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INTRODUCTION

In the current era of increased demands and decreased supply of bilingual teachers, examining national and state trends for bilingual certification provides a national and local landscape of current bilingual teacher policies and practices. For example, our analysis of current states’ bilingual certification requirements reveals that only twenty-three out of the fifty states and the District of Columbia offer bilingual certification. States differ broadly in the criteria required for the authorization, “including some states that simply apply a test of unknown validity to credential teachers with or without any formal training in bilingual education” (Lavadenz, 2019). California, however, is one of the few states that developed consensus standards (or competencies) for the preparation of bilingual teachers. Approved by the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing in 2009, the current Bilingual Authorization Program Standards (BAPS) are undergoing revisions with the goal of preparing the most highly-qualified, bilingually-authorized teachers that our K–12 students deserve. In order for bilingual teacher preparation programs to respond to local districts’ needs, not only must standards include alignment with “general” teacher education credential/licensing standards, pedagogic, and clinical practices, they must also align with current research in the field of bilingualism/biliteracy, policy implementation, and community needs. As institutes of higher education respond to local needs in the post-pandemic era, coherence and innovation are needed more than ever to respond to bilingual teacher shortages across teacher preparation pathways that foster collaboration and equity between
state departments, universities, and local education agency leaders.

We draw from the research base on the benefits of well-implemented bilingual/dual language programs (Callahan & Gándara, 2014; National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2017) and the corresponding issue of bilingual educator preparation. Expansion of dual language programs is contributing to bilingual/dual language teacher shortages; decreases in the number of bilingual/dual language teachers prepared in California Commission on Teacher Credentialing-approved programs lead us to seek information to better understand the relationship between districts’ projected needs and their expectations about the specialized preparation of beginning bilingual educators.2 We developed and conducted a statewide survey of district and school leaders to explore priority expectations for the preparation of bilingual/dual language teachers for diverse student populations in their districts. This education and policy brief presents these findings. To provide a context for these findings, we discuss the social-political context for bilingual teacher supply and demand, present an overview of bilingual teacher demographics in California, review bilingual teacher preparation policies, and highlight the role of school and district leaders in staffing dual language programs. Following a description of the study methodology and key findings, we conclude with policy recommendations.

**The California Bilingual/Dual Language Education Policy Context**

Over the last 18 years, California has experienced significant decreases in fully authorized bilingual educators (Ramos-Harris & Sandoval-Gonzalez, 2017; California Commission on Teacher Credentialing, 2020). These decreases have been influenced by a number of factors, not the least of which was the passage of Proposition 227 in 1998—the state policy that severely restricted the number of and access to bilingual education/dual language3 programs for English Learners’ (ELs). Concurrent with the limited access to bilingual programs for the EL population, California (along with the rest of the nation) has seen a rise in and demand for dual language programs. The “new ecology of biliteracy” in California, coupled with the nationwide expansion of the State Seal of Biliteracy (DeLeon & Lavadenz, 2020) and growing research evidence (Lindholm-Leary, 2016; National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2017), contributed to the growth of dual language programs for non-immigrant/non-English speaking populations. Positive popular opinion on biliteracy converged with research in 2017 with the passage of California’s Proposition 58 (Ulloa, 2016), effectively reversing Proposition 227’s restricted access for ELs. Additionally, the Global CA 2030 initiative (2018) and the CA English Learner Roadmap (2017) focused on building a multilingual California by increasing the number of dual language programs. Together, these policies have further broadened participation in dual language programs for native English-speaking families, yet they left unfulfilled opportunities for ELs to access these programs.

The demand for dual language education has contributed to the current shortages of bilingual authorized teachers in multiple non-English languages, but primarily in Spanish, Mandarin Chinese, and Korean (California Department of Education, 2018; Callahan & Gándara, 2014; Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017; de Jong, 2011; DeMatthews & Izquierdo 2017, 2019; Ee, 2018; Grissom et al., 2021; Howard & López Velásquez, 2019; Kennedy, 2020; Lavadenz & Colón-Muñiz, 2017; Ramos Harris & Sandoval-González, 2017; Valenzuela, 2017). However, this is not the first time that California and other states have experienced bilingual teacher shortages. Prior to 1998, California experienced shortages of bilingual teachers, despite the fact that slightly less than 30% of the state’s ELs participated in bilingual programs (Parrish et al., 2006); this decreased to 5% after the passage of Proposition 227 (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2017). Proposition 227’s restrictions to access to bilingual/dual language programs for ELs/Emerging Bilingual Learners left an indelible mark of subtractive bilingualism that also contributed to the shortages of bilingual teachers. The negative legacy of this proposition in California and other states (Proposition 203 in Arizona; Question 2 in Massachusetts) was a result of deficit orientations of ELs and manifested in monolingual/monocultural education ideologies and practices (Bartolomé, 2006; Cervantes-Soon et al., 2017). These variables contributed to shortages of bilingual candidates and to the attention that bilingual teacher education policymakers paid to advance certification requirements. In the next sections, we briefly review the history of bilingual teacher preparation policies in the U.S. and in California. Before doing so, we present what little information we know about who bilingual teachers in California are.

