What's in a Word?: School Counselor and ESOL Teacher Perceptions and Attitudes about Collaboration

Malti Tuttle and Jamie Harrison
Auburn University

Leonissa V. Johnson
Clark Atlanta University

Melissa Mecadon-Mann
Auburn University

Abstract

Collaboration in the school setting is a vital component to student success. Two key stakeholders who support and advocate for English Learners (ELs) are school counselors and English to Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) teachers. The authors of this manuscript conducted a research study to measure school counselor and ESOL teacher perceptions and attitudes about collaboration by using a semantic differential scale developed by Gibbons et al. (2010) to measure school counselor perceptions and attitudes of collaboration. The sample included 105 original responses which were collected prior to removing incomplete responses. A total of 82 responses were retained for the data analysis which included school counselors (*n*=54) and ESOL Teachers (*n*=28). The findings from this research study suggest varying attitudes about collaboration among these two stakeholders and yield factors that can influence educator training, practice and research. Factors examined include geographical location, district type, and years of experience.

Keywords: school counselors, ESOL teachers, English learners, collaboration

What's in a Word?: School Counselor and ESOL Teacher Perceptions and Attitudes about Collaboration

Collaboration is a key element in the K-12 school setting which encompasses several professionals working together to benefit students. Collaboration may occur in meetings, correspondence, committees, and advocacy. This article presents research which supports collaborative efforts between school counselors and English as a Second or Other Languages (ESOL) teachers (sometimes referred to as English as a Second Language (ESL teachers). Collaboration is a major component of a successful school counseling program (American School Counselor Association [ASCA], 2019a). School counselors work with teachers and school stakeholders to identify achievement gaps and implement data-driven programs which support the specific needs of students (ASCA, 2019a). Similarly, ESOL teachers work with students in a capacity which spans further than that of an instructor (Linville, 2016). School counselors and ESOL teachers both work transformatively with students to support specific needs; this may include, but is not limited to, language brokering, advocating for student rights, or navigating postsecondary plans (ASCA, 2019a; Linville, 2016).

Gibbons et al. (2010) explored school counselor perceptions and attitudes of collaboration. They utilized a semantic differential scale to measure school counselor attitudes about collaboration. School counselors reported collaborating regularly with multiple stakeholders including teachers, administrators, students, and parents (Gibbons et al., 2010). Further, school counselors ranked teachers as the most important stakeholders with whom to collaborate. Gibbons et al. (2010) suggested that school counselors found it important to collaborate with individuals who were closely

involved in day to day school operations or who impacted students. Implications from the study called other researchers to expand their investigation of attitudes and perceptions of collaboration. Therefore, the authors of this current study aim to build on those findings by exploring attitudes about collaboration among two commonly collaborative stakeholders: school counselors and ESOL teachers.

English Learners

English Learners (ELs) comprise nine percent of total enrolled student population in K-12 schools, and nearly 75% of schools have at least one EL registered (U.S. Department of Justice & U.S. Department of Education, n.d.). While the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Equal Educational Opportunities Act of 1974 ensure meaningful and equal school programs for ELs in K-12 schools (U.S. Department of Justice & U.S. Department of Education, n.d.), schools and districts have a lot of leeway in deciding what those programs look like in practice. Urban districts enroll more ELs than any other geographic location (Bialik et al., 2018) and thus services are provided differently. Further, Southern and Western regions of the U.S. report larger numbers of ELs enrolled in public schools than other regions (Migration Policy Institute, 2015). Larger enrollments of ELs require more personnel which can result in more varied programmatic choices than those in suburban or rural schools where the enrollment numbers are smaller and less concentrated. Larger enrollments may also result in higher levels of educator self-efficacy when working with ELs due to increased levels of contact and experience (Johnson et al., 2016). Additionally, the sociopolitical context in various regions of the United States can result in a wide range of viewpoints about the

ELs enrolled in a community's schools. Thus, the needs of ELs and the support necessary differs, often falling primarily to the ESOL teacher and school counselor.

Public schools are legally obligated to provide ELs with equal and inclusive education opportunities (U.S. Department of Education, 2015). The process for identifying ELs includes: (a) a home language survey (b) valid and reliable tests to assess English proficiency in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. ELs have the right to receive language assistance services from qualified teachers, support staff, and the right to access appropriate instructional materials. Students must be allowed to participate in all school programs, including athletics, arts, and advanced academic courses and programs. While program models vary according to region, in general ELs are to be included with mainstream students to the greatest degree possible and should not be separated from academic mainstream classrooms.

Services for ELs begin as early as pre-kindergarten and continue until English language proficiency meets target level expectations. Developing academic language proficiency can take seven to nine years (Cummins, 2008) and services are required until a student exits the program via an official language proficiency assessment. While ESOL programs vary according to geographical location, most programs require ELs to take courses consisting solely of ESL in combination with courses that integrate ELs into mainstream classrooms (Genesee et al., 2005). In some cases, newcomers are provided with specialized services in separate classrooms or schools for intensive English learning opportunities before being included with their mainstream peers. After a student completes or opts out of EL services, the school district must monitor that student for at least two years (U.S. Department of Education, 2015).

