




Case Study Method to Increase Preservice Teachers' Experience With English Language Learners: Accommodations and Self-Efficacy


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Abstract

The enrollment of English language learners (ELLs) in American public schools continues to increase each year. The substantial growth in this population of learners makes it imperative for future educators to understand how to effectively support ELLs' acquisition of academic content and English language proficiency. In past studies, preservice teachers have reported lower levels of self-efficacy when supporting these learners. This investigation examines how case study approaches can be utilized with preservice teachers to understand how they recommend strategies/accommodations for ELLs and their levels of self-efficacy in implementing these instructional approaches. Findings from this research suggest case studies are effective in increasing self-efficacy and knowledge, as preservice teachers were able to describe appropriate accommodations needed to support their future ELLs.

Keywords: *Case study method, preservice teachers, ELL, English language learners, accommodations, self-efficacy*

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Introduction

The number of English language learners (ELLs) in the United States has increased dramatically over the last several decades. In fact, ELLs are considered to be the fastest- and largest-growing population of students

within the United States public school system (Turgut et al., 2016), with over 5 million ELLs enrolled in 2018 (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2020). Overall, ELLs represent 10% of the enrollment in K-12 public schools (NCES, 2020), but ELL populations in the Midwest and Southern regions of the United States especially have experienced rapid enrollment growth rates that range from approximately 300 to 700% (Brown & Endo, 2017). The Center for Immigration Studies (2018) reported that approximately half of residents in the top five largest cities in the United States speak a non-dominant language in their home.

ELLs entering a typical American classroom setting are faced with learning both content knowledge and academic language simultaneously. Master et al. (2016) proposed that helping future educators develop the necessary skill sets to accommodate this growing subgroup of students may be essential in addressing this challenge. Gándara and Santibañez (2016) suggested that teacher education preparation programs may not be adequately preparing future educators to teach ELLs. Although bilingualism can be an advantage for educators who work with ELLs, Gándara and Santibañez (2016) argued that the majority of schools will be unable to recruit a bilingual workforce in the foreseeable future. Therefore, mainstream teachers may need to be better prepared to work with ELLs, especially considering the likelihood that they will have enrolled students whose native language is not English (Feiman-Nemser, 2018; Jong, 2021; Turgut et al., 2016). Moreover, because ELLs continue to lag academically behind their native-English-speaking peers (Turgut et al., 2016), it is imperative for teachers to receive adequate professional training in effectively educating and accommodating ELLs (Mills et al., 2020).

Literature Review

Educators can incorporate many accommodations into their classes to assist ELLs in acquiring both academic language and grade-level concepts. For example, educators can integrate language objectives into their lessons (Reinhartz, 2015), provide translated resources and documents (Abedi & Dietel, 2004), scaffold new concepts (Lucas, 2008), provide comprehensible input (Lucas, 2008), include comprehension checks and clarification requests (Shrum & Glisan, 2016), and use various technologies to support immersion and practice (Torres & Tackett, 2017). Incorporating instructional strategies that are structured for ELLs is important, given that educators who provide effective instruction to these learners are also more likely to provide appropriate teaching strategies for their native-English-speaking students (Stronge, 2018). Additionally, teachers should be able to identify and support gifted ELLs while bolstering their language development (Campbell, 2021).

Preservice Teacher Education: Preparing Teachers to Support ELLs

While teacher preparation programs incorporate coursework focused on educating ELLs, there remains “insufficient information on what teachers should know about teaching ELLs” (Samson & Collins, 2012, p. 8). Preservice teacher curricula should challenge students to consider inclusive instructional practices to better support ELLs within their classes. Additionally, preservice teachers need exposure to faculty with expertise in providing transformational learning experiences that extend beyond lesson planning to include practices that reflect an understanding of second language acquisition and culturally and linguistically diverse teaching practices (de Jong & Naranjo, 2019). Furthermore, Samson and Collins (2012) stated that “completion of the state-approved teacher-preparation program must often be accompanied by a passing score on the state teacher exam. Often, these exams do not specifically assess for teacher knowledge of skills relevant to teaching ELLs” (p. 8). Additionally, researchers have reported that teachers feel unprepared to teach their ELLs effectively (Lee et al., 2016; Stoddart & Mosqueda, 2015) and that they lack preparation in working with language learners (Coady et al., 2019; Li et al., 2017; McDermott & Honigsfeld, 2017; Murphy & Torff, 2019; Okhremtchouk & Sellu, 2019), as well as motivation to teach diverse students (Whitaker & Valtierra, 2018). As the ELL population continues to increase in the U.S. school system, teachers need to be prepared to adequately educate these learners to meet high national and state-level academic standards.