**Bilingual Teachers in California**

Based on the 2020 California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CTC) Teacher Supply Report (CTC, 2020), the state of California issued a total of 17,019 new teaching credentials in 2018–19—a 3.1% increase from the previous year and a steady increase in credentials issued over the last five years. Of the 17,019 credentials issued, only 949 (5.6%) were with Bilingual Authorization—a 0.2% increase from the previous year but disproportional to the growing interest in bilingual and dual language programs in the state. Although the CTC reports the number and types of credentials that it awards each year, it does not collect nor
report the demographics of the teachers who earned them. Thus, we can only paint an overall picture of the entire teacher workforce based on demographic data volunteered to the California Department of Education (CDE) annually. These are aggregate demographics for all teachers, new and seasoned, and inclusive of all credentials and authorizations.

In 2018–19, more than 307,000 teachers taught in California’s K–12 public schools. Of the teachers who voluntarily provided their demographics, 73% were female and 27% were male. Approximately 61% identified as White and 21% identified as Hispanic; Asians and African American teachers accounted for 8% and 4%, respectively. Based on these statistics, we can infer that the demographics of teachers with bilingual authorizations were similar in terms of gender, with perhaps more teachers of color given the diverse home/community languages they may have represented. Similar efforts that sought to investigate bilingual teacher demographics found that many were once EL students themselves (Briceno et al., 2018; Flores & Claeys, 2019) —likely a result of recent, grow-your-own efforts to retain heritage language speakers and shepherd them into the field of bilingual education. Many could have followed their own desire to provide children with a more equitable, asset-based, and student-centered educational environment. From these statistics, we can infer that the demographics of teachers with bilingual authorizations were similar in terms of gender, with perhaps more teachers of color given the diverse home/community languages they may have represented.

There are currently no answers to basic questions regarding who bilingual educators are: What are their racial/ethnic characteristics? How many were once students in public California schools? How many were born outside of the United States? Without a database to collect and report their demographics, it is difficult to plan proper recruitment, targeted support, or develop their ongoing professional needs and careers as bilingual educators. With what little we know about bilingual teachers in California, we turn next to a history of bilingual teacher preparation.

**Bilingual Teacher Preparation Policies**

California has a long history of preparing bilingual teachers. Although the current bilingual certification standards were developed in 2009, the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CTC) began offering this credential as early as 1973. The passages of AB 507 (the Bilingual Education Improvement and Reform Act of 1980) and Chacon-Moscone Bilingual-Bicultural Education Act of 1976 mandated bilingual instruction for every EL (Limited English Proficient) student in California and triggered shortages of fully credentialed teachers in the state. Currently, California’s Bilingual Authorization Program Standards (BAPS) are undergoing revision. The goal is to prepare the most highly qualified, bilingually-authorized teachers that K–12 students deserve by revising the BAPS and refining the delineation of knowledge, skills, and abilities that beginning bilingual teachers are expected to possess. This process includes an alignment with base credential standards focused upon current research in the field of bilingualism, equity, and dual language programs. It is also critical to establish coherence across teacher preparation pathways and interdisciplinary collaboration between state departments, universities, and local education agency leaders in the development of preparation and leadership standards.