The Role of the School Counselor

School counselors have been working in schools since the early twentieth century. Chang et al. (2012) outlined the role of the school counselor as it adapted from offering vocational guidance to a role which provides a more comprehensive education for students. The American School Counselor Association (ASCA) Professional Standards and Competencies (ASCA, 2019b) outline the mindsets and behaviors by which all professional school counselors should adhere. ASCA (2019b) recommends that school counselors use these mindsets and behaviors to develop comprehensive programs which focus on academic achievement, college/career planning, and social/emotional development. School counselors are trained to assess data in order to identify areas of student success and achievement gaps. Collected data is used to determine which programs to continue, discontinue, or implement into a school counseling program. School counselors provide direct services to students through classroom lessons, group counseling, and individual counseling sessions. Indirect services are provided to students through collaborative efforts; working with family members, community stakeholders, and school faculty (ASCA, 2019a).

The Role of the ESOL Teacher

The role of the ESOL teacher is expanding beyond that of only teaching English to ELs; ESOL teachers are often involved in advocacy work for ELs outside of their own classrooms (Haneda & Alexander, 2015; Harrison & McIlwain, 2020; Linville, 2016; Staehr-Fenner, 2014). For example, ESOL teachers require the ability to differentiate content area lessons for students who have differing levels of language proficiency. Additionally, ESOL teachers must adapt curriculum and assignments to meet student

needs in specific content areas. Linguistic complexity of assignments may need to be adjusted. Complex tasks and instructions may need to be simplified or broken into smaller steps. Specific topics or terms may need to be discussed contextually before assignments and lessons are given (Abbot, 2019). Not only are ESOL teachers expected to support the academic language needs of ELs, they also often act on behalf of ESOL students in a variety of other contexts and settings, such as the school, school district, and community (Staehr-Fenner, 2014). Actions within and beyond the classroom have been reported (de Oliveira & Athanases, 2007; Dubetz & de Jong, 2011; Haneda & Alexander, 2015; Linville, 2016; Suarez & Dominguez, 2015) and Harrison and McIlwain (2020) detailed ESOL teacher advocacy to include both academic and non-academic outcomes.

School Counselors and ESOL Teachers as Advocates for English Learners

The school counselor also plays an important role in the academic and social lives of ELs enrolled in public schools. English Learners are most likely to gain exposure to the majority culture in school settings (Park-Taylor et al., 2007). Acculturation and immersion with the majority culture is a large part of identity development and language development. The school counselor can act as a liaison for the EL student and family. ASCA (2019a) stipulates that school counselors work with stakeholders in the community. ASCA also calls on school counselors to be advocates for change, creating and facilitating a safe environment which lends to the adjustment of immigrants and ELs (Park-Taylor et al., 2007).

The Multicultural and Social Justice Counseling Competencies emphasize that school counselors take student context into consideration when working with individuals

(Ratts et al., 2016). Counselors may engage in this practice by working with community groups or families. Further, counselors must recognize and consider cultural norms when working with ELs to address mental health and well-being. Comparably, ESOL teachers often require more understanding and involvement than the mainstream classroom teacher. Harrison and McIlwain (2020) uses the term *transitive advocacy* to describe the fluid nature of advocacy work when actions involve other stakeholders and collaborators. Advocacy work in collaboration with others has the potential to expand beyond the initial advocacy act. Johnson et al. (2018) discussed the vital role of the ESOL teacher in school decision making for ELs, especially during student Response to Intervention (RTI) meetings, which can often include the school counselor. School counselors work with teachers and school stakeholders to develop RTI supports across three tiers of intensity which support the specific needs of students (ASCA, 2018).

School counselors and ESOL teachers may need to take action with or on behalf of ELs beyond the school building and work for social justice at the community or state levels (Ratts et al., 2016). These activities may build rapport with the community and allow educators to better understand and empathize with ELs experiences (Ratts et al., 2016). An understanding of student and client identity development is important because ELs may have to simultaneously adjust to a new language and new cultures: school, community, and/or for some, a new national culture (U.S. Department of Education, 2017). School counselors should be aware that these cultures may feel oppressive or intimidating to ELs. Counselors should decipher which situations require an individual counseling approach and which may be better addressed at the

community level (Ratts et al., 2016). Collaboration with the ESOL teacher is one avenue for understanding the individual needs of ELs.

Collaboration

Friend and Cook (1992) defined collaboration as “a style of direct interaction between at least two coequal parties voluntarily engaged in sharing decision making as they work toward a common goal” (p. 5). Since the 1970s and 1980s, school systems have been shifting to promote a more collaborative model (Rosenfield et al., 2018). Collaborative models have become a need in schools, as there has also been a shift in educator training programs to provide more specialized fields such as ESOL certification and school counseling (Rosenfield et al., 2018). Over the years, discussions about interdisciplinary collaboration models have occurred within the education literature (Hamilton-Jones & Vail, 2013; Kaufman & Brooks. 1996). Some scholars have explored the impact and outcomes of collaboration training (McKenzie, 2009; Migliore & Breidenstein, 2003). While the amount of collaboration experience and training educators and pre-service educators received often varied in those studies, when training was matched with authentic collaboration opportunities, participant perceptions of collaboration changed. For example, Migliore and Breidenstein (2003) implemented collaboration training for school psychology students and preservice teachers. Both groups reported feeling more comfortable with collaboration and had a deeper appreciation for their colleagues (Migliore & Breidenstein, 2003).

