A Case Study of Dual Language Program Administrators: The Teachers We Need

This manuscript has been peer-reviewed, accepted, and endorsed by the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA) as a significant contribution to the scholarship and practice of school administration and K-12 education.

Joan R. Lachance
The University of North Carolina at Charlotte

In support of growing numbers of dual language programs nation-wide, dual language school administrators seek to find teachers who are specifically prepared to work with dual language learners for additive biliteracy. For this research the author utilized a case study design to explore practicing dual language administrators’ perspectives regarding programmatic necessities related to dual language teachers and how these needs might shape responses from U.S. teacher education programs. The study participants voiced fundamental considerations regarding dual language teachers’ essential competencies along with the complexities of additive biliteracy and academic language development in both Spanish and English. Additionally, the study’s findings and discussions provide participants’ detailed recommendations for new ways to consider preparing dual language teachers for the specialized pedagogies necessary to support dual language learners’ biliteracy and academic language development.
Current and historical research authenticates the academic, cognitive, socio-cultural, and economic benefits of bilingualism and biliteracy (Cloud, Genesee, & Hamayan, 2000; Howard, Sugarman, Christian, Lindholm-Leary, & Rogers, 2007; Thomas & Collier, 2012). For school administrators and others working in various roles within dual language education, there is a strong sense of consensus that it is the most effective program structure for academic achievement, supported by evidence-based findings from long-term analysis of student outcomes (Collier & Thomas, 2009; Garcia, 2009; Thomas & Collier, 2012). Research continues to solidify the facts with school administrators that biliterate students have significantly increased academic achievement in K-12 schools nation-wide (Escamilla, Hopewell, Butvilofsky, Sparrow, Soltero-Gonzalez, Ruiz-Figueroa, & Escamilla, 2013; Thomas & Collier, 2012, 2014). Keeping biliteracy and academic achievement in mind, school administrators are still highly challenged with finding teachers to support ever-growing diverse student populations (Loeb, Soland, & Fox, 2014; Migration Policy Institute, 2015).

On another note, long-standing research continues to suggest that English learners in dual language programs master academic English skills better than traditional ESL programs even though only half or less of the instruction is delivered in English (August & Shanahan, 2010; Lindholm-Leary, 2001; Thomas & Collier, 2012). As a result of these consistent research-based discoveries, there has been a marked increase in K-12 dual language programs in US schools (Center for Applied Linguistics [CAL], 2012; McKay, 2011). That said, biliteracy and second language acquisition as they are integrated in dual language pedagogy are quite unique processes, indicating the need for distinctive teacher preparation (DeFour, 2012; Freeman, Freeman, & Mercuri, 2005; Hamayan, Genessses, & Cloud, 2013; Hopkins, 2013; Lindholm-Leary, 2012). Given the national shortage of dual language teachers trained in U.S. teacher preparation programs, states, including North Carolina are faced with barriers to expand or even maintain current dual language programs (Associated Press, 2008; DeFour, 2012). In response, the purpose of this case study (Creswell, 2015; Yin, 2014) was to closely examine dual language school administrators’ perspectives regarding programmatic necessities related to dual language teachers and, how these needs might shape responses from U.S. teacher education programs.

**Literature Review**

Dual Language educational programs are shaped by the ideological notion that multilingualism is beneficial for all learners. Being bilingual and biliterate improves thinking and learning (Lindholm-Leary, 2012). The fundamental point in the dual language academic configuration is the presence of language-majority and language-minority students for sustained, additive bilingual instruction. The ultimate goal at the core of dual language programs is for both groups of students to learn content concepts through language learning principles resulting in demonstrated academic proficiency in both languages (Bickle, Hakuta, & Billings, 2004; Collier & Thomas, 2007; Lindholm-Leary, 2012). Meaning, dual language programs and their teachers must embrace and facilitate the myriad cognitive, linguistic, and cultural advantages of combining language-minority and language-majority students with each other in K-12 classrooms (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2016; Groleau & Li, 2013). School administrators and teachers working with bilingual students agree that dual language education is outstanding for all students’ academic achievement and increased metacognition (García, 2009; Groleau, 2010; Thomas & Collier, 2012, 2014). Evidence-based findings along with field-based professionals’
informal classroom verifications support long-term analysis of increased student outcomes (Collier & Thomas, 2009; Thomas & Collier, 2012). Dual language school administrators and teachers are granted repeated incidents of proof regarding language learning and thinking skills dual language students demonstrate on a daily basis in their classrooms and, in the communities they serve (Lachance, 2015).

