Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

As the process of exploring the literature related to this study begins, we will look at studies focusing on some of the unique challenges found at International Schools. Due to the fact that the school in this study places ESL learners under the umbrella of special learning needs, we will explore some studies related to special needs and inclusive or mainstream classrooms. We will look at various programs and methods researched in the past relating to ESL students' unique needs. We will also be informed by studies and research relating to the unique challenges of developing academic English skills, especially some of the impacts of scaffolding techniques in the classroom. Finally we will seek to understand self-efficacy and autonomy for both teachers and learners, as these terms relate to this study.

2.1.1 Third Culture Kids (TCKs)

First we begin by looking into the nature of some of the ESL students found in international English-medium schools. Third culture kids - or TCKs as they are often referred to - is a term used to refer to children who have spent a significant number of their growing years in a different country or culture than their parents grew up in (Pollack and Van Recken, 1999). The term was reportedly first coined by sociologist Ruth Hill Useem in the late 1950s. She used the term because, "TCKs integrate aspects of their birth culture (first culture) and the new culture (the second culture), creating a unique "third culture" (TCKid.com). In his work in international school settings, Pearce (2002), suggests that "[t]he expatriate child, growing up exposed to more than one culture, perhaps even within one home, has a wide repertoire of experiences from which to build an identity or identities" (p. 156). He further posits that TCKs must develop pluralistic ways of negotiating these disparate cultural identities. Each of the ESL students in this study is navigating through the complex layers of their parents' culture, the host country's culture, the English-medium international school culture - as well as their own life experiences which may include living in numerous host countries. Jordan (2002) suggests that in the development of identity, the words "home" and "roots" must be substituted with the words "change" and "mobility" as typical concepts in the TCKs life. Lee (2006) posits that "the third culture can free people from their ethnocentric bias" (p. 255). These concepts of change, mobility and freedom from ethnocentric bias in TCKs may explain results of a recent TCKids website survey. The survey focused on self-descriptive

characteristics of how TCKs see themselves. Many described themselves as more welcoming of others into their community. Eighty percent of those who responded believed that they could get along with anyone. But at the same time ninety percent thought they were out of sync with their peers. (TCKid.com). Sociologist, Ted Ward boldly proclaimed in 1984, "TCKs are the prototype citizens of the future" (TCKids Web Site).

2.1.2 International Schools

The setting for this study is an English-medium international school in northern Thailand. English-medium international schools provide a unique educational environment for their multilingual, multicultural and multinational student populations. These populations can be categorized into three groups. First, are ex-patriots (ex-pats) from the dominant language group, which in the case of this study are students from an English speaking country. "Dominant" refers to the language of instruction used in the school. Second are students that are non-native English learners whose first language is neither the host country language nor English. The last group, are nationals from the host country in which the international school is located. National language speakers and the students from various non-English speaking countries make up the ESL population at English-medium international schools. These international schools have different standards for entrance into the school depending on the overall mission of the institution. Some focus on equipping non-native English speakers for admission to western universities. In these cases much emphasis is placed on the pedagogical needs of the ESL learners. Others, like the school in the current study are designed more to meet the needs of native-English speakers. Therefore the curriculum incorporates many of the standards associated with western schools - such as baccalaureate programs and advanced placement courses- without emphasizing ESL pedagogical issues. The regular classroom in these cases is not automatically designed to meet the language challenges of the ESL students.

Numerous studies have been done on these types of schools. Willis (1986) defines international schools as follows: "International Schools are derivative rather than imitative institutions. A blending of American and European curricula with doses of local color in languages or cultural studies, students with multiple allegiances (linguistically, nationally, culturally, and other interests), and a faculty/staff with a bewildering variety and experience, and all "normal" ingredients" (p. 4). Willis further suggests that due to the nature of these schools they tend to seek original solutions to novel problems that arise. He found that two prominent features in the design and operation of international schools center on equipping students to assimilate into their home country or another country with relative ease. As well as preparing students for admission in English-medium Universities.

Jonietz (1990), suggested that international schools desire the "acculturation of all national groups to the school language of instruction because that skill facilitates survival and success within the international school" (p. 14). Jonietz's study focused on a special needs plan for multicultural, multilinguistic, and multinational secondary

school students. She suggests that international schools may provide a new definition for special needs and a unique venue for programs related to multicultural, multilingual, and multinational students and teachers. Her description of special education in an international school is " the collaboration of staff across the curriculum to provide a program which includes academic opportunities for specially designed group/individual instruction to accommodate traditional special needs including learning disabilities and others, temporary learning disabilities including EFL learners" (p 14).

Both the Willis (1986) and the Jonietz (1990) studies informed this current research in that as Willis found, this international school is looking for original solutions to novel problems. Specifically, how to meet the language development needs of secondary students without disrupting their required academic studies. Just as Jonietz depicted special needs departments, the school in this study has over the years developed a team approach to meet the needs of students with learning difficulties. With the advent of this new role of secondary ESL facilitator the goal is to provide needed assistance to those secondary ESL learners with "temporary learning disabilities". This implies the belief that as ESL students improve in their English skills they will no longer need special assistance - unlike other learning challenges which generally continue to impact the students learning ability throughout life.