ELL Accommodations and Considerations for Differentiation

Language proficiency adds an additional level of consideration when differentiating instruction and assessment for ELLs (Doubet, 2020). Preservice teachers need to understand how to apply appropriate ELL accommodations to support academic language growth for these students. Indeed, Turgut et al. (2016) reported that general education teachers need to utilize appropriate strategies to promote academic English since many ELLs arrive in mainstream classrooms with underdeveloped language skills. Further, preservice teachers need to be able to appropriately identify ELLs' proficiency levels in order to determine whether they have acquired basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS) and/or cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP). BICS, which are essentially social language skills, are acquired in less time (approximately 2 years) than CALP, which is more complex, focuses on oral and written academic skills, and is typically developed in 5 years (Cummins, 2008).

Understanding the distinction between BICS and CALP may help educators to more effectively modify their instruction to meet ELLs' academic and language proficiency needs. For example, Song and Samimy (2015) found that, as educators developed a more thorough understanding of BICS and CALP, they were able to use this information as a foundation for examining their beliefs about ELLs and better aligning their instruction to support their learners' current English proficiency levels (Schissel & Reyes, 2020). Researchers have also noted the importance of teachers understanding comprehensible input (Short, 2017), native language support (Johnson et al., 2016), students' English language proficiency levels (Clark-Bareca, 2016), and scaffolded instruction (Kurz et al., 2017).

Field Experiences

To provide preservice teachers with the opportunity to understand how to apply appropriate instructional approaches in their future lessons, institutions of higher education generally require their preservice teachers to complete field experiences in K–12 settings. These allow preservice teachers to observe and work with diverse populations of students (e.g., ELLs, students with special needs). Indeed, Lambeth and Smith (2016) have argued that preservice teachers need these types of practical learning opportunities in order to acquire the knowledge, skills, and experiences they need to work with an increasingly diverse student enrollment population. These experiences are also perceived as vital for preservice teachers in enabling them to connect theory to practice (Simpson, 2006; Tetley & Jones, 2014; Torres et al., 2019).

Through these types of applied educational experiences, preservice teachers acquire the expertise and skill sets needed to develop instructional approaches and the abilities required to facilitate student learning. Researchers have found positive outcomes for preservice teachers who complete field experiences, including increased levels of self-efficacy (Flores, 2015; Han et al., 2017), knowledge of phonological constructs (Tetley & Jones, 2014), an understanding of how to increase student achievement (Ronfeldt, 2015), and the ability to work with diverse learners (Yang et al., 2019). Furthermore, preservice teachers can develop working relationships with veteran teachers in order to better understand how to develop lesson plans, apply instructional approaches, assess student learning, and implement classroom management strategies (Abas, 2016).

Case Study Approach in Teacher Education

The case study teaching method has widely been used in disciplines of study to provide students with active participatory activities (Arrastía-Chisholm et al., 2021; Burko, 2016). This is especially essential in settings in which field experiences do not guarantee exposure to diverse learners. Including case studies in teacher education curricula provides students with the opportunity to examine real-world problems critically and determine practical approaches to apply to them. These types of activities can positively impact student learning and help preservice teachers reflectively and constructively determine appropriate strategies to address similar situations they will encounter in their future teaching experiences (McAninch, 1993).

Through case study activities, students can integrate theory and develop alternative solutions to issues they may encounter in their workplace settings (Farashahi & Tejeddi, 2018). Furthermore, by completing these types of activities, students are able to acquire professional expertise (Arrue & Caballero, 2015) and develop decision-making skills related to their future careers (Dow et al., 2015). Essentially, allowing students to analyze case studies enables them to conduct comprehensive, multi-faceted examinations of complex issues they may encounter in their professional settings (Crowe et al., 2011). Although case studies are often presented in class, individual analysis of case studies may result in greater learning gains for preservice teachers than collaboration (Arrastía-Chisholm et al., 2021).

