reveal exploration of additive language policies, use of cultural tools in academic contexts, and linguistic validity in assessments.

Introduction

In schools across the United States, the number of English learners (ELs) continues to grow, with approximately 80% of ELs coming from Latina/o families (Gándara & Hopkins, 2010). Despite the large and growing population, schools have failed to maintain pace in demonstrating EL achievement, in part due to the disproportionate number of ELs taught by underprepared teachers (Gándara & Maxwell-Jolly, 2006). Teacher education programs must consider effective ways to prepare teacher candidates for work with culturally and linguistically diverse students, particularly the large populations of Latina/o ELs. Moving beyond the traditional silos separating ESL, bilingual, and mainstream teacher preparation, scholars argue the need to prepare all teachers for ELs (de Jong & Harper, 2005; Valdés, Bunch, Snow, Lee, & Matos, 2005), including assertions specific to early childhood (García, Jensen, & Cuellar, 2006), elementary (de Jong, Harper, & Coady, 2013), secondary (Manzo, Cruz, Faltis, & delaTorre, 2012), and special education teachers (Artiles & Klingner, 2006). Overall, the literature calls for programs that target and integrate cultural and linguistic diversity (Nieto, Rivera, Quiñones, & Irizarry, 2013) through field-based preparation with university, school, and community partnerships (García, Arias, Harris-Murri, & Serna, 2010).

Responding to the call to integrate ELs into teacher preparation, researchers investigate university-based programs (e.g., deOliveria & Athanasases, 2007) and coursework innovations (e.g., Heineke, 2014; Markos, 2012). Replying to the specific call to situate EL teacher preparation in schools and communities through field-based learning (García et al., 2010), a handful of studies begin to analyze the efficacy of candidates’ work with ELs in clinical settings, including after-school tutoring (Fitts & Gross, 2012), summer tutoring (Spezzini & Austin, 2011), and service learning projects (Bollin, 2007). Building on conceptual papers that highlight the importance of field-based teacher education for ELs (García et al., 2010; Nieto et al., 2013), this study investigates candidates’ perception and experiences in practice with Latina/o ELs at a multilingual elementary school. Rather than study informal learning settings for clinical practice (Fitts & Gross, 2012; Spezzini & Austin, 2011), we focus on the development of knowledge, skills, and dispositions for teaching ELs while engaged in authentic teaching and learning throughout the academic school day and year.

Recognizing the demand for well-prepared teachers of ELs, one Midwest university utilizes a field-based program designed around culturally and linguistically diverse students (Heineke, Kennedy, & Lees, 2013). Through strategically designed experiences, candidates receive early exposure to ELs, as the four-year program is situated entirely in diverse schools and communities. Specific to this study, first-semester sophomores engage in practice at urban schools, with content that begins with a macro-lens on educational policy (e.g., language policy) and ends with a micro-lens on students in classrooms (e.g., ELs). As field-based modules, which merge traditional university-based coursework and school-based clinical experiences, shift in focus from policy to practice with 5 For more information on modules and other facets of the field-based teacher preparation program, please visit: http://www.luc.edu/education/academics_ugrad_programs.shtml
diverse students, experiences emphasize the connections between layers and actors in education and highlight the role of the teacher in decision making and advocating for ELs (Cadiero-Kaplan & Rodriguez, 2008). Central to this study, sophomore modules are designed for candidates to appreciate, discern, and utilize individual needs of ELs to plan instruction and support student development (Heineke et al., 2013; Herrera, 2010). In this paper, we explore how early clinical practices through field-based modules impact candidate learning, perceptions, and experiences with Latina/o ELs. In this next section, we describe the framework that guided our study.

**Studying Language and Learning in Field Experiences**

Guided by sociocultural theory (Rogoff, 2003; Vygotsky, 1978), this study focuses on teacher learning as socially constructed through sustained interaction within authentic contexts of teaching and learning (Ball & Cohen, 1999). Unlike the behaviorist model of teacher education that presumes candidates as passive receptors from expert teacher educators, or the cognitive model that supposes active teachers who independently master the craft of teaching, the sociocultural approach recognizes learning as dynamic collaboration between active teacher candidates and social environments. With cultural processes simultaneously defining and being defined by individuals (Rogoff, 2003), candidates’ learning is best understood when situated in the social and cultural context of classrooms and schools (Ball & Cohen, 1999).