In addition to the unique needs of learners, teachers coming to a foreign country to teach at international schools also face numerous teaching challenges. A study done by Ortloff, Escobar-Ortloff, and Marina (2001) on teachers' professional development needs at overseas American international schools found that teachers needed assistance in developing awareness and skills in teaching a diverse school population. This training enables them to understand and appreciate the cultural and linguistic diversity so prevalent in international schools. It is a common occurrence at overseas schools that the teacher population experiences a large yearly turnover, so this issue for staff development is an ongoing need. Most teachers are prepared and experienced in utilizing accommodations in regard to student's learning rates, behavior issues and modes of response in the classroom. Currently very few teacher training programs emphasize accommodations for language. According to Hill and Flynn (2006) accommodating for language is one of the most difficult challenges facing mainstream teachers today. This current research will seek to assist the mainstream teachers (content teachers) to meet this need through measures which focus on building a supportive working relationship between the content classroom teacher and the ESL facilitator.

The international school which is the setting for this research has as one of its goals "to ensure that every student has the necessary resources to succeed in high school and in their future endeavors". The ESL program falls under the umbrella of the Special Needs Department whose focus is to assist students with physical and learning disabilities. Students for whom English is not their first language are included because limitations in English can hinder their ability to succeed in school and in their future endeavors. According to the school's web site the stated purpose of the ESL program is to provide "English language support services to students from families where one or both parents are non-native English speakers. ESL support is provided mainly in the classroom although more individualized support services can be provided outside

of the classroom depending on a student's needs. The goal of our program is to help ESL students develop English proficiency which allows them to function independently at their grade level."

2.1.3 Special Needs in Education

There are varying opinions of what constitutes a special need or learning disability. As indicated above, for the purposes of this study ESL learners are placed under the domain of special needs. Shulman (2002), in her study regarding diagnosing learning disabilities in students who are culturally and linguistically diverse states that a "true learning disability is not caused by cultural and/or linguistic diversity" (p. 18). She used the term "culturally and/or linguistically diverse" (CLD) to describe students from different cultural, ethnic, racial, or language elements beyond the traditional Euro-American experience. She further posits that CLD " encompasses English as a second language (ESL) students as well as students classified as Limited English Proficient (LEP), English Language Learners (ELL), and multicultural, or non-English language background (NELB)" (p.18). She acknowledges that both "learning disability or linguistic diversity can cause a student to have difficulties expressing concepts he appears to understand. Although it is possible that a language disorder may be caused by a learning disability, in the ESL student these language difficulties may just as likely be caused by the typical development of new language acquisition" (Shulman, 2002 , p.18). Whether it is referred to as a temporary learning disability or CLD, language difficulties do impact the ESL learner's ability to succeed in school.

2.1.4 Inclusive Classroom Perspective

Inclusive classrooms focus on integration issues to allow full participation of students with special needs in mainstream education. The South African Educational System according to Abosi and Koay (2008) defines inclusive education as a "Learning environment that promotes the full personal, academic and professional development of all learners irrespective of race, class, gender, disability, religion, culture, sexual preference, learning style and language"(p.2). This allows all children the opportunity to learn together without discrimination. Schools where inclusive education occurs must be sensitive to the differences in the needs of various children with disabilities. The international school in this current research utilizes the concept of inclusive classrooms in regard to those with physical and learning disabilities as well as those with language challenges. This new ESL facilitator must support the language challenged students as they need in order to succeed. Abosi and Koay further found that "Inclusive education also offers both academic and social advantages. Many experts maintain that inclusive schooling is the most effective means for building solidarity between children with special needs and their peers" (p.3). This is a key point, in that acculturation of all the national groups to the school language will facilitate survival and success in the international school setting according to Jonietz (1990).

There has been precedence set in general education for the concept of ESL learners' inclusion in the mainstream classroom. The 1970's and 1980's movement in

education encouraged the transition from isolated special education classrooms to the integration of special needs children into the general education classroom. This became known as the "inclusion movement" in the 1990's when UNESCO formulated a statement "that recognized necessity and urgency of providing education to all children, young people, and adults within the regular education system. It stressed that children with special education needs must have access to regular schools" (Rao, 2009, p. 23). In the 80's the United States began a national inclusive movement known as the Regular Education Initiative (REI). The focus was on serving students considered at risk, culturally diverse, or otherwise disabled in the general education setting for all or most of the school day. The belief being that inclusion is a better use of funds and provides more educational opportunities for all students. In 2004 the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) again called for inclusion of students with special needs, "needs arising due to disabilities, giftedness, linguistic differences, and/or belonging to disadvantaged and nomadic population, not only in regular education system but in regular education classrooms to the maximum extent possible" (Rao, p. 26). In each of these movements, cultural and linguistic/language difficulties were included in the lists which can - and must - be addressed in the inclusion classroom. Rao posits that "Diversity in today's classrooms (general education inclusive classrooms and special education classrooms) may encompass intellectual differences; communication differences; sensory differences; behavioral differences, including children with emotional and behavior disorders or have severe social maladjustment problems; multiple and severe handicapping conditions, individuals with mental retardation and physical/motor or sensory disabilities; and physical differences, that include mobility problems and health needs" (p. 26).