Knowing dual language programs support academic growth with all students, there remains a national concern regarding the availability of qualified teachers who are prepared for the unique requirements of dual language teaching (CAL, 2012; Freeman, Freeman, & Mercuri, 2005; Thomas & Collier, 2014). Numerous states, including North Carolina attempt to expand dual language programs and simply cannot find sufficient dual language teachers from their local areas, regions, and often nation-wide. Dual language teacher shortages often result in states continuously being forced to look to other countries to fill positions as best they can (Associated Press, 2008; DeFour, 2010; McKay, 2011; Modern Language Association of America, 2007; Rhodes & Pufahl, 2009). While there are cultural and linguistic benefits to having native-speaking language teachers in U.S. schools, there are also measured challenges associated with this dependence on international faculty (Hutchison, 2005; Kissau, S., Yon, M., & Algozzine, 2011).

Visiting teachers from other countries are often mismatched in preparation for the logistics of U.S. schooling. Often times they struggle with adopting student-centered pedagogy and even become stagnate without a deep cultural understanding of their role in motivating students in the learning process (Haley & Farro, 2011; Rhodes & Pufahl, 2009). Excessive time may be ineffectively spent by the teachers “transitioning” from culture shock to best-practices (Thomas & Collier, 2014). In some cases, international teachers do not adapt to their post in the U.S., resulting in declined program enrollment or program elimination (Haley & Farro, 2011). School, district, and state-level dual language program administrators, albeit invested in supporting program expansion are challenged with using additional human resources and limited time to provide professional development for visiting dual language teachers. These same stakeholders are also frequently dismayed when visiting bilingual teachers they have supported return to their countries earlier than planned due to maladjustment (Thomas & Collier, 2014). To these points, dual language school administrators continue to reach with desperation to find bilingual teachers who can deliver state level content standards in a language other than English with academic and pedagogical alignment. North Carolina is no exception. Consider this notion set forth by Drs. Thomas and Collier (2014, p. 51) as they discussed recruitment patterns of bilingual teachers:

Many of the bilingual teachers in North Carolina have been recruited from other countries during the first decade of implementation in two-way dual language and immersion programs, with the goal of the NC school districts to eventually “grow their own” bilingual teachers.

Literature also suggests potential reasons for the shortage of dual language teachers, based upon the identified specialized teacher preparation necessary to support dual language learners (García 2009; Genesee & Lindholm-Leary, 2011; Wong-Filmore, 2014). Additionally, there are limited teacher preparation programs nation-wide that authentically address dual language teaching and learning with the National Guiding Principles for Dual Language Education at the core of the preparation. National dual language teacher preparation standards are non-existent (Howard, et. al., 2007). Prior bodies of literature substantiate that teachers working in dual language classrooms are faced with students’ countless layers of diversity and
complexity, all of which shape pedagogical patterns and, students’ approaches to learning (Hamayan, Genesee, & Cloud, 2013; Ovando & Collier, 1998; Valdés, 1997). Classrooms where content standards are delivered in two languages with groups of students who are both minority and majority language speakers gives cause to reexamine teachers’ preparation, affording new competencies for successful teaching and learning in two languages. Likewise, school administrators working with teachers in K-12 classrooms across the nation are facing increasing expectations to improve students’ academic outcomes as a direct result of informed teaching and critical, linguistically supportive instruction. Therefore, responding to the nuances of dual language teaching within teacher preparation is increasingly vital, to provide the specialized training they require while also addressing the national dual language teacher shortage (Knight, Lloyd, Arbaugh, Gamson, McDonald, Nolan, and Whitney, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2012; Herrera, Cabral, & Murry, 2013).