Although school counselors are positioned to work with all students in academic, social/emotional, and career domains, collaboration with key stakeholders in school and community settings is essential to this goal (ASCA, 2012). Gibbons et al. (2010) echo

the need for collaboration in the school setting by acknowledging the difficulties forming comprehensive school counseling programs to address the three domains without collaboration with various stakeholders. Previous literature embraces the definition of collaboration based on the Friend and Cook Collaboration Model within the school setting for school counselors and several stakeholders such as teachers and other personnel (Calvery & Hyun, 2013; Tuttle et al., 2018). Calvery and Hyun (2013) conducted a review of the literature on school counselor and teacher collaboration and identified Friend and Cook's definition of collaboration as the cornerstone to the salient themes to collaboration, including: "mutual goals, parity, shared accountability, and shared resources" (Friend & Cook, 1990, p. 126).

Rosenfield et al. (2018) establish the difference between *taskwork* and *teamwork*; teamwork supports successful taskwork and requires parallel mindsets, behaviors, and attitudes. Similarly, Staehr-Fenner (2014) identifies *shared responsibility* as a key component of advocacy work for ELs. School counselors and ESOL teachers are key stakeholders for ELs. Collaboration between school counselors and ESOL teachers strengthens the school experience of ELs. Both professions seek to support ELs during their experiences in school which fosters growth in the academic, social/emotional, and career development domains (ASCA, 2012; ASCA, 2019a). While school counselors and ESOL teachers may have the same goals in mind, both approach students with different methods based on their discipline.

Bell and Baecher (2012) investigated ESOL teachers' perceptions of collaboration with other ESOL teachers. They argued that collaboration provided chances for teachers to observe content, clarify student goals, and acquire valuable

pedagogical knowledge. Bell and Baecher (2012) employed a questionnaire with 72 K–12 ESOL teachers across school settings. The researchers found that overall, ESOL teachers desired collaboration, but reported that their school cultures did not support the practice (Bell & Baecher, 2012). Additionally, participants shared that to successfully collaborate with content area teachers, ESOL teachers needed to:

> plan with the learners in mind while creating unified goals; value each other's expertise and share ideas, resources, and responsibilities; enjoy equal status and support with each other and with the students; and like working with and learning from others (Bell & Baecher, 2012, p.505).

Using the Friend and Cook (1992) definition of collaboration and the semantic differential scale developed by Gibbons et al. (2010), the authors of the current study explored school counselor and ESOL teacher attitudes and perceptions of collaboration.

Methods

The authors of this research study sought to identify the attitudes and perceptions of school counselors and English as a Second or Other Languages (ESOL) teachers about collaboration. An exploratory study was conducted using a semantic differential scale developed by Gibbons et al. (2010). The first author of the current research study received permission from Gibbons to use the instrument for this study. The researchers selected two research questions to lead the study:

RQ1: Are the attitudes and perceptions of collaboration between school counselors and English as a Second Language (ESOL) teachers in K-12 school settings as revealed from a semantic differential scale positive or negative?

RQ2: Does geographical location, district type, and/or years of experience contribute to a positive or negative perception of collaboration?

Instrument

A semantic differential scale is one tool with which to measure implicit beliefs. Participants are presented with a series of semantical adjective opposites (such as preferred/undesirable; forced/voluntary; joint/unilateral) with a five to nine-point scale (Isaac & Michael, 1997; as cited in Gibbons et al., 2010) from which to select the term that most closely reflects the participants' attitude about a topic. The current study used a semantic differential scale previously used by Gibbons et al., (2010) to measure school counselor attitudes about collaboration. The researchers believed the use of a semantic differential scale was appropriate for this study based on the formatting and construction of the scale "to avoid habitual answering" (Gibbons et al, 2010, p. 9). Since the tool had been previously used and validated in a study of school counselors, the researchers did not alter the adjective pairs as presented. Additionally, the researchers of this study recognized that Gibbons et al. (2010) listed their sample specific to one state in the southeastern region of the United States and the instrument was newly developed. Furthermore, Gibbons et al. (2010) underscored that since the instrument had been recently developed it had not been used in many research studies. Therefore, the researchers of this study utilized the instrument to further "establish validity and reliability" (p. 21) of the instrument. In this study, school counselor and ESOL teacher participants were presented with a series of 33 pairs of words with a seven-point scale of options to indicate strength of belief. The researchers did not alter the adjective pairs as presented (Gibbons et al., 2010) and the positive and negative terms alternately and

randomly led the pair presentation. Demographic data was collected using a survey to identify the participants' race/ethnicity, geographic location, type of school district, number of ELs currently served by the participants, number of ELs during the participants' careers, and years of experience. This data was deemed vital by the researchers for the purpose of examining potential correlations among these factors and attitudes and perceptions. Furthermore, the researchers looked at geographical regions and school district type since access to resources and the size of EL populations across regions and districts may vary. These findings are listed in Table 1 and are included in the implications for future research section.