Rao (2006) explains that - in order for the inclusive classroom to work - there needs to be collaboration and co-teaching involving the special needs teacher, classroom teachers, and any other aides or para-professionals involved with the students. Therefore the classroom teacher is assisted by specialists in the special needs field as warranted by the learners' specific challenges. This might be a speech therapist, behavioral specialist, ESL teacher or other professionals depending on the issues involved. This collaboration allows the learner to develop socially and academically in the general classroom with his peers. Because classroom teachers often lack the knowledge and background to deal with all the various issues that may encompass the special needs of her students, this approach allows the various "experts" to work together in a comprehensive manor. According to Hill and Flynn (2006) "English language learners (ELL) may have once been viewed as "belonging" to English as a second language (ESL) staff, but now, due to changing laws and policies, they are in every classroom in the school, making the job of teaching that much more challenging" (p. xii).

In Gurgur and Uzuner's (2010) research in Turkey, they reported the following factors that must be considered in order to have a successful inclusion program. First, is the Academic and social skill levels of the students, as well as class size. Second, is the impact of the attitudes and experiences of the classroom teacher. Finally, is what they described as most important: the involvement of special needs support services. In the case study they reported the relationship between the teacher and those providing her support did not turn out to be positive. Even though the classroom

teacher volunteered to participate in the study she was uncooperative and the support was not utilized, which led to students' learning needs not being addressed. This study demonstrates that in inclusive classrooms, students with special needs -including ESL- benefit directly when the content teacher and special support teacher work in collaboration according to their areas of expertise.

In another study about inclusive classrooms Jakupcak and Rushton (1992) used a method called "pre-teach, teach and post-teach." In this case the special needs students were pre-taught the content topic using different materials during a once a week lab time. Then in the "teach" time during the regular class time the learning was reinforced as the content was taught again. Finally, the "post-teach" was a review time prior to testing. This process again utilized a team approach where the content teachers did content teaching and the special needs teacher taught once a week skills such as note taking, learning strategies, and styles to the whole content class. The content teacher then encouraged the learners to utilize these skills in the content class. This co-operative effort paid off and the program was expanded. Although the role being developed in this research will not incorporate the Pre-teach, Teach, Post-teach design it will require co-operation, communication and unified effort between the content teacher and the ESL facilitator to provide the ESL learners multiple exposure to concepts and tasked learned in the content class.

2.2 Historical overview of ESL Frameworks

Theories and Methods
From earlier times when English speaking explorers traveled to new lands - or foreigners sought a better life in English speaking countries - to present day globalization, English as a second language (ESL) has been a topic of interest and a challenge for many teachers, learners and researchers. Over the years the methods, settings and knowledge of how languages are learned have changed based on research and experience. Researchers and teachers have sought to unlock the keys to language learning, sometimes with the notion that there exists a perfect method, setting or teacher training technique that, once discovered, would ensure success for all language learners. Some of these methods have had profound influence and continue to impact teaching and materials used today.

The 'Chomskyan revolution' in linguistics had an enormous influence on the understanding of first language acquisition and later on second language acquisition. According to Mitchell and Myles (2004) Chomsky's work in psycholinguistics in the 1970s continues to influence first and second language acquisition theories today.

Nunan (1988) divided historical methods into three categories. The first, involved the psychological tradition including Audio-lingualism and cognitive code learning. Second, was the humanistic tradition which was reflected in the Community Language Learning method, the Silent Way, and Suggestopedia. The third category is the second language acquisition tradition which focused on the Total Physical Response and the Natural Approach, incorporating games, problem solving and content activities.

Many of the cognitive based theories promoted the idea that language learning was like the development of any other skill. The information-processing model considers how different memory stores deal with new second language information and how such information is automatically recalled and restructured through repeated activation. A second cognitive approach is the processing ability theory. This looks at the processing demands that certain formal components of the second language make on the ability to learn and teach the second language structure.

To date that perfect key has not been found. But what does seem to be understood is that with today's world globalization there is no "typical language learner". There continues to be immigrants, international students and refugees relocating to English speaking countries. But, in addition there is now a growing number of businesses and organizations who seek to use English as the common language of communication in many non-English speaking countries. This has led many people from all walks of life to seek to better themselves and their children by becoming more proficient in English.

Classroom Methodologies
Time, research and experience has also recorded changes in classroom methodologies from the eras when second language teaching was mostly focused on reading and writing languages - such as Greek and Latin - for scholarly purposes to today's emphasis on promoting communicative language use. These changes have been influenced by both the positive and negative aspects of the methodologies utilized in the past. The Grammar Translation method was adopted in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries as the primary way of teaching foreign languages. According to Brown (2001) it was popular, "Since there was very little if any theoretical research on second language acquisition in general or on the acquisition of reading proficiency, foreign languages were taught as any other skill"(p. 18). The grammar translation method focused on grammatical rules for translating from the second language (L2) to the mother tongue (MT). As new research has revealed new insights into language learning, the various methods have been adjusted and morphed into new methods which have been applied and adapted to each new generation of learners. Yet, even today, such methods as the grammar translation method are still in use. Despite Brown's scathing pronouncement that "it does virtually nothing to enhance a student's communicative ability in the language" (p. 19), the grammar translation method is still the choice in many classrooms because it does not require specialized skills on the part of teachers and tests and scoring can be done objectively.