We utilize the conceptual framework of Discourses (Gee, 2005). Discourses (capital D) describe how individuals put together “language, action, interaction, values, beliefs, symbols, objects, tools, and places” to be recognized as a certain type of person (e.g., teacher) engaged in a certain type of action (e.g., teaching; p. 3). Using the concept of Discourse models (Gee, 2005), we recognize that individuals utilize ideologies to make meaning of daily practice; typically used unconsciously and always oversimplified, these ideological storylines support candidates in understanding complexities of teaching and learning. Through exploration of discourses (small d), or language-in-use in activities and experiences, our framework conceptualizes how candidates build identities, politics, and connections to be recognized as teaching professionals: (a) building identities involves using language to be recognized as taking on particular identities, such as being bilingual; (b) building politics recognizes using language to take perspectives on social goods, such as students’ cultural and linguistic backgrounds; and (c) building connections focuses on using language to make things relevant or irrelevant to learning and development as teachers (Gee, 2005, p. 11-12).

By framing our work with sociocultural theory (Rogoff, 2003; Vygotsky, 1978) and D/discourses (Gee, 2005), we pose the following research question to explore candidate learning about ELs: How can an undergraduate, field-based teacher preparation program support candidates’ knowledge, skills, and dispositions for working with Latina/o ELs? Two sub-questions guide our investigation: (a) How can early clinical experiences in a culturally and linguistically diverse school impact how candidates perceive and engage in practice with Latina/o ELs? (b) What field-based experiences and instructional innovations affect how candidates perceive and engage in practice with Latina/o ELs?

**Methods**

Fenton is a pre-Kindergarten-through-grade-3 (PK-3) school located in the culturally and linguistically diverse neighborhood of Watertown. Historically, Watertown has served as a home for newly arrived immigrants, which currently represent a dominant Latina/o population amongst a growing diversity of Asian and African ethnicities. Fenton is home to 390 Latina/os, 65% of the school population, and 384 ELs, 64% of the school population, which includes students from 42 native language backgrounds. Fenton utilizes Transitional Bilingual Education (TBE) for Spanish speakers and ESL pullout for other ELs in an attempt to accommodate diverse linguistic needs—though these two language instruction models are not ideal.

To investigate candidates’ early clinical experiences with Latina/o ELs, we engaged in multiple-case study design (Yin, 2009) using purposive sampling of three candidates at one urban elementary school. The criteria for purposive sampling included seeking candidates who (a) consented to take part in research, (b) completed all data

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6 School and participant names are pseudonyms.
points, (c) focused their final case study paper on an EL student, and (d) represented diverse cultural, linguistic, and religious backgrounds. Of the eight candidates enrolled, study participants included three candidates: Sam, Fatima, and Lisa (all pseudonyms). Candidates’ prior experiences and identities informed their initial perspectives on Latina/o ELs. Sam, a Jewish Russian-American in the secondary history program, valued his upbringing in a dual-language, low-income household, which supported his additive stance for bilingual education. Fatima, an elementary education major and Muslim Pakistani-American who grew up in Watertown, understood the socioeconomic hardships in the community because her family struggled financially to maintain a restaurant near Fenton. Raised Catholic in a predominantly white monolingual suburb, Lisa had limited exposure to diversity, initially finding difficulty in relating to the urban community as a future elementary educator.

Teachers volunteered to host candidates in classrooms. Sam and Lisa worked in a second-grade classroom with 70% Latina/o and 30% African and African-American students. Working with a white, monolingual, female teacher with an ESL endorsement and seven years of teaching experience, both candidates worked with ELs of varying language proficiencies; Sam worked regularly with Alex, a bilingual Spanish and English speaking reclassified student recently exited from the TBE program, and Lisa supported Mary, a native Spanish speaker, and labeled EL, still receiving services. Fatima observed a third-grade classroom with 21 students, 60% Spanish native speakers and 40% from multilingual backgrounds, including Urdu and Arabic; her cooperating teacher was a white, female, bilingual Spanish and English, with 3 years of teaching experience.