Recruitment

Participants were recruited through convenience sampling (Johnson & Christensen, 2008) during a six-week window. The researchers recruited school counselors and ESOL teachers through online recruitment (e.g., professional school counselor and ESOL teacher social media platforms and email listservs), flyer distribution, and snowball sampling. The researchers offered participants an opportunity to be included in a random drawing for one of two $25 Amazon gift cards as an incentive.

Participants

The researchers collected 105 original responses and only complete responses were included in the data analysis. After removing incomplete responses, a total of 82 responses were retained for the data analysis. Of these 82, 28 were ESOL teachers and 54 were school counselors; 95% were female, and nearly all participants (96%)

held full time positions in public schools. General demographic information of participants is included in Table 1.

Results

The researchers analyzed the data using IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, (IBM Corp., Armonk, N.Y., USA) and used descriptive statistics (frequencies) and quantitative statistics (ANOVA and Tukey's post hoc analysis) in order to answer the research questions. The small number of participants and the disproportion of responses between school counselors and ESOL teachers means that these results must be treated with caution and considered exploratory. Both school counselors and ESOL teachers were provided instructions prior to starting the semantic differential scale survey to select the term that most accurately described their attitude about or experiences collaborating for EL success with the other. Responses about collaboration and results of the semantic differential scale are provided.

Participation in Collaboration

Nearly all of the participants (92.7%) indicated they often or always collaborated with other stakeholders in general. The study conducted by Gibbons et al. (2010) identified that the school counselor participants' rankings indicate they perceived to collaborate on a regular basis. The researchers of the current study recognize that the results of both investigations indicate all participants engage in collaboration on a regular basis, such as *often* or *always*. Moreover, the authors of the current study perceived the school counselors' responses to be informed by the ASCA National Model's (2012) focus on collaboration. The current study's survey did not ask the

degree to which each group collaborated with the other, so this information is not able to be provided.

Attitudes about Collaboration

School counselors and ESOL teachers have some different and some similar attitudes about collaboration. Items and rankings are presented in Tables 2 and 3 for school counselors and ESOL teachers respectively. Gibbons et al. (2010) classified mean scores above 2.0 to indicate strong preference, mean scores above 1.5 to indicate moderate preference, and means below 1.0 (or – 1.0) to indicate a neutral attitude between the pairs of words. ESOL teachers only showed strong preference toward two items (*needed, preferred*), both positive, in relation to their efforts to collaborate with school counselors. Their moderate scores included other positive terms: *voluntary, positive, valuable, trustworthy,* and *meaningful*. ESOL teachers indicated neutral attitudes in relation to nine items *smooth, decisive, inclusive, overt, equal, stable, defined, simple,* and *neutral*. Alternatively, school counselors showed more strength in positive attitudes toward collaboration with five items ranked above 2.0 (*needed, preferred, valuable, positive,* and *trustworthy*). Moderate strength was evident in eleven items, all positive: *meaningful, pleasant, voluntary, successful, practical, open, inclusive, harmonious,* attentive, active, and *heard*. Seven items indicated a neutral attitude from participants *others, equal, overt, stable, defined, neutral,* and *simple*. Gibbons et al. (2010) reported participants' strong preference toward the positive terms *needed, preferred,* and *valuable* all of which are included in this study's strongly preferred responses of school counselors, whereas ESOL teacher strongly preferred terms only included *needed* and *preferred*.

Multiple ANOVAs were run to examine differences in attitudes about collaboration among school counselors and ESOL teachers. The ANOVA included Levene's test for the assumption of homogeneity of variance. Only one item pair (exclusive – inclusive) showed statistically significant differences, with school counselors (M = 1.61, SD = 1.39) believing more strongly that collaboration with ESOL teachers (M = .86, SD = 1.79) was an inclusive experience [$F(1, 80) = 4.407$, $p = .039$, $\eta_p^2 = .052$]. While statistically significant, the small *n* as well as unequal group sizes in this study requires acknowledgement of the wide response variability as noted in the standard deviation (SD) and also suggests caution with ANOVA interpretation. Additionally, with 33 dependent variables included in the semantic differential scale, the risks of both Type I (false occurrences of significance) and Type II (failure to detect real effects) are dramatically increased (Sprinthall, 2000). In order to better understand this set of participants, the researchers also examined differences in attitude based on geographical region (Northeast, South, Midwest, West), district type (urban, rural, suburban), and years of experience in role as school counselors or ESOL teacher (Table 2) (Table 3).