In all these methodologies, the application was carried out in the traditional setting of one ESL teacher teaching in a self -contained classroom. The teacher was responsible for carrying out the set course according to a syllabus provided by the institution or developed by the teacher. The teacher was to transmit language knowledge to the receiving student. The role developed in this study proposed to step away from these established frameworks and methods. This new role would be defined by an interdependent collaborative three-way relationship between the ESL facilitator, content teachers and ESL students. This process would require interaction across educational disciplines.

2.3 Post-Method Framework

Kumaravadivelu (2006) suggests that the search for the "perfect" method in second language teaching would best be abandoned. Allwright (1991), Pennycock (1989), and Prabhu (1990) echo that sentiment. According to Kumaravadivelu this disillusionment with "method" can be traced back to 1960s arguments about the limitations of methods put forth by Kelly (1969) and Mackey (1965). Kumaravadivelu described the concept of method development as "endless cycles of life, death, and rebirth" (p. 162). He posited that this endless repackaging could only end when, as a profession, we accepted that there is no perfect method. He promoted the idea that the classroom has too many unpredictable variables to provide context-specific solutions in advance that can speak to all the teaching and learning issues that may arise. He described three parameters for applying the post-method framework. First, is the uniqueness of the teacher, learner, setting, goals, and institutional context as well as the socio-cultural milieu. The next parameter is utilizing the development and implementation of the teacher's own theories based on her specific context. The final parameter is, incorporating the experiences the ESL students into the class.

Kumaravadivelu (2003) put forth general plans which were based on current theoretical knowledge of second language learning and teaching from which teachers could generate their own context specific classroom methodologies. These ten macro-strategies according to Kumaravadivelu were theory-neutral and method-neutral.

- Strategy 1: Maximize learning opportunities: Teacher as mediator and facilitator of learning.
- Strategy 2: Facilitate negotiated interaction: Learners actively initiate and navigate talk, not just respond and react.
- Strategy3: Minimize perceptual mismatches: Ensure clear understanding across cultures, linguistics, pedagogical or other barriers as much as possible.
- Strategy 4: Activate intuitive heuristics: Encourage noticing and discovering form and function rules.
- Strategy 5: Foster language awareness: Explicit focus on less obvious properties as needed.
- Strategy 6: Contextualize linguistic input: Discourse features not taught in isolated or discrete manner.
- Strategy 7: Integrate language skills: They are interrelated and reinforcing skills.
- Strategy 8: Promote learner autonomy: Help students to learn how to learn.
- Strategy 9: Ensure social relevance: keep the local context in mind.
- Strategy 10: Raise cultural consciousness: Promote a global cultural awareness.

Due to the goal of focusing efforts of the three-way partnership on improving the ESL students' development academically and as autonomous learners these macro-strategies were relevant and applicable to the development of the methodologies or framework for this unique ESL class.

2.4 Academic English

The use of English in the academic setting differs from everyday conversational English. Often times, the students interviewing for entry into an English-medium international school are able to demonstrate proficiency in the skills of communicating basic facts. These interviews afford students the opportunity to demonstrate their proficiency in talking about themselves, their family, even the various places they have lived. But the more daunting task is assessing the students command of English used in the academic context. The learning gaps may not become evident until the student is already in the school and facing the challenges of being in an English-medium classroom.

Most people who have studied a foreign language can attest to the fact that they first learned functional topics in the new language such as how to introduce themselves and how to ask directions. They learned the language needed for shopping and other daily life functions. As they improved they were able to adjust the register of language to the context of the situation. This register includes three variables according to Halliday and Hasan (1976). The first is "field" which refers to the topic of the text. Next is "tenor" which focuses on the relationship between the interlocutors. Finally the "mode" involves the channel of communication. Initially, learning focuses on the here and now where both speaker and listener are able to utilize visual cues such as facial expressions and gestures to help facilitate communication. As learners progress they are able to use language in more abstract and explicit ways. Halliday (1993) posits that this is the ability to "impart meanings which are not already known" (p.102). Martin (1984) states that "the more speakers are doing things together and engaging in a dialogue, the more they can take for granted. As language moves away from the events it describes, and the possibility of feedback is removed, more and more of the meanings must be made explicit in the text" (p. 27). This requires the speaker or writer to provide more information because it cannot be assumed that the listener or reader has the same level of understanding of events. Although less explicit language use is found in academic settings it is the need for more explicit language that often gives the ESL students the greatest communication challenges. Gibbons (2002) gives the following example of how various tenors and modes may be required in a classroom lesson on the same topic. A look at the following four texts shows us that while the field of all four texts may be the same, there are clearly differences in the way language is used:

- Look, it's making them move. Those didn't stick.
- We found out the pins stuck on the magnet.
- Our experiment showed that magnets attract some metals.
- Magnetic attraction occurs only between ferrous metals. (p.3)

Text one relates to a student in a small group and demonstrates how dependent "here and now" language is on the context. We, the reader are not told what "it, them and those" are nor do we know what they are sticking to. But for the participants in the small group, this limited language is clear because of the context. Next, we hear this same student explaining to the teacher what they observed. In this context the student used the words "pins" and "magnets" to describe what they observed. These words

provide a clearer picture to the events. The third statement was from a written report of the experiment. In this case more general scientific terms such as "attract" for stick and "some metals" for pins were used. The final text was a description of this event from a children's dictionary. This is much denser language and defines the events as magnetic attraction. Gibbon (2002) suggests that " this set of texts reflects the process of formal education: as children move through school , they are expected to progress from talking only about their here and now personal experiences toward using the particular registers of different curriculum areas, and expressing increasingly more abstract ideas" (p. 4).