Theoretical Framework: Social Cognitive Perspective of Learning to Teach

Teachers may possess different levels of self-efficacy regarding their ability to effectively educate different subgroups of learners. Teacher self-efficacy refers to how educators perceive their instructional capabilities, which extends to teaching ELLs (Fu & Wang, 2021; Liu & Rutledge, 2020). One important factor that affects teacher self-efficacy is experience, also known as performance accomplishments (Protheroe, 2008). Hoy (2000) observed that powerful influences that determine teachers' levels of self-efficacy arise during their student teaching experiences.

Bandura (1997) proposed that teacher self-efficacy could be specific to a subject or performance domain, and research has supported this (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). In regard to teacher education, Pappamihel and Allen (2016) found that teachers were aware of the importance of providing ELLs with appropriate linguistic and instructional accommodations but possessed lower levels of self-efficacy in implementing these strategies. Mahalingappa et al. (2017) conducted a study focused on providing preservice teachers with online exchanges with ELLs, in which they discovered that preservice teachers' online interactions with ELLs had a positive effect on their levels of self-efficacy. Nevertheless, even when preservice teachers enroll in university coursework focused on teaching ELLs, Yough's (2019) findings revealed that they are more likely to possess higher levels of self-efficacy for working with native-English-speaking students in comparison to ELLs.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

Since many teacher education programs include field experiences focused on ELLs, our study focuses on better understanding how preservice teachers responded to case studies of hypothetical ELLs while completing coursework and field experiences in English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL). Furthermore, our study examined participants' perceived levels of self-efficacy in assisting their future ELLs. Specifically, due to the continual increase of ELLs enrolled in K–12 settings and the potential lack of preparation for effectively educating this subgroup of learners (Torres & Tackett, 2016), this study investigates undergraduate students' perceptions of how they may accommodate ELLs who possess diverse English language proficiency levels. Our study focuses on the following research questions:

1. What strategies/accommodations do preservice teachers most often describe when determining ELL support?
2. How do preservice teachers describe ELL accommodations?
3. Do preservice teachers believe they are able to effectively accommodate their future ELLs?

Methods

The methodology for this study is considered a case study approach. Baxter and Jack (2008) described the case study method as providing researchers with the opportunity to explore complex phenomena found within

their contexts. Case study research allows a problem to be examined more holistically and helps explain real-life situations that may not be effectively captured by researchers via survey or experimental study designs (Zainal, 2007). Essentially, the goal of case study research is to “provide an analysis of the context and processes which illuminate the theoretical issues being studied” (Cassell & Symon, 2004, p. 323).

Case studies are among the most widely used qualitative research approaches (Yazan, 2015). Through this type of qualitative investigation, researchers are able to examine a phenomenon within a specific context and better understand the complex issues that occur in real-world settings. The purpose of case study research is not to generalize to a broader phenomenon but to understand the case being examined (Hancock et al., 2021). Case study research designs can encapsulate both single and multiple cases. Also, case study research is typically considered to be more illustrative than it is comparative or predictive (Hancock et al., 2021), which can make this qualitative approach valuable in providing researchers with a better understanding of teaching and learning practices. Indeed, Wilson (2017) concluded that single case study designs focused on adults have been demonstrated to be vital in educational contexts.

Case study research can be particularly effective in educational contexts since this methodology helps to provide a deeper understanding of real-life issues (Yin, 2017) and provides a holistic way of further understanding a process (Ekanayake & Wishart, 2015). In recent years, case studies have become more popular in educational research, since they aid researchers in answering the “how” and “why” questions that occur in real-world settings (Grauer, 2012). For example, educational case study research has focused on students’ attendance in university courses (Pjesky et al., 2019), academic performance (Cerezo et al., 2016), classroom interventions (Briones et al., 2015), and efficacy beliefs (Hand, 2014).

Participants

This study included a total of 90 participants who were undergraduate students completing teacher certification programs (e.g., elementary education, exceptional student education, early childhood education) and coursework focused on teaching ELLs. The majority of participants were female ($n = 86$) and Caucasian ($n = 70$). Written responses to case studies with ELLs were open-coded for common themes to answer the aforementioned research questions. Common codes were collapsed into overarching themes and presented as findings.

Context

Participants were all required to take a course on ELL instruction. Students met for class once a week in 3-hour blocks. While completing a field experience, students participated in in-class reflections on a variety of topics surrounding teaching ELLs. The instructor collected the data from participants.