Geographical Location

Multiple ANOVAs were run based on geographical location. Regions were determined based on the US Census Bureau (2018) categories and included Region I: Northeast (n = 21), Region II: Midwest (n = 12), Region III: South (n = 41), and Region IV: West (n = 7). Of the thirty-three semantic differential pairs, three showed a significant difference based on this factor (Table 4).

Tukey's HSD post hoc analysis revealed a significant difference on *preferred – undesirable* between participants from Northeast and Midwest (p = .024). The mean score for participants in the Northeast was 2.76 compared to the mean score of 1.58 for the Midwest, with standard deviations of .539 and 1.975 respectively. Additionally, follow-up tests indicated a significant difference on *successful – unsuccessful* between participants in the Northeast (m = 2.05, sd = .973) and the Midwest (m = .50, sd = 1.883) (p = .007) and participants in the Midwest (m = .50, sd = 1.883) and the South (m= 1.66, sd = 1.217) (p = .035).

District Type

Multiple ANOVAs were run based on district type (urban, *n* = 16, rural, *n* = 22, suburban, *n* = 43). Only one semantic pair showed a significant difference (subjective – neutral) F [2, 78] = 3.8, p = .027, η_p^2 = .089) Tukey's HSD post hoc analysis on the *subjective – neutral* pair showed a significant difference between urban and rural participants (p = .020). Rural participants had a mean score of -.55 (sd = 1.184) while Urban participants' mean score was .50 (sd = 1.03).

Years of Experience

Multiple ANOVAs were run based on years of experience. No significant difference was identified among responses to the semantic differential scale based on number of years of experience.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the attitudes and perceptions of collaboration between school counselors and ESOL teachers in K-12 school settings. Further, the authors sought to explore demographic factors that may contribute to their

perceptions of collaboration. Statistically significant findings were found when examining attitudes about collaboration and demographic differences, however, all findings should be viewed cautiously due to the small participant size. The majority of school counselors and ESOL teacher participants in this study (92.7%) indicated they often or always collaborated with other stakeholders in general. These findings suggest that school counselors and ESOL teachers engage in collaboration regularly. This is promising and corresponds with previous literature. Gibbons et al. (2010) found that school counselors collaborated regularly with other stakeholders including teachers and administrators.

Both ESOL teachers and school counselors showed strong preferences toward the positive terms *needed* and *preferred* when considering collaborating with one another. Further, the term *positive* was scored moderately by ESOL teachers and had a strong preference by school counselors. These findings could suggest a positive view of collaboration between school counselors and ESOL teachers. Bell and Baecher (2012) found that ESOL teachers desired to collaborate with content teachers and usually engaged in this practice. The findings in the current study highlight that ESOL teachers may also be open to collaborating with school counselors and vice versa. Other categories (geographic location, district type, and degree of collaboration) revealed more significant differences among attitudes about collaboration, although considering the small number of participants and the potential for Type I and Type II errors, the significance must be treated with caution. Some of the post hoc analyses shed more light on these relationships including attitudes across region on *preferred – undesirable* and *successful – unsuccessful*. Participants in the Northeast appeared to perceive collaboration more preferably and more successfully than participants in the Midwest.

Simultaneously, Southern participants considered collaboration more successful than Midwestern participants. Finally, participants working in urban school settings perceived collaboration as more subjective than rural participants. While this study did not investigate the thinking behind participant perceptions, differences by geographical location and district type are noteworthy in that they may indicate variable outcomes and experiences of stakeholders in these contexts.

A recent study conducted by Johnson et al. (2016) found differences in school counselor self-efficacy providing services to ELs to vary by U.S. region and size of EL student population. Bialik et al. (2018) noted that urban districts received more resources for ELs, which led to variation in services and programs by location. The present study's findings could suggest that school location may also influence educator attitudes and beliefs about collaboration for ELs.

Prior literature identified impediments to collaboration in schools. For example, Bell and Baecher (2012) found that, while overwhelmingly ESOL teachers in their study desired to collaborate with content area teachers, their participants cited a variety of obstacles to collaboration including: (a) no established cultures of collaboration at their schools (b) limited value for collaboration and (c) limited time for collaboration in their day. While the findings in the current study focus on participant attitudes about collaboration, further research is warranted to better understand the ways that geographic location, district type, and degree of collaboration impact those attitudes.

Limitations

The findings of this study must be considered in the context of its limitations. The researchers sought to recruit a representative sample of school counselors and ESOL

teachers via online recruitment using school counselor and ESOL teacher listservs. While this convenience sampling (Johnson & Christensen, 2008) generated participation, school counselors and ESOL teachers that do not engage in social media or online memberships were unable to take part in this study. Further, the overall small participant size dilutes the significance of the findings. A total of 105 original responses were collected and 82 responses were retained for the data analysis. Of these final participants, 28 were ESOL teachers and 54 were school counselors contributing to a lack of homogeneity of variance in the data which may increase the chance of Type II error (Salkind, 2007). The findings may have been influenced with more participants or a larger number of ESOL teachers in our sample. Additionally, an overwhelming majority of the participants were female. Further, most participants were from the Southern and Northeastern regions of the U.S. Since ESOL programs, populations, and advocacy may vary according to geographical location; a more geographically diverse sample may have yielded more diverse responses (Johnson et al., 2016).