Situated in field-based modules, focused on EL policy and practice, objectives included (a) recognizing the role of macro-level policies guiding teachers’ practice with culturally and linguistically diverse students, and (b) enacting policy in practice to support the learning of diverse students in classroom practice. Candidates designed and implemented reading, writing, and speaking tasks to identify strengths and weaknesses using rubrics to develop targeted instructional supports. All classes were held at Fenton for twelve weeks, where candidates met three times per week with four hours in field-based observations. Field-based observations were guided by observation protocols to tally frequency and write descriptions of specific “codes” observed in candidates’ classrooms. Candidates observed codes generated by the instructor (e.g., academic language EL participation) and created one code to record throughout the semester (e.g., culturally relevant pedagogy). Each class began with candidates conducting field-based observations and ended in reflection in study groups using observation protocols, assessment findings, and connections to course readings.

We collected two types of data: module assignments and observations. Module assignment data included weekly observational reflections, EL assessments, case studies, and summative papers. Candidates utilized weekly observational reflections to synthesize findings from observation protocols and make meaning of experiences in classroom practice. Collaborating with cooperating teachers to engage in EL assessments, candidates created, implemented, and scored rubrics on students’ reading, writing, and oral language; an additional assessment measure included funds of knowledge (FoK) interviews and community walks to learn how cultural and linguistic practices contribute to instruction and assessment. Candidates compiled assessments in a case study paper, evaluating students’ language abilities and providing instructional suggestions. At the end of semester, candidates synthesized learning in a summative paper to address connections between macro and micro layers of education. Used to understand the trajectory of learning between formal assignments, observational data included 14 researcher field notes detailing candidates’ evolving perspectives on ELs.

We utilized discourse analysis (Gee, 2005) to analyze candidates’ language-in-use for situated meanings and corresponding Discourse models, focusing on three buildings tasks to respond to research questions: identities, politics, and connections (Gee, 2005). First, by analyzing candidates’ building identities, we recognized the use of background knowledge and experiences to make meaning of field-based practices. Second, analysis of building politics focused on candidates’ conceptualizations of macro-level (e.g., policies) and micro-level education (e.g., students’ FoK). Finally, investigation of building connections allowed exploration of candidates’ learning, analyzing the evolving understandings and changes in Discourse models across the academic semester.

Following discourse analysis using the building tasks, we triangulated findings related to research questions and purposefully selected which candidates to explore in more depth. After selection of cases for the multiple-case study design, we employed the technique of explanation building (Yin, 2009) to analyze the data and develop an explanation for each case on how candidates built an understanding of practice with Latina/o ELs in
early clinical experiences. These case drafts went through iterative analyses to ensure thick descriptions of the development of Sam, Fatima, and Lisa.

To maximize validity and trustworthiness, we utilized triangulation between researchers and data sources. Acknowledging the inherent bias in that the first author served as researcher and instructor, we triangulated data sources and member checked using the second author’s perspective; we independently coded data to generate themes and debriefed our analyses to verify preliminary findings and case selections (Yin, 2009). In developing cases, we triangulated sources using primary data from assignments to cross reference consistency in EL perceptions and secondary data from field notes to provide further context for a thick description. Additionally, on summative papers, candidates rated and described experiences that supported learning; we tallied frequencies and ranked clinical and instructional experiences to triangulate with findings from discourse analysis.

**Findings**

In this section, we highlight candidates’ multi-faceted development in clinical experiences, guided by their personal codes, to explain (a) Sam’s negotiation of language policy in practice informed by his observation reflections, and summative paper; (b) Fatima’s deconstruction of language, culture, and identity became aware as she conducted a FoK assessment, observation reflections, case-study, and summative paper; and (c) Lisa’s evolving understanding of language and assessment drawn from her observation reflections and reading, oral language, and FoK assessments.