**The Critical Role of School and District Leaders in Staffing Dual Language Programs**

School and district leaders play a key role in building and sustaining dual language programs not only in recruiting and hiring appropriately credentialed teachers, but also in building effective systems of preparation and professional learning for new and veteran teachers in order to retain them (Espinoza et al., 2018; Grissom et al., 2021; Howard et al., 2018). System-wide practices reflect an intentional focus on dual language program goals and include policies for teacher recruitment and retention and hiring processes that are implemented by leaders with expertise in dual language (Howard et al., 2018). Leaders also establish varied approaches to recruiting bilingual teachers, such as district grow-your-own programs, university partnerships, and international outreach (Kennedy, 2020; Lavadenz & Colón-Muñiz, 2017; Valenzuela, 2017). Once hired, bilingual teachers seek leaders who establish a positive workplace climate, employ supportive administrative practices, and provide opportunities to engage in professional learning designed specifically for dual language educators (Howard & López-Velásquez, 2019). Financial incentives to recruit and retain qualified teachers are also important. To promote equity, leaders advocate for differentiated resources and work with teachers and diverse communities to examine how resources and learning opportunities are equitably distributed, and how language and cultural identity can be valued as assets that schools build upon (de Jong, 2011; DeMatthews & Izquierdo, 2017).

**THE STATEWIDE BILINGUAL TEACHER PREPARATION SURVEY**

Our purpose in creating the Statewide Bilingual Teacher Preparation Survey was to document school- or district-level administrators’ recommendations and expectations regarding knowledge, skills, and abilities of beginning bilingual/dual language teachers. We developed the survey instrument in three phases described on the following page:
Phase 1: Survey Design. To create a draft set of survey items, we reviewed the bilingual teacher preparation literature (Alfaro & Bartolomé, 2017; California Department of Education, 2015, 2018; Faltis & Valdés, 2016; Flores & Claeyes, 2019; Guzman Johannessen, 2016; Hernández, 2017; Hopkins, 2013; Joseph & Evans, 2018; Lavadenz & Baca, 2017; Martínez-Álvarez, 2020; Palmer, Cervantes-Soon, Dorner & Heiman, 2019), analyzed the CTC's 2009 Bilingual Authorization Program Standards, and examined the Guiding Principles for Dual Language Education (Howard et al., 2018). We then consulted with an expert panel of professors, directors, and university scholars who were simultaneously serving as members of a statewide Bilingual Authorization Work Group. We engaged in iterative cycles of survey development and content refinement.

Phase 2: Pilot Study. We collected initial pilot data during Spring 2020. Using these data, we conducted a series of exploratory factor analyses to ensure that: (1) the set of items for each area reflected a single factor, and (2) we achieved internal consistency within each area. We used the factor analysis results to improve the survey items in order to increase the measurement reliability—as denoted by Cronbach's alpha values. Cronbach's alpha values for each area were greater than .80, indicating a good level of internal consistency. Table 1 in the appendix details the result.

Phase 3: Final Survey Design and Dissemination Planning. Using results from the factor analysis in Phase 1, we finalized the survey instrument. The final survey included demographic questions and seven major areas. Each area represented central concepts informing the knowledge, skills, and abilities of bilingual educators and included a set of items carefully selected to reflect foundational knowledge, skills, and abilities required for beginning bilingual program educators.

We used a five-point Likert scale to ask survey respondents to identify levels of knowledge and competencies for survey items. The survey included an open-ended question that allowed respondents to share recommendations for teacher preparation institutions about the preparation of bilingual teachers. We also queried leaders about their role and evaluation/perception of their district’s capacity to support bilingual education programs and educators. Specifically, we asked respondents to assess the following aspects: district support for bilingual programs and in-service teachers, including professional development, conference attendance or continued education opportunities for bilingual teachers, budget allocations for bilingual materials, coaching, paid planning time, and incentives for bilingual teachers.

Survey Dissemination

We used network sampling (Heckathorn & Cameron, 2017) through established professional organizations that engaged bilingual leaders and educators to ensure a wide distribution and responses that geographically represented the state of California. These include the Association of California School Administrators, the California Bilingual Coordinator’s Network, and the California Department of Education Bilingual Teacher Professional Development Grant Programs. Respondents were encouraged to forward the survey link to educational leaders and associates across the state. Data collection took place in two phases during the Spring and Summer of 2020, using Qualtrics—an online survey platform.

Figure 1. Survey Respondents
Respondent Demographics

A total of 223 participants\(^9\) completed the survey, and they represented over 89 local education agencies (LEAs)\(^{10}\) that varied in type and size, from some of the largest school districts in California (e.g., Los Angeles Unified, San Diego Unified, Long Beach Unified, San Francisco Unified, and San Juan Unified) to public charter school districts. The majority of the respondents (n=167) were either county/district- or school-level leaders/administrators.\(^{11}\)

The respondents also included a smaller number of educators (n=56) who identified themselves as biliteracy consultants/advisors and teachers of bilingual/dual language programs. We included their responses in the results, given that they represent the diversity of leaders who developed and supported bilingual education programs.