**Theoretical Frame**

This case study with dual language administrators (Creswell, 2015; Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2014) was framed by the theoretical constructs that support specialized dual language teaching and learning with additive biliteracy development. Highly qualified dual language teachers must operationalize additive bilingual education paradigms, guiding academic language development in two languages (Collier, 1992; García, 2009; Guerrero, 1997; Wong-Filmore, 2014). Two interconnected concepts within the framework that supported this investigation of dual language administrators’ perspectives regarding their needs with dual language teachers and, how these needs might shape responses from U.S. teacher education programs were: a) the complexities of additive biliteracy with dual language learners and, b) the importance of quality, specialized teacher preparation while working with language learners.

**Additive Biliteracy**

Historically, patterns for many bilingual education programs in the U.S. were transitional, misguiding to oblige students’ development of knowledge and language according to monolingual dominant-language norms (August & Hakuta, 1997; Ovando & Collier, 1998; Wong-Filmore, 2014). In stark contrast, this study was framed to reflect recent scholarship supporting the conception that dual language learners must be in value-added programs that result in enriching benefits for language-minority students (Escamilla, et al, 2014). Acquisition, preservation, and development of students’ bilingualism and biliteracy in both majority and home languages support diglossic bilingual education (see Figure 1). In practitioners’ terms, this study examined the need for school administrators to consider biliteracy with the guided affirmation that both first languages (L1) and second languages (L2) are honored, carefully addressed, and authentically connected to teachers’ and students’ classroom experiences (García, 2009). Correspondingly, Guerrero’s (1997) historical research on the importance of contextualized, cognitively demanding learning experiences for Spanish academic language proficiency solidified this study’s construct. It stands to reason that additive biliteracy in the context of dual language schooling obliges teachers to understand subject matter while simultaneously attending to the significance of academic language functions, pragmatic conventions, and sociocultural layers of academic discourse development in both languages.
Parallel to García and Guerrero’s research, Thomas and Collier’s Prism Model for Bilingual Learners (2007) also supports the notion of additive biliteracy with dual language learners. The Prism Model’s four apparatuses of sociocultural, linguistic, academic, and cognitive processes indicate that sustained responsiveness in these developmental areas is necessary for all learners to be successful. In dual language education, all aspects of the prism, in both languages are addressed, doubling the Prism Model’s components from four to eight (Collier & Thomas, 2007; Thomas & Collier, 2012). The Prism Model’s linguistic constructs tenet suggests that both language-minority and language-majority students dual language learners need specialized attention to comprehend language and content in both languages.

**Figure 1. Additive Biliteracy, adapted from García (2007).**

**Quality, Specialized Language Teacher Training**

Considerable attention has been given to the importance of highly qualified teachers in U.S. schools. Likewise, research has noted that language learners also encounter negative experiences as a result of what is termed a teacher-quality gap (Samson & Collins, 2012). Teachers in K-12 classrooms across the nation are faced with increasing numbers of linguistically and culturally diverse learners (Migration Policy Institute, 2015). Professional expectations are that teachers facilitate increased student outcomes as a direct result of informed teaching and critical, linguistically supportive instruction (Knight, Lloyd, Arbaugh, Gamson, McDonald, Nolan, and Whitney, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2012; Herrera, Cabral, & Murry, 2013; Sato, 2014). Yet, challenges still exist for teachers to feel prepared to work with language learners (Lachance, 2015). Respectively, school administrators look to U.S. teacher preparation programs to graduate highly qualified candidates who are ready to teach diverse populations of learners using research-based best practices (Darling-Hammond, 2014). Such transformations in learner populations and specialized educational programs, including dual language, call for teacher preparation programs to be current with their teacher training in order for candidates to be well prepared for learners’ pedagogical, linguistic, and cultural needs (Goldenburg, 2013).