### Sam: Negotiating Language Policy and Practice

Entering Fenton espousing a self-identified bilingual identity (Field notes, September, 2013), Sam utilized field-based experiences to build politics (Gee, 2005), or evolve ideological beliefs around English-dominant policies and practices with reclassified ELs. Drawing from readings (Hakuta, 2011), he framed his classroom observations around Lau v. Nichols, specifically questioning how language rights for ELs can be upheld when the “Supreme Court left it up to the schools to decide how to implement fair EL programs” (Reflection, September 2013). Connecting policy and practice, Sam critically considered the effectiveness of TBE when conducting language assessments with Alex, a re-classified Latino EL. Although Alex exited the TBE program, Sam discovered that “students are being pushed out of the EL program as success stories, but they still need help...they can’t possibly learn if the classrooms are all English” (Summative paper, p. 3). For instance, Sam’s reading and speaking assessments revealed Alex struggling with fluency and comprehension to understand general vocabulary words and main ideas in texts. When transcribing his conversation with Alex, “his voice was hesitant with long lapses and he did not say the word ‘professional.’ He said the word ‘prof’ ‘profession’ instead” (Summative paper, p. 2). Sam’s discourse built connections to practice about ELs: (a) the reclassification TBE program exit did not equate to English proficiency, and (b) mainstream teachers needed to provide differentiated and continued language support. Challenging the monolingual Discourse model guiding the school’s practice, Sam critiqued the subtractive model prioritizing English proficiency, instead of additive models of Spanish-English biliteracy, recognizing the ineffective supports for Alex in the English-only classroom.

Additionally, Sam’s discourse reflected building politics and connections between federal policies to classroom practices. After examining court cases (Lau v. Nichols, Plyer v. Doe, and Castañeda v. Pickard), he realized that federal laws framed language equity to prioritize English and thus impacted practices at Fenton because “there is so much distraction on how there needs to be more English” (Reflection, September 2013). Juxtaposed with the English dominance in mainstream classrooms, Sam recognized bilingualism at the school, referencing hallway displays and morning announcements featuring Spanish. Drawing from this observation, Sam contemplated the consequences for students transitioning from bilingual to monolingual classrooms and implications for ELs’ linguistic and cultural identities. By analyzing the word “transition” in TBE to mean not a transition to English, but a deficit view where school actors “transition out your language, Spanish” (Field notes, September 2013), Sam built politics to recognize ELs as subjugated “to being treated unfairly because America
wants to preserve the nationalist perspective. Students have been told to assimilate” (Summative paper, p. 6). Illuminating complexities of language policy, classroom practices, and students’ identities, he recognized that, while federal and school policies held the potential to foster bilingual identities, in practice, they resulted in the opposite: an abandonment of native language identity. Sam built his identity as a teacher with the role to preserve students’ linguistic identities, particularly in subtractive settings such as mainstream classrooms.

Yet, Sam struggled to negotiate how Spanish and English should be implemented in policy and practice for transitioning ELs in mainstream classrooms. Guided by the instructor, Sam generated codes to examine academic vocabulary instruction and understand the resources ELs harness to learn English.