Cummins (1984) describes the language learning process like exploring an "iceberg". The iceberg portion that is above the water surface is likened to conversational proficiency. This portion emphasizes the cognitive process development of knowledge, comprehension and application. The language process development focuses on pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. The portion below the surface requires more effort and different methods to explore and evaluate. Cummins refers to this aspect of language learning as cognitive/academic proficiency. This requires development of cognitive processes such as analysis, synthesis and evaluation. The language processes in this phase emphasize semantic meaning and functional meaning. Hill and Flynn (2006) suggest that since often times as English language learners (ELL) become proficient in conversational skills they may be labeled as fluent by many people. "They understand the teacher's questions, converse with classmates in English, and even translate for their parents. However, their daily schoolwork and exams may not reflect this fluency" (p. 17). These students are often labeled as unmotivated, lazy or as having learning disabilities. In reality the issue may be that they have not developed the needed cognitive/academic proficiency to succeed in the academic setting.

Krashen and Terrell (1983) posited that second language learners needed to go through language development stages much like children acquiring their first language. The stages were preproduction, early production, speech emergence, intermediate fluency and advanced fluency. Looking at these stages as a continuum, the final three stages require the development of the cognitive skills that Cummins (1984) described as being part of cognitive/academic fluency. Linguistic problems for ESL (7-12 grade) students may arise because they have not grown up experiencing this learning process of moving through these cognitive and language learning phases in an English-medium school. The gaps in knowledge and experience soon become apparent in the content based classrooms. These ESL students may know how to express their understanding in the small group setting rich in context clues. They may even be able to explain events to the teacher, but these learners are often challenged by the gaps in the language ability and vocabulary when asked to express their ideas in written academic form where a more dense academic language is expected. Cummins (2000) distinguishes between registers of everyday language (context-embedded) and academic registers of school (context-reduced). He suggests that second language learners can develop proficiency in context-embedded language use in one to two years. While, the context-reduced registers of academic language can take five to seven years to develop a competency level near to same age native speaker peers. This presents a learning challenge because native speakers do not stop learning until ESL learners catch up and we cannot have ESL students focus only on

language development and not content materials. This paints a picture of the ESL student in an English-medium school as always being behind their native English speaking peers. How to overcome this challenge has been the subject of much research and debate. "The overriding drive in current changes occurring in second language teaching is the need to teach language through something essential and meaningful to the student. When the goal is to prepare students for academic success in classes taught in English, then ESL is best taught through lessons that teach meaningful mathematics, science, social studies, and language arts concepts simultaneously with second language objectives" (Ovando, Collier, & Combs, 2003, p. 310).

2.5 ESL Programs

In addition to the concepts of immersion and inclusion of ESL learners into the mainstream classroom, a look at programs focused on supporting the ESL learner once they are in the education system is in order. Commonly found programs are the sheltered program, and the pull-out program. A less common scenario, especially at lower grade levels, is the adjunct program. A fourth program is called scaffolding. It may be considered a technique which can be applied in any of the other three circumstances listed before, or it can be used by the content classroom teacher without the benefit of the other methods. A comparison will be made with the program being developed in this study and those that have been used historically. A look at the similarities and differences in programs will be explored.

2.5.1 English-medium Content –based Instruction

Content-based instruction (CBI) according to Brinton, Snow, & Wesche (1989) views "the target language largely as the vehicle through which subject matter content is learned rather than as the immediate object of study" (, p. 5). Wesche (1993) posits that CBI is focused on second and foreign language skills that are use-oriented. He further emphasizes the uniqueness of concurrent learning of content and language skills. Crandall & Tucker, (1990) describe CBI as "...an approach to language instruction that integrates the presentation of topics or tasks from subject matter classes (e.g., math, social studies) within the context of teaching a second or foreign language" (p. 187). For the purposes of this research the Brinton et al. (1989) definition seemed most appropriate because English in the content classes was the vehicle for teaching the content, and not the object of study. The ESL facilitator role could best succeed by working in co-operation with the classroom teacher in order to assist the student with the language gaps discovered while studying the content courses. Byrnes (2000) uses Cummins' (1981) concept of Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) as evidence that students need to be learning content while they develop their academic language because of time constraints for learning. He further suggests that in the advent of meeting the learner's needs, cognitive levels, and interests it would be wrong to delay content learning until the ESL student had developed a more advanced academic language ability.