Even more pronounced, the need to enhance teacher candidate support is particularly relevant with dual language teaching and learning (Umansky & Reardon, 2015). School administrators need teacher candidates working with dual language learners to demonstrate skills that facilitate students’ use and application of two languages in the classroom context. This specialization requires a wide variety of scaffolding techniques and lesson approaches related to academic language development and communicative domains of both languages. Furthermore, the pedagogical uniqueness with dual language is to strategically prepare teachers to approach bilingual students’ learning as “one learner” rather then viewing the bilingual students as two monolingual entities in one brain (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2016; Grosjean & Li, 2013).
Given the notion that dual language education supports all students’ learning, along with the national shortage of trained dual language teachers, this study was framed with theoretical constructs regarding the complexities of additive biliteracy and the importance of quality, specialized teacher preparation for dual language. The framework supported the research goals to gain new understandings of school principals’ perspectives regarding programmatic necessities related to dual language teachers and, how these needs might shape responses from U.S. teacher education programs.

Research Methods

Seeking to gain clarity on school principals’ insights regarding programmatic necessities related to dual language teachers and, how these needs might reshape U.S. teacher preparation, the researcher conducted a qualitative, interpretive case study (Creswell, 2015; Erickson, 1986; Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2014) with two dual language school principals in one North Carolina district. With structural tenets from the Center for Applied Linguistics Guiding Principles for Dual Language Education research (Howard, et. al., 2007) the study’s purpose was two-dimensional. Accordingly, the following research questions related to dual language program needs and teacher preparation guided the work with this case study:

1) What are the necessary considerations for school principals in dual language schools when selecting teachers to support their programmatic needs?
2) What are school administrators’ recommendations for teacher preparation programs for teachers’ distinct needs while working with dual language learners?

Context

The study was situated in the southeastern state of North Carolina where the state education agency (SEA) is strategically aiming to expand the existing 120 dual language programs (The State Board of Education, North Carolina [NCSBE], 2013). Specifically, the interpretive case study examined dual language school administrators’ perspectives regarding dual language programmatic needs within their district as they sought to expand their limited elementary programs. The study’s construct was selected based on Creswell’s recent direction (2015) and Merriam’s historical guidance for (1998) an interpretive case study model. The design was implemented in order for the researcher to “gather as much information about the problem as possible” (p.38). The intent of the data collection and analysis were to develop a categorical continuum that conceptualizes a different approach to the task, in this case, specialized dual language teacher preparation. This district was challenged for ways to increase programs in both number and, vertical span given that North Carolina has a bilingual endorsement for high school graduates (Public Schools of North Carolina [NCDPI], 2015a; 2015b). The study’s two administrator participants (Yin, 2014) worked in dual language programs with English and Spanish speaking students. While other partner languages were available in North Carolina’s dual language programs, this study focused on language-minority students and language-majority students in Spanish/English program settings. More specifically, the participants’ program models also supported varying structures for time percentages in partner languages (ie. 90/10, 80/20, 70/30, and 50/50).

North Carolina specifics. Of the states approximate 1.5 million K-12 students in public schools, nearly 100,000 are classified as English Learners according to federal guidelines for
basic Language Assistance Program services (NCDPI, 2016). With these learners in mind, as well as native speakers of English, North Carolina includes dual language and immersion programs in formalized SEA K-12 standard courses of study for curriculum and instruction (NCDPI, 2015a). In January of 2013, The North Carolina State Board of Education (NCSBE) released the document *Preparing Students for the World: Final Report of the State Board of Education's Task Force on Global Education*. This call for action was to ensure that all North Carolina public school graduates are globally prepared for the 21st century (NCSBE, 2013). Specifically included in the report is the strategic expansion of dual language programs statewide, already at 120 in for 2016-17 (NCDPI, 2016).