### Table 2. Sam’s Codes for Observing Academic Vocabulary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word Visuals</td>
<td>Define a word by looking at the picture.</td>
<td>Teacher shows picture of a shopper.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Re-Sounding</td>
<td>Say the word with the picture and repeat the word.</td>
<td>Teacher shows picture and says word “stoop” Students repeat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition Question</td>
<td>Say the word. Ask students to define it.</td>
<td>Teacher says, “What does the word dairy mean?”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application Question</td>
<td>Teacher asks how to use the word in a sentence.</td>
<td>Teacher says, “How do you use dairy in a sentence?”</td>
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After two weeks in the classroom, his data revealed four codes: word visuals, re-sounding, definition questions, and application questions with the takeaway that he “always thought that EL students were taken care of and helped on a consistent basis, unfortunately students are not accommodated for” (Reflection, October 2013). With the supports resulting in students’ reliance on verbal strategies in English-only, he theorized how Alex “wouldn’t be able to answer the teacher fast enough or follow classroom discussions” (Reflection, October 2013). Considering the possible role of Spanish in classrooms, Sam built connections to the importance of “every school having access to translators and students feeling they can speak Spanish to each other” (Field Notes, October 2013) to “push policy in schooling to create the right to support native language and resources to all individuals” (Summative paper, p. 6). By building politics and connections, paired with his language ideologies as a bilingual individual, Sam’s experiences allowed negotiation and development of an additive stance that policies and practices must preserve and foster ELs’ native language; however, despite the focus on bilingual policies, he did not notice the absence of bilingual teaching strategies, signaling his emphasis on policy over pedagogy that necessitated additional exploration and development.

**Fatima: Leveraging Funds of Knowledge in a Multilingual Classroom**

“I came into this course not knowing much at all about how to teach EL students and the challenges they face. I used to think the main goal of teaching EL students was to teach them English as soon as possible. I have now grown to see it is important to value students’ identity. The culture and language of these students are assets in the classroom” (Summative paper, p. 6).

Synthesizing her learning during the semester at Fenton, Fatima’s discourse revealed identity building (Gee, 2005) as an EL teacher, as she recognized that teaching ELs was not about the rate of acquiring English, but how teachers socially organized learning to capitalize on linguistic and cultural strengths. Her shift from deficit- to asset-based Discourse models emerged during her third week in the multilingual classroom when she perceived that Agu failed to participate because his demeanor was “quiet, avoided eye contact, and did not complete class work” (Reflection, September 2013). After observing the student with the ESL coordinator, Fatima felt terrible for judging Agu for his poor participation and explained, “Agu probably didn’t have anything written down because he didn’t know what was going on. What I found most surprising was that after two weeks of observing,
I had no idea he was an EL” (Reflection, September 2013). Reflecting on this critical moment, Fatima recognized the Discourse model she was unknowingly using to identify ELs; using his race, she generalized him as an African-American and native English speaker, rather than an EL from Africa, thus expanding her understanding of the diversity within the EL label.

Continuing to negotiate the static and deficit-based Discourse model of ELs, Fatima examined ELs’ socialization and participation in classroom activities mediated by teacher accommodations. She reflected, “The teacher did not make an extra effort to work with him [Agu] or make accommodations…for Spanish-speaking students, the teacher translates words or reads a book that was a mix of Spanish and English” (Reflection, September 2013). Fatima’s discourse displayed her perceived value of Spanish language support while recognizing the complexities in incorporating multiple linguistic resources. Building her identity as an EL teacher, she went on to (a) recognize the importance to differentiate based on diversity within the EL label; (b) offer differentiated resources and multiple accommodations for ELs to facilitate participation so that ELs are not “singled out from the rest of class like Agu” (Reflection, October 2013); (c) challenge linguistic and cultural practices leveraged or marginalized in the classroom; and (d) consider her agency to “incorporate all cultures and not marginalize one student’s culture while accommodating for another” (Case study, p. 7). Fatima built politics around social, linguistic, and cultural goods perceived as valuable in practice.

After recognizing the complexities in supporting diverse ELs, Fatima explored how to conceptualize, gather, and connect FoK to school curriculum. Drawing from González, Moll, and Amanti (2005), she defined culture as “more than just foods and clothes, but students’ daily practices” (Case study, p. 3) and corresponding instructional experiences to identify examples of FoK (i.e., household, peer, community funds) and possible questions for student interviews. Significant to Fatima’s perceptions on ELs was the FoK assessment where she conducted a community walk to experience and document her students’ lives in Watertown. Using thick description and photographs to capture the experience, Fatima reflected on how promoting safety was common across the community. Drawing from her identity as an EL growing up in this community, she explained images taken during the community walk: “different languages which shows the multilingual diversity. I’ve seen the Arabic word shaped as a bird saying ‘salaam’ which means ‘peace’” (See Figure 1; Field notes, September 2013). Building connections to her experiences with Agu, she discovered that, even though her students differed in linguistic and cultural experiences, the neighborhood provided shared cultural resources, such as where children played in alleys and parks and mutual concerns for community safety.