In a study done in Japan in relation to challenges for Japanese students studying at an English-medium university, Taguchi & Naganuma (2006), described an English-medium university as "a university in which all courses, from language to advanced courses, are taught in English in order to develop students' functional ability in English" (p. 54). The goal in such an institution is "to broaden students' general and specialized knowledge and build professional expertise in English so that they can take leadership in the international arena" (Taguchi & Naganuma, p. 58). Learning and using English was the means for reading, writing, and talking about current issues in content courses. It was a tool and not an end in itself. In such a university, English skills are a by-product of the process of gaining content-area knowledge. "English is used for truly functional and communicative purposes" (Taguchi & Naganuma, p. 58).

 In the current study the international school was an English-medium secondary school. The study in Japan found that when English is taught as an academic course with a focus on discrete structures to memorize - as is often the case in the Japanese high schools - the learners are not adequately prepared for the types of skills they need to succeed in English-medium University. Taguchi and Naganuma (2006) recommended the need for further study of the methods of teaching English in secondary schools. This confirms one of Willis's (1986) stated purposes of English medium international secondary schools listed above. That is the goal of preparing students for college in English- medium institutions. Many non-native English speaking graduates from international schools go on to study in colleges and universities in English speaking countries. Therefore, the development of English skills - as a by-product of the process of gaining content-area knowledge - will better prepare these ESL students for the future. This is a form of mainstreaming according to Taylor (1998), which she describes as less effective than immersion.

Taylor (1998) defines the mainstreaming method of language learning as a one dimensional focus which is content driven and the ESL learners' needs are neglected. She posits that such classrooms "are not designed with minority language children in mind; they are designed with native-speakers of the dominant language" (Taylor, p. 65). Her study looked at case studies of two content based kindergarten classrooms. The focus was on the methodologies used in each case. One was mainstreaming which has been discussed above. The other was immersion which was designed to focus on both the learning of the second language as well as the content materials. In immersion, provisions were made which the researcher called "sheltering". Sheltering was described as techniques such as using mime, pictures, slow speech and other methods to ensure that the ESL students grasp the meaning in the content-based courses. Taylor concludes that exposure to the language through content is not enough for ESL learners to be successful in the target language. She believes these students need sheltering strategies as well as exposure. It is important to note that the Taguchi and Naganuma (2006) study and Taylor's study looked at student populations at opposite ends of the age spectrum in very different settings from each other and from this current research. These studies seem to indicate that the various types of content-based methodology need to be adapted to each unique setting and population.

The ESL learners in this current study are in classes with native-English speakers. This method may be described as mainstreamed (inclusive) because the classes are mostly designed with English speakers in mind. The ESL facilitator in this study

sought to initiate scaffolding - what Taylor (1998) calls "sheltering" - for the learner, which focused on language development, along with providing resources for classroom teachers in scaffolding techniques to prevent the possible limitations suggested by Taylor in mainstream content-based instruction classrooms.

2.5.2 ESL Sheltered Classroom

Sheltered Programs are Content Based Instruction (CBI) learning environments. CBI focuses on learning about a content topic while learning language, rather than just learning language. The goal of the Sheltered CBI program is to enable the ESL students to study the same content material as is being taught to the native-English students. Sheltered CBI is called "sheltered" because the learners do not study alongside the native English speakers. They are given special assistance to help them understand the content class material. This may include more visual associations as well as differentiated requirements for assessment. In some cases two teachers work together to give instruction in a specific subject. One of the teachers is a content specialist and the other an ESL specialist. They may teach the class together or the class time may be divided between the two of them. For example, the content specialist will give a short lecture and then the ESL teacher will check that the students have understood the important words by reviewing them later. This kind of team teaching requires teachers to work closely together to plan and evaluate classes (Davies, 2003). Sheltering programs may also be taught by a content teacher with ESL training as well.

2.5.3 Adjunct Support Programs

Adjunct classes are usually taught by ESL teachers. The aim of these classes is to prepare students for mainstream or inclusive classes taught in the target language alongside native speakers. Adjunct classes may be designed to develop specific target vocabulary. Like English for specific purposes (ESP) class; they may also focus on developing study skills to acquaint the learner with skills related to listening, note taking and skimming or scanning texts. Some adjunct classes are taught during the summer months prior to the regular semester, while others run concurrently with content classes.

Research done in Canada by Burger, Wesche and Migneron (1997), reported the evolution of a program from Sheltered to Adjunct. The focus of the program was to develop discipline-based language instruction to assist students with the transition between second language courses and academic coursework which were designed for native speakers. This was in line with the goals of this current study. I refer to discipline-based language as content courses. Sheltered and immersion programs are alike in that all materials are taught to ESL learners only and in the English- medium. After a number of successful years the program needed to be revised due to budgetary cuts. Because of these cuts, the Adjunct concept arose in an effort to continue to support the learning opportunities for the ESL students. The ESL learners took

content courses alongside native speakers more in line with mainstreaming or inclusion theories of learning. The adjunct teacher met with the ESL students at set times each week and utilized the content course materials to work with the learner in developing their language skills.