Data Collection

After a given time to reflect on case studies, all participants were instructed to respond individually to six case studies during class time by a) describing any strategies that they would use to assist or accommodate the hypothetical ELL, b) providing a rationale as to why they selected their outlined strategies, and c) describing their level of confidence in their abilities to accommodate the ELL. The case studies included hypothetical ELLs at varying levels of English proficiency. Each participant reviewed two cases at each ELL level of proficiency (i.e., beginning, intermediate, high). After approximately 10 minutes per case study, students were free to discuss their responses with classmates.

Data Analysis

All data were deidentified and organized by response, with a total of 270 written responses. Using an iterative process of line-by-line open coding (Creswell & Guetterman, 2020), the data were analyzed to determine the strategies that participants perceived as appropriate for each hypothetical case study. After all data were initially coded, secondary data analysis was conducted to determine the themes and clusters of meaning across responses. Similar clusters of meaning were grouped together to create main themes (Creswell & Guetterman, 2020). Quotes from student responses were associated with relevant clusters and tallied under each theme to gauge convergence across the sample. The coding process yielded the following main themes: native language support, learning supports, technology, comprehensible input, and professional outreach.

Results

Participants were able to describe how to effectively accommodate the hypothetical ELLs outlined in each case study. However, they did not typically employ the appropriate terminology that they learned during their ESOL coursework (e.g., “I would use Spanish” instead of “I would provide native language support”). The following five themes were identified from the participants’ case study responses: native language support, learning supports, technology, comprehensive input, and professional outreach. In this section, we explain how these themes answer our initial research questions.

Native Language Support

All participants shared that they would incorporate native language support to accommodate their language learners. However, the degree of native language support that could be provided to learners differed based on the native language that the hypothetical English learner spoke. For example, most participants ($n = 79$) stated that they would utilize Spanish (the degree of native language support was dependent on the preservice teacher’s own Spanish language abilities) to accommodate the ELL presented within the case study.

Although participants claimed that they would use native language support in their future teaching practices, only a limited number of them ($n = 5$) were proficient in speaking Spanish or other languages ($n = 3$). If the native language of the ELL within the case was not Spanish, then the participants were more likely to locate translated resources (e.g., worksheets, textbooks, glossaries) and allow the student to use a translation application. However, some participants ($n = 12$) expressed concern about the accuracy of online translation resources.

Learning Supports

Although the majority of participants ($n = 65$) did not specifically state they would “scaffold content” for ELLs, they did describe how they would gradually teach students to understand more complex concepts. For example, participants ($n = 65$) stated they would determine ELLs’ background knowledge and use this information to build on what students currently know and understand. Likewise, the majority ($n = 60$) discussed how to modify assignments to ensure ELLs focused on more important concepts (e.g., reducing the number of items students need to complete, based on their current knowledge). They also recommended the repetition of new content ($n = 50$), manipulatives ($n = 62$), extra wait time ($n = 81$), and additional academic support (e.g., tutoring; $n = 53$). Participants further described different types of instructional supports they would incorporate into their future classrooms. For instance, slightly more than half the participants ($n = 60$) indicated that they would use verbal scaffolds (e.g., think-alouds, slower and enunciated speech, simplified questioning techniques). In addition, participants ($n = 72$) stated that they would incorporate procedural scaffolds (e.g., modeling, visuals, realia) into their instructional approaches.

The majority ($n = 83$) discussed the importance of preteaching vocabulary to ELLs. To preteach or “front-load” vocabulary effectively, participants described using techniques such as having whole-class or small-group discussions of new terms ($n = 54$), providing visuals that illustrate vocabulary ($n = 76$), using analogies and metaphors ($n = 20$), and requiring students to draw pictures that demonstrate the words ($n = 48$).

Technology

The majority of participants ($n = 80$) emphasized the importance of using technology-enhanced activities to engage and motivate ELLs and provided specific examples: translation websites such as Google Translate ($n = 76$), games ($n = 53$), and videos ($n = 51$). Also, the majority ($n = 62$) stated they would incorporate read-aloud computer activities to help scaffold ELL reading skills. By providing ELLs with these types of activities, participants believed that ELLs would receive additional learning opportunities to enhance their levels of vocabulary ($n = 55$), reading comprehension ($n = 42$), and fluency ($n = 38$).