Figure 1. Community Walk

Fatima found the opportunity to draw on community FoK to support all learners, commenting, “I can use what students do in the community to connect their culture to instruction and assessment” (Case study, p. 3). Building on her interest in how students spent time in the community, she interviewed Juan, a Latino EL, and discovered that skateboarding was an important community practice. Considering strategies for how she could draw on his FoK to connect to curriculum, she suggested, “I could have him write a persuasive essay on why schools should allow students to ride their skateboards during recess or a math lesson on slope in the context of skateboarding” (FoK assessment, p. 3). Building identity as an EL teacher, Fatima: (a) evolved her understanding.
of cultural and linguistic diversity of ELs; (b) recognized possibilities to differentiate math and reading instruction based on students’ community practices; and (c) synthesized how to leverage students’ FoK in multicultural and multilingual classrooms.

**Lisa: Exploring Culture and Language in English Learner Assessment**

When her cooperating teacher asked her to assess Maria’s academic vocabulary, Lisa’s first interaction with an EL led her to “imagine myself in charge of a room with this low level of English… overwhelming because of the magnitude of the girl’s language barriers. They [ELs] struggle to spell every word” (Reflection, September 2013). Espousing the deficit-based Discourse model, Lisa described how Maria’s limited proficiency inhibited her ability to define academic vocabulary. Seeking strategies to enhance vocabulary development, Lisa shared an image of the teacher’s word wall, and the instructor connected to the sociocultural framework of language. After reading Gee’s (2005) excerpt on Discourses to understand vocabulary as embedded in socially situated “ways of behaving, interacting, valuing, thinking, believing, speaking,” (p. 3) Lisa became critical of the word wall, suggesting modifications by Discourses to ensure validity. She described challenges of the word “mean” due to multiple meanings across Discourses such “as an emotion in the reading basal versus in math as an average” and recommended modifications to the word wall including a header entitled, “Shoppers,” with vocabulary words listed underneath to avoid confusing the multiple meanings of terms (Field notes, September 2013).

*Figure 2. Word Wall in Lisa’s Classroom*

**Building connections** (Gee, 2005) between the D/discourse of word walls and assessments, Lisa utilized her realization to inform individualized assessments with Maria. After collecting data through a FoK interview and community walk, Lisa recognized how the word-wall term “bulk” in the context of grocery shopping, presented a challenge for Maria who “rarely goes grocery shopping” (FoK assessment October, 2013). Negotiating the deficit-based Discourse model, Lisa connected the role of ELs’ FoK and Discourses in language learning with the assessment of academic vocabulary, realizing that it is “crucial to understand FoK so activities and assessments can be linguistically appropriate and yield authentic assessments” (Case study, p. 4). As such, Lisa built awareness of the need for culturally valid assessments drawing on students’ FoK; however, she struggled with the practicality of finding time to assess individual students within rigid daily schedules. She reflected, “The rigor of the daily schedule puts a lot of pressure on the teacher…but it is all within the teacher’s realm of power to administer FoK interviews” (Case study, p. 5). Lisa’s field experience mediated her recognition of the value of FoK in authentic instruction and assessment and her agency to create time for FoK.