**Participants**

For the purpose of this research, purposeful sampling (Merriam, 1998) resulted in a participant group consisting of two dual language school administrators (see Table 1). Via personal recruitment, the researcher was able to include the participant administrators from North Carolina. Participants were selected as their program sites represented dual language models with language-minority and language-majority students with the languages of instruction as Spanish and English. The programmatic structures also represented a mixture of times spent in English and Spanish within their program models, the common pattern in North Carolina. Sampling targeted participants to represent school administrators that were in a district attempting to increase dual language programs in size and scope. More specifically, the study participants worked in elementary dual language schools, giving focus within the interpretive case so that specific, highly detailed descriptions might emerge (Coffey, 2014; Merriam, 1998). The participating principals had a minimum of 20 years experience in elementary education. In both cases the participants’ first language was English, with their details revealed in the demographic portion of the data set (Seidman, 2013). Parallel this, both participants self-identified that they volunteered to be school administrators in dual language settings, with little to no prior training for the specifics of dual language education. Both participants also disclosed that they had to over-rely on national and international professional development conferences for support regarding things like program structure options, curricular and assessment tools, ideas for hiring teachers, and how to work with communities and parents. Much like the shortage in dual language teacher preparation programs, there are even fewer options for school principals wanting to lead dual language schools (Thomas & Collier, 2014).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudonym</th>
<th>Years in Elementary Education</th>
<th>Native Language</th>
<th>Specifically Trained for DL School Administration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cassandra</td>
<td>&lt;25</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kelly</td>
<td>&lt;20</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Both participants made reference to extensive administrator training in some form via professional development conferences at the national and international level. Both attended a minimum of one dual language conference outside of North Carolina annually.
Data Sources

With purposeful sampling (Creswell, 2015; Merriam, 1998), the study’s approach allowed for the exploration of the research questions in actual dual language school settings, reflecting the communities where the school research sites were situated. The schools represented purposeful sample and sample of convenience based on the researcher’s fostered relationships (Stringer, 2014) with the district and school administrators. For case study data triangulation (Coffey, 2014; Corbin & Strauss, 2008), multiple sources of on-site evidence were examined in the context where the data were collected over a 6-month period. The data sources from both participants were face-to-face interviews, artifacts and documents analysis, as well as participant observations in their school settings.

**Interviews.** Semi-structured, audio-recorded interviews were conducted on-site with both participants. Each on-site interview ranged from 60 to 90 minutes in duration. Interview recordings for each participant were transcribed, resulting in data transcriptions of 20-26 pages per participant. The semi-structured interview protocol (Seidman, 2013) was based on the tenets of the CAL Guiding Principles for Dual Language Education to explore current dual language administrators’ perspectives on their programmatic needs regarding dual language teachers and recommendations for dual language teacher preparation. The interviews were transcribed resulting in over 50 pages of transcripts for data analysis via coding (Saldaña, 2016).

**Artifacts and documentation.** Data sources included artifacts and documentation regarding school setting details with dual language learners for triangulation. School improvement plan documents detailing Title 1, English learner, Free and Reduced Lunch percentages, and overall school setting narratives (see Table 2) were utilized. Additionally, school administrators shared dual language curricular materials, classroom language supports used with teachers and their students as well as identifying curricular needs based on in house adaptation of dual language materials. Some artifacts were teacher-generated while others were supporting documents from site-based textbook adoptions. Artifacts and documents also included text examples, assessment examples, classroom rubrics, and language supports across the content areas, in both languages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pseudonym</th>
<th>Total Number of Students K-5</th>
<th>Dual Language Program</th>
<th>Title I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apple Hills</td>
<td>578</td>
<td>K (exploratory)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rolling Ridge</td>
<td>525</td>
<td>K-3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Both sites have over 80% of their students receiving Free and Reduced Lunch.*