Participants also felt that technology was a useful tool to provide ELLs with additional learning opportunities to develop higher vocabulary ranges. Technology-enhanced activities for vocabulary development described by participants included drawing programs ($n = 33$), digital stories ($n = 22$), and read-alouds ($n = 64$). Participants also expressed the importance of using digital stories to help ELLs further develop all English language skills (i.e., speaking, listening, reading, and writing).

Comprehensible Input

The majority of participants ($n = 85$) described the importance of using visual cues with ELLs. Participants described using multimodal games such as Simon Says to teach ELLs new academic terms ($n = 57$), speech appropriate for their student’s proficiency level ($n = 64$), songs and nursery rhymes to teach words with similar sounds ($n = 53$), and multiple terms to explain instructions and/or new concepts ($n = 68$). Additionally, participants ($n = 51$) explained how to implement verbal scaffolding by paraphrasing, using think-alouds, and reinforcing contextual definitions. Another strategy noted by participants ($n = 44$) to support comprehensible input for ELLs was to provide them with graphic organizers for their in-class and homework activities.

Comprehensible input strategies were also considered by participants to be helpful in providing ELLs with background knowledge of new concepts ($n = 40$) and building context through relatable experiences ($n = 32$). Participants further expressed the importance of providing students with input that is understandable but also slightly challenging for ELLs ($n = 61$). However, only a small number of participants discussed the importance of direct instruction ($n = 19$) or of explicitly teaching learning strategies such as predicting and summarizing ($n = 15$).

Professional Outreach

For case studies that included hypothetical migrant students, participants ($n = 72$) noted the importance of contacting ELLs’ prior schools to gather documentation on their academic performance. Also, they believed it was important to collaborate with appropriate colleagues with expertise in teaching ELLs ($n = 67$). All participants expressed a desire to assist their ELLs and stated that they would seek assistance from coworkers and/or administrators if necessary to support their learners. Nevertheless, very few participants mentioned the important role that mentor teachers can play in giving additional support and guidance in determining appropriate instructional approaches to assist the ELL ($n = 5$).

Discussion

Although the majority of participants were able to identify appropriate accommodations for each scenario, they also expressed low levels of self-efficacy in their ability to effectively educate their future ELLs. Participants primarily felt less confident in their ability to adequately teach ELLs with lower levels of English proficiency, in comparison to those at more advanced levels. Participants expressed more concern with their performance when ELLs spoke native languages that were unfamiliar to them (e.g., Swahili as opposed to Spanish) and that lacked a wide range of translated resources. Fortunately, participants were able to describe the appropriate accommodations for the case studies by using general terms, despite the lack of appropriate ELL teaching strategies terminology (e.g., “talking more slowly” instead of “comprehensible input”).

Integration Into Current Literature

While coursework focused on teaching ELLs has resulted in increasing preservice teachers’ levels of self-efficacy (Jimenez-Silva et al., 2010), future educators still may not feel that they are sufficiently knowledgeable of the developmentally appropriate instructional strategies for beginning ELLs (Ferguson & Boudreaux, 2015).

Preservice educators may need to possess a foundational knowledge of second language learning processes to better prepare them to meet the academic needs of their ELLs. Indeed, Villegas et al. (2018) highlighted the need for education students to receive instruction focused on essential principles of language learning that include areas such as BICS, CALP, and comprehensible input. Villegas et al. (2018) also stressed the importance of providing preservice teachers with “knowledge that provides a foundation for understanding ELLs and designing instruction for them” (p. 151). Key features that need to be included when instructing ELLs are language objectives, background knowledge, academic vocabulary, and skill-specific tasks (i.e., speaking, listening, reading, and writing) (Short, 2017). Additionally, students may be more successful in their learning endeavors when state standards, official curricula, and their cultural and linguistic needs are aligned (Yoder & van Hover, 2017).

Instructional Approaches

Teacher education programs also need to guide preservice teachers in acquiring the expertise and skill sets considered to have a positive academic impact on all learners in their future classes. This approach is essential to ensure preservice teachers are comfortable supporting all future learners and do not hold biases against different groups of students. For example, prior studies conducted on educators’ perceptions of ELLs indicated that participants erroneously assume ELLs can learn English quickly (Pappamihel, 2007) and that educators possess deficit model beliefs for English learning students (Gutierrez & Orellana, 2006).