Lisa continued to negotiate her understanding of culture, language, and assessment. Drawing from Maria’s knowledge of cats, Lisa selected *The Fat Cat* for the reading assessment, realizing afterwards that connecting assessments to students’ FoK was not enough to reduce cultural and linguistic bias. The book’s linguistic demands, including multisyllabic and “ridiculous last names of characters like Skohottentot” and unfamiliar words like “parasol and gruel” (Reading assessment, p. 2), allowed Lisa to recognize the role of linguistic validity and text
selection. Similarly, Lisa probed the impact of her questions on the oral language assessment, which focused on Maria’s FoK of art by asking her to “bring in pieces of her artwork, describe them, create a drawing, and describe her artistic choices as she went” (Oral language, p. 1). After transcribing the dialog, Lisa struggled to score Maria’s inconsistent amount of talk on the rubric. Lisa worked with the instructor to unpack her discourse to reveal how Maria responded when presented with (a) unfamiliar or multiple-meaning words, such as Maria’s response of “five seconds” when asked how “long” she has liked to draw, and (b) closed- rather than open-ended questions, such as the differences in Maria’s response when asked “where do you like to do your drawing” versus “why do you like drawing beaches” (Oral language, p. 3). Lisa built connections between teacher and student discourse in that the “clarity of questioning… have the potential to either set up a pupil for understanding or put up an unnecessary wall to their success” (Oral language, p. 4). Recognizing the value of fieldwork, Lisa described the “invaluable experience to track students’ language assessments and realizing the role of the assessor in making valid assessments” (Case study, p. 6).

Discussion

We investigated how early clinical experiences supported candidate learning about Latina/o ELs. Through candidate cases, we explored (a) Sam’s advocacy for additive language policies contributing to biliteracy development; (b) Fatima’s multilingual equity and use of cultural tools in academic contexts; and (c) Lisa’s unpacking of cultural and linguistic validity in assessments. In this section, we draw on Herrera’s (2010) framework of multiple dimensions of language learning, by adding connections between macro-level policies to micro-level practices, to situate the holistic view of candidates’ perceptions and engagement with ELs’ sociocultural, linguistic, cognitive, and academic development. While candidates explored ELs as holistic learners with integrated dimensions, we organize the discussion by foregrounding one dimension in each candidate case, recognizing the other dimensions integrated in the background (Rogoff, 2003).

Figure 3. Mediating the policy and practice of language learning

We use the case of Fatima to foreground candidate learning of the sociocultural dimension defined as “a student’s biography, as it reflects the student’s funds of knowledge (home) and prior knowledge (community)” (Herrera et al., 2013, p. 3). Often missing from coursework that relies on static textbooks about ELs (Heineke,
2014), effective field-based learning allows candidates to experience and recognize the diversity within the EL label, like students’ varied FoK (Herrera et al., 2013). Going beyond one-size-fits-all strategies for ELs, Fatima negotiated connections between home, community, and school to teach non-traditional math and reading by leveraging variations of culture across ELs’ community practices (Heineke & Davin, 2014). In turn, this allowed Fatima to learn to teach beyond a singular source of a differentiated resource (e.g. word bank) to multiple sources of differentiated resources (e.g. word bank and visuals) as a way to ensure multilingual equity. By mediating multilingual field experiences, including the FoK interview and community walk, and the negotiation of the concept of culture and facilitation of discourse analysis of the FoK interview data, Fatima discovered the central role of building ELs’ identities.

Sam’s case represents the linguistic dimension referring the “role of students’ linguistic assets in their development of ELP…native language is either acknowledged and validated…or is ignored and disregarded based on the belief it inhibits the student’s acquisition of English” (Herrera et al., 2013, p. 3). Informed by his bilingual identity, Sam connected program models and linguistic identities by understanding the pitfalls of subtractive language policies and native language resources in a TBE classroom (Adelman-Reyes & Vallone, 2007). The situation of teacher preparation at Fenton mediated Sam’s evolving understanding of language policies, programs, and identities, as he observed and critiqued traditional acquisition methods of language learning (e.g., vocabulary drills) in contrast to native language incorporation—expanding his understanding of how bilingual students learn in two languages. By merging observation codes with the instructional experiences, Sam built connections between native (i.e., Spanish) and second (i.e., English) language development for Latina/o ELs.