Figure 2 provides an overview of the geographical representativeness; 47% of the participants (n=57) were from California suburbs, 41% (n=50) were from California cities, 9% (n=11) were from California towns, and 2% (n=3) were from California rural areas.

Collectively, survey respondents served in LEAs wherein 34% (n=392,742) of California's 1,148,024 ELs were enrolled (see Figure 3).

RESULTS

The central purpose of the survey was to gather education leaders’ expectations of beginning teachers with bilingual authorization in the seven major areas\(^{12}\) of knowledge, skills, and abilities. First, we highlight aggregated results by respondents’ highest ratings for expectations of beginning bilingual teachers. These were supported by qualitative results from open-ended questions where respondents provided recommendations for teacher preparation programs. Then, we present results related to leaders’ bilingual program policy awareness and application.

School and District Leaders’ Expectations of Beginning Bilingual Teachers

Our survey results provided insights on leaders’ expectations for beginning bilingual/dual language teachers. Figure 4 provides key descriptors for each of the areas and presents results from the highest mean score (Bilingual/Biliteracy Competencies=3.8) to the lowest (Biliteracy Program Design=3.2).
Of all areas of expertise, survey respondents identified teachers’ linguistic competencies in two languages (M=3.8) as the most highly regarded. This included mastery of productive and receptive language. Some respondents (13/111) also echoed the importance of bilingual/biliterate competences in their open-ended responses, specifically as it relates to mastery of the target subject and language as captured in the following quote from a school-level administrator, “Teachers have to be proficient in the target language in listening, speaking, reading, and writing at the same levels that we expect English teachers to be proficient.”
Understanding of Bilingualism and Biliteracy Development

Leaders also signaled teachers’ understanding of bilingualism and biliteracy development (M=3.7) as essential. Knowledge in this area included current research studies and benefits of bilingualism in order to inform pedagogical decisions and to share benefits with families and community members. This was the most widely mentioned recommendation by administrators (25/111). One district-level administrator also underscored the call for widening the lens of teacher preparation programs to include the history of bilingual education and how the political climate and language ideologies influence biliteracy development: “I recommend partner teacher preparation institutions prepare new teachers for the political arena they will face as new teachers.”

Demonstrated Bilingual/ Biliteracy Pedagogic Abilities

Survey respondents also expressed strong expectations for teachers’ linguistic pedagogical knowledge (M=3.7) and the development of curriculum and instruction in two languages (M=3.6). This result implies the importance of clinical experiences through which pre-service teachers can develop classroom-based knowledge and skills they cannot learn from mere theories. Respondents recommended that teacher preparation programs teach about cross-linguistic transfer and have ample field experiences to support biliteracy development and pedagogy in the target language as described by one district-level administrator, “Beginning bilingual teachers need to be grounded in the pedagogy and methods of dual language programs. For example, how to teach literacy in the other language.”

Knowledge Beyond Language

Comprehensive areas of knowledge other than language were also highlighted, including the overall understanding of cross-cultural, intra-, and inter-cultural knowledge (M=3.5) and teachers’ ability to assess the development of students’ bilingual and biliterate competencies (M=3.5). Yet, expectations for teachers’ expertise in biliteracy program design were relatively lower (M=3.2) than the other areas of skill sets. One plausible explanation is that a low level of understanding of the importance of bi-literacy programs might exist among the survey respondents. It is also possible that not all respondents were fully aware of the fact that separate strategies need to be implemented to develop students’ biliterate competencies and bilingual abilities, respectively.

Bilingual Teachers’ Preparedness to Teach in Dual Language Settings

Respondents rated their perceived level of preparedness of beginning bilingual teachers to meet the needs of students at their district/school as “moderately well” (M=3.1). This finding warrants further exploration and dialogue between bilingual teacher preparation programs and their partnering local education agencies about collaboration and support for bilingual teacher candidates. (See Figure 5.)