**Participant Observations.** Data sources also included 60-90 minute on-site observations with both participants. The purpose of the face-to-face observations was to view the school administrators in the context of their own environment, to capture deeper understandings of the participants as they were in the actual community and schools where they work. In both cases the observations took place during the school day while students were in school. Both participants
self-selected the time of the observations based on their individual schedules and time constraints and for the purpose of this study to focus on administrators’ perspectives, the researcher did not interact with the students. Anecdotal records, including photographs without students from hallways, teachers’ classrooms, and administrators’ offices were kept to capture myriad details. Some of these included curricular materials, ancillary language supports, and other visible resources for literacy in both languages. The on-site observations provided a familiar environment for the administrator participants, allowing for research observations while the participants accessed their own lexical schema based on where they work, the dual language teachers with whom they work, and the dual language learners their programs served (Merriam, 1998).

**Data Analysis**

In the interpretive case study (Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2014), the data were analyzed for case descriptions to construct explanations (Bazeley, 2013; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Yin 2014). With multiple, triangulated data sources representing dual language education from both participants and their sites, highly detailed descriptions emerged, forming thematic categories (Creswell, 2015; Wolcott, 2001). The results, intending to address the needs dual language school administrators face included details associated with teacher shortages and classroom needs. Data analysis via open-ended coding (Saldaña, 2016), implored categorical culling, grouping, and recoding processes to analyze refined, emergent data patterns. The integration of thematic and categorical structures from coding each participant’s data led to data categories and sub-categories within the holistic data set to respond to the research questions (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

**Findings**

The study’s findings resulted in the formation of two data categories as connectors to a predominant thematic axis of: Preparing Teachers for Dual Language Classrooms (Saldaña, 2016; Corbin & Strauss, 1998). The data categories were: 1) dual language teachers’ essential competencies and, 2) recommendations for specialized dual language teacher preparation. Both categories had corresponding code markers, supporting the streamlining of codes-to-assertions in the data set (Coffey, 2014; Densin & Lincoln, 2008; Saldaña, 2014). A noteworthy point with the two categories and their code markers was the markers’ frequencies within the data sources. While there was some noticed variation, more importantly, the frequencies were mostly even in their distribution. This would stand to reveal the construct that the participants found each of the marked codes as important. (See Figures 2 and 3).
Both school administrators identified and described several areas they felt were of vital importance when discussing the dual language teachers’ essential competencies. The seven categorical code markers, as shown in Figure 2, indicate the range of capacities they desired from the dual language teachers while teaching the dual language learners in their schools. These competencies included (a) student-centered pedagogy, (b) methodologies for high levels of student engagement, (c) understanding academic language in both L1 and L2, (d) biliteracy curriculum and materials development skills, (e) sociocultural importance and learner agency, (f) demonstrated understandings of second language acquisition principles, and (g) collaboration with other teachers. These details indicated both principals’ given emphasis to the importance of dual language teachers understanding the complexities of academic language, in both languages.

Both participating school principals made emphasized references to the processes of learning academic language in two languages. Of all the data analysis code markers, this one received the most in frequency. From the conceptual perspectives on second language acquisition and sociocultural nuances, academic language development in both languages is noted for being highly complex and significantly challenging (Calderón, Slavin, & Sánchez, 2011; Gottlebi, & Ernst-Slavit, 2014; Guerrero, 1997; WIDA, 2007, 2012). Similarly, based on the linguistic tenet from the Prism Model (Collier & Thomas, 2007) academic language development is fundamental for students’ success in school, with additional distinctions in dual language education. Particulars regarding explicit instruction for language learners have historically provided the essentials related to grammar, semantics, communicative language forms and the role of translation in the process (Calderón, 2007; Krashen, 1985, Reyes & Klein, 2010; WIDA, 2012). However, there are still some key pieces to the dual language biliteracy
puzzle that directly involve teachers’ competencies to design and deliver lessons that attend to academic language development in both students’ L1 and L2. Directly related to this, Cassandra, expressed her ideas regarding academic language and the related competencies she expects from dual language teachers. She specified:

100% of the time the [dual language] teachers must be well versed in understanding second language acquisition and academic language with all the students. We want the dual language teachers to be able to know what their students should sound like and understand the language they are and should be producing while acquiring two languages. We want them to really be experienced to understand how the language and the content function together, and how literacy is created in both languages. This is quite difficult so they [the teachers] really need to understand it [academic language] well.