Implications for Future Research

This study explores school counselor and ESOL teacher attitudes about collaboration. The findings yield factors that can influence educator training, practice and research. First, the results indicate that school counselors and ESOL teachers are open to collaboration with each other. Collaboration can foster problem solving, empowerment, and goal attainment (Friend & Cook, 1992). School counselors and ESOL teachers may learn about their distinct roles via discussions across disciplines (Migliore & Breidenstein, 2003). Additionally, conversations around advocacy specific to EL students may yield opportunities for teachers and counselors to generate

solutions together. Although school counselors and ESOL teachers are open to collaboration, some perceptions about the desire to participate in and success of collaboration varied across regions and district types. School practitioners and stakeholders may want to assess the culture of collaboration within their school settings. Further, factors such as types of services and activities school counselors and ESOL teachers engage in with and on behalf of ELs may also need to be explored (Bialik et al., 2018; Johnson et al., 2016).

Training can also influence collaboration (McKenzie, 2009; Migliore & Breidenstein, 2003). Professional development, particularly in regions or locations with historically smaller EL populations, may be beneficial to help educators learn with and from one another (Migliore & Breidenstein, 2003). School counselor and ESOL teacher preparation programs can also help school counselors and ESOL teachers learn about their unique roles and models of collaboration. For example, inviting ESOL or school counselor educators into classrooms as guest speakers, conducting shared lecture experiences or engaging in common readings about collaboration, advocacy, and ELs can help practitioners-in-training envision how they might collaborate across disciplines in their work. Further, assignments requiring conversation and partnership with school counselors and ESOL teachers may foster collaboration (Migliore & Breidenstein, 2003).

Finally, additional research implications emerge from this study. Exploring factors needed for fruitful collaboration and advocacy with school counselors and ESOL teachers would be beneficial. Studies that explored needs and experiences in different regions or the U.S. or in different types of school systems may also provide additional

understanding. Moreover, studies that investigate the experiences of school counselors and ESOL teachers who collaborate are warranted. These studies may yield insights that assess the contexts, differences, successes and challenges encountered when school counselors and ESOL teachers join forces on behalf of ELs.

Conclusion

School counselors and ESOL teachers are positioned to work together as collaborators and advocates with and on behalf of ELs. It is evident that each profession aligns its mission and services toward collaboration by leveraging each other's strengths to contribute to supporting students. This study examined how school counselors and ESOL teachers perceive collaborative relationships with the other. Additional conversations between school counselors and ESOL teachers to discuss collaborative efforts would be an ideal initial step in building partnerships with the purpose of supporting ELs.

References

Abbott, M. L. (2019). Selecting and adapting tasks for mixed-level English as a second language classes. *TESOL Journal*, *10*(1). https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.386

American School Counselor Association (2019a). The *ASCA National Model: A framework for school counseling programs*, Fourth edition.

American School Counselor Association. (2012). The *ASCA National Model: A framework for school counseling programs*, Third Edition.

American School Counselor Association (2018). The school counselor and multitiered system of supports. *ASCA Position Statements.* https://www.schoolcounselor.org/getmedia/d597c40b-7684-445f-b5ed-713388478486/Position-Statements.pdf

American School Counselor Association (2019b). *ASCA School Counselor Professional Standards & Competencies*. https://www.schoolcounselor.org/getmedia/a8d59c2c-51de-4ec3-a565-a3235f3b93c3/SC-Competencies.pdf

Bialik, K., Scheller, A., & Walker, K. (2018). 6 facts about English language learners in U.S. public schools. Pew Research Center. https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2018/10/25/6-facts-about-english-language-learners-in-u-s-public-schools/

Bell, A. B. & Baecher, L. (2012). Points on a continuum: ESL teachers reporting on collaboration. *TESOL Journal*, 3.3, 488-515.

Calvery, S.V, & Hyun, J. H. (2013). Sustaining education through enhanced collaboration between teachers and school counselors. *Educational Research Journal, 28*(1), 125-144.

Chang, C. Y., Barrio Minton, C. A., Dixon, A. L., Myers, J. E., & Sweeney, T. J. (2012). *Professional counseling excellence through leadership and advocacy*. Routledge.

Cummins, J. (2008). BICS and CALP: Empirical and theoretical status of the distinction. In *Encyclopedia of Language and Education* (2nd ed., Vol. 2, pp. 487-499). Springer Science. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-0-387-30424-3_36

de Oliviera, L. C. & Athanases, S. Z. (2007). Graduates' reports of advocating for English language learners. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 58, 202-215, https://doi/org/10.1177/0022487107299978

Dubetz, N. E. & de Jong, E. J. (2011). Teacher advocacy in bilingual programs. *Bilingual Research Journal, 34*(3), 248-262. https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2011.623603

Friend, M., & Cook, L. (1990). Collaboration as a predictor for success in school reform. *Journal of Education and Psychological Consultation*, *1*(1), 69–86. https://doi.org/10.1207/s1532768xjepc0101_4

Friend, M., & Cook, L. (1992). *Interactions: Collaboration skills for school professionals*. Longman Publishing Group.