From a pedagogical perspective this applies Krashen's (1985) "comprehensible input" in which students receive large amounts of authentic input in the content classes. It also promotes communicative language theory during study times with the adjunct teacher and in the content classes. The learners use language that is meaningful to their academic success. From the teaching perspective, the content teachers had not received special training in helping ESL students. But they did rely on the input and expertise of the ESL teachers in regards to classroom procedures and activities which can help the ESL learner. Such strategies as including the use of visual aids, note taking guides, and more concept explanations were utilized. They were also informed of classroom methods and behaviors that might hinder the ESL learner's ability to learn, such as fast speech, humorous anecdotes which distract from the topic, and departing from the set outline. Pedagogically, this adjunct role of supporting the content teacher and assisting the ESL learner is in keeping with the ESL facilitator role developed at the international school in this study.

Another study based on the use of the adjunct model at an intensive summer program for at-risk students transitioning to University was carried out by Snow and Brinton (1984). They reported on earlier research done by Bernbrock (1979) in which "he points out that the adjunct concept offers a practical way to integrate ESL curricula with other academic fields" (as cited by Snow & Brinton, p. 8). A further benefit of the adjunct model is that it allows the content teacher to be the expert in the content material and the language teacher to be expert in the language material - while they both become familiar with each other's fields of information. In other words the Language teacher will, out of necessity, need some understanding of the content material in order to plan language lessons based on the content course. Likewise the content teacher will need to incorporate some language development into the content course. The role developed was what Snow and Brinton describe as a modified adjunct role in that it is non-credit. "The language module exists solely to aid students in their content course needs" (p. 33). In other words, what the ESL students are learning while interacting with the ESL facilitator would have direct relevance to their content courses.

Some other benefits of the adjunct model according to Snow and Brinton (1984) are:
- It exposes learners to intense language input in the content course.
- Integrating the subject matter into the language class increases exposure.
- Encourages attention and involvement on the learner's part since it is directly relevant to the content course.
- It draws on what the learner knows about the subject matter, and utilizes his abilities to a great extent.

Snow and Brinton go on to state that " adjunct instruction is the only model of language teaching that provides a rich enough context for resolving both pieces of the language acquisition puzzle - comprehensible input and comprehensible output" (p. 38). Although I would not say it was the only option for language acquisition, the

adjunct role appeared to be a viable option for the context in which I was developing a model of ESL support for content teachers and ESL learners in an international school setting.

2.5.4 ESL Pull-out

Pull out programs are commonly found at elementary level. These programs often are set up to allow the ESL student to participate in the mainstream classroom. The ESL student is "pulled out" of the classroom for individual or small group instruction with an ESL specialist. Although this program also requires coordination and communication between the classroom teacher and the ESL specialist there is often a tension as the classroom teacher sees the ESL learner missing important "content" material - and the ESL specialist finds that their limited contact with the learner is not sufficient to have the needed results of catching up with their English speaking peers. The program developed in this study utilizes the concept of small group and one to one encounters with the ESL learners. But the students are not removed from content classes, only from scheduled study halls. This prevents disharmony with the content teachers and allows the learner to fully participate in their content classes.

2.5.5 Scaffolding

According to Smith, Butler, Griffith and Kritsonis (2007), most teachers are aware of the value of repetition in language learning, but they suggest scaffolding goes beyond repetition and recycling. By utilizing concrete, accurate models of authentic language, the teacher can scaffold sequenced input/output activities to move learners from word level to discourse level communication. "Scaffolding refers to providing contextual supports for meaning through the use of simplified language, teacher modeling, visuals and graphics, cooperative learning and hands-on learning" (Ovando et al. 2003, p. 345). The ESL teacher facilitates support through intentional actions and methods of presenting information. As the learner becomes more proficient with the language and more knowledgeable of the topic the "scaffold" is gradually removed. Bradley and Bradley (2004) have identified three types of scaffolding that they deem especially effective for second language learners.
- Simplifying the language: The teacher can simplify the language by shortening selections, speaking in the present tense, and avoiding the use of idioms.
- Asking for completion, not generation: The teacher can have students choose answers from a list or complete a partially finished outline or paragraph.
- Using visuals: The teacher can present information and ask for students to respond through the use of graphic organizers, tables, charts, outlines, and graphs (p. 1).

They further posit that scaffolding is vital to the learners' success in the classroom because "Each of the content area subjects contain a unique and demanding technical vocabulary. In addition, familiar words are used in completely different ways" (p.1). By providing scaffolding the teacher can assist the learner in developing essential

vocabulary for understanding and mastering content class material. Vygotsky (1978) suggests that knowing the student's level of language acquisition provides the opportunity to work within his "zone of proximal development". According to Vygotsky, "scaffolding" can be applied to assist the learner to move from their current ability to the next level of ability. This suggests that providing appropriate support allows students to continue to be challenged to learn and grow in knowledge. He also points out that according to sociolinguistic theory, the novice can learn by interacting with a more knowledgeable person - thus highlighting a benefit of inclusive classrooms. Lightbown and Spada (2006) suggest that sociocultural theory views speaking and thinking as intertwined. Scaffolding tasks allows the learner to internalize what is being taught and can "gain control over their mental processes" (p.47).

Much of what occurs in the ESL learning situation explored in this study relied on the concepts and principles of scaffolding - primarily of what the students were or would be required to perform in their content classes, most notably in the area of writing.