Lisa demonstrates the cognitive dimension focusing on “how students know, think, and apply” (Herrera et al., 2013, p. 4) and how these are influenced by FoK, prior knowledge, and academic knowledge specific to individual student (Herrera et al., 2013). Lisa developed a sociocultural view of language (Gee, 2005) and connected it to linguistic validity in classroom tasks. Teacher preparation for ELs must be grounded in second language acquisition and learning theory (Valdés et al., 2005); however, juxtaposed with traditional approaches to teacher education, field-based learning in schools and communities allows candidates to engage directly with the situated nature of language (Heineke & Davin, 2014). Rather than solely engaging in scholarly reading and discussion about language learning, Lisa’s field experiences allowed her to negotiate the political, social, and cultural implications of discourse with ELs (Gee, 2005), such as her realization that “bulk” was not a neutral word but instead inferred socioeconomic and cultural identities. Through building politics and identities (Gee, 2005), she connected theory to practice through deconstructing language demands inherent in assessment and instruction and learning about linguistic validity when taking the roles of teacher and assessor. Through clinical observations and experiences including both FoK and language assessments, mediated by the instructor’s facilitation of discourse analysis, particularly on the speaking assessment, Lisa recognized the inherent connections between language, culture, and cognition and corresponding practical implications.

**Conclusion**

In this study, we explained how field-based experiences impacted candidates’ perceptions and engagement for working with Latina/o ELs, but a contributing factor for facilitating candidates learning is the role of the instructor. We recommend that instructors teaching at field-based sites consider their own “reflective action, selection of materials, orchestration of the community of learners” (Herrera et al., 2013, p. 5), which Herrera (2010) refers to as the academic dimension. Specifically, we found that the academic dimension in field-based instruction must be grounded across three instructional areas to mediate candidates’ learning: (a) course content, (b) field experiences, and (c) opportunities for reflexivity.
The course content suggests teaching theory in practice by integrating textual knowledge with immediate access to field experiences to provide candidates with a holistic view of ELs. Unlike traditional field experiences housed inside school walls, we recommend extending the learning environment into communities. Significant to our instruction is fostering confianza (González et al., 2005) for conducting and eliciting authentic field-observations to include voices from the field, such as parents, teachers, and community members. For instance, when Lisa struggled to teach the word “bulk,” the instructor aided her building relationships (Gee, 2005) through dialog with students and local storeowners to access the meaning of “bulk” from students’ perspectives. The instructor leveraged Lisa’s experiences to mediate learning on culturally and linguistically valid instruction. In addition to establishing authentic relationships in the field, we advocate the value of early field experiences with culturally diverse students, where candidates actively work with ELs and investigate practice as mediated by various tools and codes. For instance, Sam’s personal code on “student resources” and “academic language strategies” helped him develop a closer examination to unpack equitable linguistic resources for ELs from a bilingual standpoint. Framing observations from the lens of a personal code across the span of twelve weeks, allowed candidates to engage in purposeful observations over time and build awareness, rather than merely observing or participating as teacher aides. Additionally, it provides other candidates to learn from each other when sharing their findings with varying perspectives of codes.

Significantly, it is imperative that teacher preparation programs offer multiple opportunities for reflexivity where candidates engage in scaffolded opportunities to mediate learning and theorize their own awareness for working with Latina/o ELs. In our study, opportunities for candidates to engage in reflexivity included (a) individual instructor conferences, (b) weekly reflections assignments, and (c) small group discussions to synthesize observational findings on personal codes, pose questions to course readings, and connect assignments to classroom experiences. By providing opportunities for candidates to reflect individually and collaboratively, candidates transformed in their approaches for teaching Latina/o ELs in the timeframe of one semester. Future research must consider a longitudinal study examining the role of early field-based experiences on working with Latina/o ELs throughout the four-year teacher preparation program. Additionally, some candidates began this study with an additive bilingual stance willing to incorporate ELs cultural and linguistic strengths; however, it is worthwhile to investigate the impact of early field-based experiences and instructional innovations for candidates in teacher preparation programs who may resist multicultural or multilingual educational approaches. These future studies will continue to enhance how field-based teacher programs support candidates’ knowledge, skills, and dispositions for working with Latina/o ELs through integrating course content, field-experiences, and reflexivity approaches.
References


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