Genesee, F., Lindholm-Leary, K., Saunders, W., & Christian, D. (2005). English Language Learners in U.S. Schools: An overview of research findings. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, *10*(4), 363–385. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327671espr1004_2

Gibbons, M. M., Diambra, J. F., & Buchanan, D. K. (2010). School counselor perceptions and attitudes about collaboration. *Journal of School Counseling, 8*(34). http://www.jsc.montana.edu/articles/v8n34.pdf

Hamilton-Jones, B. & Vail, C. O. (2013). Preparing special educators for collaboration in the classroom: Pre-service teachers beliefs and perspectives. *International Journal of Special Education, 28*(1), 56 - 68. https://internationalsped.com/index.php/ijse/issue/view/9/7

Haneda, M., & Alexander, M. (2015). ESL teacher advocacy beyond the classroom. *Teaching & Teacher Education, 49,* 149-158. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2015.03.009

Harrison, J. & McIlwain, M. (2020). ESOL teachers' perceptions of their role as advocate: Making the case for transitive advocacy. *TESOL Journal 11*(33). https://doi.org/10.1002.tesj.464

Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2008). Methods of data collection. In *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative and mixed approaches* (pp. 199-219). Sage Publications.

Johnson, L. V., Ziomek-Daigle, J., Haskins, N. H., and Paisley, P. O. (2016). An investigation of school counselor self-efficacy with English language learners. *Professional School Counseling, 20*(1). https://doi.org/10.5330/1096-2409-20.1.44

Johnson, L. V., Tuttle, M., Harrison, J., & Shell, M. (2018). Response to intervention for English learners: A framework for school counselors. *Journal of School Counseling, 16*(17). http://www.jsc.montana.edu/articles/v16n17.pdf

Kaufman, D. & Brooks, J. G. (1996). Interdisciplinary collaboration in teacher education: A Constructivist approach. *TESOL Quarterly, 30*(2), 231-251. https://www.jstor.org/stable/3588142

Linville, H.A. (2016). ESOL teachers as advocates: An important role? *TESOL Journal, 7*(1), 98-131. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.193

McKenzie, R. G. (2009). A national survey of pre-service preparation for collaboration. *Teacher Education and Special Education, 32*(4), 379-393. https://doi.org/10.1177/0888406409346241

Migliore, E. T. & Breidenstein, A. (2003). Learning to consult and collaborate in the high school: A two-year study of perceptions from university student team members. *Networks: An online Journal for Teacher Research, 6*(2). https://doi.org/10.4148/2470-6353.1155

Migration Policy Institute (2015). States and districts with the highest number and share of English language learners. https://www.migrationpolicy.org/sites/default/files/publications/ELL-FactSheet-No5.pdf

Park-Taylor, J., Walsh, M. E., & Ventura, A. B. (2007). Creating healthy acculturation pathways: Integrating theory and research to inform counselors' work with immigrant children. *Professional School Counseling*, *11*(1), 25–34. https://doi.org/10.1177/2156759x0701100104

Ratts, M. J., Singh, A. A., Nassar-Mcmillan, S., Butler, S. K., & Mccullough, J. R. (2016). Multicultural and social justice counseling competencies: Guidelines for

the counseling profession. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, *44*(1), 28–48. https://doi.org/10.1002/jmcd.12035

Rosenfield, S., Newell, M. Zwolski, S. & Benishek, L. W. (2018). Evaluating problem-solving teams in K-12 schools: Do they work? *American Psychologist, 73*(4), 407-419. https://doi.org/10/1037/amp0000254

Salkind, N. J. (2007) *Statistics for People Who Think They Hate Statistics.* Sage Publications.

Sprinthall, R. (2000). Basic statistics, 6th edition. Allyn & Bacon.

Staehr-Fenner, D. (2014). *Advocating for English language learners: A guide for educators.* Corwin Press.

Suarez, M. & Dominguez, M. (2015). “Carrying that weight”: ESL teacher negotiations toward advocacy and equity. *Radical Pedagogy, 12*(2), p. 46 - 67.