Leaders’ Perspectives on Bilingual/Dual Language Program Policies: Varying Levels of Implementation

Given the importance of understanding the shift in the “new ecology of biliteracy” policy landscape to support EL participation in dual/bilingual education programs in California, we asked the following question: “Does your district have a Prop 58 implementation plan?” Results revealed a polarized understanding of the policy change around bilingual education among our survey respondents. Although nearly half were aware of the new proposition and reported expanding bilingual education programs, more than 20% indicated that they had no active plans. Additionally, one in five school administrators were not aware of the passage of Proposition 58, signaling the absence of knowledge regarding the current bilingual education policy or limited opportunities to be informed by districts or the California Department of Education. In addition to uncovering varying levels of bilingual policy implementation, survey results indicated that program
leaders reported overall limited capacity (M=2.5) to support beginning bilingual teachers in ways such as resource allocation (M=3.0), specialized professional learning and coaching (M=2.6), and working with families (M=2.8). Additional challenges included incentivizing teachers to work in dual language programs and recruiting bilingual mentors and coaches (M=2.1); “grow-your-own” programs appear to be virtually non-existent (M=1.9).

In line with the need for capacity building, leaders offered recommendations for both district and university leaders. In the area of specialized professional development, one district-level administrator stated, “Once the teacher is hired, the district should provide professional development to prepare and support new bilingual educators. Teachers should be supported by a coach or by an experienced bilingual teacher.”

Respondents also highlighted a greater number of recommendations regarding bilingual teacher retention/placement strategies, including workforce development pipelines, incentives, and recruitment of native target language teachers. Leaders expressed a sense of urgency to improve current clinical and student teaching efforts and called for more purposeful university district partnerships, as indicated by a school-level administrator, “Bilingual, Cross-Cultural and Academic Development candidates are extremely difficult to recruit and retain. Perhaps developing a partnership with local bilingual schools, beyond the student teaching relationship, could develop a pipeline of candidates.”

In sum, educators’ comments and survey results on districts’ capacities to support bilingual education programs and teachers demonstrated that it should be imperative for a coherent and aligned support system at the individual, school, and district levels to be available. Both short-term and long-term approaches, in partnership with universities, are necessary to support beginning bilingual teachers and retain them to promote the sustainability and quality of bilingual education programs.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

For bilingual teacher preparation programs to respond to local districts’ needs, not only must standards include alignment with base credential standards, pedagogic and clinical practices, but they must also align with current research in the field of bilingualism/biliteracy, policy implementation, and community needs.

Concomitantly, district and school leaders have the potential to engage in and leverage university partnerships and emerging research to build their district capacity and create sustained and specialized professional learning for bilingual teachers and mentors in order to successfully implement and sustain dual language/bilingual education programs.

We end with state and local policy recommendations to guide and support action agendas for the “new ecology of biliteracy” and call for coordinated actions among various agencies.
State Governmental Agencies

- Develop and collect robust data about bilingually authorized teachers, their demographic backgrounds, preparation pathway, and timeline for receipt of their bilingual authorization
- Collect and report the exact number of bilingual/dual language education programs in the state by target language, grade level, school type (e.g., public, charter, and private), and school location (e.g., urban, suburban, and rural) to develop the teacher demand-supply plan effectively
- Develop consistent definitions related to clinical/field experiences for both simultaneous and sequential bilingual programs
- Identify cross-program standards alignment to prioritize development of bilingual/biliteracy knowledge and skills for both educators and administrators
- Fund bilingual teacher program pathways to address the shortages of bilingually authorized teachers
- Work closely with the LEAs, other states and global partners to support teachers of diverse world languages
- Explore pathway options to increase the number and quality of programs for teachers adding the bilingual authorization

Local Education Agencies

- Strengthen collaboration with bilingual teacher preparation programs to identify quality fieldwork and clinical experiences for bilingual teacher candidates
- Coordinate with cross-departmental teams to plan for and deliver specialized and differentiated professional learning experiences for bilingual teachers
- Create bilingual educator learning communities to support continued learning capacity and growth
- Offer regular professional development programs by target languages, grade levels, and years of experiences
  - Work closely with the California State Department of Education, out-of-state agencies and global partners to support teachers of diverse world languages
- Identify roles and criteria for bilingual teacher leaders/mentors to plan, lead and collaborate in implementing professional learning networks
- Mentor and support current bilingual/dual language teachers to increase retention
- Create “grow your own” bilingual teacher preparation programs, including as part of College and Technical Education
  - Strengthen high school teacher preparation academies that link the Seal of Biliteracy pathways