2.6 Autonomy in Learners

Learner autonomy has been defined as the individual taking charge and responsibility for their own learning (Holec, 1981). Dickinson (1987) posits that in learner autonomy the learner is totally responsible for all decisions and implementations regarding their learning. Thanasoulas (2000) agreed that autonomous learners are to be expected to assume a greater responsibility for their own learning. He went on to emphasize that the teacher does not abdicate her role in what is transpiring in the language learning process. He emphasizes that the assumption of greater responsibility on the part of the learner is an ongoing dynamic process and not a static state that is achieved once and for all time.

But how does this "taking charge and responsibility" occur? Scharle and Szabo (2000) suggest that teachers must help their learners to develop a sense of responsibility for their own learning. Crome's (2008) research found that "autonomy of learning" is an acquired habit. Crome defined autonomy of learning as self-managing one's learning with the ability to think and act critically and independently. This process involves a disposition towards learning which promotes acquisition of other knowledge and skills. He differentiated between two views of autonomous learning. First, is where students are given minimal information, and then sent forth to research with the expectation that they will learn more about the topic on their own. Another view involves showing the learner how to do something in order that they can learn to undertake similar activities in the future. This second view is in keeping with the concept of scaffolding used in this current research. The student's own mistakes on content class assignments are used to teach correct writing and grammar usage. The goal being that if the learner begins to learn from their own mistakes they will apply the learning to future assignments.

Crome (2008) found that students became autonomous learners through the very activity of autonomous learning, suggesting that repetition and practice in learning

causes autonomous learning to become second nature. Becoming an autonomous learner, "takes a long time to develop, and simply removing the barriers to a person's ability to think and behave in certain ways may not allow him or her to break away from old habits or ways of thinking" (Candy, 1991, p.124).

Little (2006) - influenced by neo-Vygotskian psychology - sees learning as supported performance, and a process that is an interdependence of cognitive and socio-interactive dimensions. He suggests that this model encourages the teacher to create and maintain learning opportunities that promote autonomous learning so that students can become more autonomous. This again supports the concept set forth in the current research with the ESL facilitator providing learning opportunities - rather than transmitting information to the students - in order to promote autonomous learning.

2.7 Teacher's evolving self-perception

In reviewing the literature relating to the teacher's attitudes and views of themselves we will look at the research in light of how self-efficacy enters into the day to day operations of the classroom. We will also seek to understand the concepts of autonomy as related to the roles of teachers.

2.7.1 Self-efficacy

Bandura's theory of social learning promoted the concept of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977, 1986).Sari, Celikoz, & Secer (2009) reported on Bahadir's (2002) definition of self-efficacy as being an individual's belief in his own ability to successfully carry out behaviors to reach a particular goal. Bandura (1986) posits that self-efficacy impacts a person's choice of activities, response to difficulties, and the effort they employ to a task and their performance. Studies show that teachers with high self-efficacy are better able to cope with changes in their professional life than those with low levels of self-efficacy (Larrivee & Cook, 1979; Soodak & Podell, 1994). According to Gravis and Pendergast (2010) teacher's attitudes and beliefs do impact their behavior. They suggest that high levels of self-efficacy means that teachers are able to make a judgment that they can perform a task, or solve a problem. They are confident in their knowledge and skills to plan and implement a course of action. They found low efficacy teachers tend to be more passive and less likely to believe that they or their actions will make a difference in the student's lives or outcomes. This in turn has an influence on the classroom atmosphere and the students. It would stand to reason that the more experience in teaching the greater the level of self-efficacy but, according to Barksdale-Ladd and Rose (1997) for some teachers as they gain field experience, the discrepancy between the theories learned in their training and what actually occurs in the classroom can negatively impact their view of their own abilities. Bailey (2001) promotes the concepts of self-awareness and self-observation for reflective teaching. With this awareness is an increased ability to monitor self-efficacy or what she calls attitude.

2.7.2 Teacher Autonomy

The concept of teacher autonomy is a key component to encouraging learner autonomy and thus Classroom learning autonomy (Hui, 2010). Little defines teacher autonomy as "the teachers' capacity to engage in self-directed teaching" (Little, 1995, p.176). Others suggest it not only involves the capacity but also freedom and/or responsibility to choose what and how to teach (Aoki, 2000; Benson, 2001). In keeping with the tenets of this study, the definition by Smith (2000) - who defines teacher autonomy as" the ability to develop appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes for oneself as a teacher, in cooperation with others" (p. 89) - best describes the collaborative relationship with others that this role requires.

Smith (2001) emphasizes that teachers - in order to encourage student autonomy - must engage in autonomous activities such as reflection on their own roles in the classroom. They need to monitor how their behavior scaffolds or constrains the learner. "There is a sense, then, in which teachers and students can learn together and together become more empowered in the course of pedagogy for autonomy combined with reflective teaching" (Smith, 2001, pp. 43-44). Widdowson (1990) also argued that effective pedagogy must be a reflective and research-oriented activity, thus incorporating the professional roles of theorists and mediators in "establishing justification of an appropriate expertise of their own" (p. 25). Teacher autonomy allows teachers to develop this expertise as them deem necessary in their role.