More recently, researchers have discovered that implementing multifaceted interventions and accommodations can positively impact ELLs’ academic gains (Cassady et al., 2017; Snyder et al., 2016; Uribe, 2018). However, in order to determine appropriate and effective accommodations for ELLs, educators need to design their lessons to differentiate instruction for the diverse range of learners enrolled in their classes. Although participants in our study did not discuss the importance of lesson planning, Brown and Endo (2017) argued that “differentiated instruction begins at the lesson planning stage” and that “teacher candidates must establish how they will plan to achieve their instructional goals, what contextual strategies they plan to employ” (p. 373). However, Joyce et al. (2018) cautioned that teacher training programs may lack a focus on providing preservice teachers with the knowledge and skills needed to be able to differentiate instruction and adapt assignments without decreasing rigor. Furthermore, Coady (2016) suggested that it is generally assumed that the knowledge and skills that preservice teachers develop in their teacher education programs will enable them to implement effective instructional approaches for ELLs. Our results found, however, that

while preservice teachers may understand appropriate ELL accommodations, they may lack confidence in their ability to employ them successfully in their future teaching practices.

Technology-Enhanced Activities

Overall, the majority of participants noted the positive use of educational technology to support ELLs' acquisition of the English language and content knowledge. For example, participants mentioned providing ELLs with access to drawing programs, digital stories, and read-alouds to help them improve their English language skills. Researchers have found that providing students with iPads to draw and present their understanding of content has also been successful in enhancing language production (Hur, 2019). Pappamihiel and Knight (2016) further discovered that including digital stories enriches the learning experience of ELLs and optimizes their involvement in class activities and integration in the classroom community. Similarly, positive academic gains for ELLs were found in their use of multimedia story applications (Zhou & Yadav, 2017) and mixed reality activities (Kamhi-Stein et al., 2020). The inclusion of computer-assisted instruction has also been found to be beneficial in supporting academic gains for ELLs in literacy (Cassady et al., 2017; Darling-Aduana & Heinrich, 2018) and mathematics (Caniglia et al., 2017; Parris et al., 2017). As a result, preservice teachers may need more exposure to a wider variety of technological applications and tools that they can provide to ELLs to support understanding of new content and acquisition of diverse English language skills (Torres & Tackett, 2017).

Limitations

Due to the nature of this study, a number of limitations should be considered. Because rich data were collected on a small number of participants from one setting, the transferability of the findings may be limited to similar preservice teacher settings. Future research should incorporate larger samples across settings. For example, the majority of participants in this sample worked with ELLs whose first language was Spanish.

Implications for Theory and Practice

The number of ELLs entering U.S. K–12 educational settings has risen dramatically (Ferguson & Boudreaux, 2015; NCES, 2020). This increase in ELL student enrollment requires that all teachers be adequately prepared to address their ELLs' academic needs. More research into preservice and inservice teachers' self-efficacy in teaching ELLs within our K–12 system is essential for American educational success (e.g., teaching competency, student learning outcomes, students' higher education and career trajectories). Specifically, it is imperative for researchers (and educators) to better understand how to prepare preservice teachers to employ appropriate ELL teaching practices as this population of learners continues to grow (Ramirez et al., 2016) and also to ensure that they are confident in their abilities to teach ELLs.

Conclusion

Teacher education programs need to ensure that their students develop the expertise required to work with ELLs within their field experiences and future classroom settings. One approach faculty can use to prepare preservice teachers to effectively teach their future ELLs is to include case study activities in which preservice teachers are required to critically and reflectively determine how best to support hypothetical learners. Murphy and Torff (2019) suggested that as “daunting as this challenge may be, it is incumbent on teacher educators to develop strategies for helping teachers provide more equitable instruction for ELLs” (p. 98). Moreover, Miller and Mikulec (2014) predicted that “preservice teachers will be immersed in an education context that is radically different from their own schooling” (p. 18). However, case studies are a slow means of covering material (McAninch, 1993), perhaps accounting for the lack of self-efficacy associated with the learning tasks in this study. Hence, case studies should be paired with experiential and embodied learning

opportunities (Guerrettaz et al., 2020; McCrocklin, 2020; Miller & Mikulec, 2014). Through these means, teacher education programs can develop programs and curricula to prepare their students to enter workforce settings that are diverse and profoundly different from their own cultural backgrounds.

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