Institutes of Higher Education and Bilingual Teacher Preparation Programs

- Strengthen collaboration with local education agencies to support the preparation of bilingual teachers in order to:
  - Establish clear expectations and guidelines for the type and quality of clinical experiences that address bilingual/dual language school issues and contexts
  - Identify and consistently apply criteria for selection and support of bilingual mentor teachers
  - Conduct course syllabi reviews to align to relevant research and the CA English Learner Roadmap
  - Engage in continuous improvement processes focused on bilingual teacher preparation program design and implementation
- Expand and identify the pathways and options for teacher candidates to obtain bilingual authorization
  - Create bilingual teacher pathway “pipelines” to increase the number of qualified bilingual candidates entering into preparation programs
  - Convene deans, directors, and lead faculty to create action agendas and make recommendations about internal and external policies
  - Identify diverse strategies for effective bilingual teacher preparation program recruitment, support, and completion
  - Increase the number of CTC-approved bilingual authorization programs
REFERENCES


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### Table 1: Bilingual teacher knowledge, skills, and abilities: Areas, number of items, and Cronbach’s alpha values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Cronbach’s*</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Biliteracy Program Design</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilingualism and Biliteracy Development</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content Pedagogy: Curriculum</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content Pedagogy: Language</td>
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<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-cultural, Intercultural, Intracultural Knowledge and Understanding</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilingual/Biliteracy Competencies</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District Capacities, Expertise, and Site-Level Support-Mentor Capacity for Beginning Bilingual/Dual Language Teachers</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The survey also included 10 items related to demographics/district-level information.

*Note: The overall Cronbach’s alpha value for the data set is 0.92, excluding the 10 items related to demographic/district level information.
END NOTES

1 We use the term bilingual, dual language teachers, and bilingual educators interchangeably; however, the official California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CTC) teaching authorization is termed “bilingual authorization”.

2 The California Commission on Teacher Credentialing’s Bilingual Authorization Program Standards were approved in 2009; the call to update the knowledge and content of the standards influenced and accelerated the timeline to update the knowledge base for the preparation of bilingual educators. A contributing factor in the lack of national consensus on the bilingual teacher preparation standards is the withdrawal of funding provided for the preparation of bilingual personnel to conduct relevant research in this area in Institutes of Higher Education as part of the Bilingual Education Act (1968). This provision disappeared under the No Child Left Behind Act (2000).

3 Bilingual education and dual language education programs include transitional bilingual, dual immersion, two-way immersion, or other variations of programs that offer English Learners the opportunity to develop and maintain their primary language.

4 The term “English Learners” is used to refer to students who speak a language other than English who receive specialized instruction in English and, if enrolled in a Bilingual/Dual Language program, also receive instruction in their primary language. We acknowledge and encourage the use of the term “Emergent Bilingual Learners” given its focus on the potential to leverage bilingualism as a resource, both cognitively and socially (Garcia, 2009). At present, “English Learners” remains the term used in federal policy, legislation, and court cases and is used in this brief for consistency with federal terminology.

5 For a fuller review of teacher preparation policies in California, see https://www.ctc.ca.gov/docs/default-source/commission/files/ctc-history.pdf?sfvrsn=96050f5_2.

6 The full Statewide Bilingual Teacher Preparation Survey is available upon request.

7 The demographics and district-level sections were excluded from this analysis.

8 Most questions used the same response scales, with one being “not at all competent” or “not well at all” and five being “extremely competent” or “extremely well.” The “don’t know” response was not included in the analysis but was offered to provide response freedom.

9 A small number of retirees (n=13) participated in our survey, including previous district leaders, classroom teachers, and bilingual program experts. For questions that require an understanding of the current status regarding programs and policy at the district level, we excluded the retirees from our analysis. Yet, for questions that ask educators’ expectations in terms of knowledge and skills of beginning bilingual teachers, we included those retirees since their insights and experiences are valuable.

10 We asked respondents to identify their district affiliation; this was an optional question and not all respondents provided their district. Given that close to 100 respondents did not offer their district information, we can surmise that the total number of districts represented a number greater than 89 LEAs, inclusive of charters.

11 Of the respondents in the leadership positions, more than half are school-level administrators, while 46% work at the county or district levels.

12 (1) biliteracy program design; (2) bilingualism and biliteracy development; (3) content pedagogy: curriculum; (4) content pedagogy: language; (5) assessment; (6) cross-cultural, intercultural, intracultural knowledge and understanding; and (7) bilingual/biliteracy competencies.

13 The same five-point Likert scale was used with a 1 being “not well” and a 5 being “extremely well.”

14 Respondents were asked to rank the extent to which their district offers support for beginning bilingual teachers. Again, the same five-point Likert scale was used with a 1 being “not well” and a 5 being “extremely well.”