On a similar note, Kelly expressed:

Teachers [in dual language] need clear vision regarding academic language skills and how to deliver strong lessons in English and Spanish. They need to know a lot about vocabulary and how to support emerging bilingual students with literacy development. They [the teachers] must facilitate academic language development with all students, getting them [the dual language learners] to use both languages in academic ways. They need very strong understandings of academic language.

The study’s findings included aspects regarding the need to prepare teachers dual language methodologies, framed by additive biliteracy and attending to the complex linguistic constructs of Spanish and English (García, 2009; Guerrero, 1997; Calderón, Slavin, & Sánchez, 2011; Escamillia, et. al., 2013). Participants made recommendation about teacher preparation, to be ready to teach in two languages (Flores, Sheets, & Clark, 2011; Reyes & Kleyn, 2010). Likewise, there continued to be mention of the need to prepare dual language teachers before they arrive to dual language classrooms (García, 2009; Morales & Aldana, 2010). Participants’ responses regarding essential dual language teachers’ competencies were complemented with clear recommendations for teacher preparation programs. Coded interview transcripts revealed details, as connections to the essential dual language teacher competencies, requesting specific coursework be designed for dual language teacher preparation with specific course contents (see Figure 3). Both school administrators expressed the desire to have teachers arrive to their schools, already trained in very specific ways, to be ready to teach dual language.

Both school administrators also indicated they spend time and resources to support teachers’ learning of dual language basics as they go, filling in the gaps with professional development as possible. The five categorical code markers for recommendations regarding of dual language teacher preparation within these data were: (a) biliteracy development and second language acquisition, (b) working with parents, (c) dual language methodologies (in L1 and L2), (d) extensive clinicals and specialized internships, and (e) authentic assessment in L1 and L2. Within these code markers, the one with the highest frequency was dual language methodologies in both languages. This also aligns with the highest code marker frequency in the prior category, that of teachers’ understanding academic language development in both L1 and L2. Not only do dual
language teachers need to understand academic language development in two languages, they need to be prepared with specific methodologies, practicing in clinical settings that facilitate its learning with their students (Clarke, Triggs, & Neilsen, 2014).

![Figure 3. School Administrators Recommendations for Dual Language Teacher Preparation](image)

Kelly stated her thoughts regarding this point on teacher preparation:

Teachers need to learn about dual language methods. It’s similar to regular methods in terms of teaching for student engagement but, it’s also very different in dual language. Teachers need methodologies that facilitate students’ learning in both languages in ways that get the students doing the work, learning from their language peers, and supporting each other very differently to learn language and content. Methods need to be pervasive and consistent to show how this language learning is different. They also need methods that teach kids that languages are a gift and that they will have advantages by being bilingual. These are special methods.

On a parallel note, Cassandra stated:

Dual language teaching methods need to ensure that kids are coming away from the program being able to articulate and express themselves in two languages. Teaching methods need to facilitate problem-solving skills in both languages. We know these [dual language] students think differently and we need teaching methods to be sure they think in both languages and then articulate what they know in both languages. Teaching methods need to make this happen in unique ways, to digest curricula and then create pathways for the students to access information in two languages.
In summary, each of the dual language school administrator participants expressed ideas and thoughts that supported essential dual language teachers competencies, viewed as programmatic necessities. In addition to this, they both expressed clear recommendations for dual language teacher preparation, addressing the teacher shortage, and reducing the time spent supporting their teachers upon arrival without the specialized skills they need. The findings were also noteworthy as the participants’ perspectives connected to the framing additive bilingual research, as well as the concepts of linguistic constructs and complex academic language development. Likewise, the findings were especially relevant to dual language as they made conclusive recommendations and assertions about how to shape teacher preparation in dual language education. The interpretive case study results (Merriman, 1998) offered particulars for specific course contents, conceptualizing a different approach for the task of preparing dual language teachers.