Tuttle, M., Yordy, M., Appling, B., & Hanley, E. (2018). School counselor and school nurse collaboration: Partnering for K-12 student success. *Journal of School Counseling, 16*(4). http://www.jsc.montana.edu/articles/v16n4.pdf

U.S. Census Bureau (2018). Geographic areas reference manual. https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/geography/guidance/geographic-areas-reference-manual.html

U.S. Department of Education (2015). Ensuring English learner students can participate meaningfully and equally in educational programs. https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/docs/dcl-factsheet-el-students-201501.pdf

U.S. Department of Education (2017). Newcomer tool kit. https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/oela/newcomers-toolkit/ncomertoolkit.pdf

U.S. Department of Justice & U.S. Department of Education (no date). Ensuring English learner students can participate meaningfully and equally in educational programs. https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/ocr/docs/dcl-factsheet-el-students-201501.pdf

Appendix

Table 1

General Demographic Information of Participants

Demographic	Response Options	Responses
Race/Ethnicity	White/Caucasian	62
	Hispanic/Latinx	4
	Declined to Identify	1
	Black/African American	9
	Asian	1
	Native American	1
	Bi/multiracial	4
Geographic Location*	Region 1: Northeast	21
	Region 2: Midwest	12
	Region 3: South	41
	Region 4: West	7
School district type*	Urban	16
	Rural	22
	Suburban	43
Number of ELLs currently serving	< 20	24
	20 – 50	24
	51 – 100	18
	100+	16

Demographic	Response Options	Responses
Number of ELLs served in career	< 20	12
	20 – 50	13
	50 – 100	7
	> 100	34
	>1000	16
Number of years in the field	0-5	30
	6-10	16
	11-15	11
	16-20	11
	21-25	8
	26-30	4
	31+	2

* One participant omitted response to this demographic question

Table 2

Semantic Differential Ratings, ESOL Teachers, From Highest to Lowest Strengths in Attitudes (-3 to +3)

		Inventory Score	
Negative or Weaker Word	**Positive or Stronger Word**	***M***	***SD***
Unnecessary	Needed	2.11	1.37
Undesirable	Preferred	2.07	1.48
Forced	Voluntary	1.96	1.66
Negative	Positive	1.89	1.52
Worthless	Valuable	1.64	1.74
Untrustworthy	Trustworthy	1.61	1.61
Pointless	Meaningful	1.57	1.75
Indirect	Direct	1.46	1.47
Closed	Open	1.46	1.66
Passive	Active	1.43	1.57
Absent	Attentive	1.43	1.66
Impractical	Practical	1.43	1.64
Self	Others	1.39	1.54
Unpleasant	Pleasant	1.36	1.70
Static	Dynamic	1.32	1.56
Argumentative	Harmonious	1.32	1.54
Unsuccessful	Successful	1.29	1.74
Undetected	Heard	1.25	1.66
Reactive	Proactive	1.25	1.89
Weak	Strong	1.21	1.79
Unilateral	Joint	1.18	1.92

Negative or Weaker Word	Positive or Stronger Word	Inventory Score	
		M	***SD***
Unshared	Common	1.14	1.60
Powerless	Powerful	1.07	1.65
Constrained	Free	1.04	1.66
Rough	Smooth	0.96	1.64
Indecisive	Decisive	0.89	1.61
Exclusive	Inclusive	0.86	1.79
Covert	Overt	0.79	1.50
Unequal	Equal	0.79	1.95
Changeable	Stable	0.32	1.80
Vague	Defined	0.29	1.86
Complex	Simple	0.07	1.78
Subjective	Neutral	-0.29	1.24

Table 3

Semantic Differential Ratings, School Counselors, From Highest to Lowest Strengths in Attitudes (-3 to +3)

		Inventory Score	
Negative or Weaker Word	**Positive or Stronger Word**	***M***	***SD***
Unnecessary	Needed	2.44	0.634
Undesirable	Preferred	2.35	0.935
Worthless	Valuable	2.13	0.87
Negative	Positive	2.06	1.054
Untrustworthy	Trustworthy	2.04	0.971
Pointless	Meaningful	1.98	1.124
Unpleasant	Pleasant	1.87	1.1
Unsuccessful	Successful	1.8	1.053
Impractical	Practical	1.74	1.136
Closed	Open	1.63	1.121
Exclusive	Inclusive	1.61	1.393
Argumentative	Harmonious	1.59	1.141
Undetected	Heard	1.56	1.223
Absent	Attentive	1.54	1.161
Passive	Active	1.52	1.356
Powerless	Powerful	1.48	1.24
Unilateral	Joint	1.46	1.473
Indirect	Direct	1.46	1.255
Weak	Strong	1.37	1.293
Static	Dynamic	1.26	1.169

Negative or Weaker Word	Positive or Stronger Word	Inventory Score	
		M	***SD***
Reactive	Proactive	1.22	1.436
Unshared	Common	1.22	1.284
Rough	Smooth	1.19	1.245
Constrained	Free	1.19	1.214
Indecisive	Decisive	1.15	1.235
Self	Others	0.96	1.331
Unequal	Equal	0.91	1.377
Covert	Overt	0.87	1.182
Changeable	Stable	0.56	1.645
Vague	Defined	0.48	1.526
Subjective	Neutral	0.06	1.188
Complex	Simple	-0.56	1.712

Table 4

Significant Semantic Differential Scales by Geographic Region

Semantic Pair	ANOVA Results
Preferred – undesirable	[F(3,77) = 3.02, p = .035*, partial eta squared ηp 2 = .105]
Successful – unsuccessful	[F(3,77) = 4.094, p = .009*, partial eta squared ηp 2 = .138]

*p < .05