Discussion and Implications for Practice

As school administrators continue to seek out well-prepared dual language teachers to sustain and expand dual language programs, it becomes increasingly important to find ways to address the national shortage of dual language teachers. Simply stated, teacher preparation programs must continue to further develop program options for dual language teachers. The evidence gained from this study was meaningful to support reconsidered, changed approaches to teacher preparation coursework, bearing in mind essential competencies that dual language teachers should demonstrate. The dual language administrator participants gave details and explanations to support their views on the magnitude of complexity with academic language development, through the administrator lens of perspective. To point, the participants expressed both the complexities and the importance of teachers’ understanding them to successfully facilitate academic language development in their dual language classrooms. This accentuates current and relevant research regarding dual language teaching and learning (Collier & Thomas, 2009; Hamayan, Genesee, & Cloud, 2013; Molle, Sato, Boals, and Hedgspeth, 2015; Thomas & Coller, 2013). The study’s findings also suggested enhanced connections between dual language teachers’ essential competencies and, how to support them via changed dual language teacher preparation (Merriman, 1998). Ultimately, there was a general consensus from both school administrators that biliteracy and academic language development with dual language learners are in fact complex in nature, requiring specialized teaching (Zadina, 2014).

The study suggests that practicing dual language school administrators identified and affirmed perspectives regarding programmatic necessities related to dual language teachers and, how these needs might shape responses from U.S. teacher education programs. Participants described clear understandings of how these complexities impacted their considerations while seeking teachers, and how the shortage of dual language teachers presented challenges within their dual language programs. The study results also moved to make solid and well-defined recommendations for teacher preparation programs, hence the axial theme of: Preparing Teachers for Dual Language Classrooms. Based on the qualitative data collection and coded analysis, the study revealed the continued need specialized preparation for dual language teachers, even with some very well established bilingual education programs in place (Thomas & Collier, 2014). Therefore, university level programs should increase and re-shape ways to respond to the current demands of the field. Research and collaboration may potentially result in the creation of more innovative, researched-based dual language teacher preparation programs, expanding limited options for dual language teacher education. Such changes might give
comprehensive attention to dual language pedagogy and methodologies, with notable aspects of metalinguistics and additive biliteracy across the coursework. Additionally, the probable need for increased clinical, fieldwork in well-established dual language classrooms exists, including substantial teacher mentor relationships (Clarke, Triggs, & Nielsen, 2014; Flores, Sheets, & Clark, 2011). This all-inclusive thinking suggests practiced constancy to include theory and application of standards-based dual language principles and perspectives (Howard, et. al, 2007).

Next steps in transforming teacher preparation for dual language are justified by the case study outcomes, inclusive of school administrators’ relevant perceptions. In order for these next steps to fully come to fruition, it is also vital to expand interdisciplinary collaborations that include multiple stakeholders, in addition to school administrators, in the teacher preparation process. The implications for practice from this study are three-fold. First, from the current dual language administrator perspective, the concepts and associated nuances for teachers to understand additive biliteracy and academic language development remain crucial points of pedagogical consideration. Teaching and learning in two languages with language-minority students and language-majority students require unique approaches. Second, in order for dual language programs to continue and expand, school administrators need support in finding highly qualified dual language teacher candidates who come to their schools as prepared dual language teachers, specialists in their unique field. Finally, it would be greatly beneficial for teacher preparation programs to give attention to these details to facilitate dual language education program maintenance and expansion.
References


